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About the Journal

Pertanika is an international peer-reviewed journal devoted to the publication of original papers, and it serves as a forum for practical approaches to improving quality in issues pertaining to tropical agriculture and its related fields. Pertanika began publication in 1978 as the Journal of Tropical Agricultural Science. In 1992, a decision was made to streamline Pertanika into three journals to meet the need for specialised journals in areas of study aligned with the interdisciplinary strengths of the university.

The revamped Journal of Social Sciences & Humanities (JSSH) aims to develop as a pioneer journal for the Social Sciences with a focus on emerging issues pertaining to the social and behavioural sciences as well as the humanities, particularly in the Asia Pacific region. Other Pertanika series include Pertanika Journal of Tropical Agricultural Science (JTAS); and Pertanika Journal of Science and Technology (JST).

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Foreword

Welcome to the **Second Issue 2013** of the Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities (JSSH)!

JSSH is an open access journal for the social sciences & humanities published by Universiti Putra Malaysia Press. It is independently owned and managed by the university and run on a non-profit basis for the benefit of the world-wide social science community.

In this issue, there are **29 articles** published; out of which **16 articles** are regular articles and **13 articles** are from international conferences. There are **7 articles** arising from the International Conference on Role of Humanities & Social Sciences in Holistic Development of Future Technocrats-Looking Ahead (RHSSFT 2011) and **6 articles** arising from an International Conference on English Language Teaching “Teaching English as Performing Art” ICELT 2011. The authors of these articles vary in country of origin (Malaysia, Iran, China, Taiwan and India).

The regular articles cover a wide range of topics, from a research conducted to identify factors which contribute to individual capacity building levels among women entrepreneurs (*Nurfazreen Aina Muhamad Nasharudin, Ma’rof Redzuan and Abd Razak Abd Rahman*), a study on application of human computer interaction in developing an IT-supported design collaboration process (*Naeimeh Delavari, Muhamad Taufik Abdullah, Rahinah Ibrahim and Normahdiah S. Said*), a study investigates the representation of time and space in Isabella Bird’s *The Golden Chersonese and the Way Thither* (1883), her travel narrative onto Malaya, through a Bakhtinian discussion of the chronotope (*Forough Barani and Wan Roselezam Wan Yahya*), a study to investigate family caregivers’ experiences of caring to a schizophrenia patient in the northern part of Malaysia (*Hoesni, S. M., Subhi, N., Sheau Tsuey Chong, Sarnon and N., Nen, S.*), to research on Islamic finance on *Sukuk* securities and conventional bonds: Evidence of significant differences (*Meysam Safari, Mohamed Ariff and Shamsher M.*).

The research studies include topics related to language and linguistics, education and communication; a study on interpretations of history in early twenty-first century Arabic fiction: A critical analysis of al-Saqqaf’s *Qissat Irhabi* (*Riyad Manqoush, Noraini Md. Yusof and Ruzy Suliza Hashim*), a study seeks to investigate challenges faced by ESL teachers in developing students’ speaking skills (*Clarvie M. Charles Spawa and Fauziah Hassan*), a paper provides an analysis of written feedback on ESL student writers’ academic essays to shed light on how feedback acts as a communicative tool between the lecturer and students (*Kelly Tee Pei Leng, Vijay Kumar and Mardziah Hayati Abdullah*), a study intends to explore the cultural similarities and differences between the lion metaphors in Mandarin Chinese and British English (*Wei, L. X, Wong, B. E and Lim, C. B.*), a study on engaging ESL

students in the writing classroom through the multiliteracy approach (*Malini Ganapathy and Sarjit Kaur*), a study on postgraduate students-supervisor interface: Issues and Challenges (*Haliza Mohd Riji, Syed Tajuddin Syed Hasan, Shamsuddin Ahmad*), a study comparing the physical activity of Malaysian Malay Men and Women before, during, and after Ramadan (*Soh Kim Geok, Aminuddin bin Yusof, Nur Surayyah Madhubala Abdullah, Soh Kim Lam and Ong Swee Leong*), a study investigates the relationship between sources and teachers' sense of efficacy among novice teachers in Selangor, Malaysia (*Saw Hooi Chin, Samsilah Roslan, Suhaida Abdul Kadir and Rahil Mahyuddin*), a study on learning styles in higher education (*Chai Foong Teng, Zaidatul Akmaliah Lope Pihie, Soaib bin Asimiran and Rosnani Jusoh*), a study envisaged in determining the relationship between the intensity of Facebook usage and social capital among undergraduates at Universiti Putra Malaysia (*Hanina H. Hamsan, Matthew Naveen Kumar and Mohamad Ibrani Shahrimin*) and an essay examines the non-violent rhetorical situation of the Chipko movement in India (*Mat Nayan, S.*).

The 7 articles arising from the (RHSSFT 2011); art of speaking – an impression of man: analysing the need for communication and soft skills (*Maneeta Kahlon*), motivation, challenges and success factors of entrepreneurs: an empirical analysis (*Mukta Mani Gupta*), soft skills – an employee development tool in private banks (*Kusum Ahlawat, Swati Kaul and O.P Ahlawat*), improving organisational communication in the era of globalisation (*Deshpande P.P*), the journey of 'communication' from its evolution to its exploiters (*Acharya, S*) financial literacy of new job entrants (*Anupriya Kaur, Niti Mittal and Sanchita Agarwal*) and a study on the street vendors of Kathmandu municipality (*Neera Shrestha*).

I conclude this issue with 6 articles arising from the ICELT 2011 conference; the effects of the genre-based approach on engineering students' writing ability (*Piyatida Changpueng*), assessing the teaching and learning performance of english freshmen courses by applying data envelopment analysis and management matrix (*Bernard Montoneri, Chia-Chi Lee, Tyrone T. Lin, and Shio-Ling Huang*), theatre performance for oral communicative competence (*Lizzy Manjooran and Resmi C. B.*), exploring multilingual practices in billboard advertisements in a linguistic landscape (*Aini Andria Shirin Anuarudin, Chan Swee Heng and Ain Nadzimah Abdullah*), usefulness of the english language teaching textbook evaluation checklist (*Vahid Nimehchisalem and Jayakaran Mukundan*), genre analysis of the literature review section in hospitality and management research articles (*Shameem Rafik-Galea, Geraldine de Mello, and Nalini Arumugam*).

I anticipate that you will find the evidence presented in this issue to be intriguing, thought provoking, and hopefully useful in setting up new milestones. Please recommend the journal to your colleagues and students to make this endeavour meaningful.

I would also like to express my gratitude to all the contributors; namely the authors, reviewers and editors for their professional contributions who have made this issue feasible. Last but not the least the editorial assistance of the journal division staff is fully appreciated.

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

Chief Executive Editor

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Family Experiences of Caring among Caregivers of Schizophrenia Patients

Mohamad, M. S. *, Hoesni, S. M., Subhi, N., Sheau Tsuey Chong, Sarnon, N. and Nen, S.

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ABSTRACT

The study aimed to investigate family caregivers' experiences of caring to a schizophrenia patient in the northern part of Malaysia. The family caregiving experiences from different ethnic groups in Malaysia were compared between urban and rural dwellers. Overall, there were 154 family caregivers who completed the questionnaires comprising standardised measures of the Experiences of Caregiving Inventory (ECI) and the Life Skills Profiles (LSP-39). Malay women were found to be the majority of the caregivers in this study who mostly came from the rural area. This study found that the majority of caregivers were Malay women who live in the rural area. Most of the caregivers identified themselves as parents aged 50 years and above. Predictors of negative appraisal for family caregivers were identified: (1) younger patient, (2) unemployed patient, (3) family with low income and (4) patient with low life skills. Meanwhile, predictors of positive appraisal include: (1) married patient, (2) patient with good like skills, (3) monthly income above RM800 and (4) dwelling in urban area. Interestingly, the life skills profile becomes a strong predictor for negative and positive appraisals. These predictors should assist community health workers when working with the family caregivers of schizophrenia patient.

Keywords: Caregivers, caring, multi-dimensional, schizophrenia

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INTRODUCTION

Internationally, the care of mental health patients has changed dramatically over the last decade. Community care emerged as a philosophy in the locus of treatment to mentally ill patients. Following this trend, there has been a decrease in the number

of mental health patients in Malaysian institution-based mental health care. In the West, one of the documented effects of deinstitutionalisation and the development of community care is that there is an increasing number of families involved in taking care of patients with severe mental illness including schizophrenia (Lefley *et al.*, 1996). In general, schizophrenia is classified as a chronic mental health disease in Malaysia as well as around the world (Mohamad & Carpenter, 2010). Researchers of family caregiving stated that family caregivers not only provide the basic needs of care, including long-term assistance in housing and financial aid, but also as agents in the rehabilitation process (Hsio & Riper, 2010; Marsh & Johnson, 1997; Sun & Cheung, 1997). However, previous studies have argued that some of the families are untrained and unprepared to provide ongoing care to support their mentally ill relatives (Doornbos, 2002; Maglione *et al.*, 2005; Yip, 2003). It has also been noted that the family caregivers experienced 'burden' and struggle to manage unexpected situations, especially in societies that provide limited support to the mental health patients (Lefley, 1998; Marsh, 1999). Yet, the conceptualisation of 'burden' has been proven elusive and it is frequently criticised for being broad, negative and pessimistic in family caregiving research (Szmukler *et al.*, 1996; Awad & Voruganti, 2008). A previous research has suggested that family caregivers do not necessarily experienced burden (Chen & Greenberg, 2004; Joyce *et al.*, 2000). Szmukler *et al.* (1996)

developed the Experiences of Caregiving Inventory (ECI) to tape the aspects of family caregiving, both positive and negative. They used the stress and coping paradigm by Lazarus and Folkman (1984) to explore the family caregiver's experiences to a person diagnosed with schizophrenia. Mohamad and Carpenter (2010) noted that there is a positive emotion in the stress and coping framework of family caregivers, in which it allows individuals to positively appraise their experiences based on their coping resources. In addition, Szmukler *et al.* (1996) noted that the positive appraisal of family caregiving is associated with the patients' Life Skill Profile (LSP). The appraisal of caregiving refers to the way people perceive their experiences based on three factors, namely, are coping abilities, social support and good services, when caring for someone with mental health problems in their community (Szmukler *et al.*, 1996). LSP attempts to emphasize patients' life skills inclusive of good and poor rather than their lack of skills (Rosen *et al.*, 1989). In other words, the good life skills refer to things that the patients can do, while the poor life skills refer to what they cannot do.

According to the World Health Organization (2001), community mental health services need to provide comprehensive and locally based treatment and care, which is readily accessible to people with mental illness and their families. However, the fact that the public mental health budget in many countries is directed towards maintaining institutional care

means that only few or no resources are available for more effective services in the community. In Malaysia, particularly, there are large variations between regions, and between rural and urban areas, where community mental health care facilities are usually found only in large city (Deva, 2004). Zahiruddin and Salleh (2005) found that the prevalence of burden experienced by caregivers in the semi-urban area was extensive with 40% of severe subjective burden (emotional distress) and 35.6% of objective burden (reality problems) to deal with the treatment and services, balance competing family needs, and manage their responses to difficult behaviours. Deva (2004) argued that Malaysian families choose to look after sick relatives at home and see the hospital as the last choice but the situation is reported to be different with mental illness, where they prefer their relative to be admitted into an institution. This might be because mental illness is often misinterpreted in the Malaysian society (Malaysian Psychiatric Association, 2005). For centuries, it has been seen as possession by evil spirits, moral weakness or punishment from a higher being or God (Haque, 2005). Those seen as suffering from mental illness are commonly perceived as restless, violent and unpredictable (Chang & Horrocks, 2006; Merican *et al.*, 2004). Moreover, mental illness is seen as a family problem rather than a societal problem in Chinese families (Yang, 2007; Yip, 2003). The Chinese believe that mental illness is caused by problems related to self-worthiness, which is measured by

the material achievement (these include education, occupation and monetary gain) that brings the expected honour to the family (Haque, 2005). Deva (2004) noted that the Malay families believe that mental illness is not merely regarded as a medical illness but as a spirit possession or as a social punishment (Deva, 2004). In addition, Indians believe that evildoers could cast a spell on an individual to make them ill (Haque, 2005). Therefore, the concepts of mental illness and mental health continue to be based on mythology, and are socially or culturally unacceptable in Malaysia.

By considering all the factors that may influence the caregiving experiences by Malaysian families, this study is crucially needed to explore the experiences of caregiving between ethnic groups, and between rural and urban caregivers. Therefore, this study aimed to gain an understanding of the multi-dimensional experiences of Malaysian family caregivers whilst caring for their mentally ill relatives at home. This study hypothesised that the Malay caregivers, who are living in rural area, are more likely to appraise negatively towards their experience of caregiving as compared to the Chinese and Indian caregivers who live in the urban area.

METHODS

This quantitative study used a survey to identify the family caregivers' experiences of caregiving to a patient with schizophrenia. Prior to the data collection, the ethical approval and administrative clearance were obtained from the Malaysia National

Medical Research. All family caregivers caring for patients with schizophrenia, who attended Community Clinics in two areas, the city of Ipoh, Perak in February–April 2008 and the district of Pendang, Kedah in May–July 2008, were approached for participation in the study. The participants were living with patients with schizophrenia and were the main caregivers. Schizophrenic patients who had a substance-abused history were excluded. This was to avoid the study from becoming more complex because of the effects of social problems related to substance abuse. The main caregivers identified to have been taking care of a patient with schizophrenia for at least six months from their discharge from the mental health institution.

The participants were administered using the Malay versions of the Experience of Caregiving Inventory (ECI) and the Life Skills Profile (LSP-39). The back-to-back translation technique was used to translate the English version of the ECI and the LSP-39 into the Malay version. The ECI is a self-administered instrument with 66 items that explores the caregivers' appraisal of the caregiving experience suitable for the population that needs studies and also as an outcome measure for service developments. The items are scored on a 5-point Likert scale. It comprises ten subscales, eight negative (difficult behaviours; negative symptoms; stigma; problems with services; effects on family; need to backup; dependency; loss) and two positive subscales (rewarding personal experiences; good aspects of relationship

with the patient). The total scores of the ECI negative sub-scales ranged from 32–148 and the ECI positive total scores ranged from 6–55. The Cronbach's alpha ranged from 0.67 to 0.93 for the ECI negative sub-scales and the ECI positive sub-scales ranged from 0.75 to 0.86. These alpha values were slightly lower than the original scores developed by Szmukler *et al.* (1996).

The LSP-39 was used for non-clinical users to measure those aspects of functioning or life skills which affected how successfully people with mental illness lived in the community or hospital (Rosen *et al.*, 1989). The LSP-39 has positive subscales such as self-care, non-turbulence and social contact. The negative subscales of the LSP-39 are communication and responsibility. It contains 39 individual items that were worded to focus on specific behaviours rather than general dimensions. The items were scored on a 4-point Likert scale. The total scores ranged from 68–155. The total score of the Cronbach's alpha coefficient was 0.84 for internal consistency. This is important, as the alpha value ranging between 0.68 and 0.89 is considered reliable with the samples in this study.

RESULTS

Characteristics of the caregivers

In total, 154 out of 200 caregivers participated in this research and almost 80% were female, who mostly aged between 41–60 years; the vast majority were Malay and dwelling in the rural area; most were married. More than half of the caregivers have had primary level education and less

than half are employed, especially in the rural area. The relationships of the carers to persons with mental illness are parents, spouse and siblings. About 57.1% of the families have a household income more than RM500 per month and over two-third have more than four members in their household. The association between caregivers' backgrounds in the different areas showed that two-third of the Malays are living in the rural area, whereby the urban carers have higher income as compared to the rural

carers who have larger household size (see Table 1).

Only the proportions of the ethnic groups, relationship status, household income and household size were significantly different between the two areas. Nonetheless, it is shown in Table 2 that there are no significant differences between ethnicity and caregivers' background, except for household income ($\chi^2=8.59$, $p<0.005$) and household size ($\chi^2=13.74$, $p<0.005$).

TABLE 1
The relationship between Carer's Demographic Profile and Area

Characteristics	Urban Area (n= 61)		Rural Area (n= 93)		Total (n= 154)		Test for association
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	
Gender							$X^2 = 0.01$
Male	12	19.7	19	20.4	31	20.1	$df = 1$
Female	49	80.3	74	79.6	123	79.9	$p = 0.909$
Age Group (Year)							$X^2 = 4.20$
≤ 40	9	14.8	17	18.7	26	16.9	$df = 2$
41 to 60	48	78.7	59	64.8	108	70.1	$p = 0.122$
> 60	4	6.6	15	16.5	20	13	
Ethnic Group							$X^2 = 43.55$
Malay	31	50.8	89	98.7	120	77.9	$df = 2$
Chinese	24	39.3	4	4.3	28	18.2	$p < 0.001$
Indian	6	9.8	0	0	6	3.9	
Marital Status							$X^2 = 2.46$
Single	5	8.2	5	5.4	10	6.5	$df = 2$
Married	51	83.6	85	91.4	136	88.3	$p = 0.293$
Other	5	8.2	3	3.2	8	5.2	
Relationship with relative							$X^2 = 13.35$
Parents	39	63.9	51	54.8	90	58.4	$df = 2$
Spouse	6	9.8	31	33.3	37	24	$p < 0.001$
Other	16	26.2	11	11.8	27	17.5	
Education Level							$X^2 = 0.06$
Primary	36	59	53	57	89	57.8	$df = 1$
Secondary/Tertiary	25	41	40	43	65	42.2	$p = 0.803$
Job Status							$X^2 = 1.64$
Employed	32	52.5	39	41.9	71	46.1	$df = 1$
Unemployed	29	47.5	54	58.1	83	53.9	$p = 0.200$
Monthly Income (RM)							$X^2 = 19.55$
≤ 500	13	21.3	53	57	66	42.9	$df = 2$
501 to 800	22	36.1	21	22.6	43	27.9	$p < 0.001$
> 801	26	42.6	19	20.4	45	29.2	
Household Size							$X^2 = 6.35$
≤ Four	24	39.3	23	24.7	47	30.5	$df = 2$
Five	33	54.1	53	57	86	55.8	$p = 0.042$
≥ Six	4	6.6	17	18.3	21	13.6	

TABLE 2
The relationship between Carer's Demographic Profile and Ethnicity

Characteristics	Malay (n = 120)		Non-Malay (n= 34)		Total (n= 154)		Test for association
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	
Gender							$X^2=0.80$
Male	26	21.7	5	14.7	31	20.1	df=1
Female	94	78.3	29	85.3	123	79.9	p=0.372
Age Group (Year)							$X^2=2.27$
≤ 40	23	19.2	3	8.8	26	16.9	df=2
41 to 60	81	67.5	27	79.4	108	70.1	p=0.322
> 60	16	13.3	4	11.8	20	13.0	
Area of living							$X^2=43.13$
Urban	31	25.8	30	88.2	61	39.6	df=1
Rural	89	74.2	4	11.8	93	60.4	p<0.001
Marital Status							$X^2=1.18$
Single	8	6.7	2	5.9	10	6.5	df=2
Married	107	89.2	29	85.3	136	88.3	p=0.555
Other	5	4.2	3	18.8	8	5.2	
Relationship with relative							$X^2=2.10$
Parents	68	56.7	22	64.7	90	58.4	df=2
Spouse	32	26.7	5	14.7	37	24.0	p=0.349
Other	20	16.6	7	20.6	27	17.6	
Education Level							$X^2=2.82$
Primary	68	56.7	21	61.8	89	57.8	df=1
Secondary/Tertiary	52	43.3	13	38.2	65	42.2	p=0.595
Job Status							$X^2=0.43$
Employed	57	47.5	14	41.2	71	46.1	df=1
Unemployed	63	52.5	20	58.8	83	53.9	p=0.514
Monthly Income (RM)							$X^2=8.59$
≤ 500	58	48.3	8	23.5	66	42.9	df=2
501 to 800	33	27.5	10	29.4	43	27.9	p=0.014
> 801	29	24.2	16	47.1	45	29.2	
Household Size							$X^2=13.74$
≤ Four	29	24.2	18	52.9	47	30.5	df=2
Five	70	58.3	16	47.1	86	55.8	p<0.001
≥ Six	21	17.5	0	0	21	13.6	

Carers' Negative Appraisal of Caregiving

The results of the univariate analysis of predictors are shown in Table 3. Statistically significant predictors for carers' negative appraisal are associated with patient's characteristics, such as younger age and being unemployed, as well as the total score of LSP-39. These findings suggested

that carers negatively appraised their experience when their relatives had poor social life skills, no jobs and were of younger age. Furthermore, there was no statistically significant association with the carers' characteristics in the prediction of their negative experience of caregiving, as measured by the ECI negative subscales.

TABLE 3
Predictors on the total score of the ECI negative

Predictor Variables	B	Std. Error	Beta	<i>t</i>	<i>P</i>	95% Confidence Interval for B	
(Constant)	538.54	46.72		11.53	<0.001	446.17	630.92
LSP-39 Score	-95.65	9.50	-0.61	-10.08	<0.001	-114.42	-76.89
<u>Characteristics of the Carer</u>							
Living in rural area	3.82	5.00	0.05	0.77	0.445	-6.05	13.70
Age	0.34	0.21	0.12	1.63	0.104	-0.71	0.74
Male	2.33	4.05	0.03	0.58	0.566	-5.67	10.33
Parent	-1.94	3.48	-0.04	-0.56	0.578	-8.81	4.94
Monthly Household Income	-0.94	1.79	-0.03	-0.53	0.600	-4.48	2.60
<u>Characteristics of the Patient</u>							
Age	-0.77	0.25	-0.24	-3.10	0.002	-1.26	-0.28
Male	1.94	4.05	0.03	0.48	0.632	-6.06	9.95
Malay	4.55	3.70	0.08	1.23	0.221	-2.76	11.86
Married	3.19	3.18	0.07	1.01	0.317	-3.09	9.48
Unemployed	13.34	3.71	0.21	3.59	0.001	6.00	20.68
Duration of illness	-0.84	2.14	-0.03	-0.39	0.696	-5.06	3.39

Adjusted R Square = 0.593

The multivariate analysis was performed with all these potential predictor variables. The resulting model is shown in Table 4. It can be seen that once again, the Life Skills Profile is a strong predictor. There is also a significant contribution on the ECI negative scores associated with patient's age and patient's employment status. These results indicate that the caregivers' appraisal of caregiving would be more negative if their relative was younger, unemployed and lower ability in social life skills. All the variables accounted for 58.8% of the variance in the total ECI negative scores. This indicates that only the service user's characteristics and the LSP-39 predict the caregiver's negative appraisal of caregiving.

Carers' Positive Appraisal of Caregiving

Table 5 shows that there are four significant predictors associated with the total ECI positive scores. Two of the predictors are the caregivers' characteristics: living in rural area and having household income of more than RM800 per month. The other predictor was the total score of the LSP-39, which is the strongest predictor for the carers' positive appraisal. None of the service user's characteristics, except for the married patients, is a significant predictor for the caregiver's positive experience of caregiving. In all the cases, except for living in the rural areas, others are positively associated with the positive appraisal of caregiving. In conclusion, carers positively

TABLE 4
Multivariate Model for caregiver's negative appraisal of caregiving

Predictor Variables	B	Std. Error	Beta	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	95% Confidence Interval for B	
(Constant)	562.70	42.30		13.30	<.001	479.11	646.29
LSP-39 Score	-98.24	8.8	-0.63	-11.16	<.001	-115.64	-80.84
Age of patient	-0.59	0.18	-0.18	-3.38	<.001	-0.94	-0.25
Unemployed patient	12.72	3.50	0.20	3.64	<.001	5.81	19.64

Adjusted R Square = 0.588

TABLE 5
Predictors on the total score of the ECI positive

Predictor Variables	B	Std. Error	Beta	<i>T</i>	<i>p</i>	95% Confidence Interval for B	
(Constant)	-138.29	25.97		-5.33	0.000	-189.62	-86.95
LSP-39 Score	33.73	5.28	0.51	6.39	<0.001	23.30	44.16
<u>Characteristics of Carer</u>							
Living in the rural area	-10.15	2.78	-0.34	-3.65	<0.001	-15.63	-4.66
Age	0.12	0.11	0.10	1.05	0.296	-0.11	0.35
Male	-0.10	2.25	-0.003	-0.04	0.965	-4.55	4.35
Parent	-2.38	1.93	-0.12	-1.23	0.221	-6.20	1.44
Monthly Household Income	2.21	1.0	0.18	2.22	0.028	0.24	4.18
<u>Characteristics of the Patient</u>							
Age	0.03	0.14	0.02	0.23	0.822	-0.24	0.31
Male	-0.36	2.25	-0.01	0.16	0.874	-4.81	4.09
Malay	-3.54	2.06	-0.14	-1.72	0.088	-7.60	0.53
Married	4.11	1.77	0.20	2.33	0.022	0.61	7.60
Unemployed	1.93	2.06	0.07	0.94	0.350	-2.15	6.01
Duration of illness	-0.13	1.19	-0.01	-0.11	0.915	-2.47	2.22

Adjusted R Square = 0.298

appraised their caregiving experiences when they were living in the urban area, earning more than RM800 a month, and have had relatives who are married and possess greater social life skills.

As shown in Table 6, the multivariate analysis was performed with all these potential predictor variables for predicting the positive appraisal of caregiving. The Life Skills Profile was again the strongest predictor. There is also a significant

contribution on the ECI positive scores associated with caregivers living in the rural area and patients who are married. These variables accounted for 29.3% of the variance. Therefore, this indicated that caregivers positively appraised their experience of caregiving when they were living in the urban area and caring for a married patient who had good social life skills.

TABLE 6
Multivariate model for caregiver's positive appraisal of caregiving

Predictor Variables	B	Std. Error	Beta	<i>T</i>	<i>P</i>	95% Confidence Interval for B	
(Constant)	-124.09	21.88		-5.67	0.000	-167.33	-80.85
LSP-39 Score	32.38	4.59	0.49	7.06	<0.001	23.32	41.44
Rural area of living	-7.88	2.44	-0.26	-3.23	0.002	-12.70	-3.05
Household Income	1.32	0.89	0.11	1.48	0.140	-0.44	3.07
Patient who is married	3.19	1.57	0.16	2.03	0.044	0.08	6.30

Adjusted R Square = 0.293

DISCUSSION

This study of the experience of caregiving to a person diagnosis with schizophrenia is probably one of the first studies using the experience of the caregiving inventory to have been completed in Malaysia. It is also unusual in two other respects. First, it compared between three different ethnic groups, namely, Malay, Chinese and Indian. Second, the data were collected in two different areas, namely, urban and rural. However, as the data were selected from two community clinics in two states, the findings of the study could not represent the country as a whole.

In this study, the survey data showed that there was no relationship between the appraisals of caregiving, as indicated in the ECI, and the different ethnic groups. Although the different ethnic groups did not predict the caregiver's psychological distress, there were some differences found within the caregiver's characteristics between the Malays and non-Malays. As a consequence of the sampling strategy, the majority of the Malay caregivers were found in the rural area, whereas more Chinese and Indian caregivers were located in the urban

area. There was a statistically significant difference between the ethnic groups and area of living. In terms of the socio-economic status, the Chinese and Indian caregivers have higher incomes and smaller household size compared to the Malay caregivers. The family income per month and the number of family members in the household also had statistically significant difference among the three ethnic groups. According to the education level, a higher proportion of the Malay caregivers received secondary or tertiary education as compared to the non-Malay caregivers; however, there was no statistical difference between the different ethnic groups and their education level. This might be due to the fact that the samples were unbalanced, i.e., the majority of the non-Malay sample comprised of those living in the urban area and only a few Chinese participated in the rural region.

In this study, although the caregiver's negative appraisal of caregiving was predicted by the relatives' disability for social functioning, the sample were still young and unemployed. This was because carers might expect their relatives to perform some family obligations such as the ability to

work or to help with the household routines. This finding is congruent with other studies (Zahiruddin & Salleh, 2005; Mo *et al.*, 2008; Tucker *et al.*, 1998; Harvey *et al.*, 2001). Meanwhile, the other scenario that could be derived was that most caregivers who gave positive appraisal live mainly in the rural area even though the community mental health services are commonly based in the urban area. This could be better explained by examining the caregiver's demographic data, where most of the rural caregivers are female and mothers to their relatives who perceived their roles as responsible to care instead of burden (Chadiha *et al.*, 2004).

Further analysis of the survey data revealed a statistically significant difference between the positive appraisals of caregiving and caregivers living in the urban and rural areas. However, there was no statistically significant difference between the negative appraisals of caregiving and caregivers living in urban and rural areas. This shows that the caregivers who are living in the urban area have more positive appraisals in caring for their relatives as compared to those living in the rural even though there no relationship was found between the caregivers living in different areas and their psychological distress. Meanwhile, some previous studies have shown that there were statistically significant differences between urban/rural caregivers and the impact of caregiving but minimal variation in caregiver stress and burden (Perlick, *et al.*, 2006; Dwyer & Miller, 1990; Amato, 1993). There are some structural differences in the ability of the conceptual model to explain stress

and burden by the area of residence. Some researchers noted that residential differences are the complex factors associated with family caregiver's burden that need to be considered when formulating public policy, designing intervention strategies, and conducting future research (Perlick *et al.*, 2006; Dwyer & Miller, 1990). Many researchers in the developed countries suggested that the strain of providing care would be greater for caregivers living in rural areas because of greater environmental stressors, such as lack of social support, lack of coping resources and stigmatisation (Roick *et al.*, 2010; Magliano *et al.*, 2005). Some of the researchers who studied the psychological distress in family caregiving found that caregivers not only experience a greater burden due the variety of tasks included in caregiving but there is also a considerable variability in how successfully individuals accommodate and adjust to caregiving resources (Perlick *et al.*, 2006; Lefley, 1998; Schulz *et al.*, 1990).

Similar to these studies, caregivers living in the rural areas were more likely to have a negative experience of caregiving because of the limited resources to help them cope with their stressors, and this might be due to the more extensive community mental health resources available in the urban city (Tsuchiya & Takei, 2004). There are more mental health facilities available in the urban area in this study; in fact, one of the psychiatric hospitals is located and available for all mental health service users, while caregivers in the rural area only receive mental health services through a community

clinic and a general state hospital. The limitations of mental health facilities might affect the relatives' treatment, especially when their conditions worsen and there are inadequate services available to them and their caregivers. This may be the reason why the rural caregivers are less positive in their caregiving appraisals. In terms of the socio-economic status, Dwyer and Miller (1990) noted that rural caregivers had significantly lower incomes and were more likely to be unemployed due to caregiving. Similarly, the findings of this study also noted that caregivers who are living in the urban area have higher family income per month compared to those in the rural samples. A higher monthly income is positively correlated with the positive appraisal of caregiving. Therefore, it is not surprising if the rural caregivers are less likely to become positively appraised their experiences because they have the lowest family income every month.

Moreover, since many people diagnosed with schizophrenia are unmarried and the illness lasts for years, the caring responsibility still falls on the family as time progresses. When the family reaches the stage of the empty nest and the parent's retirement, most of the children in Malaysia leave home to be on their own. The impact of urbanisation is that many young people in Malaysia migrated from rural areas to urban areas to seek for employment. This situation presents a greater challenge to older caregivers, especially for those Malay families who mostly live in rural areas. This is the reason why many rural caregivers

are less positive with their caregiving experiences because they may have faced more difficulties in caregiving, which is further complicated by their own ageing problems such as the loss of income and deterioration of their health. In this study, one in seven of the rural caregivers aged above 60 while only one in 17% aged above 60 in the urban area. However, no statistically significant difference was found between the caregiver's age with urban/rural or ethnicity. Most of the Malays are located in the rural area.

This reflects the local findings of Zahiruddin and Salleh (2005) who also found that the majority of the Malay caregivers experienced a greater burden. Therefore, urban caregivers, particularly the Malays were found to be less positive with their experiences, which could be due to the burden of care. Furthermore, the family structure has also been shown to be an important factor in comparing between the caregivers in the urban and rural areas. The rural caregivers have more family members compared to the urban caregivers, which may mean that they experience a heavier financial burden and are less likely to be positive about their caregiving. More parents were found in the urban area, whilst more spouses lived in the rural area. This may also influence the caregiver's positive appraisals where parental caregivers are more likely to be positive about their experiences of caregiving, especially mothers (Lefley *et al.*, 1996).

Generally, this study has demonstrated the considerable differences between

urban/rural caregivers and ethnicity on a number of personal and household characteristics. In addition to the observation that the rural and urban environments are dissimilar in many ways, it is important to point out that not all of the characteristics of the family caregiving vary systematically along the rural-urban residential continuum. In other words, some of the comparisons described in the caregiver's characteristics show uniformly from one point on the residential continuum to the next; for example, all the three ethnic groups were found in the urban area but only two ethnic groups were recruited in the rural area. Nevertheless, wherever possible, such finer distinctions between geographical areas should be parts of future investigations.

CONCLUSION

Overall, this study managed to identify all the potential variables for predicting the caregiver's appraisals of caregiving. The caregiver's rating to have a relative with poor life skills, young and unemployed, seemed to predict their negative appraisal of caregiving. The caregiver's positive appraisal of caregiving was predicted by the caregiver's rating to have a married relative with good life skills and a household income of more than RM800 and they were less positive when living in the rural area. The study also found that the ECI and the LSP-39 were reliable and valid to measure the family caregiver's experiences. In terms of ethnicity, this study found that caregivers

who are Malay and non-Malay were not statistically and significantly different in term of their appraisal. Meanwhile, only caregivers' area seemed to predict the positive experiences of caregiving. Therefore, the hypothesis of this study was accepted. The findings of this study should help community health workers in Malaysia to work effectively with the family caregivers of schizophrenia patients.

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Interpretations of History in Early Twenty-First Century Arabic Fiction: A Critical Analysis of Al-Saqqaf's *Qissat Irhabi*

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ABSTRACT

This essay is motivated by the issue of terrorism as mirrored in early twenty-first century Arabic fiction, particularly after the 9/11 attacks and the US occupation of Iraq. We examine the interpretations of terrorism in Hussein al-Saqqaf's *Qissat Irhabi* (2007) with the aim of exploring the treatment of recent history and also uncovering the ideologies, viewpoints and cultural nuances that prevail in Arabic fiction. By appropriating the theory of hermeneutics, from which the concept of interpretation is derived, the novel's utilisation of some historical events and issues can be made clear. This is because "interpretation" refers to a text's explanations and exploration of other texts. Our analysis shows that al-Saqqaf displays Judeophobic characteristics where he casts aspersions on the Jews, rabbis, Jewish fanaticism and Jewish terrorists whom he names "the Sicarii." He attributes terrorism to them. Being an Arab and a Muslim, al-Saqqaf exhibits the feelings and opinions of the ordinary Arab and Muslim people who indeed believe that the Arab and Muslim terrorist groups are masterminded by superpower Jews. Although al-Saqqaf's predisposition in his fictional account is attributed to his roots and faith, it also shows the reality of distrust between the Arabs and Jews.

Keywords: Judeophobia, terrorism, 9/11, Jews, Sicarii, Iraq

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INTRODUCTION

Since the 9/11 attacks in 2001, the USA has been engaged in a war against terrorism and consequently occupied Afghanistan in 2001 and Iraq in 2003. This essay is motivated by these historical events, particularly the 9/11 and the US war in Iraq, which have been mirrored in early

twenty-first century Arabic fiction. We intend to examine the interpretations of these historical incidents and the issue of terrorism in Hussein al-Saqqaf's *Qissat Irhabi* (2007), a novel written in the Arabic language, with the aim of exploring the ideologies, viewpoints and cultural nuances that prevail in contemporary Arabic fiction. The analysis will be framed according to our appropriation of the theory of hermeneutics as discussed by Friedrich Schleiermacher, Michael Gardiner, Larry Beck, Ted Cable, Edwin Barton and Glenda Hudson. By using the hermeneutic approach, we hope to explore the employment of current world issues in recent Arabic fiction.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Literary texts encompass two realities – the reality within the text and the reality outside the text. Dominick LaCapra (1980, pp. 247) claims that what is written “inside” the literary text cannot be separated from what happens “outside” it. Similarly, Philippe Desan (1983, pp. 109) argues that any text must not be separated from outside reality because this “separation is a false problem and his epistemological distinction is even more problematic if, in a novel, historical facts are themselves recuperated within the discourse of fictitious characters.” This coincides with Zawiah Yahya's claim that good literature must mirror reality and must not be limited to a particular space and time (2003, pp. 17). However, when literary texts employ history, a number of components contribute to change or deform some of its contents.

Wayne Booth (2004, pp. 16) accepts the claims of “postmodernist Marxists like Louis Althusser ... that ‘ideology’ makes, or changes, realities.” Thus, sufficient knowledge of the ideology of the author can assist critics to “distinguish the good makings from the bad” (Booth, 2004, pp. 16). In other words, they can easily identify how history can be deformed, and explore the reasons behind such deformation.

Literary employments of history have been the focus of several scholarly pursuits. To conform to the scope of this essay, we shall refer to a few examples of Arabic works. For instance, Sinan Antoon (2002, pp. 66) examines the Palestinian Mahmud Darwish's poem, *A Non-Linguistic Dispute with Imru' al-Qays*, which was written after the signing of the 1993 Oslo Accord between the Israeli government and the Palestinian authority. Antoon (2002, pp. 66) argues that Darwish's “poem is read as an allegorical critique of [the] Oslo Accord.” Based on his analysis of the poem, he concludes that the Palestinian people are viewed in the poem as “victims” who are “forced to surrender and assume a role written for them by their enemies” (Antoon, 2002, pp. 73). Using history as the setting for his poem, Darwish exposes the way in which the Jews can manipulate the situation for their own good as the treaty serves the Israelis rather than the Palestinians. Similarly, *Qissat Irhabi* which uses the US occupation of Iraq as the setting can also be read as a critique of this incident, 9/11 and other events that are related to terrorism, particularly Jewish terrorism, which, in the novel, reads like a

phobia. This leads us to highlight the term "Judeophobia" which is defined by John G. Robertson (2003, pp. 108) as "excessive fear of Jews or an abnormal hatred of Jews." We will attempt to expose how al-Saqqaf's story fears and distrusts the Jews.

In addition to that, Nezar Ajaj Andary (2008, pp. vi) "examines five texts of creative historical production in Arabic literature and film." These works include Mahmud Darwish's poem entitled *Al-Andalus*, Radwa Ashur's novel called *Thulathiyyat Ghirnata*, Bensalem Himmich's novel named *Majnun al-Hukm*, Saadallah Wannus's play *Munamnamat Tarikhiyyah* as well as Yusif Chahine's film called *Destiny*. At the end of his study, Andary (2008, pp. vii) deduces that the "the representation of history is crafted" by those "modern Arab writers" and also the "filmmaker ... in order to address specific issues such as Palestine, the role of the intellectual, the Arab nation, and the concept of tyranny." Thus, writers can consciously or unconsciously reflect the issues of the society of which they are members. Yet, they might differ in their employment of that history because each author carries different ideologies.

Similarly, Muhsin al-Musawi (2010, pp. 22) analyses the post-renaissance Arabic literary writings which "leave behind the complex encounter with the West and bypass thereby the modernity binary of a backward tradition versus the offers of a European civilization." To arrive at this conclusion, al-Musawi focuses on Abd al-Hakim Qasim's *Ayyam al-Insan al-Sab'ah* (1969) and *al-Mahdi* (1977). His discussion ends with the

notion that "the post-nahdah (meaning post-renaissance) narrative interrogates other facts on the ground that relate to the nation-state, selfhood, family, communal life and religion" (Al-Musawi, 2010, pp.22, brackets mine). This is because the era of renaissance in the Arab World centres on Western impact on the Arab culture after Napoleon Bonaparte's invasion of Egypt in 1798 (Allen, 2008, pp. 6). While Qasim's literary texts reflect this issue, al-Musawi reveals that the Arabs' perception of the "nation-state", "family", "communal life" and "religion" has changed due to the influence of the French culture on them. Hence, Arabic literature of that time reflected the political and social changes of the Arabs during the French occupation of Egypt. This reinforces what has been discussed earlier, that literature cannot evade outside reality.

HERMENEUTIC APPROACH

A good discussion of the concept "interpretation" requires a return to the theory of hermeneutics proposed by Friedrich Schleiermacher in his article *Hermeneutics and Criticism*. Schleiermacher (1998, pp. vii) defines "hermeneutics" as the "art of interpretation." It is also referred to "as the art of understanding," "the art of presenting one's thoughts correctly," "the art of communicating someone else's utterance to a third person" and "the art of understanding another person's utterance correctly" (Schleiermacher, 1998, pp. 5). As he elaborates:

Interpretation is the ability to teach, whether the meaning is articulated in speech or actions, so that the other person may think the same as the writer. – All interpretation, therefore, consists of two things, understanding of the meanings (ideas) articulated in the words and the proper explication of them. Whence in a good interpreter there must be delicacy of understanding and delicacy of explication (Schleiermacher, 1998, pp. 5, brackets original).

As seen above, Schleiermacher emphasises that interpreters must be aware of the nuances of words because they require sophistication of the mind in making sense of the writer's ideas. This argument is consistent with that by Edwin Barton and Glenda Hudson (2004, pp. 100) which explains that "the verb *interpret* derives from the Latin *interpretari*, meaning 'to explain', and the noun *interpretes*, 'a negotiator.' Thus, interpretation is an act of both explanation and negotiation." In other words, it is a process in which the interpreters intervene to simplify, "explain" and illustrate the ambiguities of a certain text to the readers. Within interpretation, texts can associate with, investigate and examine one another. They can also raise some questions and attempt to solve them.

The previous emphasis on understanding, simplification, explication and negotiation coincides with the argument

of Larry Beck and Ted Cable (1998, pp. 4) that "interpretation tells the story behind the scenery or history of an area. It is a process that can help people see beyond their capabilities." This can happen when the readers are aware of the context of the works produced. Due to their prior knowledge, interpreters become mediators between the "text and reader" and they can easily "explain" and "translate" the "meaning of the text for the reader" (Barton & Hudson 2004, pp. 100).

However, Michael Gardiner (1999, pp. 63) argues that "the hermeneutic approach stresses on the creative interpretation of words and texts and the active role played by the knower." This creativity validates the process of "interpretation" and indicates that its "goal is not objective explanation or neutral description, but rather a sympathetic engagement with the author of a text, utterance or action and the wider socio-cultural context within which these phenomena occur" (Gardiner, 1999, pp. 63). There is no doubt that interpreters are sometimes influenced by certain ideologies and views, but this can be avoided when interpreters do not force the text to explain a meaning that does not exist. Following this rule, one can assume that "the interpretation of meaning that governs our understanding of a text is not an act of subjectivity" (Gadamer, 1996, pp. 293). The above excursion into interpretation is required in our analysis of al-Saqqaf's investigation of history.

INTERPRETATIONS OF HISTORY IN AL-SAQQAF'S *QISSAT IRHABI*

Al-Saqqaf's *Qissat Irhabi* (2007) was shaped by the actions of terrorism, particularly the terrorist acts which have occurred in Iraq after the US occupation. To make the analysis obvious, we will firstly highlight the plot of the novel. The story centres on a Yemeni boy, Yusof, who is kidnapped and deported with other Arab boys of his age through the desert to Israel and then by plane to the USA. They are put in camps inhabited by heartless and fanatic Jews called the Sicarii. Yusof and his friends are brainwashed till they believe that the Sicarii represent God. Although Yusof was not ordered to participate in 9/11 attacks, he has been sent to Iraq to practise terrorism within the different Muslim groups. Their organisation aims to spark religious and regional civil strife in Iraq for unknown reasons. One day, Yusof is given orders to explode himself in a Sunni mosque at *Salat al-Maghrib*. When he enters the mosque and hears the imam reciting the Quran, Yusof remembers his childhood in Yemen. He breaks into tears and leaves the mosque, ignoring the explosives that are fastened under his shirt. When he retreats, secret agents of the Sicarii follow Yusof and shoot him in the shoulder. He manages to escape from them and hides in a deserted house. There, an Iraqi student assists him and calls his family in Yemen. The story ends with Yusof returning to Yemen through Syria using a forged passport.

While al-Saqqaf attempts to convince his readers that international terrorism is

controlled by Jewish terrorists called the Sicarii, he investigates the issue of the abductions of Arab children. This is because he believes that there is a relationship between these incidents and the advent of terrorism. For instance, in his construal of the appearance of young Arabs in many terrorist actions, the author explains that those young Arabs were kidnapped and brainwashed by Jewish terrorists to carry out acts of terror on their behalf. For instance, after the disappearance of Yusof, the narrator of the novel states that "many other children were lost in similar accidents" (pp. 27). The motif of abduction is employed by the writer to designate that the disappearance of Yusof and the "other children" is not accidental. It is part of an elaborate plan engineered by a well-organised gang.

In fact, the fictional abductions in the story echo history. According to the International Muslim Women's Union (2009), "a number of cities and regions of Yemen have experienced disappearances and abductions of children of both sexes." Al-Saqqaf takes on this local problem of missing children using the story of Yusof to highlight Jewish terrorism. However, although the issue of children kidnapping is real, there is no evidence of the involvement of Jews in these crimes. These abductions of children may have happened due to a variety of reasons, but al-Saqqaf employs them to cast aspersions on Jewish organisations. This attribution can be seen when twelve years after the disappearance of Yusof, a man called Abdul-Qadus meets Ya'qub and Haj Said—Yusof's father and grandfather—

and gives them useful information about their lost son. As the man reveals, his Iraqi colleague, Wael al-Zubaidi who studies at al-Mustansiriya University, tells him that Yusof is still alive, hidden in a house in Iraq. Abdul-Qadus notifies the family that Wael “stressed that this matter must be top secret because your son is threatened by some dangerous groups. So, he is now stuck in the house. Your son has a very long and strange story” (pp. 29-30). Here al-Saqqaf attempts to connect the incidents of kidnapping of Arab children, especially Yusof’s kidnapping, with some of the “dangerous groups” that play an important role in world terrorism as will be explained further.

The author’s use of the phrase “strange story” is intended to attract the reader’s attention. This seduction is significant because it hints that the criminals do not fit into the expectations of the reader. Al-Saqqaf delays in revealing the identity of the gang that abducts children in order to increase his readers’ suspense so that when it is revealed much later, the shock will be staggering. At the end of the story, the picture becomes clear as in a flashback Yusof discloses to Wael what had happened to him after the strange man kidnapped him from Yemen as quoted below:

He carried me and took me by a car to a distant underground place which was full of boys. The boys who came recently were screaming and the old ones were silent for they had cried enough but there was no help. We travelled through deserts,

wastelands and mountains, from a country to another. I remember that we went through the Empty Quarter, as I heard from the discussions of the persons who were in charge of our trip. Then, through al-Aqaba. I was with fellow Arabs, Kurds and other kids. We were handed over from one person to another as if we were goods. But they were not cruel to us. Finally, we found ourselves in a country its people do not speak Arabic. We studied Hebrew which many of its vocabularies are similar to Arabic particularly the pronouns, numbers, compass directions and days of the week... etc. We studied the Torah, and there were intensive classes in a type of astronomy which deals with the Biblical origins and then we studied al-Mashna and al-Jimara. These books are the interpretations of the Torah. All young students have supernatural intelligence. They were very carefully chosen from different countries and races (pp. 46-7).

Yusof exposes that the strange man who snatched him from Yemen is an agent to an illegal international organisation that is operated by some fanatic Rabbis. Those Rabbis utilise the “Torah” and some Jewish “books” to brainwash the minds of the children and turn them into terrorists. While the author displays his knowledge of the Jewish religious books such as “al-Mashna”

and “*al-Jimara*”, an ideology can obviously be noticed in his explanation. For instance, the sentence “a country its people do not speak Arabic” is of significance because it implies that this terrorist organisation is not Arab-made. It might use young Arabs like Yusof to fulfil its strategies, but it is mainly under the control of fanatic Rabbis. Yusof also indicates that the country in which he studied and trained utilises “Hebrew” as a formal language. This portrayal is explicitly intended to expose Israel as the country that encompasses such terrorist organisations.

Although the validity of al-Saqqaf's claim above might be questioned, this does not lessen the fact that he has bravely shed light on the Jewish terrorist organisations which are mostly ignored by many people. Referring to some events that happened in the past can be of assistance in analysing this argument. According to Houfman (2006, pp. 97), in 1968, “Rabbi Meir Kahane” founded the Jewish Defence League (JDL) which used “violence” and “terrorism” to protect the Jews from “enemies.” Due to its fanatic and illegal activities, this organisation was categorised by the Federal Bureau of Investigation as “a violent extremist Jewish organization” as can be seen below:

On December 11, 2001, Irving David Rubin and Earl Leslie Krugel were arrested by the Los Angeles Joint Terrorism Task Force for conspiring to build and place improvised explosive devices (IEDs) at the King Fahd Mosque in Culver City, California, and the local office of Congressman

Darrell Issa. Rubin and Krugel were subsequently charged with conspiracy to destroy a building by means of an explosive, as well as possession of a destructive device during and in relation to a crime of violence. Rubin and Krugel were active members of the Jewish Defense League (JDL), a violent extremist Jewish organization. Statements by Rubin and Krugel indicated that they had planned the attack against the mosque to demonstrate the militancy of the JDL. Krugel further indicated that the attack was planned to provide a “wake up call” to the Muslim community. It was determined that Rubin and Krugel had already acquired the necessary components to build an IED, including pipes, fuses, and smokeless powder (Federal Bureau of Investigation, 2004).

Those terrorists are neither Arabs nor Muslims. They are Jews like the Sicarii, the antagonists of al-Saqqaf's novel. By highlighting their terrorist attempt in the excerpt above, we can deduce that al-Saqqaf's description of the Sicarii is not merely fictional; it is consistent with historical documents. This cohesion between history and the story can also be seen when al-Saqqaf attempts to investigate and explain the internal secrets of the terrorist explosions that occur in Iraq after the US occupation. For instance, Yusof reveals that:

I murdered a lot of people in the same flash way which I had excelled in when I was in Israel. I was eager for martyrdom to pursue Elazar, but I wasn't given a chance to participate in the events of September. When I had the chance today to blow up myself at Salat al-Maghrib, a strong feeling prevented me of pulling the string of the explosive belt. As planned, I should kill at least hundred prayers at al-Kadhimiya, at the shrine of the two Imams Musa al-Kadhim and Mohammed Jawad, when it was crowded with players. I knew that the snipers of the Sicarii were watching me from the nearby rooftops and walls. The red laser of their guns was always on my body. They were ordered to shoot me if I did not perform the mission. This occurs in their all explosive operations (pp. 54).

This description can be an answer for those who wonder about how Muslim terrorists explode mosques, despite being Muslims themselves. Islam is a religion of peace – it is senseless to kill fellow Muslims in the house of God. The novelist makes overt this fact that the terrorists who explode mosques are not Muslims. They are the “Sicarii”; and the Sicarii are Jewish terrorists. This interpretation is justifiable because of the novelist’s own knowledge of the phenomenon of missing children as well as his own predisposition on the Palestinian problem.

The reading above is in line with the notion that “interpretation tells the story behind the scenery or history of an area. It is a process that can help people see beyond their capabilities” (Beck & Cable, 1998, pp. 4). Hence, al-Saqqaf’s use of “history,” especially terrorism, is not only a matter of reflection, but a critical employment. The author attempts to “see beyond” the historical events and issues which he utilises in his narrative.

Likewise, the previous quotation shows that the terrorists are forced to perform their missions. When Yusof is about to commit the crime, he realises “that snipers of the Sicarii were watching [him] from the nearby rooftops and walls. The red laser of their guns was always on [his] body.” This is because “they were ordered to shoot [him] if [he] did not perform the mission.” These details may sound unimportant, but they are indeed very significant for understanding the text’s interpretation of history. By this portrayal, al-Saqqaf explains that some Arab terrorists are used as scapegoats by the Sicarii. In other words, al-Saqqaf claims that just like Yusof and his friends in the story, many Arabs and Muslims are used by Jewish terrorist organisations to perform terrorist deeds.

In addition to what has been discussed earlier, two other truths are revealed in the same quotation. The first is about “Elazar,” the spiritual father of the Sicarii, and the second relates to the 9/11 incidents. In fact, Elazar is not a fictional character, but a real leader of the Sicarii who lived in the first century. According to historian

Nachman Ben-Yehuda (1995, pp. 35), "in 66 A.D. the Sicarii, headed by Menachem" practised a number of "assassinations" against the Romans and also against their Jewish "opponents." When Menachem "was killed," the Sicarii were led by "Elazar Ben-Yair" (Ben-Yehuda, 1995, pp. 36). After losing many men in Jerusalem, "the rest of the Sicarii ... fled to Masada, where they remained" (Ben-Yehuda, 1995, pp. 36). There they committed a strange and bloody suicide death; Elazar gave his orders to the Sicarii to kill each other in order to avoid being arrested by the Romans (Ben-Yehuda, 1995, pp. 36). This history proves that the novel's employment of the Sicarii and Elazar mirrors past historical happenings.

The second hint based on the same evidence is that Yusof "wasn't given a chance to participate in the events of September." In other words, the novel relates the 9/11 terrorist attacks to the Sicarii, not to Arab terrorists. This idea is repetitively used in the story. For instance, Yusof, in the quotation below, repeats the same notion that the Sicarii are the masterminds of the 9/11 attacks:

I was professionally trained in Washington in institutes that belong to us (the Jewish Defence Forces) in a battalion called (the Fires of the Torah). Although we were still young, we gained an extensive experience. We were given practical courses in how to use a plane and drive it onto small targets that did not harm it. I was scheduled to use an aircraft to do bombing missions

in Washington and New York in the early Hebrew year, but in the last moments I was turned into a reserve. My leaders planned to reserve me for important tasks in the Middle East. That's what Rabbi Mahnash 'ul, who was in charge of us, told me (pp. 51, brackets original).

The author's emphasis on the words "aircraft" and "bombing missions" as well as his reference to the two American cities, "Washington and New York," are intended to elucidate that the incidents of 9/11 were planned by the Sicarii. In addition to that, the fictional name of Yusof's group, the "Jewish Defence Forces", shows a startling resemblance to the historical record discussed earlier, especially to the Federal Bureau of Investigation (2004) which indicates that "on December 11 2001, Irving David Rubin and Earl Leslie Krugel were arrested by the Los Angeles Joint Terrorism Task Force for conspiring to" explode "King Fahd Mosque in Culver City, California." Investigations revealed that both "Rubin and Krugel were active members of the Jewish Defense League (JDL), a violent extremist Jewish organization" (Federal Bureau of Investigation, 2004). Comparing the name of the terrorist organisation in history with the one in the novel can indubitably be helpful in understanding the impact of history on the novel. The former is the "Jewish Defense League" and the latter is the "Jewish Defense Forces". The two names are approximately the same. This

similarity strengthens al-Saqqaf's belief that terrorism is controlled by the Sicarii and other Jewish fundamentalists. Yusof further explains:

I was taken to Iraq, with dozens of boys younger than me, to blow up mosques of Sunnis and Shiites with the purpose of making the members of the two doctrines fight and kill each other. Our assassinations centred on the moderate sheikhs of both Sunnis and Shiites (pp. 53).

Yusof reveals the Sicarii's plan for Muslims to engage in a civil strife between the "Sunnis and Shiites." Therefore, they explode Sunni "mosques" and attach their crime to the "Shiites" and vice versa. To get quick results, they "assassinate" Iraqi religious scholars and "sheikhs" who support "moderate" Islam. Killing those people is intended to pave the way for the fundamentalists and terrorists. This version of the Iraqi war discloses that the writer is suspicious of the hidden agents who control international terrorism.

Likewise, the novel explicates that the Sicarii are also responsible for the murders of Iraqi scientists and scholars. For instance, Yusof recounts that "there is a terrorist plan to be implemented by the Sicarii through exploiting the need and poverty of the Iraqi people to kill more than a thousand scientists including energy scientists, university professors and moderate sheikhs" (p. 76). Similarly, one of the minor characters in the novel called Marwan Fakhri says

that he knows "a lot of Iraqi scholars, of different arts and sciences, were recently assassinated in terrorist acts" (p. 103). Identifying the killing of "a thousand [Iraqi] scientists" as their main aim indicates that the Sicarii intend to prevent any scientific development in Iraq. This is probably because the Sicarii fear that the power of this Muslim country can be used against their homeland, Israel. This fictional portrayal has some historical roots particularly when put against Aljazeera's report:

Since the US-led invasion of Iraq in 2003, an alarming number of the country's leading academics have been killed. A human rights organisation puts the number at about a thousand and has a documented list of 105 cases. These professors, it says, were not random casualties - they were assassinated. The first documented case is that of Muhamad al-Rawi, the president of Baghdad University, who was killed on 27 July, 2003, when two men entered his private clinic, one of them feigned severe stomach pain and was doubled over. Concealed against his stomach was a gun with which he shot al-Rawi dead. Assassination incidents continued after al-Rawi's shooting. Dr Majid Ali was assassinated in 2005, shot four times in the back. He had a PhD in physics and was one of the best nuclear energy experts in Iraq. The Paris-based Arab Committee for Human Rights

(ACHR), an international NGO which has special consultative status with the Economic and Social Council of the UN, has issued an international appeal for help to protect Iraqi academics (Janabi, 2006, Aljazeera).

As illustrated by Ahmed Janabi, a journalist affiliated to Aljazeera, the number of "Iraqi scientists" who were assassinated after the "US-led invasion of Iraq in 2003" is about "a thousand." In fact, this is the same number mentioned in the novel where Yusof relates that "the Sicarii" intend to "kill" about "a thousand [Iraqi] scientists." In addition to that, the way in which the two Iraqi scientists "Muhamad al-Rawi" and "Majid Ali" were killed reveals that the killers hated Iraq and the Iraqi people. This reinforces al-Saqqaf's interpretation that the killers are "the Sicarii" who consider Iraq and the Arab nation as enemies of Israel. The Jewish terrorists do their best to stop any scientific progress in the Arab World to keep it weak compared to Israel.

Similarly, many intellectuals argue that terrorists cannot perform their missions without having facilities from people in charge of security. This argument leads al-Saqqaf to create a fictional world that uncovers the possible ways in which people cooperate with such organisations against their own countries. For instance, Yusof reveals that:

The Sicarii use hi-techs in their missions. The Death Squads are only means to achieve various

goals. There are a number of parties who cooperate and contract with them to achieve common interests and some cooperate because they cannot say no to the Sicarii. Others do that in the hope of maintaining their positions, or to preserve their reputation after leaving their positions; for the Sicarii use an immoral process of intelligence. They lure the target victim to be stealthily recorded and filmed in shameful situations. Threatened of spreading the film, the victim is forced to facilitate their missions and temporarily or permanently work for their interests (pp. 69-70).

Thus, the "Sicarii" know very well that the sexual scandals are the point of weakness of the politicians and many famous people, particularly in conservative countries. It will be impossible for those people to oppose and refuse to "cooperate" with this organisation, if they are "threatened of spreading" their "immoral" "recorded" "films" to the public. This is one of the scenarios which show how people are forced to cooperate with the Sicarii and terrorist organisations. The writer also gives another deduction when Yusof tells his father that "there are individuals, who despite their affiliation to official security bodies, get information and then sell it to those who pay more" (pp. 129-130). Although these scenarios can be incorrect, they however provide evidence that al-Saqqaf's story reflects the skepticism and wariness of Arabs towards the Jews. The

world looks at the Arabs and Muslims as perpetrators of terrorist acts but the novelist here provides an antithesis to that image.

CONCLUSION

Based on our discussion of the novel, we can conclude that *Qissat Irhabi* displays Judeophobic characteristics. The novel centres on the Jews, Rabbis and Jewish fanaticism and Jewish terrorists who are called the “Sicarii.” This emphasis is intended to attribute terrorism to the Jews. For instance, al-Saqqaf shows that the terrorists who explode Sunni and Shiite mosques in Iraq are not Muslims, but extremist Jews who do that to spark civil strife between the Iraqis, or probably Arab terrorists brainwashed and forced by Jewish terrorists to carry out such operations. The novel also attempts to uncover the means by which the terrorists force people to cooperate with them. In addition to that, it elucidates that Jewish terrorists are the mastermind of the 9/11 attacks and the murders of many Iraqi scientists and scholars after the US occupation. In fact, being an Arab and a Muslim, al-Saqqaf has been able to reflect the feelings and opinions of the ordinary Arab and Muslim people about terrorism. His slant on history mirrors the voices of the Arab people who indeed believe that terrorism is controlled by hidden superpower Jews. Al-Saqqaf’s predisposition in his fictional account is attributed to his roots and faith but it also shows the reality of distrust between the Arabs and Jews. While history will always be used as a source of inspiration and setting

for writers, the ways in which it is exploited will reveal deep-seated prejudices and ingrained beliefs.

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Social Capital and Its Relationship with Universiti Putra Malaysia Undergraduates' Facebook Usages

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ABSTRACT

This study envisaged in determining the relationship between the intensity of Facebook usage and social capital among undergraduates at Universiti Putra Malaysia. A number of factors (respondent's personal and family background, the intensity of Facebook usage and social capital) have been studied with regards to their relationships with each other. Respondents involved 120 male and female undergraduates studying at Universiti Putra Malaysia (UPM), who were selected through a convenience sampling. A self-administered questionnaire was used as a tool for data collection. Majority of the respondents were between 21 and 23 years of age, obtained an average of CGPA of 3.05 and came from educated parents (diploma and above), and moderately high household incomes. Pearson correlation was used to test the correlation between the respondent's personal and family backgrounds with Facebook intensity. Meanwhile, linear regression was used to analyze the strength of the relationship between Facebook intensity and social capital and revealed that all have significant relationships with the intensity of Facebook usage. The linear regression analysis also affirmed that the intensity of the Facebook use ($\beta = 0.274^{**}$) has a positive but miniscule effect on the increment of social capital. Relevant factors attributed to findings are also discussed.

Keywords: Social network service, Facebook, social capital, undergraduates, correlational studies

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INTRODUCTION

The encroachment of Internet into every aspect of human lives has been steadily debated among researchers (Comscore, 2007; Boyd & Ellison, 2007; Ellison, Steinfield, & Lampe, 2007; Lampe, Ellison, & Steinfield, 2006; Valkenburg, Peter,

& Schouter, 2006). Hu and Wang (2009) denote that the studies on the World Wide Web and the Internet have been, to a certain extent, dominated by the evolving of social collaborative technologies, such as Social Networking Site (SNS), blog, Wiki and other Internet services. Some even claimed that the Internet has become a principal venue for social interactions (Wang, Moon, Kwon, Evans, & Stefanone, 2010). A significant study by Vasaloua, Joinson and Courvoisier (2010) acknowledged Boyd and Ellison's (2007) common elements of social network sites. In more specific, the authors hypothesised that these sites allow individuals to "construct a public or semi-public profile within a bounded system, articulate a list of other users with whom they share a connection and view and traverse their list of connections and those made by others within the system" (Vasaloua *et al.*, 2010). There is a growing body of literature suggesting that the Internet extends its influences towards communication facilitation and online social relationships (Wang *et al.*, 2010). Individuals can use social communication networks for very different purposes, however, the use of specific objectives in terms of layout of the communication platforms may vary according to services (Bicen & Cavus, 2010; Gross & Acquisti, 2005). The SNS trend is a relatively new one and little research has been reported on its use in education, particularly within the Malaysian higher education context.

Meanwhile, Roblyer *et al.* (2010) stipulate that the most prevalent use of SNSs

in the university community is creating profiles and groups to communicate events with users. However, differing community cultures and culturally homogeneous groups congregating certain social network sites had been previously studied by the Hargittai (2007), Boyd and Ellison (2007), and Vasaloua *et al.* (2010), and thus, yielded some contentious patterns of assumptions pertaining the influence of social interaction via SNSes. A body of literature exists, particularly on the empirical studies of patterns of college students' use of Facebook (Wang *et al.*, 2010). According to Boyd and Ellison (2008), ever since Facebook opened its doors to people outside Harvard University's network, there have been over 350 million subscribers worldwide (according to Facebook.com statistics retrieved in March, 2010, as cited by Roblyer *et al.* (2010), and whom 8 million users are from Malaysian netizens (TNSDigitalLife, 2010).

There is now a vigorous debate on the educational purposes of social network sites as stated by Munoz and Towner (2009). In drawing a framework with which to understand the disparate perspectives on the educational benefits of SNSes, Munoz and Towner (2009) cited Hewitt and Forte (2006) on the concerns related to privacy and anxiety in interacting with professors in this environment. The authors also acknowledged Charnigo and Barnett-Ellis's (2007, as cited by Selwyn, 2007) contention that SNSes might not serve as an academic purpose (and educators eventually should simply avoid "educationally appropriating"

these “backstage” social spaces). On the contrary to the beliefs on the disadvantages of Facebook’s educational benefits, Steinfield *et al.* (2008) acknowledged that Facebook has become very popular among undergraduates, with usage rates upwards of 90% at most campuses (Lampe *et al.*, 2006), and studies pertaining to the use of Facebook in the academic settings (Hewitt & Forte, 2006) and the demographic predictors of Facebook use (Hargittai, 2007).

Recent studies indicate a significant portion of the traffic for Facebook comes from Asian countries, particularly Southeast Asia, with Malaysians among the highest number of users (TNSDigitalLife, 2010). Various studies by sociologists such as Lampe *et al.* (2006), Dwyer (2007), and Donath & Boyd (2004), have all questioned the effects of social network sites such as Facebook, Friendster and MySpace. However, the samples for the studies were taken from a population vastly different in terms of their sociology, education, culture, upbringing and exposure to technology. Therefore, this study focused on answering questions pertaining to the local undergraduates, their personal and family characteristics, their uses of Facebook, and how it has an impingement on the development of social capital.

Meanwhile, the rapid changes in pace of the new age has placed a time constraint on many individuals. Many are too busy and have no time to maintain their social lives. Thus, Facebook allows individuals to update and receive updates from friends and family with a click of a button. Facebook

could also provide a platform for the rapid amalgamation of social capital which could benefit many, provided that individuals are keen on expanding their network by meeting new individuals online for business, personal or even academic purposes. Therefore, the study investigated on how often these individuals use Facebook in their daily routines and also analyzed how often UPM undergraduates keep in touch with old friends and meet new ones through Facebook. A study by Ellison *et al.* (2007) indicates that the intense use of Facebook is closely related to the formation and maintenance of social capital. Their study constituted that Facebook usage was found to be associated with distinct measures of bridging and bonding social capital. However, not much has been written on this relationship among Malaysian undergraduates. This study, therefore, fills in that chasm in the literature. This is made possible by surveys conducted among Universiti Putra Malaysia undergraduates. Studies have suggested that among undergraduates, excessive Internet use could be the cause of developmental issues in establishing new relationships and even the formation of their identities (Anderson, 2001). However, Facebook also enables users to construct their own virtual identities and provides them with a form of faceless communication. This may hamper social anxiety, which therefore allows users to communicate freely. Therefore, this study envisaged on determining on whether there is a positive or negative relationship between the use of Facebook and the development of social capital.

Social capital has been argued by Bourdieu (1985) and Coleman (1993) as a contributing factor towards creating a utopia. Social capital considers the connections between individuals via their social networks, as well as the concepts of reciprocity and trustworthiness within those networks (Putnam, 2000; Vitak, 2008). Social capital allows a person to draw on resources from other members of the networks to which he or she belongs (Ellison *et al.*, 2006) and it can be divided into two major categories, namely, *bonding* and *bridging* (Putnam, 2000; Narayan & Cassidy, 2001; Vitak, 2008). Bonding social capital involves intrapersonal relationship, while bridging social capital is about interpersonal relationship, which encourages external linkages and networking to occur. The association between Facebook usage and students' social capital has persistently been studied in previous research (see for instance, the studies by Valenzuela, Park & Kee, 2009; Vitak, 2008; Ellison *et al.*, 2007). Thus, this study aimed to provide some insights into plausible concerns pertaining to certain administrative policies in relation to educating the public and promoting civic consciousness through the development of social capital through various means that are at hand. Hence, the imperatives of the study specifically focused on the empirical inquiries pertaining to the relation of the quality (users keeping in touch with known and unknown individuals) and the quantity (time spent) of Facebook usages among Universiti Putra Malaysia undergraduates, as well as exploring the relationship between

the intensity of Facebook usages and the development of social capital.

METHOD

Research Design

This study is a replication attempt from the previous study by Ellison *et al.* (2007), with partial application of the variables used in the previous study. By taking into account that the current study is exploratory in nature, the authors decided to specifically examine the relationship between Facebook usages and student's social capital. However, it is acknowledged that the previous study by Ellison and colleagues involved three other variables which were not included in this study, namely, self esteem, life satisfaction, and maintained social capital. Hence, this study attempted to test only these two hypotheses:

- H1: The intensity of Facebook use is positively associated with individuals' perceived bridging social capital.
- H2: The intensity of Facebook use is positively associated with individuals' perceived bonding social capital.

Participants

The participants involved in this study comprised of 120 undergraduate students of Universiti Putra Malaysia (62 males and 58 females) in the Serdang Campus, Selangor. The participants were from various programmes and faculties in UPM. In terms of their ethnicity, there were 52

Malays, 37 Chinese, 25 Indians and other races ($n=6$). The age of the participants ranged from 19 to 29 years, with a mean age of 20.4 years. The focus of this research was limited to only Facebook users, as the growing literature has consistently indicated that Facebook is currently the most popular online social networking site among students (Cheung, Chiu & Lee, 2010). All the participants were selected through the convenience sampling technique. A pre-screening of the respondents was done by the researcher by asking a few verbal questions, prior to asking the individuals to fill in the questionnaire. This was done to ensure that the respondents were in fact UPM undergraduates of Malaysian nationality and those who were familiar with the use of Facebook applications.

Measures

Demographic scale. A demographic scale, which included questions on the participants' personal background such as gender, religion, race, Cumulative Grade Points Average (CGPA) and academic semester, was used in this study. Another portion of the questionnaire gauged the participants' family background, which included parent's age, parent's occupation and also parent's total monthly income.

Independent variables. There were two variables used in this study: 'Facebook intensity' and 'Use of Facebook to Meet New People vs. Connect with Existing Offline Contacts'. Both the instruments

were developed by Ellison *et al.* (2007). The Facebook intensity scale is divided into two parts. The first part was designed to measure the extent to which a respondent is actively engaged in Facebook activities, the number of Facebook "friends" and the amount of time spent on Facebook on a typical day (2 items). The second part measured the extent to which the participants are emotionally connected and integrated Facebook in their daily routine (6 items). The scale has a high internal consistency (Cronbach's Alpha = 0.842), which is deemed to be a reliable measurement for Facebook intensity.

The second variable refers to the 'Use of Facebook to Meet New People vs. Connect with Existing Offline Contacts', which measured the quality or the users' frequency of keeping in touch with known and unknown individuals on Facebook. This scale investigated the respondents' motivation to connect with the contacts already known in the offline world, such as a colleague or a classmate, or the potential to generate new connections with online acquaintances. This scale produced a high reliability rating with a Cronbach's Alpha value of 0.829, which also makes it a sturdy measure for Facebook use for prior contacts and meeting new people.

Dependent variables. There were two measures of social capital in this study (bridging and bonding social capital), which had been adapted and adopted from the study by Ellison *et al.* (2007). The current study acknowledged the contributions of the

previous authors, in which the original scales consisted of three categorical measures - bridging, bonding and maintained social capital (Quan-Haase & Wellman, 2004, as cited in Ellison *et al.*, 2007; Williams, 2006).

All the questionnaires were distributed together to each respondent so that they could obtain a better picture of all the questions in the questionnaire.

Procedure

All data were collected by using the questionnaires during the survey. The survey was scheduled at various times of the day to ensure a better cross section of the responses. The aim was to have the questionnaire completed by a set of individuals as diverse as possible to ensure that the data collected would not be skewed. All the subjects were given as much time as needed to complete the questionnaire. The data were analysed using the Statistical Package for Social

Science (SPSS) software. The data from the questionnaires were manually keyed into the system and the resulting calculations were performed by using the software. Descriptive data, such as the respondent's personal and family backgrounds, were appropriately described according to the objectives. Correlative data and hypotheses were tested using the Pearson Correlation and the Regression Tests. The Pearson Correlation test was used to examine the significance of the relationships between the variables, while the Regression analysis was used to determine the contribution of the intensity of Facebook usage to social capital.

Respondents' Facebook Intensity

The descriptive analysis showed a normal distribution of the level of Facebook intensity among the respondents. On average, the respondents reported that they spent between 2 to 3 hours on Facebook

TABLE 1
The summarized statistics for the intensity of Facebook use

Individual Items and Scale	Mean	S.D.
Facebook intensity¹	0.00	0.716
About how many Facebook friends do you have at UPM or elsewhere? 0=Less than 10, 1=11-50, 2=51-100, 3=101-150, 4=151-200, 5=201-250, 6=251-300, 7=301-400, 8=More than 400	5.94	2.931
In the past week, on average, approximately how many minutes per day have you spent on Facebook? 0=Less than 10, 1=10-30, 2=31-60, 3=1-2 hours, 4=2-3 hours, 5=More than 3 hours	4.30	1.537
² Facebook is a part of my everyday activities	3.73	1.242
² I am proud to tell people that I'm on Facebook	3.54	1.208
² Facebook has become a part of my daily routines	3.64	1.256
² I feel out of touch when I have not logged onto Facebook for a while	3.47	1.328
² I feel I am a part of the Facebook community	3.58	1.157

Note: ¹Individual item was first standardized before taking an average to create scale due to differing item scale ranges. ² Response categories ranged from 1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree.

everyday and conveyed that they had an average of 250 to 300 online contacts. The respondents also agreed that Facebook had become parts of their everyday activity (mean = 3.73) and a part of their daily routines (mean = 3.64). These respondents agreed that they are proud to be on Facebook (mean = 3.54) and that they felt they are parts of the Facebook community (mean = 3.58). All these statistics are in tandem with Facebook being the most popular, largest and fastest growing SNS in the world, as ranked by the renowned eBusiness knowledgebase, eBizMBA (2010). However, the scale is below than 3.5, when it comes to respondents feeling out of touch when they have not logged onto the Facebook for awhile. This is a positive sign, with which the assumptions could be made that many respondents still have affiliations to offline activities such as outdoor sports and other healthy activities that allow them to exercise not only their physique, but also their social skills outside the so-called magic box.

The Use of Facebook to Meet New People vs. Connect with the Existing Offline Contacts

Another positive findings discerned from the analyses indicate that an average number of the respondents (mean = 4.22) use Facebook to keep in touch with old friends already known to them in the offline world. Many of these respondents also have used Facebook to check out on someone they met socially through their known offline friends (mean = 3.73). This may exemplify the social value of Facebook as a means of staying in touch and also as a means of examining a person and their characteristics. Perhaps, this is why it is common to see even employers scrutinizing potential and current employees using their Facebook profiles as one of the benchmarks. However, the respondents lean towards disagreeing when it comes to using Facebook to learn about other people in their classes (mean = 3.48), and those living around them (mean = 3.47). This probably constitutes to the lack of knowledge and the ability of the respondents to use Facebook to expand their networks

TABLE 2

Summary statistics for Facebook use for prior contacts and meeting new people

Individual Items and Scale ¹	Mean	S.D.
Off to Online: I use Facebook to connect with offline contacts (Cronbach's alpha=0.829)	3.72	0.935
I have used Facebook to check out someone I met socially	3.73	1.075
I use Facebook to learn more about other people in my classes	3.48	1.195
I use Facebook to learn more about other people living near me	3.47	1.250
I use Facebook to keep in touch with my old friends	4.22	1.070

Note: ¹Individual item ranged from 1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree, scales constructed by taking mean of items.

and connections with other individuals in the outside world. This could be further explained by a lack of curiosity which could be due to the respondent's upbringing, particularly pertaining to the notion of never talk or associate themselves with strangers.

Respondents' Social Capital

The wordings of the two measures of social capital, bridging and bonding as portrayed in Table 3, were slightly altered so as to reflect the context of the current study. The bridging social capital scale, with a very sturdy reliability (Cronbach's Alpha = 0.904) measured the extent to

which the respondents made use of their external assets to disperse information (Putnam, 2000). The bonding social capital scale which was also adapted to fit the context of UPM undergraduates only produced a marginal internal consistency (Cronbach's Alpha = 0.703). However, the bridging social capital scale (mean = 3.45) suggests that although the respondents prioritize maintaining relationships with their offline contacts, they are still open to interacting with other members outside their social circle. This may stipulate that the respondents are also keen on laying down new connections and forming bridges across borders, as well as interacting with new

TABLE 3
Summary statistics for the social capital items

Individual Items and Scales ¹	Mean	S.D.
Bridging Social Capital Scale (Cronbach's alpha=0.904)	3.45	0.922
I feel I am a part of the UPM community	3.41	1.338
I am interested in what goes on at UPM	3.56	1.151
UPM is a good place to be	3.45	1.242
I would be willing to contribute money to UPM after graduation	3.12	1.304
Interacting with people at UPM makes me want to try new things	3.53	1.166
Interacting with people at UPM makes me feel like a part of a larger community	3.56	1.222
I am willing to spend time to support general UPM activities	3.57	1.150
At UPM, I come into contact with new people all the time	3.53	1.209
Interacting with people at UPM reminds me that everyone in the world is connected	3.36	1.235
Bonding Social Capital Scale (Cronbach's alpha=0.703)	3.34	0.733
There are several people at UPM I trust to solve my problems	3.61	1.190
If I needed an emergency loan of \$100, I know someone at UPM whom I can turn to	3.19	1.428
There is someone at UPM I can turn to for advice about making very important decisions	3.50	1.202
The people I interact with at UPM would be good job references for me	3.57	1.083
I do not know people at UPM well enough to get them to do anything important	3.15	1.221

Notes: ¹ Individual items ranged from 1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree, scales constructed by taking mean of items.

various individuals of various backgrounds to diffuse and assimilate information. This in turn can widen the existing areas of trust and promote understanding that allows us to coexist better with one another. The bonding social capital scale (mean = 3.34) further solidifies findings that although the respondents are open to interacting with new members outside their social circle, their new connections are just on the surface and not in depth, as compared to their maintained connections. This means that the respondents have a good balance of not only being open to making new connections but also being cautious and gradually building trust with the new connections first.

The Relationship between Personal Backgrounds and Facebook Intensity

Table 4 shows the significance level and correlation coefficient values between a number of variables, all pertaining to the respondent's personal background and intensity of Facebook usage. Although all the variables seem to show a negative relationship towards the intensity of Facebook usage, only one, i.e. the respondent's current semester, is significantly correlated ($p =$

0.037), according to the Pearson Correlation Coefficient. This finding may imply that the junior students are more intense in Facebook usage than their seniors.

The Relationship between Family Backgrounds and Facebook Intensity

The correlation between variables associated with the respondent's family background and the intensity of Facebook usage is illustrated in Table 5.

Out of the seven variables listed, only 4 are of significant value. These significantly valued variables can further be shortlisted into pairs of positively and negatively correlated variables. The variable pair with the positive correlation is the respondent's parent's education. This means that the higher the parent's education, the higher the intensity of Facebook usage. The negatively correlated pair, the respondent's parents age, explains that the younger the age of the respondent's parents, the more intense the use of Facebook by the respondent. Both these findings can be explained by an inclination in the parents to stay in tune with modern day technology. Younger parents are accustomed and aware of the importance

TABLE 4
The Correlation between Respondent's Personal Background and Facebook Intensity

Variables	Correlation Coefficient (r)	Significance Level (p)
Age vs. Facebook Intensity	- 0.001	0.990
Gender vs. Facebook Intensity	- 0.021	0.818
Current Semester vs. Facebook Intensity	- 0.191	0.037
Current CGPA vs. Facebook Intensity	- 0.033	0.723

Notes: $p \leq 0.05^*$ (Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level [2-tailed])

of keeping up with the rapid change and innovations of technology. Parents of higher education, however, are already accustomed to the educational purposes of technology and must now keep abreast with the developments to remain on top in their working environment.

Regression between Facebook Intensity and Social Capital

Table 6 illustrates the regression values between the intensity of Facebook usage and social capital. The regression analysis found that Facebook intensity contributed about 6.1% to social capital ($\beta = 0.247^{**}$). This implies that although Facebook is a contributor to the increment of social capital, its effects are miniscule and it is therefore a poor indicator. About 94% of

social capital increment is the result of the effects from other factors, such as family and friends, neighborhood connections, trust and safety and community connections.

STUDY OUTCOMES

Objective 1

One of the objectives in this study was to examine the quality (users keeping in touch with known and unknown individuals) and quantity (time spent) of Facebook usage among undergraduates of Universiti Putra Malaysia. According to the study, one third of the respondents (35.0%) agreed that they have used Facebook to check out someone they met socially. However, when it came to learning more about other people in their classes, 29.2% agreed that they use Facebook for that purpose. About 34.2%

TABLE 5
The Correlation between Respondent's Family Background and Facebook Intensity

Variables	Correlation Coefficient (r)	Significance Level (p)
Father's Age vs. Facebook Intensity	- 0.225	0.013
Mother's Age vs. Facebook Intensity	- 0.213	0.020
Father's Occupation vs. Facebook Intensity	- 0.151	0.099
Mother's Occupation vs. Facebook Intensity	- 0.174	0.058
Father's Education vs. Facebook Intensity	0.180	0.049
Mother's Education vs. Facebook Intensity	0.234	0.010
Household Income vs. Facebook Intensity	0.154	0.092

Notes: $p \leq 0.05$ (Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level [2-tailed])

TABLE 6
Regression between Facebook Intensity and Social Capital

Variables	R ²	Standardized Coefficient (β)	F	Significance Level (p)
Facebook Intensity	1.0.061	2.0.247	3.7.683	4.0.006

Notes: Dependent Variable: Social Capital; Predictors: (Constant), Facebook Intensity $p \leq 0.01^{**}$ (Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level [2-tailed])

of the respondents agreed that they use Facebook to learn more about other people living near them. More than half (52.5%) strongly agreed that they use Facebook to keep in touch with old friends. This further suggests that although most respondents are accustomed to using Facebook as a means of keeping in touch with old offline contacts, the majority of them (mean = 3.72) concurred that they also use Facebook to check out and learn more about the individuals in their microsystem and exosystem. This indicates that UPM students are concerned with the characteristics of the individuals in their surroundings. Not only is this a positive finding to foster and ease social amalgamation and development between the undergraduates, it is also a precautionary measure for the respondents to be aware of unhealthy and disruptive behavioural patterns among their peers. As for the time spent on Facebook, this study found that the majority of UPM undergraduates (30.8%) spend a minimum of 3 hours a day on Facebook. Most respondents (36.7%) also strongly agreed that Facebook is a part of their daily activities. It can safely be said that Facebook is one of the major influences on the developing minds of our aspiring leaders. Also, since 34.2% of the respondents agreed that they feel part of the Facebook community, this should be a reason for the elected government bodies not to hamper this technological phenomenon, but utilize it as a vast arena to spread positive influences and morals for our younger generation.

Objective 2

The second objective of this study was to identify the relationship between the intensity of Facebook usage and the development of social capital. The findings of this study illustrated a positive ($\beta = 0.247$) and high significance ($p = 0.006$) level between these two variables. However, only 6% of Facebook usage constitutes to the increment of social capital. The other 94% are contributed by various other factors, such as family and friends, neighbourhood connections, trust and safety and community connections, which empirically support a similar finding in Bullen's (2007) study.

CONCLUSION

Personal and family backgrounds of Malaysian undergraduates at UPM, their levels of Facebook usage according to quantity and quality and also their levels of social capital were identified in this study. This research has shown that despite the respondent's diverse family backgrounds and various personal characteristics, they appear to be staunch Facebook users who are significantly aware of their own social capital and possess the ability and interest in maintaining their social connections. Therefore, Facebook may have played a role in increasing the rate of diffusion of information on a global scale. The findings of this study also stipulated that parents might also play a crucial part in keeping their children in touch with the modern day world. Making the Internet and its utilization available to the younger generation is now becoming essential as children have much

more to gain rather than to lose. On that notion, the authors have the opinion that if we are all hoping that our children will become future pioneers and pathfinders, spearheading the way for technology, we have to first ensure that they have the stamina to rival and keep pace with the technological current that is sweeping the world all over today. In conclusion, the results of this research paper revealed the ability of Facebook usages pertaining to the increase levels of social capital presumptions. Although it is still at a snail's pace, there is always a room for growth. As we have seen the positive impacts and how fundamental social capital is in forming lasting social connections within a community as well as the communities that surround it, there is no excuse for not rapidly expanding and cultivating this newfound online arena which has already taken our young minds by storm. An academically viable sense of direction on the future research on exploring Facebook is much needed, not just as a means of communications and social interactions, but extending beyond contemplation of the true significance of Social Network Services available on the Internet.

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Factors Contributing to Individual Capacity Building Levels among Women Entrepreneurs

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ABSTRACT

This research was conducted to identify factors which contribute to individual capacity building levels among women entrepreneurs. For this purpose, the study was carried out in the states of Johor and Melaka which involved 200 women entrepreneurs who made up the respondents of this particular research. This study was done through survey method using questionnaires. Simple Random Sampling methodology was used to gather the necessary data. The data were analyzed by means of 'Statistical Package for Social Science' (SPSS). Results of the Stepwise Regression test revealed that education level contributed the most towards individual capacity building levels among women entrepreneurs, with a variance of 51.9%. This finding indicates that education level can influence the capability and credibility of an individual towards achieving progress in her business.

Keywords: Individual capacity building, individual capacity building factors, women entrepreneurs

INTRODUCTION

Community development emphasizes the aspect of individual and community capacity to increase the standard of living (Barker, 2005; Simpson, Wood & Daws, 2003), and one of the most important values in community development is the aspect of capacity building (Barker, 2005; Simpson, Wood & Daws, 2003). The building of individual capacity or potential

plays an important role in the development of women nowadays (Dunn & Liang, 2006; Hampel, 2009). Capacity building is the process of increasing the capability in performance of a certain activity (Simister & Smith, 2010). Capacity building, as a process, is able to enhance the ability of an

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individual, group, organization or system to achieve a certain objective (Brown, LaFond & Macintyre, 2001). Therefore, capacity building is seen as a concept that is closely linked with education, training and human resource development for the purpose of upgrading an individual's capability (Enemark & Williamson, 2003; Taut, 2007).

Thus, individual capacity building is the process that can increase the individual's capabilities in everyday life. As such, this research was carried out to identify factors that contributed to the development of individual capacity building among businesswomen involved in small industries in southern Peninsular Malaysia. This research was done to determine individual capacity building factors among businesswomen and it is hoped that the research findings are able to be utilized in upgrading individual capacity building of this group so that they may further progress in the business arena.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Capacity Building and Women Entrepreneurship

Capacity building is a process of raising the ability of the individual, group, organization, community or society to fulfil the meaning and aim that individuals or groups wish to attain based on their needs (Yap, 2009). Therefore, capacity building is the building of capacity and ability of individuals (Hutchison & Lord, 2003; Macintyre, LaFond & Brown, 2001), group, organization, community or system (Simister & Smith, 2010; Macintyre,

LaFond & Brown, 2001) to achieve a certain objective. Besides this, capacity building is also viewed as a change that occurs in an individual, an organization and a society (Simister & Smith, 2010). Thus, the concept of individual capacity building is related to the realization that arises to increase the credibility of an individual, be it directly or indirectly, and is linked to the life of that individual (Larsen & Madsen, 1999).

According to Satterwhite (2007), capacity building is an action that is performed by an individual, an organization and a community to raise capacity through experience, knowledge, skills and other factors. Milen (2001), on the other hand, states that capacity building is a holistic and a continuous process to strengthen the ability of an individual in performing a certain act and to enhance the happiness of one's life. Overall, this means that capacity building is a process to upgrade the ability of an individual.

A career as an entrepreneur is also seen as having the ability to produce an individual who is capable (Levin & Shortell, 2006; Babu & Pinstup-Andersen, 2007; Sathiabama, 2010). Thus, entrepreneurship is a field that can create capacity building in an individual (Nyanducha, 2006). This indicates that the process of capacity building is closely related to entrepreneurship.

Entrepreneurship is the action of an individual as an entrepreneur to achieve a certain objective in business development (Jalbert, 2000; Babu & Pinstup-Andersen, 2007; Chemali, 2009). Entrepreneurship also refers to business formation and

business ownership by individuals or groups of individuals through the establishment of a company (Weeks & Seiler, 2001). Besides that, entrepreneurship may also exist in various sizes, such as small, medium or large companies (Amatori, 2009). As such, entrepreneurship does not take into account the type or size of businesses. This is because conducting business by large or small companies can have an effect on motivation and individual capability (Levin & Shortell, 2006; Babu & Pinstrup-Andersen, 2007). Thus, entrepreneurship is able to create highly motivated individuals in businesses, who will then create the processes of developing individual capacity building.

Nowadays, many women have increasingly participated in businesses. For this reason, a large portion of women today have a career as businesswomen (Vejs-Kjeldgaard, 2007; Norliza *et al.*, 2006). The involvement of women in the business field can contribute to national economic progress (Vejs-Kjeldgaard, 2007; Tcheknavorian-Asenbauer, 2008). Subsequently, the involvement of women in leading and managing businesses also shows the unfolding individual capacity building processes among these women entrepreneurs (Hughes, 2006). This is because the field of business enables empowerment of women (Sinha, 2005). This shows that the business field can give birth to individuals who are highly motivated and driven towards individual capacity building processes, which can then create a community that is empowered (Mohamed Khaled Nordin & Mohd Yusof Kasim, 2009).

The Relationship between Entrepreneurs' Background with the Level of Individual Women Entrepreneurial Development

The status of higher education has been found to contribute to entrepreneurial activity that is carried out by an individual (Cassar, 2006). Research also shows that business experience has a bearing on business growth (Harrison & Mason, 2007; Gundry & Welsch, 2001). Research also shows that business experience has a significant relationship with the motivation of the entrepreneur in running a business (Harrison & Mason, 2007). This shows that experience in business can influence the individual capacity building process as experience in business can enhance the growth of the business.

The number of years of experience in the business industry or in its formation has a relationship with the rate of business growth (Gundry & Welsch, 2001). A study by Gundry and Welsch (2001) shows that entrepreneurs in high-growth industries do not have much experience in the period that they are forming the business compared with the entrepreneur in low-growth industries. As such, studies show that the year of business formation contributes towards the performance of small entrepreneurs (Wiklund & Shepherd, 2005).

In addition, Olson *et al.* (2003) point out that the background of the entrepreneur and of the business influences the growth and success of a business. This makes clear that the field of business can influence the process of capacity building in an entrepreneur. Research has shown that there is a significant relationship between

business networking and the involvement of women in business (Ahmad & Naimat, 2010). Besides, the leadership of the business manager towards his employees also influences business growth (Gundry & Welsch, 2001). This reveals that the style of business leadership influences the individual capacity building level within a person as good leadership can enhance and accelerate business growth.

Entrepreneurship Theory and Business Motivation

Bull and Willard (1993) stated that the theory of entrepreneurship should contain a new combination of related motivation, business skills, abilities and environments. For entrepreneurs who are highly motivated, the level of education (Hisrich *et al.*, 1997; Hisrich, Brush & Lerner, 1997) and experience in business (Hisrich *et al.*, 1997) are essential elements in business. In addition, individuals' involvement in business is measured by the number of employees, growth in the number of employees (Rosa, Carter & Hamilton, 1996; Brush & Vanderwerf, 1992) and the return of income or sales growth (Brush & Vanderwerf, 1992). Meanwhile, factors affecting the success of women entrepreneurs in the business are motivation, social learning, network, business skills and the influence of environment, such as active involvement in business activities (Hisrich, Brush & Lerner, 1997). Against this backdrop, the theories of entrepreneurship and business motivation have shown that factors, such as education, experience in

business, employment, income, motivation, social learning, networks, skills and active involvement in business activities, affect the level of individuals' capacity building.

Individual Capacity Building Theory

Capacity building process can help individuals to learn and improve themselves. Ortiz and Taylor (2008) also noted that capacity building is a study in which a person is aware of the actions being done. Capacity building is seen as an activity to enhance the capacity and effectiveness of their organization, whereby this situation can thus provide better services to the community (Felkins, 2002). According WED Capacity Building Guide (2006), the development of women entrepreneurship requires the elements of motivation, capabilities and skills, ideas and markets, as well as resources in the process of capacity building among these entrepreneurs. In this study, the elements of motivation, skills and abilities, the idea and the market and resources may be regarded as factors in capacity building among female entrepreneurs in Malaysia.

Individual capacity building model for women entrepreneurs is shown in Fig.1.

Conceptual Framework

Conceptual framework and theoretical framework build on entrepreneurship and business models and theoretical framework of capacity building. The conceptual framework of this study was build based on theories and models of business entrepreneurship and motivation, combined with theoretical models and

research capacity building. The conceptual framework shows the relationship between entrepreneurs' background, business background, motivation and individual capacity building. In this study, entrepreneurs' background and business background intertwined. Entrepreneurs' background and business background influence the level of motivation and

individual capacity building for women entrepreneurs. Entrepreneurs' background and business background are antecedent variables. Motivation is the independent variable, while individual capacity building level is the dependent variable in this study. Therefore, the focus of this study is the level of individual capacity building among the female entrepreneurs in the small industry.

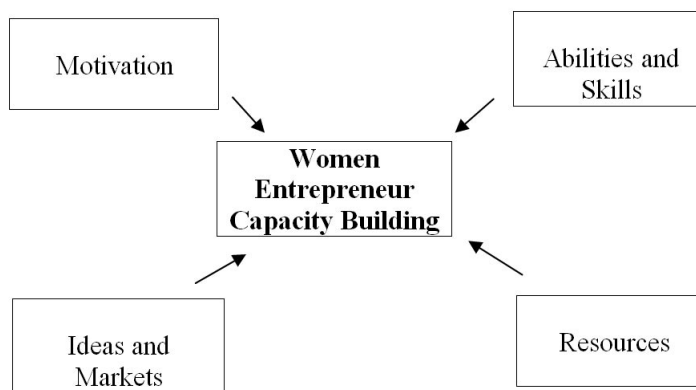


Fig.1: Individual Capacity Building for Women Entrepreneurs
(Source: *WED Capacity Building Guide, 2006*)

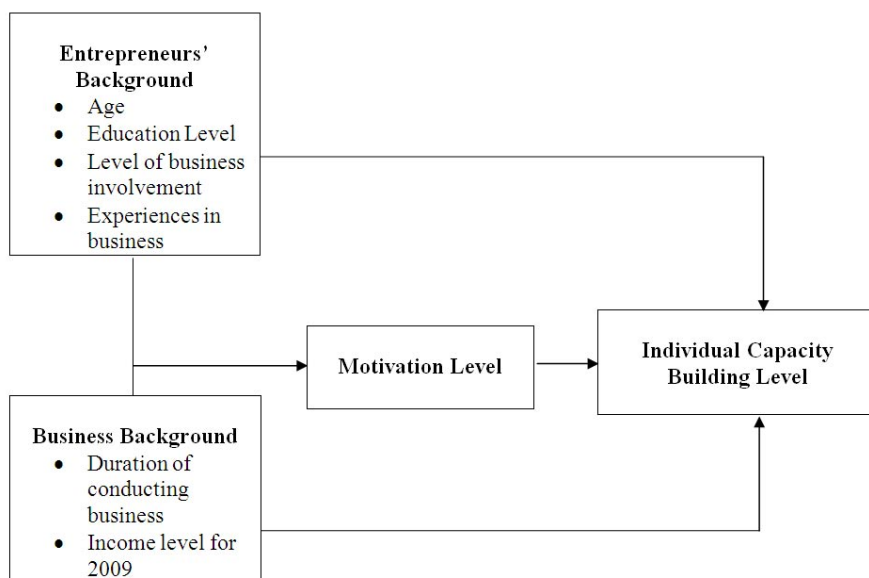


Fig.2: Conceptual framework

METHODOLOGY

A study was conducted by involving 200 female entrepreneurs having business in Johor and Malacca. The sampling method used was Simple Random Sampling. The population study involved all 420 female entrepreneurs listed in the records of the MARA and TEKUN in Johor and Malacca. According Krejcie and Morgan (1970, as cited in Sidek Mohd Noah, 2002), the population size of 420 requires a sample size of 201 respondents. However, after the analysis, only 200 entrepreneurs were involved in this study, as one sample was found to be defective and could interfere with the accuracy of the results of other studies. This study was carried out using survey design, since the population of the female entrepreneurs in Malaysia Peninsular is too large. Moreover, survey design allows attention to be given to population's characteristics, where the relationships between the variables are identified (Rozumah & Shereen, 2006). Data were collected for two months, from January and February, 2010 using questionnaires. The reliability of the indicators of concepts was tested during a pilot survey and the results are shown in Table 1. The results show that the indicators have high reliability.

The data gathered were analyzed using Statistical *Package for the Social Science* (SPSS v. 16) software. Meanwhile, matrix correlation method was used to identify the relationship between the background of the entrepreneur and the business to that of the motivation level and the level of individual capacity building level. Following this, Stepwise Regression method was used to identify the factors contributing the most to the individual female entrepreneur's capacity.

RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Research findings show that there were significant relationships between age and level of education ($r=-0.546$, $p\leq 0.01$), age and experience in business ($r= 0.547$, $p\leq 0.01$), age and duration of conducting business ($r=0.630$, $p\leq 0.01$), as well as between age and business income for 2009 ($r=0.168$, $p\leq 0.05$). The relationship between age and experience in business; age and duration of conducting business; and between age and business income for 2009 was positive. Besides, the study by Taormina and Lao (2006) also found that age had a positive relationship with experience and years of conducting business. This

TABLE 1
Alpha Cronbach Value Indicator

Indicator	Alpha Cronbach
Motivation	0.892
<u>Individual Capacity Building</u>	
Knowledge, Skill and Experience	0.946
Business network and access to resources	0.812
Leadership	0.936

means that the higher the age, the more the experience gained in business, the longer the duration of conducting business and the more the business income will be. However, only age and education status have a negative relationship, i.e., $r=-0.546$. This means that the higher the age, the lower the education level. This situation may be due to the fact that the women in earlier days had a low level of realization towards the importance of education, while women nowadays have realized the need to obtain a good education in their lives. For this reason, the higher the age (which translates as older women entrepreneurs), the lower their education level will be. This is also suggested by Taormina and Lao (2006) who found that age has a significant relationship with the level of education, while the relationship was also found to be negative ($r=-0.46$, $p\leq 0.01$). On the other hand, the level of involvement in the core business, motivation level and individual capacity building level do not have a significant relationship with the age of the respondents.

Education level has been found to have a significant relationship with experience in the business field ($r=0.377$, $p\leq 0.01$) and with duration of conducting business ($r=0.411$, $p\leq 0.01$). Similarly, the study by Taormina and Lao (2006) has also shown that education level has a significant relationship with experience in business. Besides that, education level also has a significant relationship with level of motivation ($r=0.180$, $p\leq 0.05$) and the level of individual capacity building ($r=0.546$, $p\leq 0.01$). This indicates that education

level has a connection with motivation and individual capacity building levels among female entrepreneurs. However, involvement level with core business, and business income for 2009 did not have a significant relationship with education level.

The level of involvement in core business also has a significant relationship with the level of motivation ($r=0.300$, $p\leq 0.01$) and the level of individual capacity building ($r=0.195$, $p\leq 0.01$). This finding shows that the level of involvement in core business by the respondents, either full-time or part-time, has a relationship with motivation level and individual capacity building level in the running of business.

Similarly, the level of involvement in core business also has a significant relationship with the level of motivation ($r=0.300$, $p\leq 0.01$) and the level of individual capacity building ($r=0.195$, $p\leq 0.01$). This result reveals that the level of involvement in core business by the respondents, either full-time or part-time, has a relationship with motivation level and individual capacity building level in the running of business.

There is a significant relationship between experience in business and age ($r=0.547$, $p\leq 0.01$) and education level ($r=0.377$, $p\leq 0.01$). Other than that, experience in business also has a significant relationship with duration of conducting business ($r=0.596$, $p\leq 0.01$) and business income for 2009 ($r=0.264$, $p\leq 0.01$). This shows that experience in business influences the size of the respondents' businesses. This is because the more the experience in business is, the more the duration of

conducting business and the higher the income level of the respondent. Besides that, the level of involvement in the core business also affects the experience level of the respondents. Therefore, research findings has shown that the experience in business is significantly linked with motivation level ($r=0.187$, $p\leq 0.01$) and the level of individual capacity building ($r=0.149$, $p\leq 0.05$). Additionally, the study by Alsos, Saksen and Softing (2006) has also found that experience is related to motivation level and the capacity of the entrepreneur. Thus, the experience in business is undeniably important to increase the levels of motivation and the levels of individual capacity building among female entrepreneurs.

As illustrated in Table 2, there is a significant relationship between the duration of conducting business with age ($r=0.630$, $p\leq 0.01$) and education level ($r=0.411$, $p\leq 0.01$). Therefore, the older the age, the longer the duration of conducting business. Besides, the experience in business also influences the duration of conducting business. As such, it is found that duration of conducting business also influences the motivation level ($r=0.149$, $p\leq 0.05$) and the level of individual capacity building ($r=0.165$, $p\leq 0.05$). Hence, the longer the period of conducting business, the higher the motivation level and the individual capacity building level among female entrepreneurs.

It is found that there is a significant relationship between 2009 business income and age ($r=0.168$, $p\leq 0.05$) and business experience ($r=0.264$, $p\leq 0.01$). As presented

in Table 2, the business income for 2009 had a significant correlation with motivation level ($r=0.181$, $p\leq 0.05$) and individual capacity building level ($r=0.477$, $p\leq 0.01$). This shows that the business income level for 2009 affected the motivation level and individual capacity building level. This could be due to the fact that income, be it high or low, will drive the respondents to work harder to further bring progress to their businesses. Therefore, the higher the income, the higher too will be the motivation level and individual capacity building level.

Furthermore, the level of motivation has a significant correlation with the level of education, ($r=0.180$, $p\leq 0.05$), the level of involvement in core business ($r=0.300$, $p\leq 0.01$), the experience in business ($r=0.187$, $p\leq 0.01$), duration in business ($r=0.149$, $p\leq 0.01$) and business income for 2009 ($r=0.181$, $p\leq 0.01$). It was found that only age did not have any significant correlation with motivation level. This could be due to the fact that an entrepreneur's motivation depends primarily on the individual's own effort (Praag & Cramer, 2003).

Individual capacity building level was found to have significant correlations with education level ($r=0.546$, $p\leq 0.01$), level of involvement with core business ($r=0.195$, $p\leq 0.01$), business experience ($r=0.149$, $p\leq 0.01$), duration in business ($r=0.165$, $p\leq 0.01$) and business income for 2009 ($r=0.477$, $p\leq 0.01$). Finally, the research findings reveal that motivational level had a significant correlation with individual capacity building level ($r=0.495$, $p\leq 0.01$). This also means that the higher the level

TABLE 2
Relationship between Entrepreneurs' Background and Business Background with Motivation Level and Individual Capacity Building Level

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1.Age								
2. Education level	-0.546** 0.000							
3. Level of Business involvement	0.003 0.962	0.122 0.086						
4. Experience in business	0.547** 0.000	0.377** 0.000	0.097 0.171					
5. Duration of conducting Business	0.630** 0.000	0.411** 0.000	0.033 0.645	0.596** 0.000				
6. Income level for 2009	0.168* 0.018	0.009 0.898	0.119 0.093	0.264** 0.000	0.138 0.052			
7. Motivation level	0.052 0.462	0.180* 0.018	0.300** 0.000	0.187** 0.008	0.149* 0.040	0.181* 0.015		
8. Individual capacity building level	0.059 0.404	0.546** 0.000	0.195** 0.006	0.149* 0.030	0.165* 0.017	0.477** 0.000	0.495** 0.000	

** Significant correlation at level $p \leq 0.01$

* Significant correlation at level $p \leq 0.05$

of motivation, the higher the individual capacity building level among female entrepreneurs.

Based on the research findings of correlation tests, only significant variables of individual capacity building were taken into account for carrying out the regression tests. Subsequently, the regression tests were performed to identify the variables contributing the most to individual capacity building level among female entrepreneurs. The results of the regression tests are shown in Table 3.

By means of performing regression stepwise method, the variable of involvement level in core business was removed from the regression test. Consequently, Table 3 shows only five variables that have been identified as contributing to individual capacity building level. All these five variables contributed about 71.7% towards individual capacity building level among women entrepreneurs.

Based on the data given in Table 3, it was found that educational level [$F(1, 199)=84.46$, $p \leq 0.01$] contributed around 51.9% variance ($R^2=0.519$) to the individual capacity building level. This means that the educational level variable ($Beta=0.422$, $p \leq 0.01$) is the main variable of individual capacity building level. Also, as shown in Table 3, other variables (namely, motivation level, business income level for 2009, duration of conducting business and business experience) also increased the contribution towards individual capacity building level. The combination of the educational level variable with motivation level variable ($Beta=0.391$, $p \leq 0.01$) has increased (66.4%-

51.9%), that is, 14.5% variance towards the factor contributing to the level of individual capacity building [$F(2, 198)=80.36$, $p \leq 0.01$]. Meanwhile, the variable for 2009 business income ($Beta=0.331$, $p \leq 0.01$) has increased (69.3%-66.4%) i.e., 2.9% variance towards factors contributing to the level of individual capacity building [$F(3, 197)=75.14$, $p \leq 0.01$]. Next, the variable for duration of conducting business has increased (70.6%-69.3%) i.e., 1.3% variance to the factors that contributed to the level of individual capacity building [$F(4, 196)=69.17$, $p \leq 0.05$]. Lastly, the variable for business experience ($Beta=0.137$, $p \leq 0.05$) increased (71.7%-70.6%) i.e., 1.1% variance to the factors contributing to the level of individual capacity building [$F(5, 195)=62.33$, $p \leq 0.05$].

Upon analysis, it was found that the biggest contributor towards the level of individual capacity building among female entrepreneurs is their education level ($R^2=0.519$). This means that education level plays an important part in creating capable entrepreneurs. Learning or education, whether formal or informal, greatly contributes to the process of individual capacity building (Taut, 2007). This is because education is greatly able to increase the knowledge of female entrepreneurs. The knowledge gained has enabled these female entrepreneurs to plan and manage their businesses much better. Because of this, education has become the biggest contributor to the level of individual capacity building among female entrepreneurs.

Next, level of motivation is the second biggest contributor, with an increase of $\Delta R^2=0.145$ to become $R^2=0.664$. This

TABLE 3

Factors Contributing to Individual Capacity Building Level among Women Entrepreneurs.

Predictor Variables	Beta(B)	R	R ²	ΔR^2
1. Education Level	0.422	0.720	0.519	0.519
2. Motivation Level	0.391	0.814	0.664	0.145
3. Business Income for 2009	0.331	0.832	0.693	0.029
4. Duration of Conducting Business	0.144	0.840	0.706	0.013
5. Business Experience	0.137	0.847	0.717	0.011

means that the motivation factor in business represents an element that needs to be taken into account by female entrepreneurs and reinforces that the motivation factor is the second biggest contributor towards the level of individual capacity building among these entrepreneurs.

The factor of 2009 business income is ranked as third to contribute towards level of individual capacity building, with an increase of $\Delta R^2=0.029$ to become $R^2=0.693$. Here, it seems that the seriousness and the effort of the female entrepreneur have effects on their capability, indicating the occurrence of individual capacity building processes among female entrepreneurs who strive to improve their business income.

The duration of conducting business is the fourth ranked factor contributing to the level of individual capacity building, with an increase of $\Delta R^2=0.013$ to become $R^2=0.706$. Thus, the longer the duration the entrepreneur is in business, the greater the learning process will occur. In this way, the level of individual capacity building in each entrepreneur will also increase. This reveals that the length of duration a person is in business will indeed contribute towards level of individual capacity building.

Finally, business experience represents the fifth ranked factor contributing towards the level of individual capacity building, with an increase of $\Delta R^2=0.011$ to become $R^2=0.717$. This means that experience in doing business is among the main factors for increasing individual capacity building levels. This is because through experience, an individual can obtain information, knowledge, and skills that can expand their capability as an entrepreneur (Hackler, Harpel & Mayer, 2008). This further shows that experience in business is a factor that contributes towards individual capacity building level among female entrepreneurs.

Therefore, all five independent variables, namely, education level, motivation level, 2009 business income level, duration of conducting business and business experience, together contribute 71.7% towards individual capacity building level among female entrepreneurs.

CONCLUSION

This study shows that education is the main contributor towards individual capacity building level among female entrepreneurs at present. This study highlights that education or academic learning is the most

important factor to enhance individual capacity (Simpson, Wood & Daws, 2003). Through education, an entrepreneur may become exposed to limited knowledge and information. Thus, the level of knowledge, skills and experience, together with leadership level keeps on increasing. Moreover, the relationship or the network within the business, and access capability are improved. Therefore, it can be concluded that the level of education does contribute greatly towards individual capacity building level among the female entrepreneurs today.

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“I doesn’t know English”: Beliefs and Practices in the Teaching of Speaking in ESL Classroom

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ABSTRACT

“What happened to the 11 years of learning English? A distinction in SPM but cannot speak in English?” Poor communication proficiency among Malaysian learners has become a national problem. Speaking proficiency in ESL is important if Malaysia wants to produce a generation of global communicators, which is in line with the country’s mission to become a fully developed nation. However, we often hear of grievances that many Malaysian graduates are not employed due to their poor communication skills in English. This study seeks to investigate challenges faced by ESL teachers in developing students’ speaking skills. The study involved 47 ESL teachers and 100 students who represented different regions in Malaysia. The respondents were chosen using purposive sampling. Meanwhile, semi-structured interviews were used to collect the data, which were then analyzed using content analysis. The results suggest that both teachers and students perceive speaking as an important language skill. However, teachers face numerous challenges in translating this belief into practice. This has led to a mismatch between what teachers and students perceive they need and the actual practice in the classroom.

Keywords: ESL, oral communication skills, mismatch between beliefs and practice

INTRODUCTION

“Why can’t our students speak fluently in English even after 11 years of schooling?” “How is teaching speaking skill taught in the English language classroom?” These are the disturbing questions that haunt ESL teaching and learning in Malaysia. There are 80,000 graduates who are jobless and this figure does not include the over 100,000 graduates who will enter the job market (New Strait Times, 2005). It is also reported

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that one of the contributing factors why school leavers and graduates are unable to secure a good job is because of their poor command in English. This is supported by a survey conducted by the Malaysian Government on Malaysian graduates, where they found that two out of the three main reasons for the 60,000 Malaysian graduates failed to be employed are related to their proficiency in ESL. First, the graduates have poor English Language proficiency and second, they have poor oral communication skills in English (Malaysia Today, 2005). Academic publications, medicine, science and technology, economics and business use English as the leading language. Without a doubt, being equipped with the competency in English is empowering especially in the world of global connectivity. In contrast, poor command of English language could weigh down a person's acquisition of knowledge and opportunity to a greater job prospect. If this situation continues, Malaysia will face problems in the competency of its Human Resources which may affect nation building and the economy growth of the country. Thus, realizing the importance of English language communication skills, the researchers carried out this study.

According to Anderson (1981), human affective characteristics influence their way of thinking, acting and feeling in different situations. Among these affective characteristics is belief. In relation to teachers' beliefs in teaching and learning, Richards and Lockhart (1996) define teachers' beliefs' as "systems founded on the goals, values and beliefs teachers hold in relation

to the content and process of teaching, and their understanding of the systems in which they work and their roles within it" (p. 30). They further summarize these beliefs derived from a number of different sources, which include the teachers' experience as language learners, their experiences of what works best, their established practice, the personality factors, educational based or research-based principles and principles that are derived from an approach or method (p. 30-31). Borg (1998) found that it is the teacher's educational and professional experiences in life that help shape his or her pedagogical system.

In relation to beliefs and practice, it is found that teachers' beliefs influence their pedagogical practice. Beliefs are what they think they should do and classroom practice is what they actually do based on what they believe. Zheng (2009) asserted that teachers' beliefs are important concepts in helping us to understand teachers' thought processes, instructional practices, change and learning to teach. What teachers believe will be expressed in realities as these concepts will influence their decision making and instructional classroom practices. Davis (2003) added that 'beliefs do affect behaviour' and 'given the significant role that belief can play in determining behaviour, beliefs relating to language learning are important' (p. 207). What teachers do to promote learning in the classroom or their pedagogical practice is a reflection of their beliefs about teaching and learning that have been accumulated through the years.

On the other hand, learners' beliefs of language learning involve their beliefs about the time needed to be fluent in that language, the relative difficulties of language, the roles of grammar, vocabulary and communication in language learning and other aspects (Huang, 2006). Block (1994) stated that the teachers may control the experiences that the learners are exposed to, but it is the learners who select what is learnt from those experiences.

Riley (1996) asserted that learners' beliefs about language learning will directly influence or determine their attitudes towards language and how it is learned, plus the learner's motivation will have direct and indirect effects of their behaviour. For example, if learners believe that having a good command in English, especially in oral communication skills, could give them better opportunities in finding a job in the future, they will concentrate on improving their oral communication skills in English. This is also because "...human motivation is to a large extent socially shaped in this contextual dependence is particularly prominent when target behaviour is the learning of a L2..." (Dornyei, 2001, p. 65).

In other words, beliefs affect the behaviour and also the teaching and learning outcomes for both the teachers and students. Intraprasert and Wang (2009) asserted that if both learners and teachers share more similarities than differences in their beliefs, the learning and teaching environment would be more successful and satisfying for both. However, beliefs, actions and outcomes do not always complement each other. Argyris

and Schon (1974) argued that one person has a set of beliefs that contain many conditions and expectations. The person who performs an action based on those set of beliefs may expect a certain kind of results and there may or may not be a relationship between beliefs and behaviour. If the outcomes of the actions are not as expected, the beliefs and behaviour will change. There may be other factors that prevent the person from putting into practice what he or she believes in. From the aspect of teaching, there must be a reason why teachers have failed to put their pedagogical beliefs into practice. Consequently, the discrepancy between teachers' beliefs and classroom instructions could leave an impact on the students' learning performance because the types of activities that the teachers choose, while the questions and feedbacks given will also influence the students' learning.

Previous studies have suggested that teachers' beliefs in teaching oral communication skills in the English language classroom are seldom put into practice. The teachers' beliefs do not always go hand in hand with their practices in the classroom. There is a gap that exists between their pedagogical beliefs and their classroom practice and this hinders them from applying what they believe in the language classroom. Wang (2000) conducted a study on English teachers at tertiary level in China to investigate to the extent to which the teachers employed the pioneering practices in CLT and the results showed positive outcomes, i.e. the teachers indicated that they have become

more communicative-oriented. However, the results also show that teachers still employ traditional classroom practice such as textbook-based teaching. In addition, the results also reveal that what determines the teachers' classroom instructions in CLT is not the training that they received but the type of students they teach. The students' low proficiency level somehow makes the teacher switch to traditional classroom practice that is more teacher-centred.

In Japan, the dilemma faced in the teaching of oral communication skills through CLT is like wearing two pair of shoes – a dichotomous curriculum of two distinct methodologies. The teachers believe in the importance of CLT, yet they are obliged to conduct teacher-fronted non-communicative activities. One of the teachers, Mr Fujimoto reported:

At the moment, I think English teachers in Japan, especially in high schools, are forced to wear two pairs of shoes. One is for the entrance exam...at the same time; we need to teach English for communication. I find it difficult. But for my wish, I think English is a means of communication. I would like to achieve it.

What causes this problem is the weightage that is placed so much on preparing students for the grammar-biased entrance examinations which rely mainly on textbooks. These textbooks contain the targeted grammatical features that

the students are required to master. This indicates that although the teachers are inspired to employ CLT into their teaching, they are restrained from doing so because they cannot ignore the demands of the examination. They have no choice but to prepare the students for the exam and this means conducting grammar-based, teacher-centred classroom instructions.

The same problem goes with students' beliefs in their English language learning. The classroom instructions in the language classroom could not always achieve the learners' beliefs and expectations and this has led to frustrations among the learners. Kumaravadivelu (1991) asserted that both teachers and learners carry with them personal perceptions towards language teaching and learning. They interpret classroom instructions and activities from their own perspectives and these perspectives may not always match. Ellis (2008, p. 24) claims that "...if beliefs influence the actions that learners perform to learn an L2, they cannot be ignored by teachers. Little learning is likely to take place if there is a mismatch between the teachers' and the students' belief systems". The mismatch between the teachers' beliefs and the learners' beliefs could lead to a big gap in second language teaching and learning, especially in oral communication skills. In a study conducted by Peacock (1999), an investigation on the beliefs about language learning on 202 EFL students and 45 EFL teachers in the Department of English at the City University of Hong Kong. The aim of the study was to determine whether there are differences of

terms of beliefs between the students and teachers regarding language learning and whether those differences will affect the students' language learning. The results found four mismatched learners' beliefs that negatively affect their proficiency. The gaps between the teachers and the students lead to reduced learners' confidence and satisfaction to the class and reluctance to participate in the communicative activities conducted. When the students' expectations were not met, many became dissatisfied and frustrated because they could not grasp the rationale behind the tasks that the teachers carried out in the classroom. In another study, Rasekh and Valizadeh (2004) investigated on the learners' beliefs about different learning activities and the degree of discrepancy between learners' preferences and instructors' awareness of those preferences in foreign language. A total of 603 EFL students and 27 instructors were involved in the study. The results showed that the students' preferences for communicative activities were higher than the instructors' beliefs. This indicates that learners find the traditional methods of language instruction as not helpful enough in developing their communicative competence as they have come to realize the importance of English not only for academic purpose but for communications as well. Unfortunately, the results also show that the instructors are not aware of their students' preferences towards communicative activities. This discrepancy could be lead to an unsatisfying learning outcomes as claimed by Richards and Lockhart (1996),

who stated that the gap between the teachers' beliefs and the learners' beliefs could lead to a mismatch between their assumption to what is useful to focus on in the lesson or resulting in students undervaluing the activities assigned by the teachers as those activities do not match their expectation in language learning.

This study seeks to investigate beliefs and practice in the teaching and learning of Oral Communication skills in the Malaysian ESL classroom. The research questions for this study are as follows:

1. What do teachers believe as the most important skill in students' language learning?
2. What do students' believe as the most important skill in their own language learning?
3. Which language skill do teachers emphasize most in their teaching?

METHODOLOGY

This is a survey done through interviews. A qualitative study is especially useful when researchers need to search for meanings about a phenomenon. Glesne and Peshkin (1992) assert that qualitative research can uncover multiple realities of a social setting. This study explored an in depth manner the realities of the teaching/learning situation in various schools in Malaysia. These schools are located in different states and may have different social cultural contexts. Therefore, although such studies have been conducted in other ESL contexts, situational factors, contextual social factors, as well as

services and facilities that are unique to the Malaysian classroom may give rise to the distinctive perspective of the phenomenon.

Subjects

The subjects comprised of 47 teachers and 100 students from 15 schools in the states of Perak, Melaka, Kelantan, Johor, Kedah and Selangor. These schools comprised of elite and normal schools, boys schools, girls schools and also co-ed. Stratified random sampling was used in this study for the surveys and the semi-structured interviews on both the teachers and students as samples from different levels and backgrounds were needed to represent the real population.

Research Instruments

The semi-structured interview was carried out to elicit data on teachers' beliefs and practices in developing students' speaking skills and students' beliefs on what is important in their language learning. According to Marshall and Rossman (1999), interviews are useful in exploring participants' experiences, interpretations and meanings. The semi-structured interview allows for in-depth information gathering and free responses from the teachers.

Generally, the semi-structured interviews on the teachers were designed to reveal their background information, language competency, perception of their students' language competency, teachers' belief about ESL, teachers' attitudes to communicative language teaching, activities in the teaching of speaking skills and factors which influence or prevent teachers from

using CLT. Likewise, the student's semi-structured interview was designed to reveal the students' background information, beliefs in language learning and motivation, willingness to communicate in English, perceived competence in English and activities used in English classes. For the purpose of this paper, the researchers only selected the questions on the teachers' beliefs on ESL teaching and the factors preventing teachers from using CLT and the students' beliefs in language learning and motivation to answer the research questions.

Data Collection

Prior to data collection, permission letters were obtained from the Malaysian Ministry of Education and the various State Education Departments. These letters were then used to seek the permission from the randomly selected schools. The data were collected by a team of researchers from UPM comprising lecturers and graduate students. At the beginning of the interview, the purpose of the interview was made clear to the teachers and the consent for recording the session and jotting down short notes during the session was sought. Each interview session lasted about 15 to 30 minutes.

Data Analysis

The data in this study were concurrently analyzed as the data collection to identify key issues, recurrent events or activities. These were then categorized and became a focus for the researcher as more data were collected. These categories were defined to enable the researchers to identify the

phrases that describe the relevant items. These phrases were then compiled under the relevant categories and coded as themes. The categories and themes were then used to explain the results.

RESULTS

The results are presented according to the various sections of the questionnaires, while the discussion is organized according to the research questions.

Teachers' Beliefs as the Most Important Skill in Helping Students Learn the Language

TABLE 1

Skills	Percentage (%)
Speaking	44.45
Reading	29.63
Listening	11.11
Writing	9.26
All Skills	3.7
Grammar	1.85

44.45% of the teachers believe speaking as the most important language skill in helping the students learn the language (refer to Table 1). The main reasons given by the teachers are 'speaking is an important mean of communication', 'it is important to prepare the students for the real world' and 'speaking helps to learn the language, and thus enables students to express their feelings and share their knowledge'. This is followed by reading (29.63%) and listening (11.11%). The two least important skills are writing (9.26%) and grammar (1.85%). A total of 3.7% teachers believe that all

the skills are equally important to help the students to learn the language.

Students' beliefs as the most important skill in their own language learning

TABLE 2

Skills	Percentage (%)
Speaking	45.45
Reading	15.45
Listening	12.73
Writing	10.90
Vocabulary	8.20
Grammar	7.27

A majority of 45.45% students believe that speaking is the most important skill in order for them to learn a language. Most of them stated that it is important to be fluent in English for the future, especially when attending job interviews and furthering their studies in higher institutions both locally and abroad. Besides that, the students are aware that English is an international language and it is important for them to possess good command in English to enable them to communicate with people from different countries. Reading stands as the second most important skill (15.45%), followed by listening (12.73%), writing (10.90%), vocabulary (8.20%) and grammar (7.27%).

Teacher's teaching emphasis in the English class

TABLE 3

Skills	Percentage (%)
Writing	52.05
Reading	28.77
Speaking	15.07
Grammar	2.74
Listening	1.37

Table 1 indicates that a majority of 44.45% teachers acknowledged speaking as the most important skill in students' language learning. However, the skill that is given the most emphasis in teaching is writing, which is 52.05%. The most prominent reason given is that this is an important element in the examination. In fact, this response was gathered at 100%. Among the main reasons given are 'It is an exam oriented system', 'the system has an effect on our teaching' 'by the end of the day, I'll try my best to fulfil the exam', and 'for exam purpose, we have to write a lot'. Reading (28.77%) is the next most emphasized skill, while only 15.07% is given emphasis on speaking because it is only tested in the oral exam. Grammar and listening are at 2.74% and 1.37% each.

DISCUSSION

1. *What do teachers believe as the most important skill in students' language learning?*

Most teachers believe that speaking is the most important language skill in helping their students learn the language because this will help them to prepare themselves

for the real world. Besides that, teachers believe that one's proficiency in a language is judged from the way one speaks and speaking itself helps the student to learn about the language. Teachers also believe that the ability to speak or communicate will encourage students to express their feelings, knowledge and ideas, not only at school level but it could also be applied outside the classroom. This corresponds with the studies done by Shibata (2007) on 109 Japanese Teachers of English (JTE), where he found that JTEs believe that they should spend more time to develop students' communication skills instead of focusing on the teaching of grammar because they believe in giving the students the opportunity to use the language for real life purpose, which is important compared to learning drills of grammar.

2. *What do students' believe as the most important skill in their own language learning?*

The second research question seeks to find out students' belief as the most important skill in their own language learning. Likewise, the students also believe that speaking is the most important skill for their own language learning. They believe it is essential for them to equip themselves with the ability to communicate or to speak in English for real life purposes, for instance, to further studies overseas with English as the medium of instruction in higher institution, communicate with people from different countries, and for job purposes. In fact, the study by Rasekh

and Valizadeh (2004) on learners' beliefs about different learning activities and degree of discrepancy between learners' preferences and instructors' awareness of those preferences painted similar results. The results showed that the students' preferences for communicative activities were higher than the instructors' beliefs. This indicates that learners find the traditional methods of language instruction as not helpful enough in developing their communicative competence as they have come to realize the importance of English, not only for academic purpose but for communications as well. This is further supported by a study by Intraprasert and Wang (2009), who found that students agreed that if they could speak English fluently, they would have a lot of opportunities to use it especially in helping them to get better jobs. In addition, many students wish to practice their English rather than just for the sake of meeting the demand of the examinations they feel the need to equip themselves with good proficiency in English as it is regarded as one of the important criterion for undergraduates to seek for job after their graduation.

3. *Which language skill do teachers emphasize most in their teaching?*

Based on the results, there seems to be a discrepancy between what the teacher believe and what they practice. Teachers believe that speaking is the most important skill in their students' language learning; but despite acknowledging the importance of speaking, the emphasis in their language teaching is given mostly on writing. The

main reason seems to be due to the fact that teachers need to prepare students for the national exam. Writing is an important component in the national exam and teachers need to prepare their students to do well in the national exam. This is supported by Fauziah and Nita (2001) in a study that investigated the reasons for KBSM students' low proficiency in English. They found that the KBSM syllabus is communicative but unfortunately the exam is not. Most of the teachers were found to emphasize on the reading and writing skills because these are the skills that are mainly tested in the examination. In a similar case in Japan, Sakui (2004) reported that the dilemma faced in the teaching of oral communication skills through CLT is like wearing two pair of shoes – a dichotomous curriculum of two distinct methodologies. The teachers believe in the importance of CLT, yet they are obliged to conduct teacher-fronted non-communicative activities. This is due to the weightage that is placed so much on preparing students for the grammar-biased entrance examinations which rely mainly on textbooks. In Hong Kong, Evans (1997) investigated on the implementation of the Hong Kong's communicative English language curriculum at secondary school to the extent to which whether this pedagogical aims have actually been implemented. The results indicated that the communicative curriculum had a minimal impact in the English language classroom, as most of the teachers still favour both product-oriented and teacher-centred approach. They found that product-oriented and

teacher-centred approaches are the most effective in preparing the students for the exam and also ensuring their success in the exam. Therefore, although they believe in the importance of oral communication skills in developing students' language learning, teachers are left with limited choice but to tailor their lessons towards the demand of the examinations.

CONCLUSION

To a great extend, the success of the nation depends on its people. One of the reasons many graduates are not hired is because they are not proficient in the oral communication skills, especially in English. The results of the study suggest that teachers acknowledge the importance of speaking. In fact, most teachers reported that they believe speaking is the most important skill in students' language learning. However, due to the demand of the national examinations, they could not put their belief into practice because speaking is not an important component of the exam. Thus, there seems to be a mismatch between what the country needs and what the country offers. The country needs people who are orally competent, but the students produced seem to be those who are taught to write and to read rather than to speak. Therefore, it is high time that ESL practitioners reflect on this and take positive steps to rectify the situation. There need to be a reformation in the teachers' mindset and practice. Teacher trainers need to train teachers to think that teaching just for the sake of passing the exam is not preparing the students for real-life purposes

and the ministry of education should not put so much weightage on writing in the examination as all language skills should be emphasized equally. Besides that, the teachers should be sent, from time to time, for in-service trainings to equip themselves with the current teaching methods and materials in the teaching of speaking. It would also be insightful and beneficial for future research to investigate how teachers could still implement their teaching practice based on their beliefs in developing speaking skills among ESL learners, even under situational constraints. It is hoped that when more prominence is placed on the teaching of speaking, especially in producing natural and spontaneous utterances, and the country will produce more orally competent ESL learners and graduates, thus a more developed nation.

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Application of Human Computer Interaction in Developing an IT-Supported Design Collaboration Process

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ABSTRACT

Increasing globalisation and international collaboration have led to an increased demand for improved communication within design collaboration processes. To address this issue, IT-supported design collaboration processes have been utilised, enabling professional design team members to work in a distributed design environment. However, IT-supported systems often lack human understanding, making such systems frustrating for professionals to use. The objective of this theoretical paper is to propose Human-Computer Interaction (HCI) integrated approaches that improve the interaction among professional design team members and collaborative technologies in a distributed design environment. This is particularly examined in the context of the building industry. For this purpose, this paper analyses the related literature in design collaboration processes. This analysis is used to assess how earlier systems affect design team members' capabilities to accept and use collaborative technologies. It is found that in addition to impacting the ergonomic and cognitive capabilities of professionals, a system should also motivate professionals intrinsically and extrinsically. The findings of this study are essential for promoting the

utility of IT-supported design collaboration projects. In addition, this study supports further research to increase the level of engagement in collaborative team work and mitigate knowledge loss in a complex project lifecycle.

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INTRODUCTION

Globalisation (Kolarevic *et al.*, 2000) has motivated building industries to increase the establishment of distributed design collaboration. On the other hand, the growing popularity of internet-based and collaborative technologies is creating a promising approach to non-located design collaboration processes. However, with regard to advances in collaborative technologies, such as 3D visualisation systems (Rahimian & Ibrahim, 2007), collaborative CAD and Computer Supported Collaborative Work (CSCW) tools (Christiansson *et al.*, 2001), Virtual Reality (VR) (Bouchlaghem & Whyte, 2000), Virtual prototyping (Li *et al.*, 2008) and Building Information Modeling (Popov *et al.*, 2010), design team members prefer to communicate through conventional modes. Subsequently, e-collaboration is not yet the norm in design collaboration processes (Delavari & Ibrahim, 2009). As a result, design team members have to contend with the impracticality and inconvenience of having to exchange vast amounts of information among one another, who are usually located in different geographical areas. The authors believe that there is lack of understanding for building professionals in using collaborative technologies in IT-supported collaboration processes. Therefore, to reduce the problems in current conventional collaboration methods and to

fulfil the vital need for globalised practice in construction industry (Kolarevic *et al.*, 2000), current IT-supported design collaboration systems should be supported with HCI.

Basically, HCI is the study of how humans use computer systems to simplify, perform or support a certain task (Dix & Finlay, 2004). Therefore, the human needs to present his/her requirements to the computing system. In this regard, the authors believe that to motivate building professionals to perform their activities in IT-supported design collaboration methods and to satisfy their human need, there is an urgent need to integrate HCI into design collaboration processes. In this study, HCI is used to identify the variety of approaches to improve the interaction among design building professionals and interactive computing systems.

In this paper we aim to lay the theoretical groundwork for HCI integration in IT-supported design collaboration processes. The paper is organised as follows. First, a brief introduction and background to the problem is presented. Next section defines HCI from different perspectives and analyses the earlier HCI frameworks, introduces design collaboration processes in building project teams and its associated challenges. The importance of HCI in design collaboration processes is also explained in this section and the last section presents a detailed analysis and discussion of related work in the area of IT-supported design collaboration process.

HCI AND ANALYSIS OF ITS FRAMEWORKS

The introduction of technology in organisations has had a significant effect on how information is stored, accessed, utilised and efficiently used in the work environment (Dix & Finlay, 2004). Traditionally, the major concern of computerised organisations is how to match the technology to the job constraints; however this scenario has changed. Subsequently, in modern IT-supported organisations, the main concern is with human aspects and requirements of system use other than job constraints. These issues are the concerns of HCI.

HCI is defined as “a discipline concerned with the design, evaluation and implementation of interactive computing systems for human use and with the study of major phenomena surrounding them” (Sequin & Kalay, 1998). Subsequently, HCI is the study of how people use computer systems to perform certain tasks. It is a multidisciplinary science that brings together computer technology, psychology, sociology and anthropology, industrial design, ergonomics and linguistics. The goals of HCI are generally to make tasks easier, more effective, more satisfying to perform and safer, based on human dimension and understanding (Norman, 2004). According to Preece *et al.* (1994) HCI is the process of designing computer systems that support people so that they perform their activities safely and productively. Zhang *et al.* (2005) define HCI as the way that humans interact with information, technologies and tasks within various contexts.

Furthermore, extensive studies in HCI show that many studies have clearly proposed various building blocks and components of HCI. One of the earliest studies (Eason, 1991) presented a three-level model for HCI. The first level of the model presents HCI as the conversation between two participants capable of processing information. The second level examines user, task and environmental factors (physical environment in which computers are used) that may affect task performance. The third level presents the impact of the interaction between humans and computers on social life as a result of changes in the way people interact or organisations operate.

Hewett *et al.* (1992) proposed a framework that identifies the main building blocks and dimension of HCI as humans, use and context, computer techniques and process to design. Later, Preece *et al.* (1994) proposed an improved model of HCI that identifies all the components that would contribute to the design of HCI. This model considered users with cognitive processes and capabilities such as enjoyment, satisfaction, motivation, personality and experience. These components include organisational and environmental factors, users, comfort factors, health and safety factors, user interface, task factors, constraints, system functionalities and system constraints. The next framework proposed by Zhang and Li (2004) demonstrates the broad issues and concerns of HCI. They defined the components of HCI as human, technology, design/usability, use/evaluation/ impact, context and task/job.

Through a deep understanding of the HCI frameworks discussed in the previous section, this author identifies HCI as a broader subject beyond interface design that encapsulates all aspects related to the interaction between humans and technology. These models are comprehensive enough to identify the factors that contribute to HCI design. The similarity among all the models is that all the models demonstrate the major components and their relationships, as well as the main factors that play an important role in HCI.

HCI frameworks mainly focus on the collaboration and interaction between humans and technology and define what a system should do from a human perspective. As a result, all the proposed models from as early as 1991 have demonstrated that humans are the core component of the proposed frameworks. They recognise the user as a complex being with cognitive capabilities. In this regard, this paper focusses on humans and briefly explains the human dimension in HCI among professional design team members.

The next section discusses and elaborates the collaboration among professional building design team members in design collaboration processes.

DESIGN COLLABORATION PROCESS

Design collaboration is an activity that requires the participation of individuals for accomplishing an agreed design task or addressing an agreed-on design goal (Chiu, 2002). This activity is performed

by organising design tasks and resources and sharing expertise, ideas and design information among design team members. Similarly, a building project in collaborative work is normally divided into several parts and distributed among design team members (Ibrahim *et al.*, 2007). There are two types of design collaboration: structured collaboration and unstructured collaboration (Chiu, 2002). Structured collaboration refers to a collaborative design team that shares the same goals while unstructured collaboration refers to a collaborative design team without shared goals and minimal dependency among the team members.

According to Cross (1989) and Goel (1995) collaborative design stages include: i) analysis of the problem, ii) concept generation, iii) preliminary design and iv) detailed design. Yet, Chiu (2002) believes that the design process consists of i) architectural programme schematic design, ii) design development, iii) construction documentation and iv) construction. Similarly, Stellingwerff and Verbeke (2003) identify three distinct phases that always take place in collaborative design processes (Fig.1). These phases are design in early stages, collaborative design and completion of design specification. According to Stellingwerff and Verbeke's design process, the solution should be debated and exchanged in an open way without prejudgments and too many constraints. Then, the most fruitful solutions are selected. In this phase the implicit aspects of the design become explicit. Therefore, collaboration usually takes place when the implicit knowledge

DESIGN COLLABORATION PROCESS

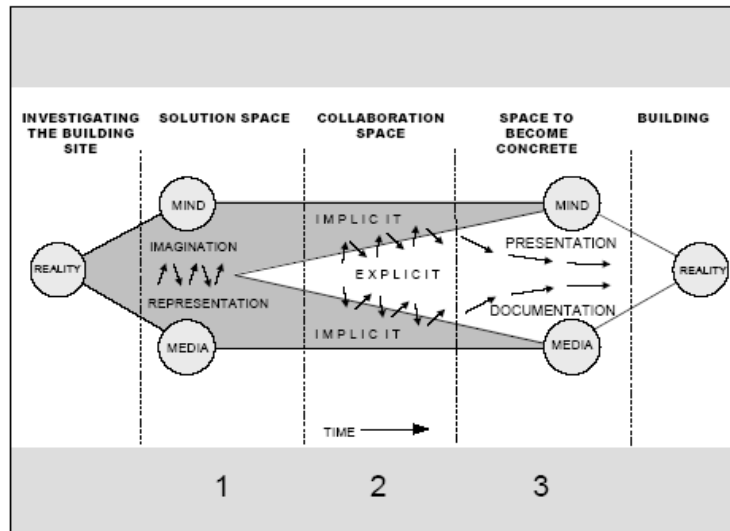


Fig.1: General Design Collaboration Phases (Stellingwerff and Verbeke, 2003)

of design team members is made explicit to produce a consistent design proposal. It is then finalised by standardisation of documents and optimisation of collaboration processes between design team members (Stellingwerff & Verbeke, 2003).

The authors believe that all collaborative design processes are more or less similar. Accordingly, this study focusses on a collaborative design process that starts with unlimited solution-space at the initial stage of the design process, allowing for close coordination among the professionals until the preliminary plan is finalised and the design is developed. This process supports a team of designers from non-located locations with different background knowledge, cultures, responsibilities and areas of expertise. Moreover, to facilitate communication among the members, this process is typically supported by Internet-

enabled agent technology, which uses IT-supported collaborative technologies.

In the next section, the current challenges in design collaboration process are briefly elaborated on.

Challenges in Design Collaboration Process

Design collaboration is implemented for organising design tasks and sharing experiences that require the participation of project team members (Nam & Wright, 2001). Nowadays, the non-located design collaboration process is motivated by globalisation and the trend of establishing enterprise design chain in construction industries (Li & Shen, 2008). Distributed or non-located design collaboration is a type of collaborative design process that aims to integrate geographically dispersed design team members, design resources, services

and systems. The successful establishment of non-located collaborative design has led to an increase in the demand for adaptation of IT/ICT in design collaboration processes. Therefore, it makes it possible for design team members to operate through an internet or intranet server and communicate with each other using collaborative tools and technologies beyond the boundaries of physical environment and time zone. An effective non-located design collaborative process should enable designers to cooperate and collaborate with each other conveniently using advanced communication technologies through accumulating new customised collaborative systems. Therefore, accelerating an effective establishment of global collaborative design is a challenging issue due to the complexity of technical and application requirements (Li & Shen, 2008).

Many studies indicate various efforts towards facilitating collaboration using IT/ICT in design collaboration and engineering (Rahimian *et al.*, 2008; Isikdag & Underwood, 2009; Scherer, 2007; Rosenman & Gero, 1999; Leeuwen & Zee, 2005). In addition, there are diverse numbers of software applications developed for collaborative product environment (Toye *et al.*, 1993) and communication in a distributed collaborative environment (Yee *et al.*, 1998; Wojtowicz, 1994). However, these types of collaborations are time-consuming and require extensive effort in terms of community building (Lahti *et al.*, 2004).

Moreover, as IT-supported collaboration

speeds up communication and the exchange of data among design team members, the current systems, however, do not help to establish mutual understanding among members. This contributes to increasing miscommunication and little understanding among design team members in the IT-supported design collaboration process. This is due to the fact that the interpretation of data produces many semantic ambiguities (Sequin & Kalay, 1998). On the other hand, it is a difficult task to train building professionals to collaborate using IT-supported technology quickly. Indeed, a long time is required to train design team members to use IT-supported technology.

The above challenges indicate that in the current collaborative design system, there is little efficient communication and collaboration, and this is caused by unfamiliarity of design team members in using IT-supported technologies. For instance, Construction Visual Prototyping (CVP) is used in the construction industry to provide a platform for designers to “try before building” by realistically simulating construction processes and capturing and reusing knowledge effectively (Li *et al.*, 2008). However, the simulation outcome of a building project may seem doubtful at the beginning of a project, and designers view this technology as an animation tool that better illustrates their idea (Li *et al.*, 2008).

The chief concern of design team members interacting with technology is technological support for collaboration enrichment and successful communication. These challenges suggest that there is a

gap between an efficient and effective IT-supported design collaboration process and the understanding of design team members using the collaborative systems. To fill this gap, it is important to understand the requirements and behaviour of professional design team members who use these collaborative technologies. Such understanding can be achieved through integration of HCI in IT-supported collaborative design processes. Doing so will enable systems support professional design team members to perform collaboration on design, planning and development processes more efficiently. Furthermore, acceptance of collaborative technologies in IT-supported collaborative design processes has improved.

In the following section, the authors identify the potential importance of HCI in the IT-supported design collaboration process. Through the analysis of previous studies, the varieties of approaches to improve the interaction among design team members with interactive computing systems using HCI are recommended.

Enhancing IT-Supported Design Collaboration Process Using HCI

Establishing a successful IT-supported design collaboration process in a distributed design environment requires an understanding of the requirements and behavioural aspects of design team members. As mentioned in earlier, the goals of HCI are generally to make tasks easier, more effective, more satisfying to perform and safer based on understanding human dimensions (Norman,

2004). Therefore, considering HCI in designing the system would utilise the IT-supported design collaboration process by investigating the effects of the system on design team member's perception and their evaluation factors. HCI assists in definition of what a collaborative system should do from the perspective of professional design team members. As a result, integration of HCI in design collaboration processes enhances the collaboration between design team members and interactive computing systems.

There are diverse groups of professionals in design collaboration processes distributed across various geographical, functional and cultural boundaries. This means that the criteria for the system's quality evaluation may be seen differently by the different groups. For example, culture affects how people interact with computers (De Souza & Dejean, 2000; Ess & Sudweeks, 2000; Dunkley & Jheita, 2004). Therefore, in order for various design team members to collaborate effectively, the system designers who develop the system need to consider whether the system designed for one group will work for other groups. Therefore, it is necessary to consider HCI in designing systems to improve the interaction among various groups of design team members located in different geographical area and with diverse backgrounds.

In considering the above statements, this paper analyses and evaluates the human dimensions and constraints that potentially have a great impact on professionals' interaction with computing systems. As a

means to motivating building professionals to perform their activities in IT-supported design collaboration, satisfy their human need and sustain their level of engagement in the collaborative work environment, this study supports the integration of HCI in design collaboration processes.

The next section elaborates on earlier studies in design collaboration, and analyses how these studies can be enhanced to improve collaboration and communication among building professionals in IT-supported design collaboration process.

ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF IT-SUPPORTED DESIGN COLLABORATION STUDIES

To achieve a sustainable design collaboration process, many studies suggest improvement to communication and collaboration among professional design team members. For example, Chiu (2002) attempted to present the role of the organisation in design collaboration and its impact on communication and collaboration. Chiu suggested that a structured organisation can facilitate design communication and consequently contribute to the success of a design project. The study does, however, lack a proper computational system in the organisation to evaluate and improve the communication level among design team members. Nevertheless, it is possible to achieve a sustainable design collaboration process through integration of collaborative technologies. This has been the subject of a number of studies. There are, however, a number of challenges associated with such

technologies (see Challenges in Design Collaboration Process) which prohibit professional design teams from readily utilising the processes. In this paper, a summary analysis which can aid in the acceptance of collaborative technologies in IT-supported design collaboration processes (refer to Table 1) is presented by analysing the studies in the literature that treat collaborative technologies as a means for improving communication. The earlier studies are analysed based on identifying what aspects of human dimensions might have been involved in designing the system. This analysis is useful to identify what is lacking in the earlier studies and how to improve them accordingly. Consequently, this paper proposes how the earlier studies can be improved on by considering human needs in designing the system in order to make it more satisfying for the utilisation of design team members.

As presented in the above summary, various IT-supported design collaboration studies have influenced the cognitive and ergonomic capabilities of professionals. For example, one of the earlier studies (Haymaker & Keel, 2000) proposed a new approach called 'Filter Mediated design' in which this mechanism is augmented using agents for achieving coherence and innovation in remote design collaboration. The new approach serves to reformulate the construction and flow of information in collaborative design. The intent is to reduce some of the verbal communication to improve efficiency and allow for more people to participate in the design process. From the

abovestudy, the authors identify that the use of a schematic design in this study which has reduced the ambiguity among design team members can potentially affect their cognitive capabilities. Therefore, influences affecting human cognitive perspective can simplify collaboration among design team members. However, from the HCI viewpoint human interaction with technologies should be driven by the different levels of human needs and goals (Zhang *et al.*, 2005). However, although the use of computerised filter mediated systems has simplified collaboration among design team members by affecting their cognitive capabilities, it has also decreased their

creativity level. Thus, this study will identify how a computational medium would simplify design collaboration processes. In addition, the study will also consider how the acquisition of skills through the ease of use of that system which affects the movement of cognitive capabilities from motor skills to mental model skills (Said, 2004) will increase the level of engagement of collaborative members while maintaining the creativity and attraction of experts.

Erickson and Kellogg (2000) focus on designing socially translucent systems in collaborative design. In fact, these systems are the design digital systems that support human-human communication and

TABLE 1
Analysis of IT-supported Design Collaboration Studies

Developments in IT-supported Design Collaboration Process	Analysis Based on Study's Effects on Human Dimension	Supporting References	
		year	Authors
Designing social translucent system in collaborative design	Cognitive and ergonomic capabilities	2000	Erickson and Kellogg
Developing filter-mediated design for design collaboration process	Cognitive capabilities	2000	Haymaker and Keel
Designing real-time collaboration system using indexical representation	Cognitive and ergonomic capabilities	2003	Larsson
Facilitating re-interpretation and reflection-on-action capabilities to design collaboration	Cognitive capabilities	2007	Hailpern <i>et al.</i>
Facilitating TUI to improve the collaborative design environment by table-top systems	Cognitive capabilities	2008	Kim and Maher
Determining the technological and social routines of individuals using devices and sharing information across spaces	Cognitive capabilities	2009	Plaue <i>et al.</i>
Proposing VR-based design interface	Cognitive capabilities	2010	Ibrahim and Rahimian
Developing CoSpaces Collaborative Working Model (CCWM)- a descriptive human factors model of collaboration	Cognitive and ergonomic capabilities	2012	Patel <i>et al.</i>

collaboration by utilising properties of the physical world. Their designed system is called 'Babble' and it is designed to make the participants and their activities visible to one another in a collaborative network so that they can make inferences about one another's activities and imitate one another. This socially translucent system integrates three characteristics i.e. visibility, awareness and accountability. However, the study focusses merely on three characteristics of a socially translucent system which support the usability concern and ergonomic aspects of human-human communication. Therefore, the authors believe that a socially translucent system can be further examined by focussing a human-centred view to more completely meet the emotional needs of professional design team members.

Another study by Larsson (2003) successfully presents an observational study of the essence of a true collaboration in which design team members 'think together' rather than just exchanging information. This study gives a broader view of how a collaborative design team member communicates and negotiates common ground in collocated collaboration effectively, subtly, fluently and effortlessly such as negotiating by telling stories and using indexical representation. He uses a wide variety of tools including physical prototype, sketches, verbal languages, gesture, chairs, even his own body and all possible types of objects to visualise and describe meaning. However, the study does not present a global design team where the collaboration is applied using the IT-

supported technologies in more natural and user-friendlier ways, for example, where the "physical objects live in one place" (Everitt *et al.*, 2003) or only one of the site has access to a physical prototype and the other collocated members negotiate shared understanding about concepts of "comfort" and "ease of use". The authors believe that the collaboration practice of using a variety of collaboration tools extends design team members' ergonomic capabilities in perceiving the communication. In addition, other collocated members who perceive the system's usability factors, the collaborative IT-supported system potentially affect their cognitive capabilities. However, developing a sustainable collaborative design process is beyond emphasising professionals' cognitive and ergonomic aspects. Although the use of indexical representation facilitates communication among design team members, it does not seek to retain and motivate the design team members to continue in the collaborative environments. Therefore, this study addresses HCI to integrate a human-centred collaborative system that satisfies design team members' emotional and aesthetic needs.

Hailpern *et al.* (2007) facilitate creative design processes by providing re-interpretation and reflection-on-action capabilities. Their study developed a novel system that satisfies the requirement of real-time collocated design collaboration that supports creative group work collaboration, namely, keeping multiple design ideas visible simultaneously, providing clearly delineated personal and group spaces,

allowing multiple levels of sharing, shared idea should always remain in the collective consciousness, allow rapid access to personal and shared designs, minimise social inhibitors of group work. From this study, it can be identified that a collaborative system which provides an environment for design team members to share design ideas as well as access personal information would potentially improve professional cognitive strength in perceiving design communication. However, the system is mainly based on real-time collaboration needs rather than human needs. Therefore, to have an effective real-time collaboration the authors believe that HCI can be potentially used to intrinsically and extrinsically motivate design team members in global real-time collaboration.

Apart from improving the collaborative technologies in design collaboration such as display sharing abilities, Plaue *et al.* (2009) present the importance of social and technology routines as well as technology improvement. They present the analyse behaviour of designers and determine the technological and social routines of individuals using devices and sharing information across spaces and multiple meetings. They describe social and technological routines of users as: i) device arming, ii) ephemeral personal device usage, iii) at-a-glance information is important, iv) physicality comfort and reassures, v) non-technical factors are critical for success, and vi) rooms must be versatile. The authors identify that these routines address cognitive aspects of system use. Therefore,

the authors believe that in IT-supported design collaboration the realisation of the human psychological dimension is more than just physical and cognitive aspects; as Tractinsky *et al.* (2000) state, “beautiful things are easy to use,” and as Norman (1998) states, “pleasant things work better.”

In addition, many studies present the more natural and direct use of 3D digital modelling and Tangible User Interface (TUI) in collaborative design processes (Tang, 1991; Bekker *et al.*, 1995; Scott *et al.*, 2003; Kim & Maher, 2008). TUIs are useful to construct internal and external design representations for designers, therefore strengthening their spatial cognition. Kim and Maher (2008) improve the collaborative design environment by table-top systems which employ TUI through an empirical study. They present the impact of TUI in changing the designer’s spatial cognition and therefore improving their problem-finding behaviour. This potentially improves the design process. From this study, it can be identified that TUI directly impact designers’ spatial cognition by perceiving external representations. However, there is still a lack of emphasis on the human aspects of system use.

Recent studies present more advanced methods for improving communication among groups ranging in size from small to larger enterprise. Ibrahim and Rahimian (2010) propose an alternative VR-based (Virtual-Reality-based) design interface to conventional CAD tools for novice designers working on conceptual design projects. VR-based interfaces can potentially affect the

designers' cognitive capabilities during the conceptual design phase. Moreover, Patel *et al.* (2012) develop a descriptive human factors model of collaboration, CoSpaces Collaborative Working Model (CCWM). The factors involved in this model are context, support, tasks, interaction processes, teams, individuals and other overarching factors. Patel *et al.* highlight the variety of tools for supporting teams and individuals in performing tasks during the interaction processes, for instance, networks of virtual reality such as Cave Automatic Virtual Environments, teleconferencing and shared workspaces. These technologies do, however, still need good support systems such as user supportive interfaces and complementary job design. The study emphasises the importance of the above-noted factors for successful collaboration, but there is still a lack of understanding from the people in collaboration (individuals and team). On the other hand, while the existing collaborative tools would directly or indirectly affect the human cognitive and ergonomic capabilities, the impact of the collaboration technologies on the entire scope of human needs should be taken into account.

It is deduced from the above studies that the computerised filter mediated system, collaborative environments for sharing design ideas, VR-based design interface and TUIs to construct internal and external design representations would potentially affect the cognitive capabilities of design team members. On the other hand, facilitating design collaboration with a variety

of novel tools, such as teleconferencing, extends the ergonomic capabilities of design team members in perceiving communication. The authors, however, believe that to motivate professionals to collaborate using technologies, it is necessary to take the entire scope of human needs into account. This is because the ultimate concern of design team members interacting with technology is for supporting their experience with technology for collaboration enrichment and successful communication. Therefore, the study recommends that in addition to the cognitive and ergonomic human dimensions, the collaborative system should intrinsically and extrinsically motivate design team members in global real-time collaboration. For example, one possible solution may be to improve the design of TUIs to encourage professional design team members to utilise it due to the attractiveness of the system when it satisfies their aesthetic and emotional needs. Moreover, TUI can be improved to encourage professional design team members by extending their ability, supporting their individual tasks or providing rewarding capabilities to them. The earlier design improvement intrinsically motivates design team members while the latter design improvement extrinsically motivates professionals to TUI. This translates to an improvement in the acceptance of collaborative technologies in IT-supported design collaboration.

Finally, it is hypothesised that identifying the specific human dimension in design collaboration process can be implemented using grounded theory (Strauss

& Corbin, 1998; Creswell, 2009). This methodology can be used to inductively construct and then describe a theory of how professional design team members collaborate in an IT-supported design collaboration process. This is an area of research which merits further investigation and is the subject of our future work.

CONCLUSION

In an effort to provide motivation towards advancing design collaboration processes via HCI, in this paper studies making utility of computerised systems more attractive to professionals. It is argued that from the HCI point of view, human interaction with technologies should be driven by the needs and goals of professionals. In particular, it is found that the use of indexical representation or designing TUI can facilitate communication among design team members and influence their spatial cognition. They do not, however, maintain the attention and motivation of the team members to the collaborative technologies. Due to this, the authors believe that in IT-supported design collaboration the realisation of the human psychological dimension concerns more than just the physical and cognitive aspects. The study recommends that IT-supported design collaboration systems should fit the entire capabilities of design team members, encompassing cognitive, ergonomic and intrinsic and extrinsic motivational aspects. The results of this study is expected to close the gap in knowledge loss due to discontinuity in complex projects (Ibrahim & Paulson, 2008)

by providing documentation facilities in IT-supported collaboration.

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Written Feedback on ESL Student Writers' Academic Essays

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ABSTRACT

This paper provides an analysis of written feedback on ESL student writers' academic essays to shed light on how feedback acts as a communicative tool between the lecturer and students. The objective of this study is to explore the types and usefulness of written feedback on ESL student writers' academic writing. First, it discusses the importance of feedback and the theoretical framework of the Speech Act Theory. The data for this study comprises written feedback and students' interviews. The feedback was coded, and a model for analysis was developed based on two primary roles of speech: directive and expressive. Based on this analysis, the paper discusses the types of feedback from which students benefit the most, namely, directive-instruction feedback and expressive-disapproval feedback. The interview conducted as part of this study provided insight on how the students felt about each type of feedback. This study also suggests a possibility of developing a taxonomy of good feedback practices by considering the views of the giver and receiver of written feedback.

Keywords: ESL student writers, speech act, written feedback

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INTRODUCTION

Feedback is essential in the development of a writer (Hyland & Hyland, 2006). However, it was not until the emergence of the writing process movement during the 1970s that greater importance was placed on revision and feedback. Researchers such as Emig (1977) and Flower and Hayes (1981) shed new light on writing as a procedure in which the focus is on the actual processes

of writing instead of on the product. This resulted in the notion that writing is not an end product to be evaluated in summative tests but is, rather “an activity, a process, which a writer can learn how to accomplish” (Lawrence, 1972, p.3). At this juncture, feedback is used as a type of formative evaluation to help writers to be aware of what they write and to evaluate their own progress in writing. Consequently, feedback acts as intervention and provides support and encouragement to writers to achieve their writing goals (Hyland & Hyland, 2006).

Since the early 1980s, researchers and reviewers have been investigating feedback in students’ writing (Brannon & Knoblauch, 1982; Faighley & Witte, 1981; Hillocks, 1986; Ziv, 1984), and the focus of these investigations has been on the writing of high school students and undergraduates. These studies reported that written feedback provides a potential value in motivating students to revise their draft (Leki, 1991; Saito, 1994; Zhang, 1995) and in improving their writing (Fathman & Whalley, 1990; Ferris, 1995; Ferris *et al.*, 1997; Goldstein & Conrad, 1990). As a result, written feedback is the most popular method that teachers use to interact and communicate with students (Cohen & Cavalcanti, 1990; Fathman & Whalley, 1990; Ferris, 1995, 2002; Hyland & Hyland, 2001).

It has been suggested by Straub (2000) that teachers should create the feel of a conversation by writing comments in complete sentences; by avoiding abstract, technical language and abbreviations; by

relating their comments back to specific words and paragraphs from the students’ text; by viewing student writing seriously, as part of a real exchange. Feedback is particularly important to students because it lies at the heart of the student’s learning process and is one of the most common and favourite methods used by teachers to maximise learning (Cohen & Cavalcanti, 1990; Fathman & Whalley, 1990; Ferris, 1995, 2002; Hyland & Hyland, 2001). But, little attention has been given to the specific types of responses teachers give their students in relation to speech acts and the extent to which students find these helpful. Therefore, this study investigates the types of feedback and their usefulness according to speech acts which are directive or expressive.

IMPORTANCE OF FEEDBACK

Feedback is important for the improvement of students’ writing and is loaded with information to help a writer improve and learn (Hyland & Hyland, 2001, 2006). In order for feedback to be effective, students must be provided with feedback that is focussed, clear, applicable and encouraging (Lindemann, 2001). Students are able to think critically and self-regulate their own learning when they are provided with effective feedback (Nicol & Macfarlane-Dick, 2006; Strake & Kumar, 2010). Naturally, students are expected to revise and amend their writing based on the feedback received from their lecturers. It is also understood that feedback acts as a compass which provides a sense of direction

to the students and informs them that writing goals are achievable.

Additionally, feedback has been conceptualised as “information about the gap between the actual level and the reference level of a system parameter which is used to alter gap in some way” (Ramaprasad, 1983, p.4). Feedback closes the gap between current and desired performance (Parr & Temperley, 2010). Furthermore, Sadler (1989) states that what is essential in feedback is that it has to be active in the sense that once the gap is identified, it has to be closed. This closure is then identified via feedback. Feedback is given to ensure that learning goals are met. Sadler (1989) supports this view by noting that feedback is “information given to the student about the quality of performance” (p.142). In a model of feedback proposed by Hattie and Temperley (2007), it has been emphasised that effective feedback closes a gap in knowledge. Hattie and Temperley (2007) use the term ‘feed up’ to refer to the notion of where the learner is going; ‘feed back’ to the notion of what progress is being made to achieve a goal; and, finally, the term ‘feed forward’ to refer to the notion of where the learner is going next. In a writing classroom environment, the teacher usually applies all three notions to ensure that specific learning goals are met.

Besides this, feedback provides developmental experience and encourages self-regulated learning (SRL) (Strake & Kumar, 2010). In a writing classroom, feedback is given during the writing process, for instance after the student has

completed his writing draft. Feedback provides opportunities for the student to practise skills and to consolidate the journey from a zone of current development (ZCD) to a zone of proximal development (ZPD) (Vygotsky, 1978), that is, to move from being a novice writer to becoming a proficient writer, and to achieve the tenacities of self-regulated learning (SRL). Thus, the main aim of feedback is to reduce the “discrepancies between current understandings, performance, and a goal” (Hattie & Temperley, 2007, p.86).

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This study uses a combination of three frameworks of speech acts which are Speech Act Theory by Searle (1969), Language Functions by Holmes (2001) and Communicative Functions by Jakobson (1960). Holmes (2001) categorised language into six language functions, which are: directive, expressive, referential, metalinguistic, poetic and phatic. Similarly, Jakobson (1960) categorised speech into six communicative functions, which are: poetic, referential, emotive, conative, metalinguistic and phatic. Likewise, Searle (1969) also categorised speech by its illocutionary acts and categorised these into five illocutionary acts, which are representatives (assertive), directives, commissives, expressives and declarations (performatives).

These three theories give a clear justification to classifying feedback as a form of communication between the provider and the receiver of the feedback. Using the lens of this stance, this study

suggests that providing useful and effective feedback based on the speech functions may essentially enhance the communicative functions of feedback. In order to provide effective feedback to students, teachers need to understand what types of feedback are useful in students' writing and also students' opinion of different types of feedback.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study is to explore the types and usefulness of written feedback on ESL students' academic writing and to discuss the different types of feedback that were given to the students. The questions that guided this study are as follows:

1. What types and forms of feedback did the students receive in terms of speech act functions?
 - What forms were most frequently employed?
2. What forms did the students prefer most, and why?

METHODOLOGY

Context

The present study was conducted in a Research Writing Skills course at a private college in Selangor, Malaysia. The course was one of the compulsory subjects offered to final-year Business Studies students and is a pre-requisite paper before the students begin their Final Year Project (FYP). This course was chosen because it was a writing class and the students were asked to complete a research paper (1000-1500 words), which involved drafting and

revising their paper based on their lecturer's feedback. The duration of the course was one semester, which lasted for 14 weeks. Throughout the course, students were taught research writing skills which involved the skills of summarising, paraphrasing, referencing, editing and, finally, producing a research paper. The students were also taught skills to enhance readability in their research paper by focussing on signalling, signposting and topic strings.

Participants

Lecturers' Profile

The lecturers who were teaching this program were Shirin and Phylcia (pseudonyms). Shirin is an experienced ESL professional in her early 30s. She has been teaching at private colleges in Malaysia for five years. She holds a Master's degree in English Language. She completed her Bachelor's degree in English Language and has been in charge of the current research writing skills course in her college for two years. Similarly, Phylcia is also an ESL professional, but in her late 20s. She has been teaching in the same college for the past three years. She is currently pursuing her Master's degree in Teaching English as a Second Language (TESL). She holds a Bachelor's degree in English Language and has been teaching the research writing course for two years.

Students' Profile

A total of 38 students from two research writing classes participated in this study.

They are Malaysian Chinese and come from middle-income families. The students are a mixed-gender between the ages of 21 and 23 years old. Their first language is one of the many Chinese dialects such as Hokkien, Hakka, Cantonese or Mandarin. Thus, English is either their second or third language. The students are in their final year of their studies (fifth semester) and are currently pursuing either a Bachelor's degree in Business Administration or Bachelor's degree in Accounting and Finance.

For the purposes of the interview conducted as part of this study, 15 students were selected from the pool of 38 students (see Table 1). The reason was to probe further into their reflections and thoughts

on the feedback received, and to provide insights on the type of feedback deemed useful. The students were selected based on their responses to the open-ended questions in Section 3 of the questionnaire; students who provided detailed and clear responses were selected (see Appendix 1). Items No. 1 and 2 looked at the advantages and disadvantages of the written feedback, while Item No. 3 asked about suggestion(s) to improve the delivery of feedback.

Data Collection

The data for this study was obtained from three research sources: (1) written drafts, (2) questionnaires, and (3) interviews with the students. These three sources are important in this study as they provided detailed

TABLE 1
Students' Profile

Name (pseudonym)	Gender	Age	Writing Habits
Carmen	F	22	Enjoys writing stories and telling stories in Mandarin and writes only in English when doing her assignments
Jaclyn	F	23	Writes in English when she has to do assignments
Jacob	M	22	Writes in English when doing his assignments
Jared	M	21	Loves writing to newspaper columns either in English or Chinese
Keenan	M	23	Writes in English when doing his assignments
Keisha	F	22	Enjoys writing short stories in English during her free time
Kelvin	M	22	Writes in English when doing his assignments
Kenny	M	21	Writes in English when he has to do assignments
Lydia	F	22	Writes in English when she has to do assignments
Natalie	F	23	Writes in English when doing her assignments
Shanice	F	21	Enjoys writing in blogs and her diary either in English or Mandarin
Sylvia	F	21	Writes in English when doing her assignments
Victory	F	22	Enjoys writing during her leisure time, penning her thoughts in blogs and her diary
Vincent	M	23	Writes in English when he has to do assignments
Zara	F	21	Writes in English when she has to do assignments

information on the usefulness of each type of feedback.

Written Drafts

The drafts of the research paper were collected from both lecturers once they had finished commenting on the research papers in Week 11 of the semester. Upon collecting the research papers, copies of the paper were made and returned to the respective lecturers. In the drafts, the lecturers provided students with written feedback on how to improve their research paper. Two types of feedback were provided: in-text feedback and overall feedback. The in-text feedback included all comments written by the lecturer in the text; it was mostly written in the margin of the text. The feedback given was considered the spontaneous thoughts of the lecturers, and it acted as a dialogue between the students and their lecturers. The overall feedback was in the form of a letter-like text. In the overall feedback, both lecturers summarised their main concerns and put forth a more general feedback on the written draft. The in-text and overall feedback was collated word for word in order to have a comprehensive list of the lecturers' comments.

Questionnaires

The questionnaire (Appendix 1) was designed to elicit both quantitative and qualitative data related to the general feedback experience and feedback preferences of the students. The questionnaire which was disseminated to the 38 students consisted of three

main sections: (1) students' demographic background information, (2) students' perceptions on the feedback received from their lecturer, and (3) students' experience and suggestions to improve the delivery of feedback. The questions in the questionnaire had three different types of questions; five close-ended questions, 20 close-ended questions with a four-point Likert scale, and three open-ended questions. Prior to administering the questionnaire, a pilot test was conducted with five students from another research writing group to test the "clarity, comprehensiveness, and acceptability" of the questions (Rea & Parker, 2005, pp.31-32). During the pilot test, the researcher was present and the participants answered and provided feedback about the quality of the questions. The participants of the pilot test did not encounter any problems with the questions as they mentioned that the questions were clear, direct and easily understood. They took around 15 minutes to complete all the items in the questionnaire.

The researcher briefed the 38 students from both writing classes about the study prior to administering the questionnaires. Ethical consent was sought from the participants. The questionnaire was then administered to the students in Week 12 of the semester, a week after they had received written feedback on their research paper from their lecturers. It was done without the presence of their lecturers in order to ensure that the students were comfortable and felt free to write about their feelings and feedback preferences.

Students' Interviews

The interviews were to complement the findings of the questionnaires and to generate in-depth and rich descriptions about the students' perspectives on the usefulness and preferences of the different types of written feedback. Fifteen students were interviewed to explore the students' perceptions and attitudes towards the written feedback (see Appendix 2). This study used a semi-structured interview as it expected to allow little or no deviation for key questions to be posed at each interview, with the freedom to change the sequence of questions and to probe for further information (Fielding & Thomas, 2001). The key questions were about student's preferences on the types of feedback and the usefulness of each feedback.

Data Analysis

The data from the written text was arranged and coded into categories. First, the coding categories for a speech acts framework were identified through the reading of the written text. The main functions of the feedback types were derived from the speech acts/ language functions, and the sub-categories were adapted from earlier studies (see Ferris et. al., 1997; Kumar & Stracke, 2007).

The in-text and overall feedback was read through individually to develop a system of categorisation. In order to develop an appropriate categorisation, it took several rounds of individual categorisation followed by intensive discussions with two other post-graduate students and a senior lecturer until a consensus on an appropriate categorisation model was reached. This was for the purpose of inter-rater reliability. The data was analysed quantitatively based on the effects of the comments on the students, hence it was appropriate to analyse the feedback based on the coding of the two functions of speech: directive and expressive (Holmes, 2001; Searle, 1969).

RESULTS

Types and Forms of Feedback in Terms of Speech Act Functions

The findings from the written drafts indicate that two forms of feedback which Shirin and Phylcia commonly used were directive and expressive feedback where a total of 1399 instances of feedback were found in the students' written drafts. In terms of the categories of feedback, directive feedback forms the bulk of the feedback at 82.5% (see Table 3). Providing directive feedback is an act which commits the receiver of the

TABLE 2
Feedback Categories for Speech Act Functions

Main Function	Subcategory	Examples
Directive	suggestion	• Could you please combine this paragraph with the previous one?
	instruction	• This should be in your introductory paragraph.
	clarification	• Why only Korea? How is this related to your paper?
Expressive	approval	• Good job done! Your ideas are well organised.
	disapproval	• Serious flaws in your work!

message to do something (Holmes, 2001; Jakobson, 1960; Searle, 1969). In directive feedback, there are three sub-categories of feedback: instruction, clarification and suggestion (see Table 4).

Following this, expressive feedback constituted 17.5% of the total feedback on the written texts. Providing expressive feedback is an act in which the sender of the message expresses his/her feelings (Holmes, 2001; Jakobson, 1960; Searle, 1969). Under expressive feedback, there are two sub-categories of feedback, which are: approval and disapproval. Table 3 below indicates the distribution of feedback among the categories but this is not intended to suggest such proportions are generalisable beyond the scope of this study. In the following section, the sub-categories of directive and expressive feedback are discussed in detail.

Five sub-categories of feedback were evident from the data, which are:

directive-instruction, directive-clarification, directive-suggestion, expressive-approval and expressive-disapproval (see Table 4).

The most commonly received feedback was directive-instruction feedback (52.4%) (see Table 4). It was written in the imperative form, for example:

Elaborate on the current situation in Malaysia and how globalisation affects the current situation and State your stand in the first paragraph.

The second most common type of feedback received was directive-clarification feedback (27.2%). The comments in this category were mostly written in question form but some were in the form of statements, for instance:

Is this a sub-heading? and I'm lost -- what is the good aspect here?.

TABLE 3
Distribution of Feedback Form Based on Speech Act Functions

Categories	Number of feedback	Percentage (%)
Directive	1154	82.5
Expressive	245	17.5
Total	1399	100

TABLE 4
Frequency of Sub-Categories of Feedback Forms Received

Types of Feedback	Number of feedback	Percentage (%)
Directive-instruction	733	52.4
Directive-clarification	381	27.2
Directive-suggestion	40	3
Expressive-disapproval	160	11.4
Expressive-approval	85	6
Total	1399	100

Expressive-disapproval feedback was the third commonly provided feedback (11.4%). The comments were written in statement form, for example:

This quote does not support your earlier statements and but the sub-heading for this section is peers.

This was followed by expressive-approval feedback (6%). Approval feedback was written in statement form and in a two-word and one-word combination. Approval comments serve as either personal (what the reader likes) or academic (acknowledging what the student has accomplished) reader-response functions, for instance:

Yes, good point and Well-organised/structured.

Directive-suggestion feedback was the type of feedback that was least used by both lecturers (3%). The comments were written in statement form and contain some form of hedging and it is less direct compared to instruction feedback. For example:

I wonder if you could include more academic references to support your claims and Perhaps some quotes would be useful here.

Student-writers' Preferences for the Different Forms of Feedback

First, it was found from the questionnaires that all 38 students responded to the questionnaire and the students rated the usefulness of feedback types according to speech acts on a 4-point agreement scale (1- Not Useful, 2- Least Useful, 3- Useful, and 4- Very Useful). When arranged according to frequency of the number of participants who agreed with the statements (see Table 5), it was found that students valued directive-instruction feedback (97%), expressive-disapproval feedback (92%), directive-clarification feedback (89%), expressive-approval feedback (87%), and directive-suggestion feedback (82%).

Secondly, the data gathered through the interviews were consistent with the results from the questionnaires. All 15 students (six males and nine females) who

TABLE 5
Usefulness of Written Feedback

Types of Written Feedback	NU	LU	U	VU	Total	
	f(P)	f(P)	f(P)	f(P)	Not Useful f(P)	Useful f(P)
Directive-instruction	0 (0%)	1 (3%)	29 (74%)	8 (24%)	1 (3%)	37 (97%)
Directive-clarification	1 (0%)	3 (8%)	30 (63%)	4 (29%)	4 (11%)	34 (89%)
Directive-suggestion	3 (0%)	4 (3%)	25 (68%)	6 (29%)	7 (18%)	31 (82%)
Expressive-approval	1 (0%)	4 (5%)	28 (71%)	5 (24%)	5 (13%)	33 (87%)
Expressive-disapproval	2 (3%)	1 (8%)	28 (71%)	7 (18%)	3 (8%)	35 (92%)

Note: NU: Not Useful, LU: Least Useful, U: Useful, VU: Very Useful, f: Frequency, P: Percentage

were selected to participate in the interview showed appreciation for the feedback they received from their lecturers. They found directive-instruction, directive-clarification, expressive-approval and expressive-disapproval useful in their essay revision. But they did not find directive-suggestion feedback particularly enlightening as it was one of the types of feedback that was least received (3%) (see Table 4) from their lecturers. Each sub-category from directive and expressive feedback is discussed in detail in the following section.

Directive: Instruction

All 15 students found directive-instruction feedback the most useful type of feedback in their revision. They agreed that directive-instruction comments provided them a clear roadmap on what was needed to be amended. It should be noted that feedback offers a sense of direction to the writer (Hyland & Hyland, 2006). One of the students, Natalie, mentioned that directive-instruction feedback gave her the idea that “this is how I should take the direction of the writing.” She liked it because it “points out and tells me what to do.” Similarly, Keisha also agreed that directive-instruction feedback helped in her revision as she mentioned, “Ms. Shirin highlighted the things which are not right and told me how to correct the work.” Keenan too mentioned that “I feel very happy because Ms. Shirin provides me a way on how I can improve my writing when she said like, *‘tell me what floating market means, then explain how it concerns to the matter you described; why is floating*

market a concern’. So she is like in a way trying to tell me how to revise what I have written before and see whether the ideas are related to this particular paragraph.” Finally, Carmen also agreed with the other students as she claimed, “The feedback that Ms. Phylcia provided was clear to me as I knew where my strengths and weaknesses of the paper were.”

Furthermore, Jared also found directive-instruction feedback to be well focused and he quoted an example from his draft which was *‘provide a link and signpost clearly’*. He stated that “this feedback provides me with clear ideas which are helpful and I know what I am supposed to do.” Similarly, Jaclyn found that she “knew how to go about it [the revision]” with directive-instruction feedback as Ms. Phylcia wrote, *‘do not start your sentence with ‘because’!*. The students liked directive-instruction feedback because their lecturers were focussed in pointing out exactly where they had gone wrong, and they liked to be told what did not make sense and to have suggestions on how they could revise their faults.

Sylvia, Jacob and Zara mentioned that they were thankful for the feedback provided as they had yet to receive such detailed feedback which helped them in the essay revision. Sylvia mentioned, “I am thankful for the feedback as nobody taught me before this class and I thought that is the way to do the work ... Ms. Shirin highlighted the things which are not right and told me how to correct the work.” Jacob found directive-instruction feedback to be clear and well-focused as his lecturer

told him exactly what and where he had gone wrong in his paper. As a result, he “improved a lot based on the feedback” and mentioned that without the feedback, “I wouldn’t have known that I am actually at this level. So it actually opened my eyes and my brain.” He also claimed that he considered himself to be a non-skilled writer at that time but with “...this feedback, they are very helpful and it helps me improve to be a skilled writer.” Zara also mentioned that instruction feedback provided her with learning experience as she pointed to an example in the feedback she had received, ‘*Convince your reader by quoting studies – provide evidence for your argument*’. From this feedback she learnt that whenever “I write or argue about something, I must have a reference... in order to prove my information to be reliable.” She also gave another example ‘*you need to structure your argument*’, from which she realised that, “I’m very poor in structuring... and I have to go back and study on how to structure my writing.”

This finding confirms with Hattie and Timperley’s (2007) claim that a teacher who provides effective feedback is one who highlights information about how the writer can progress or proceed with the task. At the same time, it corroborates with Hyland (1990) and Mahili’s (1994) call for detailed and informative comments on content. It also further supports Ogede’s (2002) view that directive, specific comments save students from a “gloomy future” (p. 108). He also argues that directive comments are effective because students need their

teachers to share their knowledge about effective writing by telling them in clear, certain terms that “rigorous commentary holds the key to the needed remedial action... the instructor cannot afford to leave the students with an impression that the suggestions offered to improve their writing are optional” (p. 108).

Directive: Clarification

The 15 students also found directive-clarification feedback to be useful in their revision. All of them agreed that clarification feedback provided directions as to how to revise their paper. Lydia was sure about what she was supposed to do with directive-clarification feedback such as ‘*Huh, what are you trying to say? I’m lost*’ because she knew what she was supposed to amend in her paper such as “making the ideas clearer so the reader becomes clear about what I say.” Keenan was also sure about what he was supposed to do because he found the feedback to be specific and clear; he mentioned, “Ms. Shirin asked me, ‘*Impose what?*’ and I know I need to elaborate more on the imposing of trade barrier.” Along the same lines, Kelvin claimed that Ms. Phylcia “told him what and how exactly to re-do it” and “she told me what I should put in ethical advertisement here.” Natalie understood what Ms. Shirin was trying to tell her as “this shows what is it that she doesn’t understand” by pointing to ‘*Effective or effectively? Which one are you using, the adjective or adverb form?*’ They mentioned that they understood what their lecturer wanted them to amend because the

comments were specific and their lecturer had provided explanations after she had written her questions. This supports Straub's (1997) study which found that students preferred comments which are "specific, offer direction for revision, and come across as help" (p.112).

It also confirms Lindemann's (2001) claim that effective feedback should be focussed, clear, applicable and encouraging. Lunsford (1997) also encouraged teachers to "say enough for students to know what you mean" (p.103) and as mentioned by Hyland & Hyland (2006) in order for improvement to take place, feedback should be loaded with information. It can be concluded with Ryan's (1997) view that lecturer's feedback helped the students to understand how well they were writing and how they might further develop their writing.

Expressive: Approval

In expressive-approval feedback, all 15 students received approval feedback from their lecturer. All the students, except for Natalie, Kenny and Vincent mentioned that receiving approval feedback was very useful. Most of the students found approval feedback brought them positive effects because they felt highly motivated as their writing goals had been met and it gave them a sense of achievement. Upon seeing the feedback '*well-written and well-explained*' on her paper, Lydia mentioned that, "I'm happy to receive this type of feedback as I will know my strength which is I'm able to explain well about the points which I state." Shanice also mentioned that

upon receiving her paper, the comment that caught her eye was '*Good*', as this comment gave her "a dose of motivation" and she was thankful for it. It also encouraged her, and she stated simply, "it really spurs me on." She appreciated the approval feedback because it motivated and encouraged her in her essay revision. She mentioned that, "I didn't know that I could write and surely, I will remember the good things which I've done in this paper and apply them for my future writing." Similarly, Victory mentioned that she was motivated by the approval feedback as it made her realise what worked in her paper and what did not. She liked the feedback '*well organized and well structured*' which Ms. Shirin wrote beside her table of contents and she assumed "that whenever I do table of contents, I have a better understanding of how to do it." She also mentioned that, "Ok, this is like a plus point ... and I'm quite glad that she actually pointed out not only the weaknesses on this paper but also the strength." Kelvin mentioned that he was initially surprised because he was not very confident about his essay but later felt very happy and pleased when he received approval feedback. His lecturer had written, '*Well-defined as you explained very well what is the current economic situation in Malaysia*', and this boosted his confidence as a writer.

When the students were able to produce successful drafts, it boosted their confidence and increased their enjoyment of writing. This clearly shows that the feedback provided "information about the gap between the actual level and the reference

level of a system parameter which is used to alter gap in some way” (Ramaprasad, 1983, p.4). Similarly, Gee (2006) discovered that students who received praise increased in confidence, pride, and enjoyment in their work. Praise feedback will inspire and motivate students to write better; teachers have the potential to motivate students to revise their drafts (Leki, 1991) and improve their writing skills (Fathman & Whalley, 1990; Ferris, 1995).

On the other hand, Natalie, Kenny and Vincent did not find approval feedback useful because it did not motivate and benefit them. Natalie relates her experience as “there are so much of negative feedback in my writing, the positive doesn’t give the impact it should.” Natalie found that approval feedback did not motivate and benefit her and she “expects good quality feedback rather than telling ‘OK, *this is good*’ and ‘*this is fine*’”. She expected her lecturer to provide her with “constructive feedback by giving ways to improve my work rather than saying its good.” She also added that “tell me specifically what is good and what is working, not just stating good” as this was not helpful to her.

Likewise, Kenny felt that receiving positive comments did not help him as a writer as he stated, “I don’t learn much from very positive comments.” He mentioned that he preferred “Negative comments because it points out what mistake you made and what point is weak in your paper so we can improve the paper.” Similarly, Vincent also claimed that approval feedback did not work for him as he felt “so small after doing and

putting a lot of effort” and after reading the feedback he felt “so helpless” when he saw so much negative feedback on his paper. Vincent was not sure as to why his lecturer praised him. He was not sure why Ms. Phylcia had written ‘*great*’ beside his opening sentence. He was frustrated with his lecturer because he wanted his lecturer to praise “on the points that I deemed important” but instead “she wrote ‘*great*’ on the word ‘*firstly*’ as even secondary school students can write this ‘*firstly*’, right? I don’t know why.”

This finding is in agreement with Weaver’s (2006) findings which showed that students yearned for specifically written positive feedback instead of infrequent, brief and vague praise comments. Praise feedback, therefore, should be specifically written and should not be general or vague as happens when one-word comments are given (e.g. ‘good’ and ‘great’). Another study which agrees with the idea that praise feedback needs to be worded specifically is Straub’s (1997) study which concluded that students appreciated comments that praised their writing, especially those that offered specific praise.

Expressive: Disapproval

The students had mixed reactions at receiving expressive-disapproval feedback. Most of the students openly embraced disapproval feedback except for Jared who discussed the advantages and disadvantages of disapproval feedback. Jaclyn claimed that disapproval feedback “... doesn’t affect me as a writer because I’m more

concerned about what Ms. Shirin thought about my paper” because she believed her lecturer had her best interest as a writer in mind; hence, she viewed the comments as constructive to her essay revision. This finding corroborates Button’s (2002) study which argued that students appreciate and benefit from constructive criticism. Zara also found disapproval feedback to be beneficial to her as she explained, “Ms. Phylcia’s feedback is constructive, so to me this is not damaging.” She mentioned that “this is not something to be sensitive about because for me I take criticism positively. If it is good for me then I should be able to accept it.” Jacob declared that he did not take disapproval feedback personally and it did not upset him. Comments like *you have too many points here* did not bother him because, he explained, “I agreed with what she said because I actually crammed too many points in one paragraph. As we all know by now, we all have to divide and organize our essay into a cohesive argument.” He mentioned that “it shows that I have a lot to learn about writing.” This showed that the students welcomed and appreciated disapproval feedback because it was constructive and it helped them improve their writing; additionally, it also increased their self-confidence in their writing (Goldstein, 2004).

On the other hand, Jared mentioned that disapproval feedback could simultaneously upset and benefit him. In the beginning, he found disapproval to be intimidating and capable of hurting his self-confidence as a writer, but later, he talked about how

it inspired him to improve his essay. For example, he mentioned that “it was very negative and it was uh, very hard for me to take all these negative comments too much at one time. So I felt very bad and it took me time to recuperate.” But towards the end of the interview, he mentioned that “after seeing it a few times, I felt I should improve, I mean yes, and I should improve because it actually is for my own good.”

The students in this study liked disapproval feedback and as they revised their essays, they had the notion that revision is a process of discovery (Hayes, 1996). One of the students, Victor, mentioned that he did not take the disapproval feedback his lecturer provided personally but instead felt it was a discovery process for him. He found that disapproval feedback taught him how to “divide and organize his ideas well to form a cohesive argument.” This also clearly showed that the element of self-regulated learning (SRL) was present as the feedback provided opportunities for them to realise the mistakes they had made and how to rectify them. The feedback made them move from their zone of current development (ZCD) to a zone of proximal development (ZPD) (Vygotsky, 1978).

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

The students in this study were ESL learners in tertiary level and they found the written feedback on their work helpful and useful in their essay revision. This indicates that the directive and expressive feedback was valued highly by the students in this study. The reason for this was that the comments

were clear, direct and information-loaded. In other words, the feedback offered a sense of direction to the students (Hyland & Hyland, 2006). The feedback was also effective to the students because the students were able to attend to the revision of their draft. The feedback was appropriate to the essays, held good information and was relevant to the students' writing level. This further supports Hattie and Timperley's (2007) claim that effective feedback provided with the correct load of information can impact a writer in the revision process. The feedback provided was not only clear and effective, but it also alerted the students about their current writing skills and how the feedback can further develop their writing (Ryan, 1997). The students were able to advance with their essay revision because they were provided constructive feedback which inspired them to revise their essays and at the same time, build self-confidence in writing (Goldstein, 2004).

The element of motivation was also present in this study. Motivation is an important feature of feedback in the concept of active learning (Butler, 1988). The lecturers' feedback inspired and motivated the students to write better because lecturers often have the potential to motivate students to revise their drafts (Leki, 1991) and improve their writing skills (Fathman & Whalley, 1990; Ferris, 1995). This indicates that feedback and motivation work hand in hand. In this study, lecturers' feedback played an important role in motivating and encouraging the students to revise. The students in this study were provided with

constructive feedback and it inspired them to write revised drafts better, hence, increasing self-confidence in their writing (Goldstein, 2004).

The feedback also provided developmental experience to the students. The written feedback helped them move from being inexperienced writers to experienced writers. This clearly shows that feedback provided them the opportunity to move from their zone of current development (ZCD) to the zone of proximal development (ZPD) (Vygotsky, 1978). The written feedback gave them new ideas and made them understand what the lecturer wanted in an essay that reflected their ideas clearly (Sommers & Saltz, 2004; Sternglass, 1997). The feedback also made it clear to the students that the writing goals were met, supporting Sadler's (1989) explanation that feedback is "information given to the student about the quality of performance" (p.142). Therefore, it can be argued that without well-directed feedback, the students in this study may not have been able to comprehend the feedback and, therefore, achieve their writing goal, which is to produce an improved version of their essay.

It can be concluded that written feedback did play a major and constructive role in the students' revision of their essays; perhaps the feedback was one major source of explicit input to the students regarding their essays (James & Garrett, 1990). The reason for the students' desire for such feedback could be that being young and unskilled writers, they had not been trained to thinking critically on their own. Thus, this study also reveals that

communication skills are important because feedback is considered a form of speech and that feedback itself is a communicative act between the lecturer and students. This highlights that written feedback does play an important role in students' writing and students do value them.

PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

Four pedagogical implications emerged from this study. The students greatly valued their lecturer's written feedback, and the following implications are based on what they found both useful and lacking in the written feedback. The four implications are to write enough information in their feedback, to provide instruction feedback, to provide specific praise feedback and to have student-teacher conferences. In addition to the above implications, a need for training in the area of providing effective feedback is also apparent, suggesting a possibility of developing a taxonomy of good feedback practices for lecturers.

Firstly, lecturers should write enough information in their comments. When lecturers give feedback, they should "say enough for students to understand what you mean" (Lunsford, 1997, p.103). This clearly shows that in order for the feedback to be effective, the lecturers must provide feedback which is *information-loaded* in order for the students to respond and act on it (Hyland & Hyland, 2006).

Secondly, lecturers could provide instruction feedback when providing feedback to students. It is found in this study

that the writers liked directive-instruction feedback as they benefitted much from it and it gave them a sense of direction (Hyland & Hyland, 2006). Students would like to know exactly what works and what does not work in their paper (Ogede, 2002).

Thirdly, lecturers could provide approval feedback that is specific. As discovered in this study, some of the students did not know the reason for praise from their lecturer. Therefore, lecturers should provide specific praise to encourage students to the end that they know what they did well in the paper and use that understanding in future writing; such understanding also boosts their confidence in writing (Straub, 1997).

The fourth implication is that the students wanted writing conference sessions with their lecturer as these would provide them with the opportunity to clarify ideas and ask questions regarding their work. Therefore, lecturers could try to incorporate writing conference sessions into their course. These writing conferences could take place during the stages of brainstorming, composing or revising as helpful guides in the writing process.

In order for lecturers/teachers to provide students with effective feedback, there is a need for training for lecturers/teachers in the area of providing effective feedback. Schools and universities could provide teachers/lecturers with workshops and talks on how to provide students with effective feedback. This study shows that written feedback assisted the students in their essay revision and they wanted written feedback that is specific and information-loaded.

At the same time, this study also provided a possibility of developing a taxonomy of good feedback practices for lecturers (see Table 2). Lecturers may compare the taxonomy to their own relevant experiences and opinions. Lecturers may consider this model and the opinions of the writers presented in this research study while giving feedback to their own students. Finally, this study might lead to similar research studies that may collectively provide a more extensive taxonomy for understanding students' attitudes and perceptions related to their lecturer's feedback.

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The findings of this study point to several promising directions for future research. Thus, recommendations are that future studies could be conducted to further explore the issues addressed in this study. One possibility would be to include students' revised essays in order to compare the changes done in the draft according to the lecturer's feedback. If the revised essays were included, a comparison of the original essay and the revised essay could have been done. This would confirm whether or not the writers did incorporate and utilise the written feedback in their revised essays. However, this option was not within the scope of this study, so it remains a facet of feedback for future research in order to gauge whether students do utilise teacher feedback in their essay revision and to what extent, and if they do not, then to understand

what reasons caused them not to utilise teacher feedback in their revision.

The second stage of the study could be repeated with a larger and more diverse group of students and lecturers to increase the generalisability of the results and to find out whether it is typical of other lecturers to provide their students with types of feedback similar to the ones used in this study. Additionally, a comparison study could also be done among different groups of students considered 'skilled' and 'unskilled' writers to find out if both groups of students appreciate the same type of feedback or what type of feedback the different groups find useful.

This study could be replicated with the addition of student-lecturer conferences in order to find how effective student-lecturer conferences are when given alongside written feedback. Teacher conferences are useful for students to clarify any confusion and misunderstanding of written feedback (Brender, 1995; Samuels, 2002; Zamel, 1985). It serves as a backup system in case students get stuck and need to discuss an issue which they are not clear about.

This study would also benefit from future research by incorporating peer feedback. Peer feedback tends to be less authoritative than teacher feedback (Berkenkotter, 1984; Cho, Schunn, & Charney, 2006). Thus, a comparison study of teacher feedback and peer feedback could yield answers as to which feedback, teacher feedback or peer feedback, students prefer and find to be more useful in the revision of essays.

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APPENDIX 1

Questionnaire on Written Feedback

Dear students,

This questionnaire consists of three parts: (1) demographic background information, (2) questions about your perceptions on the feedback received from your lecturer, and (3) questions about your experience relating to the feedback. This questionnaire will only be used for this specific research.

Section I:

Demographic Background Information

1. Gender: ☐ Male ☐ Female
2. Age: _____
3. Year of study : _____ Current semester of study: _____
4. Have you ever received any feedback on your writing prior to this course?
☐ Yes ☐ No (Please proceed to Section II of this questionnaire)
5. When was the last time you received feedback on your writing?
(Please state month and year)
Month: _____ Year: _____

Section II:

Each statement below describes one type of feedback you may receive from your lecturer with examples provided. Circle the number indicating how useful each type of feedback is (1 = not useful, 2 = least useful, 3 = useful, and 4 = very useful).

	Types of Feedback	Feedback Rating			
	Feedback which instructs you to make changes that are necessary to the text. Examples: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Preview your main point here. Write in paragraphs and provide clear links. 	1	2	3	4
	Feedback which seeks further information about the ideas mentioned in the paper. Examples: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> How does this support your stand? What is your justification for this claim? 	1	2	3	4

Feedback which suggests incorporating additional details to improve the quality of the paper. Examples: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Don't you mean "<i>cell phones</i>"? • This is a better point for introduction. 	1	2	3	4
Feedback which expresses the lecturer's dissatisfaction with the essay or part of the essay. Examples: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • You have too many points here. • Weak introduction. 	1	2	3	4
Feedback which expresses the lecturer's satisfaction with the essay or part of the essay. Examples: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Excellent introduction. • Good point. 	1	2	3	4
Feedback which refers to grammar/editing mistakes. Examples: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Page number? • Language! Use "<i>-ed</i>" for past tense. 	1	2	3	4
Feedback which refers to the content matters in a paragraph. Examples: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • You have not introduced this term (Big-Five) yet. • What is the point of this paragraph? 	1	2	3	4
Feedback which refers to the overall organisation of the paper. Examples: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Use transition signals to improve readability. • Provide a link between sections and sub-sections. 	1	2	3	4

Section III:

Please take a few minutes to think about your experience in receiving teacher feedback. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements by circling the numbers below (1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = agree, and 4 = strongly agree).

The feedback ...	Degree of agreement			
• was easy to understand.	1	2	3	4
• was clearly written.	1	2	3	4
• allowed me to understand the weaknesses of my draft.	1	2	3	4
• motivated me to revise my draft.	1	2	3	4
• made me aware of my grammatical mistakes.	1	2	3	4
• improved the content of my writing.	1	2	3	4
• allowed better organization of my writing.	1	2	3	4
• made me aware of editorial mistakes.	1	2	3	4
• improved my writing ability.	1	2	3	4

Written Feedback on ESL Student Writers' Academic Essays

• broadened my understanding about different types of writing.	1	2	3	4
• helped me understand the criteria of good writing.	1	2	3	4
• had educated me on how to review my writing.	1	2	3	4

1. What were the advantages of the feedback?

2. What were the disadvantages of the feedback?

3. How can the giving of feedback be improved?

Thank you for taking the time to complete this questionnaire.

APPENDIX 2

Interview with Students

In-depth interview questions

A. Pre-interview questions

1. Do you generally expect feedback from your lecturer regarding your assignment?
 - If yes, what kind of feedback?
 - If no, why not?
2. How did you feel about your lecturer's comments on this paper?
3. Do you usually read all the written comments or only some of them?
 - If some, why?

B. Main interview questions

Prior to asking the participants questions related to their drafts, the participants were given 5-10 minutes to look at their paper. 3-5 feedback from the students' essays was randomly referred to in order to obtain specific responses and comments on the feedback received.

1. What kind of comment(s) did you particularly like?
 - Why?
2. Which kind of comment(s) did you not like?
 - Why?
3. What kind of comments did you find to be most helpful?
 - Why?
4. What kind of comments did you find to be least helpful?
 - Why? Could you please explain?
5. Which comment(s) did you find easy to attend to?
6. Which comment(s) did you find most difficult to attend to?
(If participant is confused, need to be careful about asking the following question)
7. Are there any comments that you did not understand based on the feedback given?
 - If yes, which ones?

8. What sort of confusion did you experience?
9. Does rereading the comments help you overcome this confusion?
 - If no, why?
10. Do you think the comments on your paper were sufficient?
 - If no, what else did you expect?
11. Are there any parts of the paper/ aspects of the paper that you expected to receive comment(s) on but did not?
 - What kind of comments were you expecting?
 - Why did you expect that type of comment?
12. Will you discuss any of your comments with your lecturer?
13. Which ones?

C. Closing

1. Would you prefer if your lecturer wrote a lot of comments, a moderate number, few or none?
 - Explain the reason for your preference.
2. Consider the following aspects:

Content

Structure

Language

- In which aspect do you want your lecturer's feedback the most? Why?
 - In which aspect do you want least feedback? Why?
3. If you were to grade the helpfulness of the feedback on a scale of 1-5, how would you grade it?

1	2	3	4	5
Not helpful	Least helpful	Helpful	Moderately helpful	Extremely helpful

Why?

4. How did you feel after rewriting based on the comments from your lecturer?

Postgraduate Student-Supervisor Interface: Issues and Challenges

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ABSTRACT

In this qualitative paper we discuss our face-to-face experience with 28 foreign (mainly from Iran) postgraduate students who registered with the Department of Community Health, Faculty of Medicine and Health Science and 31 who registered with the Department of Professional Development and Continuing Education, Faculty of Educational Studies, UPM. The paper addresses itself to three principal areas of concern: firstly, the supervisor-student relationship; secondly, the students' literacy and academic competency; thirdly, academic and social cultural interface. The discussions are predicated on our personal experiences with these students over a three-year period. The influx of postgraduate students, particularly from Iran and Middle Eastern countries made it necessary for us to pay due attention to our encounters with them. The locus of tensions largely dwelt on UPM's educational system and values. Academic incompetence, language and cultural differences are major issues. Understanding of related issues will benefit both the students and UPM in its efforts to become a global player in higher education. We recommend that both qualitative and quantitative studies be conducted by supervisors to explore and determine the overseas students' motivation and learning behavior. We postulate development of an intellectual community that can stimulate challenges beyond the academic encounters. For both faculties, various forms of learning media for the promotion of effective communication

should be developed and made available for flexible learning to occur. To help students improve their academic literacy, it is important 'to identify the epistemological and ontological dimension for a flexible approach to learning' (Tavakol & Dennick 2009). Formal counselling sessions can

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allow students to know what type of learner they are.

Keywords: Learning, postgraduate education, cultural adjustment, competency

INTRODUCTION

Getting foreign students into new faculties is a milestone in a university's intellectual advancement. Yet, before the proper facilities have been put into place, the students are already making headway in gaining admission into various departments. This, however, is posing some trivial and serious challenges for the academic and administrative staff. Since 2004, the Faculty of Medicine and Health Sciences, and the Faculty of Educational Studies, UPM has witnessed an influx of postgraduate students, particularly from Iran and Middle Eastern countries. Most of the 28 students who registered with the Faculty of Medicine and Health Sciences were female nurses involved in clinical practice at the hospitals or teaching medical and health science students at the universities in their country. Male postgraduate students were attached to the public health programme or working as hospital managers.

Entrance of international students to the Faculty of Educational Studies has markedly increased over the last two years i.e. 2008-2010. At the beginning of semester II 2009/2010, 198 students registered. They were from China, Indonesia, Vietnam, Thailand, Singapore, Philippines, Iran, Iraq, Jordan, Nigeria, Libya, Maldives, Yemen, Saudi Arabia, Oman, Sri Lanka

and Pakistan. At the Department of Professional Development and Continuing Education, Faculty of Educational Studies, 31 international students registered for the Masters and Doctor of Philosophy programmes. Twenty of them were from Iran.

In the months and years that followed, negative comments from faculty advisers reverberated within the university relating to the 'pushy' attitude and naiveté of these foreign students. In this paper, we present these challenges and our ideas of how we can overcome them. Our discussions are based on notes and observations during our encounters with the students over the three-year period mentioned. We include some narratives from the students that we jotted down, having changed the names, to provide the context. In our attempt to better understand our encounters with the foreign students we reviewed literature on the subject. Based on our experience, perceptions and related studies, we indicate implications for improvements that will facilitate dealing with present and future challenges in communication, learning and research on doctoral education. Finally, we suggest a visual matrix which links key variables, and we hope this model illuminates and facilitates the learning- and research-generating process within the would-be intellectual community. The model is predicated on a dynamic relationship among components, with the cores comprising students, supervisors, their academic competency, faculty and their students, the academic-culture

milieu and the bridging social-cultural-academic interface. Development of an intellectual community is the end-goal of this model. Situating the students as a major core concurs with studies and strategies which clearly demonstrate the dynamic adaptation of many postgraduate students in order to cope and succeed in their studies (Anonymous 2010; Corbiere et al. 2006; Samuel and Kohun 2009). Central to their success are validated examples of student-supervisor interactive bridging through the social-cultural-academic interface (Linda and Wang 2008; Nelson 2006).

SITUATING THE ENCOUNTERS

Reasons for studying at UPM

Among women students, wanting to advance their career through postgraduate course was the most common reason for their choice of UPM as the institution for further studies. Another reason was that they were accompanying their spouses who had secured a place to study at UPM, and took the opportunity to make good use of their time in Malaysia. Why UPM? It was because their country recognised Malaysia as being an Islamic country. As for the men, their response was either, "My friends are studying here!" or, "My friend got his PhD degree here!" This echoed a message to us that UPM was seen as an attractive institution for higher learning in some foreign countries. For both single and married women, an unsaid primary driving factor for them to study overseas was the "possibilities for empowerment" (Sadeghi 2008). For professionals like

the nurses, this could be achieved through a struggle for empowerment stimulated by the rising importance for clinical and professional advancement in nursing practice and education in Iran (Hajbagheri & Salsali 2005).

We want to be better in our job. Doing a postgraduate study here can help me secure a higher position. - Fatemeh

The nursing profession is fast expanding. We cannot wait. We have to get more knowledge so that we can better serve our workplace. - Parastoo

Acceptance without full appraisal of academic literacy

We have discerned that there are three categories of students – the weak, the mediocre and the bright. This observation is based on initial encounters with the students when they visited their appointed advisers for core and elective courses and topics of research. The major difficulty in assessing the students' academic potential seemed to stem from the absence of a system at the faculty to fully appraise the students' academic literacy and research potential. In the past, the faculty had no way of determining what their Masters degree levels were. Moreover, some of the documents were in the original language, hence it was not possible to ascertain their academic worth. Under the circumstance, the advisers had to request for a brief write-up of what the students wanted to pursue and

from there, suggest a line of action for them to follow and fulfil.

In the case of most of the students, the level of spoken English was acceptable while the level of written English proved to be “excellent”. Both weak and mediocre students displayed a great many mistakes in grammar and spelling. But more challenging was the difficulty they faced in developing and expressing ideas clearly and coherently. Advisers and supervisors had to repeat or rephrase questions and statements to ensure they were understood. Hence, much was at stake when the communication process was affected by the students’ own ‘construction of meaning’ and ‘distortion of meaning’.

Writing assignments and writing research proposal

Some students had shown great eagerness to demonstrate their writing ability as it appeared to them that the advisers were doubtful of their academic literacy. Advisers too were eager that the students should do this as it would help them gauge the students’ intellectual capabilities. For the brighter students, the task of completing a written assignment on a Special Topic posed no difficulty in terms of length and literature review. On the other hand, the task was handled by the weaker students with provision of extensive literature, but little substance. The mission of these students was seemingly to impress and to hide their actual level of comprehension and analytical ability or academic competence.

The weaker students’ inability to understand the rationale and arguments for

writing research topics could be due largely to their lack of proficiency in the English language (Thomson 1999 cited in Omeri et al. 2003). The students could have been trained to absorb knowledge through rote learning rather than to acquire it through critical and creative thinking in their home institutions. There is probably more to this problem than what has been apparent in the few encounters between the students and their advisers and other assigned academics of UPM. It is widely admitted that being able to learn to memorise or to understand has to do with the individual’s beliefs and conceptions. Some idea as to how these students learnt English can be obtained from a recent study done among high-school students and language learners in Iran. The study by Pishghadam and Navari (2010) found that through the use of metaphors the English language learners’ conceptions represent *behavioristic* guidelines of learning – teacher as *leader*, *provider*, *moulder*, whereas institute students ‘would rather have the kind of teachers in their classes who follow the guidelines of situative and cognitive learning’ (p. 180), and the high-school students used metaphors such as *friend*, *team member*, *child* and *partner* to reflect their learning relationship with their teachers (p. 182). Such a system of learning anchors on teachers as the core and authoritative source of knowledge and learning. Presumably, such a teacher-centric approach portends an autocratic system of learning style. A clash of academic cultures ensues then between these Iranian students and UPM academics. At UPM and Malaysia

in general, doctoral students are expected to conduct a high degree of self-learning concomitantly with a high level of research independence. The supervisory committee is assigned mainly as an advisory, guidance and knowledge-expertise tutelage repository.

It was clear that the weaker students could not position their arguments against existing literature and the relevance of their research to the social, cultural and health context of their home country. Critical thinking was absent in their writing. One could say that the experience was an 'academic shock' as the advisers expected to receive good research. This lack could be one of their reasons for pursuing a post-graduate degree through self-sponsorship. Almost all of them stated that they had borne every expense related to their studies such as travel cost, accommodation, tuition fees and daily expenses on their own. While all had permission from their universities or health offices, several received a monthly salary i.e. they were partly sponsored. The rest, like Farouk, had to stretch their resources:

I don't get my salary while I'm studying at UPM – so not enough but I'm willing to use all my savings.

We regarded this as a positive factor for their wanting to further their education to improve their career prospects and, ultimately, to get a better income when they graduate.

Their first priority was to get a degree, and it did not matter so much if the knowledge they would get would improve

their social or working environment. These mismatches are characteristics of the weak and mediocre students. The lack of arguments and counter arguments, which are critical in PhD proposals, could probably be traced to their tertiary education, as claimed by them, that they were trained to listen and accept what their teachers and supervisors told them.

STUDENT-SUPERVISOR RELATIONSHIP: A MISUNDERSTOOD PHENOMENON

When candidates apply for enrolment through the Graduate School Office, they are required to furnish particulars of an academic who can act as their adviser. They will, of course, have to communicate with the would-be adviser prior to application. Upon their success in being accepted they would first meet him or her to discuss their plan of study. Advisers can become supervisors and, together with the students, select the other supervisory committee members. In instances where the area of specialisation of the adviser differs from that to be undertaken in the research, advisers can opt to decline. Most committee members have no qualms about supervising. The role of these members is not only to ensure that the international students graduate in accordance with UPM's requirements, but also to get them to experience the learning and research culture of UPM.

The student-supervisor relationship yet to be established is one that calls for an acknowledgement of what is expected of each other. Central to this process is the

interpersonal relationships that would either lead to success or failure of the student in completing his or her course. As revealed in the study by Krauss and Ismail (2010), students regard their PhD supervision as involving two aspects of 'management' -- accepting and coping with the supervisor's demands:

Coupled with acceptance, management in this context refers to the efforts the students make to not merely accept the situation but to also devise a variety of approaches and techniques for navigating their relationships with their supervisors.
(p. 162)

Despite their coping strategies as illustrated in the above citation, more than half of the international students are slow to realise their expected role and that of their supervisors. They often need to be reminded to show their progress reports and to arrange supervisory committee meetings. As adult and experienced students they should be accompanied by maturity and should be able to be more proactive. Certainly, they should dispel the idea that the supervisory committee is responsible for preparing everything related to their course from A to Z for them.

As supervisors, we wish for our students to regard their study at UPM as an opportunity to discover an academic and intercultural context. When asked what her study had meant to her, a PhD student who completed her course in four years said this:

Looking back I had no problems with my supervisor or with UPM. In the beginning, yes. But more and more I realized I had to adapt myself to the learning culture of UPM. So, I did not complain much but do my best. I believe UPM has some good supervisors. – Nazilla.

LEARNING TO PURSUE HIGHER EDUCATION

Learning and adapting to the Malaysian educational system and values

Given that higher education is added economic and professional value, it could be argued that these students would be greatly motivated in their studies. Personal factors appeared to support their motivation. Married candidates had brought along their children to Malaysia to stay with them for part or the entire length of their stay here. It was clear from the initial academic encounters that learning was perceived to be a process of accepting wholly the advice of advisers and supervisors. There is a strong belief that listening to and accepting what is told them by the advisers/supervisors is the best way to achieve their objectives. Hence, there were few questions about the suitability of elective subjects. Their enrolment in English and Bahasa Malaysia classes was deemed necessary by the Graduate School Office of the university. Bahasa Malaysia (BM) uses Romanised characters as does English. At times students would ask the meaning of words in BM although they had been given a clearly printed document that provided the information.

While we took cognizance of the students' academic and financial background, we had to pose the question, "How long will you be here?" The immediate response, for most of them, was "three years," which more or less corresponded with their leave grant and available funds. A handful gave a more cheerful, "I plan to finish in two and a half years!" We perceived such a response as a sign of learning ability and strong commitment. The initial window to the students' academic literacy and academic competency was glazed through their interaction/non-interaction in the lecture classes. More than half of the foreign students found it difficult to converse in English, let alone to fully comprehend the subject matter of the courses they attended. The first real test of academic literacy and competency was through their written assignment. Most obtained a 'C-' or a 'C', and much resentment was shown by these students, who stated that they had never before attained anything lower than 'B-' in their home institutions.

My university cannot accept this grade! You know I'm a lecturer in my country! - Reza

We never got anything lower than 'B-'. Why? - Sahar

For about a year or so it was not clear to us what the students' learning behaviour was; we did, however, notice that among some of them there was a tendency to ask for extensions to deadlines for written assignments, though an exceptional few

would submit their assignments on time with a cheerful attitude, exclaiming, "Here's my assignment!". When it was told to them, "This is not the way you write a proposal!" a quick response from one student was, "We were not taught how to write a research proposal," and, "This is our first time writing a research proposal!"

We realised that foreign students, particularly those who had never been to Malaysia previously, would not understand the working or business hours of the faculties and department. Most Malaysian learning institutions observe the official break time of 1pm-2pm on Mondays to Thursdays. On Fridays, the noon break is longer i.e. from 12:30pm-2:30pm to cater for the needs of Muslim faculty, staff and students. Academics expect students to respect these hours and not insist on meetings at this time unless they specifically request it. The common practice among advisers and supervisors is to put up notices on their office doors informing students of their availability.

ACADEMIC LITERACY AND COMPETENCY

Thinking native

Unlike foreign students from neighbouring countries such as Thailand, Indonesia and the Philippines, most students from the Middle East and Iran prefer to document their thoughts in their mother tongue. They write everything they hear and speak in Persian. This could pose a problem as we have no way of knowing if what they have recorded is inaccurate or misinterpreted as

we are not familiar with the language. We asked some students why they preferred to write in their own language. Samir gave us this answer:

It is very easy to think in my language. And I can write faster – don't have to think if the sentence is correct.

Foundation skills

Academic literacy is usually a measure of capability-capacity in mastering the gamut of academic tasks and assignments. These include reading, understanding, writing, paraphrasing, presenting and articulating of knowledge materials and syntheses. Adjusting to a foreign language i.e. English as the language of instruction and communication is a common critical challenge for international students. This challenge is compounded in courses such as health sciences which are loaded with technical terms. Thus language skill is definitely a major deficiency for many international students.

Academic competency is usually perceived as a measure of the level of achieving proficiency; of knowledge, skill and behavioral traits such as comprehension, learning and teaching. The “student” component is paramount. The major sub-components are attitude, behaviour and skills. The academic culture in the home country of the international students is vastly different from that of Malaysia. Independent study and research are central to and the norm in academic higher education in

Malaysia. This is in contrast to the more strictly authoritarian academic culture of many of the Middle Eastern and African educational institutions.

We have conceptualised the interlinking of the various dimensions at play in these issues through a construct (Fig.1). Competency of both supervisor and student, as one of the two foundation sectors, anchors the Student-Supervisor Building Matrix. Inevitably, knowledge acquiring and application skills are the central learning outcome of postgraduate studies. The other foundation sector is the academic-social-cultural differential across faculty and student groupings. Inevitably, the social-cultural-academic interface bridges the gap separating students and supervisors. This gap is the critical determinant in bridging a successful student-supervisor relationship. A core component of this critical bridge is the mentoring dynamics. Protivnak & Foss (2009) found that many doctoral students identified “mentoring to be the most helpful experience in their doctoral studies.” The two central pillars representing students and supervisors and the social-cultural bridge comprise the inner core building blocks.

The foundation elements comprising competency and social-interaction dynamics of both student and supervisor, anchor and strengthen the central pillars i.e. student-supervisor-relationship. These are enclosed by the influencing contiguous walls of the university academic system, students-adaptation milieu, the connectivity-bridges (association, study group, mentor-mentee, host family etc.) and overarching policy

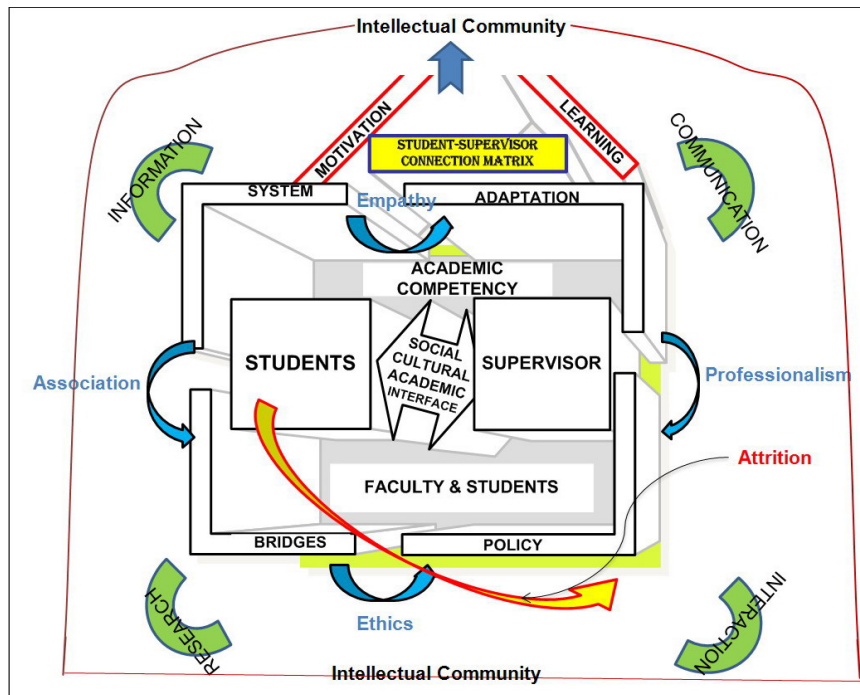


Fig.1: Interlinking matrix of dimensions which influence academic competency

frames. It is envisaged that these boundary walls are glued by drivers of tools including various infrastructural-systems: information, communication, research and interaction components.

These drivers enhance and stimulate the interaction and exchange dynamics between student and supervisor and other teachers. It is an academic cultural imperative to include research modules and information-communication-technology (ICT) expertise as part of the learning dynamics through interactive input and response in the student-supervisor-teacher interface. The outermost boundary-fence of this entire “ecosystem” is the intellectual community representing the entire campus life-system. Binding the contiguous walls are the empowering

primers of empathy, professionalism, ethics and associations (student club). These empowering binders represent the human/humane strengthening scaffolding, which is essential in constructing the student-supervisor-teacher learning ecosystem.

Roofing the entire building set-up are the students’ own motivation and intention. While our construct is reflected as a comprehensive entity comprising components which influence academic literacy and especially academic competency, some “non-academic” components do populate the intellectual community ecosystem and these have to be recognised by both academics and students (Samuel & Kohun, 2009). They are to be addressed accordingly. Nevertheless there

is no available data on some elements e.g. attrition rate, hence no discussion or inference can be made here.

Coping deficiency in academic culture, professionalism and ethics

Poor understanding of the diversity of the learning landscape e.g. sensitivities of culture, religion, fraternities, mannerism and societal norms appear to confront international students. As eager as they were to start off on the doctoral education journey, they were, however, ill-prepared to cope with stress due to e.g. work-load, emotional pressure, unplanned time-management, ignorance of the rigours and requirements of academic sojourns. The nursing fraternity, particularly, had placed greater emphasis on coursework and practice in the Master's programme, and hence, found themselves clueless as to academic professionalism. The high level of authoritative style and dependence on the system posed a difficulty to the promotion of an independent working style of academic life. The students' deficiencies were especially critical in research-based programmes where issues on ethical matters such as plagiarism, copyright, courtesy and etiquette were central concerns. For example, students thought that if references are retrieved from the Internet, it was not an act of plagiarism to use them without citation as they held the view that the Internet was public domain. If they could cite the author's work and date of publication, it was regarded as "citing the literature review." The student's effort

was merely in the form of collecting and assembling data.

English and Bahasa Malaysia requirement

In 2008, the Graduate School Office, UPM required all foreign students to pass an English language test before they began their studies in UPM. However, attendance at the foundation English language class was found to be inadequate for a higher degree course. It was soon noted that the students lacked the language competency. Questions arose as to whether the course content was insufficient or the students' learning ability for language was low. As they were required to obtain optimum scores in TOEFL or ELT and subsequently to register in English Language and Malay Language classes while studying in UPM, they were expected to do their best.

In the mean time, the Faculty of Educational Studies has started a counselling lab for UPM students and the public. To what extent it is being used by the international students is not yet known as there is no data available to gauge this. Emotional emotions are solved with least involvement of their advisers. At the Department of Professional Development and Continuing Education, there is a society for postgraduate students. The main objective of this society is to help in the development of postgraduate students in the department. Having a concourse in the centre of the department building makes it easier for students to gather and interact. International students have enriched the experience of faculty in many ways and

contributed new and different flavours to teaching and learning methods in use today.

At the Faculty of Medicine and Health Sciences, we have taken steps towards promoting a better adaptation and learning culture by publishing postgraduate seminar materials in 2009 such as the 'Essential Guide to Postgraduate Study and Research: What it takes to succeed'. This was a sequel to the first booklet published in 2007, in which we stressed on the importance of getting adequately prepared for the undertaking of a 'journey of learning' in UPM. A note on plagiarism was also included. We hoped the contents would serve to stimulate and inform the students of the attitude to adopt and the directions to take to ensure success in their study.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Two sides of the coin

Universiti Putra Malaysia is a 75-year-old university that in 1999 transformed from an agriculture-based learning institution to a leader in agriculture as well as other fields of science and social science. In 2007, it attained research-based university status. Hence, the influx of foreign students who enrol in the disciplines of medicine, health and education is welcomed and seen as a boost to increase research activities within its campuses. While academics face various challenges from these academic encounters with foreign students, UPM must acquire the infrastructure facilities that will reduce both the academic and cultural constraints faced by students and academicians. For students

to learn and adapt faster to UPM culture, there should be opportunities for a wider intellectual community/ecosystem. Students learn quicker if they can channel into the scientific culture of UPM. Encouraging and getting them to conduct group learning and exchange sessions would serve this purpose.

Foreign students have to understand that UPM's curricula are western-orientated, and, therefore, self-reliance is the order of the day. Students should help themselves to overcome their personal challenges. There is need for students empowerment initiatives. Each student articulates his/her own desired outcomes with definitive milestones throughout the study period. A student needs to map out key strategies and tactics based on his/her motivation factors and intention drivers. A faculty member (adviser/supervisor) should then act as coach in the mentoring process. Not of the least important is that students should realise that their learning should not only be confined to the academic setting. They need to socialise with fellow students and their families. That would provide them with the social and psychological support they will need while they are away from home.

The foreign students might not have been adequately exposed to writing skills prior to their entering UPM. The university's Graduate School Office conducts some writing workshops from time to time, the most recent one being held in July 2010. The Faculty of Medicine and Faculty of Education may add such activities to cater for the needs of their own students. An

online writing strategies and skills module can be one way to help students improve their writing skills. Apart from Special Topic lectures, writing workshops should be conducted on a regular basis with the objective of demystifying the writing process.

Some faculties make it a requirement for entering students to provide TOEFL or ESLT scores. Those who feel they want to further improve their proficiency can register for English classes at the Faculty of Modern Languages and Communication, UPM. The Faculty of Medicine and Health Sciences, in particular, can probably, with the help of the former, offer special English classes for its postgraduate students. This and together with the faculty's approaches to develop a more conducive learning environment can help build an interactive relationship between students and their teachers. The promotion of a reading and writing culture should be seriously undertaken in order for all students to have an adequate level of academic literacy. It goes without saying that entering students must adapt quickly to the academic, social and educational structures of their host environment. They should also make time to discover the personalities and demands of their advisers/supervisors and their course mates. Other possible attrition factors such as homesickness and loneliness should also be addressed accordingly.

The adaptation success of the "survivors" requires a considerable time span. The gradual inter-phasing of adjustment may perhaps be summed up

by Lysgaard's (1955) U-Curve adjustment theory, curiosity-expectation-enjoyment, crisis-disappointment-disillusionment and coming-to-terms stages.

Learning more flexibly

Compared to the Faculty of Medicine and Health Sciences, the Faculty of Educational Studies has been in existence for a longer time. While the former is witnessing encouraging trends in student-supervisor relationship given the increase in annual enrolment of international students, both need to reassess their students' learning capabilities. At the same time, both faculties need to develop and make available various forms of learning media for the promotion of effective communication. It is also timely that both faculties pay attention to a more "flexible approach to learning" (Honey 2004). Students ought by themselves to know what type of learner they are and to be able to suit their learning with facilities that are available. Formal counselling sessions can help them identify their learning styles. The supervisors too should develop "the area of appreciative thinking in order to identify the epistemological and ontological dimension" required for flexible learning (Tavakol & Dennick 2009). For Iranian students, particularly, the ancient proverb, "One pound of learning requires ten pounds of sense to apply it," should be fully realised and acted upon by them.

Research on postgraduate education

Observations and perceptions can be used to stimulate deeper interest in matters

concerning postgraduate studies. In this paper we recommend that supervisors from both faculties conduct both quantitative and qualitative research. Instruments for assessing student motivation for knowledge and skills acquisition can help gauge their levels. Grounded theory studies and other qualitative research can be useful in identifying students' different learning needs and cultural and psychological experience. Both quantitative and qualitative studies can pave the way for developing models and theories to form the basis for counselling and training programmes to help international postgraduate students develop a wholesome attitude towards their study and research activities.

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Lion Metaphors in Chinese and English

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ABSTRACT

This study intends to explore the cultural similarities and differences between the lion metaphors in Mandarin Chinese and British English. Most previous studies on animal metaphors focussed on the expressions with human beings as the target domain by collecting data either from questionnaires or dictionaries based on the Conceptual Metaphor Theory. This study, however, focusses on the expressions with non-humans as the target domains and is based on data collected from authoritative corpora. Three hundred and ninety-seven metaphorical expressions in Mandarin Chinese were identified from the Modern Chinese Corpus compiled by the Centre for Chinese Linguistics of Peking University (CCL Corpus) and 241 metaphorical expressions in British English were identified from the British National Corpus (BNC). After analysing the expressions from the perspective of the source domain and the target domain, the results show that first, the metaphorical expressions in Mandarin Chinese are mainly projected from the lion's appearance to non-humans, but those in British English are mainly projected from the lion's characteristics to non-humans. Second, the expressions are mainly mapped onto seven target domains in each language; four are the same. In addition, the dominant evaluation of the seven target domains in each language is mostly neutral. Third, ten conceptual metaphors were generalised from Mandarin Chinese and one from British English. All of these indicate the occurrence of cultural similarities as well as differences in the lion metaphors in the two languages.

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INTRODUCTION

In cognitive linguistics, conceptual metaphors of many kinds have been researched. Among them are the emotion metaphor (Aksan *et al.*, 2008; Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk *et al.*, 2010; Schröder, 2009; Yu, 1995; Yu, 1998) and the body part metaphor (Charteris-Black, 2003; Odebunmi, 2010; Yu, 2000; Yu, 2003). The other types that have been less researched are the war metaphor and the chess metaphor. In addition, although much research on metaphors has been in the English language, “cognitively oriented studies of figuration in the Chinese language have made significant contributions to our awareness and appreciation of culture-specific as well as universal patterns of conceptualization” (Jing, 2008, pp.243) such as in the anger metaphor (Yu, 1998). This suggests the possibility that cultural differences might also exist in other kinds of metaphor. Given the close relationship between human beings and animals, we might assume that a plethora of animal metaphors have been identified. However, the reverse is true. Not only are studies on animal expressions relatively few (Hsieh, 2004; Hsieh, 2006), but studies conducted cross-linguistically are scarce (Talebinejad & Dastjerdi, 2005). As a consequence, it seems that the animal metaphor is a promising area for research and many interesting aspects are waiting to be explored. Apart from this, previous studies on animal metaphors mainly focussed on the metaphorical expressions when the target domain is the human being, with data gathered either from questionnaires or dictionaries rather

than corpora. However, “one of the major developments in metaphor research in recent few years has been the focus on identifying and explicating metaphoric language in real discourse” (Group, 2007, p.1) rather than from isolated constructed examples out of the researchers’ intuition. Besides, there is a growing trend to adopt a corpus-based methodology to research metaphors (Oster, 2010, p.730). Therefore, a cross-linguistic study on animal metaphor might be very insightful if it is based on data collected from corpora, particularly when the target domains are non-humans. Thus, this study hopes to make some contribution to the literature on animal metaphors by investigating data collected from corpora involving lion metaphorical expressions and metaphors in Mandarin Chinese and British English. Specifically, the study aims to identify the cultural similarities and differences between the lion metaphors in the two languages by focussing on the metaphorical expressions that have non-humans as the target domain.

Background to the Study

Previous studies on animal metaphors conducted in China and elsewhere have been analysed and compared according to the research content, which leads to the identification of certain similarities and differences between them. With regard to the similarities, two aspects are significant. First, most studies focussed on the expressions or metaphors when the target domain was human beings (e.g., Xiang & Wang, 2009; Zhou, 2010; Davies & Bentahila, 1989;

O'Brien, 2003; Spence, 2001; Talebinejad & Dastjerdi, 2005). Xiang and Wang (2009) analysed the similarities and differences between 36 representative animal metaphors in English and Mandarin Chinese from the data they collected from a survey with two sets of ten native speakers in each language as the participants. They found that although animal metaphors relating to human beings in English and Mandarin Chinese share similarities to some extent, cultural specifics are manifested in many aspects. Zhou (2010) conducted a corpus-based study on animal expressions with human beings as the target domain in Mandarin Chinese and British English. His study provides evidence not only for the metaphor, HUMAN BEINGS ARE ANIMALS but also for Kövecses's argument that metaphorical highlighting and metaphorical utilisation are two important properties of metaphorical mappings (Kövecses, 2010, p.91-93). Davies and Bentahila (1989) examined animal terms used to describe human beings in British English and Moroccan Arabic. They found that it is not practical to have clear-cut dichotomies in the classification of conversational metaphors "such as those between conventional and creative interpretations or between regular and idiosyncratic ones" (p. 66). O'Brien (2003) analysed the use of organism, object, natural catastrophe, war and animal metaphors in the immigration restriction debate in American history in the early 20th century. With regard to animal metaphors, he concluded that, "Animal metaphors were often used when the particular characteristic of an animal was seemingly descriptive of

the threat posed by the immigrant group" (p.42). Based on this argument, a conceptual metaphor of IMMIGRANT AS ANIMAL has also been generalised in the study (p. 43). Spence (2001) analysed the application of animal names to human beings in several European languages such as English, French, Italian, German and Spanish. He found that the animal names in the major languages of Western Europe are frequently used to describe human beings in a figurative way. For example... Wei (2011) conducted a corpus-based study on lion metaphors when the target domain is the man. She found support for the metaphor, HUMAN BEINGS ARE ANIMALS by generalising 14 lion metaphors under the umbrella of A MAN IS A LION in each language. For example, in both languages, the lion is used to describe famous and excellent men. Therefore, A FAMOUS MAN OF EXCELLENCE IS A LION exists in both cultures. The following two linguistic expressions are examples from the corpora of Mandarin Chinese and that of British English to support this metaphor.

沧州武术教练刘述来胆大艺高，
有武林雄[狮]之称。

*Cangzhou wushu jiaolian Liu
Shulai danda yigao, you wulin*

*Cangzhou martial arts coach Liu
Shulai bold skill high, have wulin*

xiongshi zhi cheng.

male lion MOD title.

[Liu Shulai is a martial arts coach in Cangzhou and he is called the "lion of martial

arts” for his boldness as well as his excellent skills in martial arts.]

He was one of the first eminent European scientists to make a career in the USA, and rapidly became a *lion*: his lectures and books were popular, and he built up a school and museum at Harvard.

Second, some studies focussed on the evaluation of the animal expressions when they were used to depict people. (e.g., Xin, 2006; Zhou, 2010; Allen, 1984; Fontecha & Jiménez Catalán, 2003; Halupka & Radić, 2003). Xin (2006) conducted a comparative study on the discriminative evaluation of animal words concerned with the fox/vixen and dog/bitch pairs as well as their Mandarin Chinese counterparts. The results show that these animal words can metaphorically apply to human beings and that discriminative evaluation exists in these animal names too. In addition, the words that apply to the female display more discriminative connotation compared to those that apply to the male. Zhou (2010) conducted a corpus-based study on the evaluation of the animal expressions that can be applied to human beings in Mandarin Chinese and British English. After analysing the expressions concerned with sheep, snake and tiger in both languages, he claims that when applying animal names to human beings, those that refer to the woman bear more and deeper derogatory meaning than those that refer to the man. Allen (1984) analysed 96 animal terms that refer to women of 20 various ethnic groups. She found that these animal terms are used

abusively as epithets referring to ethnic women. Similarly, Fontecha and Jiménez Catalán (2003) investigated the word pairs of fox/vixen, bull/cow and their Spanish counterparts of zorro/zorra, and toro/vaca. They found that these animal pairs can be metaphorically used to refer to people in the two languages. In addition, the main metaphorical meanings of the female terms bear worse connotations than those of the male terms. This is because Fontecha and Jiménez Catalán regard the metaphorical expressions that refer to promiscuous sexual behaviour as bearing the worst commutation but such expressions are only applied to women. In another study, Halupka and Radić (2003) conducted a study on the use of 40 animal names with 100 university students of linguistics as participants. They analysed the data that was collected through a questionnaire to investigate the use of animal names in Serbian in addressing people abusively and affectionately. The results show that animal names are more often used abusively than affectionately in addressing people.

With regard to the differences between studies conducted in China and elsewhere, one aspect is very interesting: a few studies in Mandarin Chinese focussed on the scope of the metaphor which refers to the range of target domains that one source domain can apply to (Kövecses, 2010). However, research concerned with animal metaphors on this aspect is absent in English. For example, Su (2008) investigated different target domains that most animals can be mapped onto in English and Mandarin

Chinese, such as the human, the economy and politics. Song (2009) conducted a contrast study on animal metaphors in English and Mandarin Chinese from cognitive and cultural perspectives. She explored not only the animal metaphors that can apply to human beings, but also to some other targets such as politics, economics, the military, and science and technology.

Further, if taking the research method into account, the majority of the studies conducted in China and other countries adopted a top-down method by seeking linguistic examples as evidence for the existence of HUMAN BEINGS ARE ANIMALS or a bottom-up method by generalising some specific conceptual metaphors from the data in their studies. However, one study is exceptional, which is MacArthur's work (2005). Although MacArthur adopted a top-down method, he did not seek evidence for any existing metaphor as did the previous studies. Instead, he predicated one conceptual metaphor first. Then he analysed the linguistic expressions to verify its existence. The metaphor he predicated before conducting the study was CONTROL OF AN UNPREDICTABLE/UNDESIRABLE FORCE IS A RIDER'S CONTROL. This metaphor refers to the horse. His study proved the existence of this metaphor in both English and Spanish.

In summary, most previous studies adopted the top-down or bottom-up method by collecting data from questionnaires or dictionaries and focussing on the expressions that are projected from the animal to the human being. Only a few studies in both languages collected the data

from corpora and also only a few studies in China focussed on the expressions when the target domains are non-humans. Thus, in order to fill the gap, this study will adopt the bottom-up method to conduct a comparative study by collecting data from large and authoritative corpora. This study focusses on the animal "lion" in order to see what other domains aside from humans can also be target domains for application of the lion metaphor in the two languages.

The lion has been selected as the focus of the present study due to the following reasons. On the one hand Firstly, the studies focussed on lion metaphors were scant in the past. In addition, the few studies based on the previous studies, the one study on lion metaphors is concentrated on the lion expressions that applied to man rather than to multiple all kinds of domains including both humans and non-humans. Thirdly on the other hand, while the lion is not a native animal neither in China nor in Britain, it is the sitting beast of the Universal Great Wisdom Bodhisattva (Hong, 2004, p.120) in Chinese culture and the "king of beasts" in the British culture. Thus, in order to fill the gap in research on animal metaphors, the lion, which has an important status in both China and Britain, has been chosen as the focus of this study. Next, the theoretical framework of the present study is introduced.

Theoretical framework

In the field of cognitive linguistics, research on metaphors started with the publication of the book *Metaphors We*

Live By (1980), in which Lakoff and Johnson claim that conceptual metaphors are mappings across conceptual domains that structure people's reasoning, experience and everyday language. In other words, one can understand the experience of one domain in terms of another. One formula is suggested for presenting metaphor i.e. where A IS B A refers to the target domain and B refers to the source domain. For instance, the conceptual metaphor LOVE IS A JOURNEY serves to structure the target domain, LOVE in terms of the source domain, JOURNEY, which allows us to think and talk about love in terms of a journey. Accordingly, by mapping knowledge about journeys onto knowledge about love, this LOVE metaphor can be understood easily i.e. this metaphor is understood from the point of view of the journey motif. In addition, a metaphor of this kind is made up of a number of conventional mappings stored in our long-term memory;

in this case, the conventional mappings are the source domain of the JOURNEY and the target domain of LOVE. As indicated in Fig.1, seven corresponding elements exist in the source domain of JOURNEY and the target domain of LOVE. Hence, the motif of the traveller within the convention of the domain of the A JOURNEY is mapped onto the motif of lovers, which is the convention of the target domain, . The notion of the vehicle is mapped onto the notion of the love relationship and so on. In this way, LOVE is metaphorically understood in terms of a journey.

With regard to the nature of the conceptual metaphor, there are knowledge-based metaphors and image-based metaphors (Kövecses, 2010, p.42-44). Metaphors like LOVE IS A JOURNEY fall into the former category. Knowledge-based metaphors refer to those that are based on basic knowledge of concepts. In such

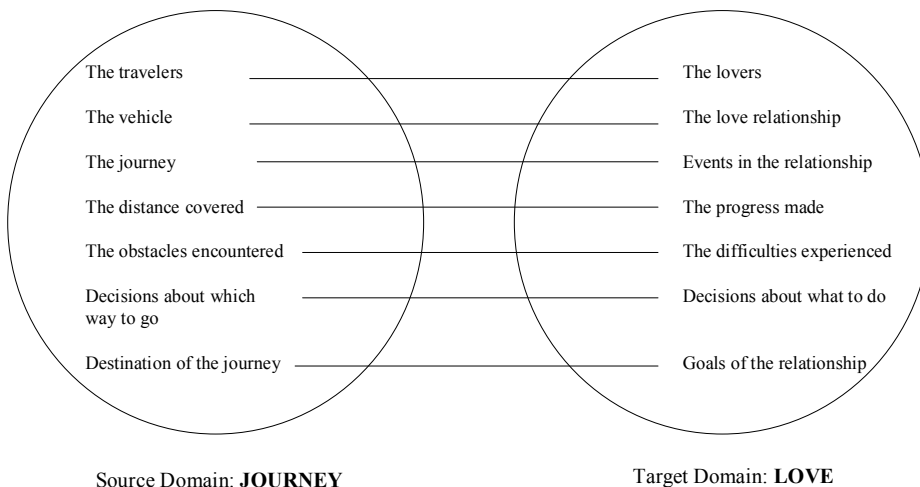


Fig.1: love is a journey
(Adapted from Lakoff, 2006, p. 189-192; Vyvyan Evans, 2007, p.137)

metaphors, the basic knowledge structures that consist of some basic elements are mapped from a source to a target (Kövecses, 2010, p.42). The elements are the lovers, the love relationship and the difficulties experienced, among others, in the case of LOVE and in the case of the “journey,” the elements are the travellers, the vehicle and the obstacles encountered, among others JOURNEY. Image-based metaphors refer to those that are based on different images. In other words, such metaphors do not project the conceptual structure from the source domain to the target domain as in the case of knowledge-based metaphors, but map the image from the source domain onto the target domain (Lakoff & Turner, 1989, p.89). There are two kinds of image structures. One is the part-whole structure and the other is the attribute structure. The part-whole structure refers to the relation between a part and a whole, such as a roof and a house or a tombstone and a grave. The attribute structure refers to attributes of the object selected as the target domain such as colour and shape, for instance (Lakoff & Turner, 1989, p.90). Lakoff and Turner (1989, p.90) claim that “It is the existence of such structures within our conceptual images that permits one image to be mapped onto another; in other words, it is by virtue of the “common structure” shared by the source domain and the target domain as realised through the part-whole structure or the attribute structure that one is able to connect the source domain and the target domain. with respect to the part-whole relation, color or shape.

METHODOLOGY

This study aims to explore the similarities and differences between the lion metaphorical expressions and metaphors in Mandarin Chinese and in British English by comparing the results to the following three research questions. First: What is the main aspect of the source domain when the target domain is non-human beings? Second: What target domains are the lion mainly mapped onto and what are the dominant evaluations of them? Third: Are there any lion conceptual metaphors that can be generalised from the metaphorical expressions?

The Mandarin Chinese data were taken from the Modern Chinese Corpus compiled by the Center for Chinese Linguistics of Peking University (CCL Corpus) and the British English data were extracted from the British National Corpus (BNC XML Edition). The two corpora were chosen as the data sources for this study for two important reasons. First, both are large and authoritative in that they have been compiled by prestigious universities and they are usually referred to in corpus-based studies. The Modern Chinese Corpus has 307 million characters and the British National Corpus has 100 million words. Second, they share similar sources for data collection such as literary works and newspapers. Thus the two corpora are comparable, which in turn would ensure the reliability of the results. Altogether, six steps were involved in the extraction and analysis of data for the study.

First, the expressions pertaining to the lion in the two languages were extracted from the two corpora.

Second, metaphorical expressions with the lion as the source domain and non-humans as the target domains were identified manually.

Third, all the metaphorical expressions were categorised according to their source domain and target domain. The specific source domains of the metaphorical expressions are the lion's appearance, such as (e.g. the lion's head, the lion's mane, the lion's tail); the lion's behaviour, such as (e.g. the lion's roar); and the lion's characteristics, such as its reputation as a fearsome animal that signals danger in itself or in objects or places connected with it such as "lion's den" (e.g. causing danger or indicate a dangerous place in 'the lion's den'). This categorisation is adapted from the work of Wierzbicka (1985), who illustrates her view of defining animals by using the tiger as an example to show that the animal's habit, size, appearance, behaviour and its relation to people should all be considered (1985, p.164). Since the animal's size is normally included in its appearance, it seems logical to combine its size in the category of its appearance. In addition, each animal has its salient characteristics. Therefore, the animal's characteristics can also function as a new category. Upon analysis of all the metaphorical expressions, it was ascertained that the lion's appearance, behaviour and characteristics were the three specific aspects of the source domain. Furthermore, the target domains of the metaphorical expressions in the two languages are different in number. There are 14 expressions?target domains in Mandarin

Chinese and 19 target domains in British English.

Fourth, the evaluation of each expression was ascertained according to the context.

Fifth, all the metaphorical expressions were analysed to generalize conceptual metaphors.

Six, the results collected from the analysis based on the three research questions concerned with lion metaphorical expressions and metaphors in the two languages were compared to determine the cultural similarities and differences between them. The procedure discussed above is displayed in Fig.2.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

There are 397 metaphorical expressions in Mandarin Chinese and 241 metaphorical expressions in British English where the lion is mapped onto non-human target domains. The details pertaining to the metaphorical expressions in the two languages are presented in Table 1 and Table 2 respectively.

Table 1 shows that the expressions that are mapped from the lion's appearance, behaviour and characteristics onto non-humans in Mandarin Chinese are 283, 15 and 99 respectively. Table 2 shows that the expressions that are mapped from the lion's appearance, behaviour and characteristics onto non-humans in British English are 55, 6 and 180 respectively. In other words, from the perspective of the source domain, more expressions are generated from the lion's appearance in Mandarin Chinese while more are generated from the lion's characteristics in British English. The expressions that are

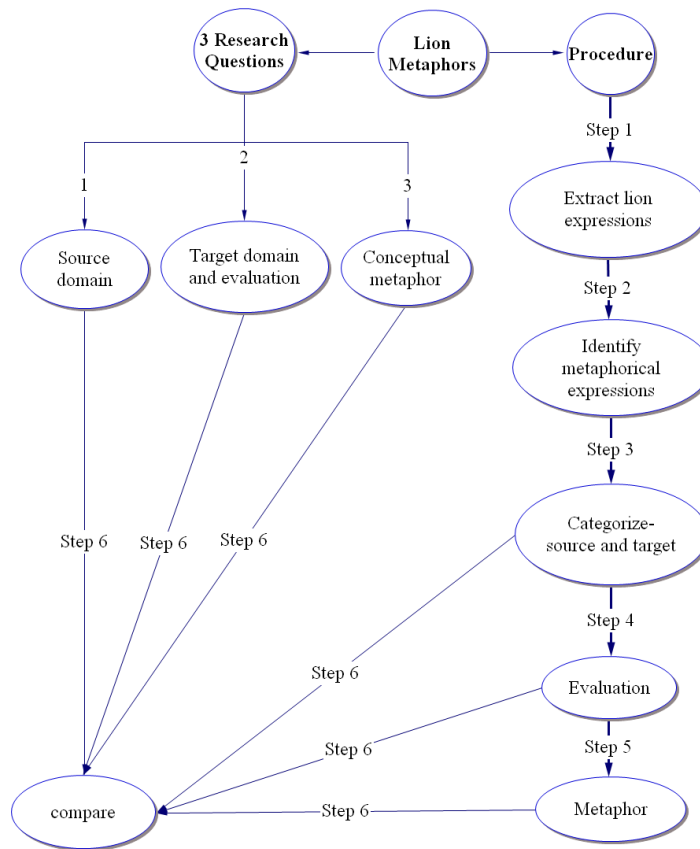


Fig.2: Research Design

generated from the lion's characteristics rank second in number in Mandarin Chinese while the expressions that are generated from the lion's appearance rank second in number in British English. In addition, expressions that are generated from the lion's behaviour are the least in number in the two languages. Therefore, it is the lion's appearance that is mainly mapped onto non-humans in Mandarin Chinese while it is the lion's characteristics that are mainly mapped onto non-humans in British English .

From the perspective of the target domain, the 397 lion metaphorical

expressions in Mandarin Chinese can be mapped onto 14 specific target domains, and most of them are neutral in meaning. However, they are mainly projected onto seven target domains metaphorically because 372 expressions are generated for these seven targets, which constitute 93.7% of the total number of lion metaphorical expressions. These domains are "animal," "constellation," "country and place," "daily matters," "mountain," "the economy" and "rock" in descending order. Since more metaphorical expressions are positively mapped from the lion onto "country and

TABLE 1
Statistics for lion metaphorical expressions in Mandarin Chinese where the target domains are non-humans

	Appearance	Behaviour	Characteristic	Negative	Neutral	Positive	Total
Animal	96	3	0	0	83	16	99
Constellation	84	0	0	0	84	0	84
Country and place	0	0	52	17	1	34	52
Daily matters	43	1	2	0	46	0	46
Mountain	43	0	1	0	44	0	44
Economy	0	0	35	9	5	21	35
Rock	12	0	0	0	12	0	12
Total	278 (98.2%)	4 (26.7%)	90 (90.9%)	26 (92.9%)	275 (94.8%)	71 (89.9%)	372 (93.7%)
TOTAL	283	15	99	28	290	79	397

Note: Total refers to the total number of metaphorical expressions that are mapped onto the seven main target domains. TOTAL refers to the total number of metaphorical expressions that are mapped onto all the non-human target domains

TABLE 2
Statistics for lion metaphorical expressions in British English where the target domains are non-humans

	Appearance	Behaviour	Characteristic	Negative	Neutral	Positive	Total
Economy	0	0	61	6	55	0	61
Animal	34	2	8	4	38	2	44
Politics	0	0	39	1	36	2	39
Daily matters	11	0	25	6	25	5	36
Military	0	0	12	0	4	8	12
Country and place	0	0	10	3	4	3	10
Sports	0	0	10	0	3	7	10
Total	45 (81.8%)	2 (33.3%)	165 (91.7%)	23 (67.6%)	169 (91.4%)	20 (90.9%)	212 (88%)
TOTAL	55	6	180	34	185	22	241

Notes: Total refers to the total number of metaphorical expressions that are mapped onto the seven main target domains. TOTAL refers to the total number of expressions that are mapped onto all the non-human target domains.

place” as well as “economy,” the dominant evaluation of these two target domains is positive. Since more metaphorical expressions are neutrally mapped onto “animal,” “daily matters,” “constellation,” “mountain” and “rock,” the dominant evaluation of these five target domains is neutral.

The 241 lion metaphorical expressions in British English can be mapped onto 19 specific target domains, and most of them are used neutrally. However, they are also mainly mapped onto seven target domains because 212 expressions are generated for these domains, constituting 88% of the total number of expressions. Based on the number

of expressions that can be mapped onto the target domains, the seven target domains in descending order are “economy,” “animal,” “politics,” “daily matters,” “the military,” “country and place” and “sports”. The dominant evaluation of “the military” is positive while that of the other six domains is neutral.

With regard to the conceptual metaphors that are projected from the lion onto non-humans in the two languages, ten conceptual metaphors are generalised from the Mandarin Chinese data and only one conceptual metaphor is generalised from the British English data. In addition, all of them are generalised for the seven main target domains mentioned above in each language. Among the seven main target domains with more metaphorical expressions compared with the rest of the target domains in the two languages, four are shared by both the ChineseMandarin Chinese and EnglishBritish English data. They are “animal,” “country and place,” “daily matters” and “economy”. Since eight conceptual metaphors in Mandarin Chinese and the single conceptual metaphor in British English are all mapped onto three of the shared fields, namely, “animal,” “country and place” and “economy,” the metaphorical expressions and the conceptual metaphors pertaining to the three target domains in the two languages are discussed in greater detail. The statistics pertaining to the metaphorical expressions that are mapped from the lion onto the three target domains in Mandarin Chinese and British English can also be seen in Table 1 and Table 2 respectively.

When the target domain is the animal, all the 99 metaphorical expressions in Mandarin Chinese are generated from the lion’s appearance and behaviour, while all the 44 metaphorical expressions in British English are generated from the lion’s appearance, behaviour and characteristics. Most of the metaphorical expressions of concern here in the two languages are those that are generated from the lion’s appearance: 96 in Mandarin Chinese and 34 in British English. Comparatively, the Mandarin Chinese lion metaphorical expressions can be mapped onto more kinds of animals such as the sealion, the lionfish, the dog, the horse, the goose, the cat and the monkey. The British English lion metaphorical expressions can be mapped onto animals such as the sealion, the lionfish, the jellyfish, the dog and the horse. Due to the resemblance of the sealion’s face to the lion’s face, the dog’s fur to the lion’s mane, the horse’s mane to the lion’s mane and so on, we can generalise one conceptual metaphor in both languages, that is, that A CERTAIN BODY PART OF ANOTHER ANIMAL IS A CERTAIN BODY PART OF A LION. In addition, eight expressions in British English are projected from the lion’s characteristics to other animals such as the diatryma, the big fish, the wild cat and the goose to show the similarities between them. For example, the diatryma and the lion are both predators. The big fish and the lion are both fearless and have the potential to triumph over their enemies.

When the target domain is country and place, there are 52 metaphorical expressions in ChineseMandarin Chinese and ten in

British English respectively. The similarity here is that all the metaphorical expressions in the two languages are generated from the lion's characteristics. Although a few Mandarin Chinese expressions refer to countries such as Iran and France, the majority of them depict China as a sleeping lion, an awakening lion or a male lion during different periods in history. For example:

(1) 他还将中国比喻为沉睡中的巨[狮], 力图唤醒它。

Ta hai jiang Zhongguo biyuwei chenshuizhong de jushi,

He also PRT China compare to deep-sleeping MOD giant lion,

litu huanxing ta.

try to awaken it.

[He even compared China to a lion in deep-sleeping lion and tried to wake her up.]

(2) 醒[狮]怒吼, 世界震动!

Xingshi nuhou, shijie zhendong!

Awakened lion angry roar, world shock!

[The awakened lion roars angrily and shocks the world!]

(3) 中国共产党人终于把东方雄[狮]导入市场经济大潮之中。

Zhongguo gongchandangren zhongyu ba dongfang xiongshi daoru

Chinese Communists finally PRT oriental male lion lead enter

shichangjingji dachao zhi zhong.

market economy big wave MOD inside.

[Chinese Communists finally lead the lion of the east into the wave of the market economy.]

Accordingly, three conceptual metaphors are generalised for China. They are OLD CHINA WAS A SLEEPING LION, PRESENT CHINA IS AN AWAKENING LION, AND PRESENT CHINA IS A LION. In addition, only two expressions are used to describe local places such as Shandong and Xizang. As such, place is not a significant target in Mandarin Chinese. Although there are only ten metaphorical expressions that are used to depict country and place in British English, the lion can be mapped onto a greater number of specific target domains such as countries like Greece, South Africa and Israel as well as the Arab countries or areas like cities and resorts, among others. In addition, there are more expressions and less fewer specific targets in Mandarin Chinese than in British English, and in addition, the characteristics that are projected from the lion to country and place are more focussed in Mandarin Chinese. In this instance, three conceptual metaphors are generalised in Mandarin Chinese but no metaphor is obtained in British English.

There are 35 expressions in Mandarin Chinese and 61 in British English where the target domain is the economy. All

the expressions in the two languages are generated from the lion's characteristics. Although there are fewer metaphorical expressions in Mandarin Chinese, the specific targets for the expressions to be mapped onto are more focussed. These are enterprises and companies, such as state-owned enterprises, well-developed enterprises, important and undeveloped enterprises as well as companies that have the inclination to put forward unreasonably high demands on their clients. For example:

(4) 国有大中型企业已在冲破传统体制的束缚，犹如“雄[狮]出笼”、“猛虎下山”。

Guoyou dazhongxing qiye yi zai chongpo

State-owned big medium-sized enterprise already PRT break

chuantong tizhi de shufu, youru “xiongshi chulong”,

traditional system MOD shackles, as “male lion get out of the cage”,

“menghu xiashan”.

“tiger go down the mountain”.

[The state-owned big and medium-sized enterprises have already been breaking the shackles of the traditional system, just like the lions that isare out of its the cages and the tigers that has descendedare off the mountains.]

(5) “闽[狮]”也是中国牛仔首先闯世界的一只威猛“雄[狮]”。

“Min shi” ye shi Zhongguo niuzai shouxian chuang shijie de

“Min Lion” also is Chinese jeans first enter world MOD

yizhi weimeng “xiong shi”.

a brave “male lion”.

[“Min Shi” is also a brave lion that enters the world first with the first Chinese jeans.]

(6) 航空工业还是只睡[狮]。

Hangkong gongye hai shi zhi shuishi.

Aviation industry still is a sleeping lion.

[The aviation industry is a still- a sleeping lion.]

(7) 某衬衫厂[狮]口大开，每件衬衫要价980元。

Mou chenshan chang shizidakaikou, meijian chenshan yaojia 980yuan.

A shirt factory lion big open mouth, every shirt charge 980RMB.

[A shirt factory is extremely greedy, chargingvery avaricious, who charges RMB 980 for each shirt.]

Four conceptual metaphors are generalised from these expressions. They are THE STATE-OWNED ENTERPRISE IS A LION, WELL-DEVELOPED ENTERPRISE IS A LION, UNDEVELOPED BIG ENTERPRISE IS A SLEEPING LION, and A GREEDY COMPANY IS A WIDELY OPEN-MOUTHED LION “Lion with its mouth opened wide” Mandarin Chinese refers in Mandarin Chinese to a person or a company that is extremely greedy, imposing high costs on others). However, the specific targets for the British English expressions to be mapped onto are not very focussed. Therefore, the British English expressions can be mapped onto more kinds of targets such as a business, market, budget, investment, exports, turnover, sales, costs and profits. That is why no conceptual metaphors could be generalised for the economy in British English.

With regard to the nature of the conceptual metaphors, the single and shared metaphor that was generalised for the animal in both languages is image-based. The rest that were generalised for the country and the economy are all knowledge-based.

Next, the Conceptual Metaphor Theory is applied to the interpretation of one image-based metaphor and one knowledge-based metaphor generalised from this study.

The shared image-based metaphors in Mandarin Chinese and British English in this study all belong to the case of projecting the attribute structure from the source to the target. It is that A CERTAIN BODY PART OF ANOTHER ANIMAL IS A CERTAIN BODY PART OF A LION The common structure in the shape of the source domain, (LION) and the target

domain, (ANOTHER ANIMAL) allows the image of the lion’s head, face, mane and so on to be mapped onto that of the other animal, for instance, the lionfish, the sealion, the dog, the horse and so on. In other words, by mapping the image of a certain body part of the lion onto the corresponding body part of other animals, this image-based metaphor becomes accessible to people .

With regard to the knowledge-based metaphor OLD CHINA WAS A SLEEPING LION, PAST CHINA WAS A SLEEPING LION “sleeping lion” is the source domain, and “Old China” is the target domain. As shown in Fig.3., six elements can be drawn in each domain of this metaphor. Based on common knowledge The lion is known to be physically large, strong and very ferocious. Moreover, as the king of beasts, the lion is capable of attacking many other species of animals when it is awake, but does no harm when it is asleep. In other words, it has the potential to drive away or kill its enemy when it is no longer sleeping. In other words, the lion will awaken at some point because sleep is an activity that comes to an end, and when the lion wakes up, it will fight its enemy with ferocity and kill it. The target domain is closely related to the history of China. In the past, due to underdevelopment in many areas as well as the weak policy adopted by the government, China was invaded to varying degrees by different countries. However, China was not only vast in territory, rich in resources and large in population; more importantly, she never lost her sovereignty, meaning that, despite having been invaded, the Chinese were still the master of their

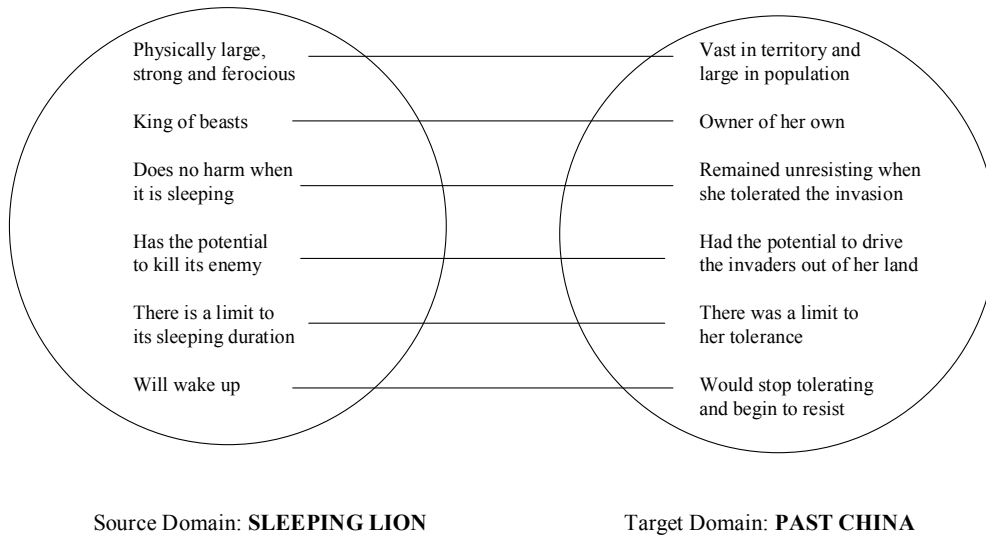


Fig.3: PAST CHINA WAS A SLEEPING LION

own land. Although China initially chose to swallow the insult of invasion by foreign powers without resisting, she always had the potential to drive her invaders out of the land if she chose to tap into that potential. This is reflected in the Chinese saying, “As soon as a thing reaches its extremity, it reverses its course.” In other words, everything has its limit, and in the case of China, this country will not tolerate her suffering forever. The time will come when China will begin to resist with all the strength she has, driving out the invaders. Armed with knowledge about the lion as well as the history of China, one has full access to this metaphor and can understand it without difficulty by mapping knowledge of a sleeping lion onto that of old Chinay.

CONCLUSION

To summarise, when the target domains are non-humans, 397 and 241 lion metaphorical

expressions are generated from the Mandarin Chinese data and the British English data respectively. From the perspective of the source domain, the expressions are mainly projected from the lion’s appearance to non-humans in Mandarin Chinese but from the lion’s characteristics to non-humans in British English. From the perspective of the target domain, although the expressions can be mapped onto 14 target domains in Mandarin Chinese and 19 target domains in British English, they are mainly mapped onto seven target domains in each language. In addition, four of the main target domains in the two languages are the same. In terms of evaluation, a neutral stance dominates the lion metaphorical expressions in the two languages. In particular, when taking the dominant evaluation of the seven main target domains in each language into consideration, a neutral evaluation also dominates most of them. In terms of

the conceptual metaphors, altogether ten conceptual metaphors are generalised from the Mandarin Chinese data while only one conceptual metaphor is generalised from the British English data for the seven main target domains in each language. Moreover, eight of the ten conceptual metaphors that are generalised from the Mandarin Chinese data are for three shared domains of the two languages, which are PAST CHINA WAS A SLEEPING LION, PRESENT CHINA IS AN AWAKENING LION, PRESENT CHINA IS A LION, STATE-OWNED ENTERPRISE IS A LION, WELL-DEVELOPED ENTERPRISE IS A LION, UNDEVELOPED BIG ENTERPRISE IS A SLEEPING LION, A GREEDY COMPANY IS A WIDELY OPEN-MOUTHED LION and A CERTAIN BODY PART OF ANOTHER ANIMAL IS A CERTAIN BODY PART OF A LION. All the metaphors are knowledge-based except for the only one of the two A CERTAIN BODY PART OF ANOTHER ANIMAL IS A CERTAIN BODY PART OF A LION, which is an image-based metaphor shared by both languages.

A CERTAIN BODY PART OF ANOTHER ANIMAL IS A CERTAIN BODY PART OF A LION and it is image-based Based on the analysis and findings of this study, it may be concluded the present study could that cultural similarities and differences occur in the lion metaphor as used in Mandarin Chinese and British English.

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Historical Poetics: Revisiting Gender in Isabella Bird's Polychronotopic Account of Malaya

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ABSTRACT

This paper investigates the representation of time and space in Isabella Bird's *The Golden Chersonese and the Way Thither* (1883), her travel narrative on Malaya, through a Bakhtinian discussion of the chronotope. The study examines the historical poetics of the text and compares the intra-textual relation between time and space, as described by Bird, with an extra-textual account of the historical cultural condition of Malaya in 1883. This paper further seeks to underline the issue of gender and its influence on the narrative. *The Golden Chersonese* can be seen as a portrayal of an imperial look at the land and people of Malaya; whilst the narrative thus points to the costumes and religion of the Malays, it cannot escape the influence of its narrator's gender. Bird's individuality as a female traveller against the background of her native land is discussed with regard to her gender. In addition, chronotopes of 1883-Malaya, with greater focus on social, cultural and religious issues, and 1883-England as an imperial power, besides the perception of gender, are also compared. Finally, by examining various chronotopic units in *The Golden Chersonese*, the paper concludes that Bird's narrative is a polychronotopic text. This research fills the gap in literature regarding a Bakhtinian perspective on travel narrative writing, with reference to time and space.

Keywords: Time, space, chronotope, history, gender, Bakhtin, Malaya, England

INTRODUCTION

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Every entry into the sphere of meanings is accomplished only through the gates of the chronotope."
(Bakhtin, 1981, p. 258)

Bakhtin's chronotope functions as the primary means for materialising time in space; it performs a central role in harmonising and granting life to the entire work of art. Owing to the subjective nature of time, individuals are able to move/travel between chronotopes. It should be noted that, in Bakhtin's term, chronotope is the time-space correlative as represented in literary fiction. A reading of Isabella Bird's *The Golden Chersonese and the Way Thither* (1883) is primarily concerned with the ways in which the chosen text both confronts and deviates from Bakhtin's formulation, specifically regarding the issue of gender. Bakhtin's description of chronotope is generally gender-neutral, but Bird's travel account as a female traveller, between the chronotopes of the coloniser's land, England, and the colonised, Malaya, reveals that all time and space are gendered, that every chronotope, like every house, city or nation, is identified by the sex of its representer. One must bear in mind that wherever we travel in this world, in past, present and future or, in the cities of our minds, gender, travels with us – and we cannot escape its influence.

In addition, for the purpose of this research, the chronotopes of Malaya-1883, with particular emphasis on social, cultural and religious issues, and England-1883, and the issue of gender perception in England in the 19th century and its influence on the description of events, are discussed. By examination of various chronotopic units in Bird's narrative, the following discussion attempts to establish *The Golden*

Chersonese as a polychronotopic text. The main reference for this analysis of travel writing is two essential essays by Mikhail Bakhtin, "Forms of Time and Chronotope in the Novel" from his *Dialogic Imagination* (1981), and "Bildungsroman" from *Speech Genre and Other Late Essays* (1986). In this paper, the representation of hero/narrator in the travel-writing genre, in the context of specific time and space, is delineated.

CONCEPTUAL THEORY: CHRONOTOPE AND POLYCHRONOTOPIC TEXTS

In his essay "Forms of Time and Chronotope in the Novel", Bakhtin discusses the term chronotope, literally meaning time-space, which is derived from Einstein's "Theory of Relativity". Bakhtin defines chronotope as "the intrinsic connectedness of temporal and spatial relations that are artistically expressed in literature" (1981, p. 84). What attracted Bakhtin to Einstein's theory was mainly the fact that it perceives time and space as somehow inseparable and this, he reasoned, was obviously the case in the representation of time and space in the novel:

In the literary artistic chronotope, spatial and temporal indicators are fused into one carefully thought-out, concrete whole. Time as it were, thickens, takes on flesh, becomes artistically visible; likewise, space becomes charged and responsive to the movements of time, plot and history. (1981, p. 84)

A careful reading of Bird's travel narrative indicates that among the three novelistic chronotopes introduced by Bakhtin, the adventure novel of ordeal, the adventure novel of everyday life, and the ancient biography and autobiography, *The Golden Chersonese* mixes the two latter categories and creates a full spectrum of features of both adventure and biographical accounts in the context of a real-life chronotope. In adventure novels of everyday life, in contrast to novels of ordeal, 'metamorphosis' serves as the basis of a method of portraying the whole of an individual's life in its critical moments, basically in order to demonstrate how an individual becomes other than what he/she was. The episodic adventures of the hero/heroine and his/her experiences do not end in a simple affirmation of his or her identity but, instead, in the creation of a new image of the hero/heroine, a man/woman who is now purified and reborn. The most identifying feature of this form of fiction is the way in which it combines the course of an individual's life with his or her actual spatial course or road i.e. with his/her wanderings and travelling from one place to another. Consequently, the metaphor of "the path of life" is recognised. This path expands through familiar native territory, in which there is nothing exotic, alien or strange. As Bakhtin affirms:

An individual's movement through space, his pilgrimages, lose that abstract and technical character that they had in Greek Romances ... space becomes more concrete and

saturated with a time that is more substantial: space is filled with real, living meaning, and forms a crucial relationship with the hero and his fate [...] the concreteness of this chronotope of the road permits everyday life to be realized within it. (1981, p. 120)

In ancient autobiography, as described by Bakhtin, what relates that chronotope to this study of Bird's travel writing is that it is completely determined by events: both verbal praise of civic and political acts, and real individuals presenting a public account of their lives and adventures. Of this third kind of chronotope Bakhtin notes that:

The important thing here is not only their internal chronotope (that is the time-space of their represented life), but also the exterior real-life chronotope in which the representation of one's own or someone else's life is realized either as verbal praise of a civic-political act or as an account of the self. (1981, p. 255 emphasis added)

The life of the self and other are laid bare and made public in this real-life chronotope, and the restrictions of a human image and the life it experiences are revealed in all their specificity. Bakhtin declares that in literature it is sometimes possible for chronotopes to coexist while there is a "complex interaction among them" (1981, p. 252). This essential notion helps critics to

place the chronotope beside Bakhtin's more general dialogic theory, because the notion of a text consisting of multiple independent – yet also interdependent – chronotopes demonstrates a structure apparently similar to his (Bakhtin's) definition of a polyphonic novel (Morris, 1994). Lynne Pearce, in her *Reading Dialogics*, refers to this phenomenon as *polychronotopic text* (1994, p. 175). In this way of reading a text, an individual chronotope in a single text, like individual voices are distinguished by their autonomy and independence; speaking thus, they are "independent centres of consciousness". Bakhtin affirms that the chronotopes, without merging into one another, initiate a complex dialogue which is, at all times, a dialogue inscribed by power:

Chronotopes are mutually inclusive, they co-exist, they may be interwoven with, replace or oppose one another, contradict one another, or find themselves in even more complex interrelationships.
(1981, p. 252)

In the same way that multiple voices appearing in a text may be constantly seeking to dominate one another, so do chronotopes, although the *polychronotopic text*, like its polyphonic counterpart, needs to hold the contending forces in equilibrium. One chronotope may attempt to dominate, but it is not allowed to overcome other juxtaposing chronotopes.

DISCUSSION: CHRONOTOPIC UNITS IN BIRD'S NARRATIVE

More specific to the genre of travel writing is the notion of the "road" that links these kinds of writing to the concept of chronotope. In this way, Bakhtin's conceptualisation of the "chronotope of the road," as described in novels of everyday life, appears to be a feasible approach to the discussion of travel writing where the hero is a moving spot, traversing from one point in time and space to another. Excellence in such writing, Bakhtin declares in "Bildungsroman", depends upon "a keen eye for all visible markers and signs of time in nature" (1986, p. 30). The specific type of subjective experience which Bird depicted in her travel writing, which the hero or persona undergoes in the objective world, is the main theme of this essay where time-space and the image of man in works of art are represented. In this kind of "Adventure Time", Bakhtin argues further, the plots of travel accounts are based on "adventure time, which consists of the most immediate units—moments, hours, days—snatched at random from the temporal process" (1986, p. 11). In combining these units into a unique whole, writers often make use of transitional links relating to simple narrative, such as "at the same moment", "the next moment", "the next day". Hence, life remains in the balance throughout the journey and is reduced to what Bakhtin terms an alteration of various contrasting conditions: success/failure, happiness/unhappiness and victory/defeat.

In terms of the structure of the text as a whole however, the representation of time

in Bird's narrative, in the form of episodes relating the culture and reporting the events in her visit to Malaya – everyday life – is, as Bakhtin affirms, “scattered, fragmented, deprived of essential connections” (1981, p. 128). Hence, Bird's episodic narrative colours her travel account and presents a heteroglossia of differences, from the cultural and religious values of Malays to the tropical weather of Malaya. In this light, *The Golden Chersonese* is an example of a narrative that mixes an “adventure everyday” chronotope with an “autobiography” chronotope and, in this way, gives full flesh to time and space.

In Bird's narrative the representation of time, in the form of episodes reporting and describing the events and her encounter with the culture of the Malays, a real-life chronotope, is, as Bakhtin declares, very indicative of a thorough sense of place and time in the keen eye of the observer. Bird's episodic and seemingly fragmented storyline mixes “adventure everyday-life” chronotope with “autobiography” chronotope and, in this way, giving full flesh to time and space, creates a genuine real-life chronotope in the context of her journey from England to Malaya – a “path of life”. The whole narrative consists of twenty-three letters sent to her sister back in Britain, each containing episodes which give a careful and to some extent exact description of the Malay people and their culture, their social institutions, religion and even the tropical weather. Bird begins her detailed and comprehensive account of her journey to Malaya with specific concern for

the places she visits; a sense of mystery and vagueness pervades her opening description:

“Canton and Saigon, and whatever else is comprised in the second half of my title, are on one of the best beaten tracks of travellers, and need no introductory remarks [...] But the Golden Chersonese is still somewhat of a terra incognita; there is no point on its mainland at which European steamers call, and the usual conception of it is as a vast and malarious equatorial jungle, sparsely peopled by a race of semi-civilized and treacherous Mohammedans. In fact, it is as little known to most people as it was to myself before I visited it.”
(1883, p. 1)

What follows in this study is the specific relation of Bird's description to the chronotopic qualities of the adventure-everyday form of fiction, and with the historical time and space of the England and Malaya of 1883 – a particular chronotope in which the narrator experiences her life. In Bird's polychronotopic text, three kinds of chronotopes are identified and explained in detail; chronotope of “the path of life”, chronotope of 1883-England and chronotope of 1883-Malaya. Initially, the outstanding sense of place in Bird's *Golden Chersonese*, with reference to the chronotope of the “path of life” or “road”, is exemplified. Next, the doubly-revealing 1883-chronotopes, of Malaya and of England, the former with

more emphasis on the cultural and social qualities of time-space in the context of Malaya of that time, and the latter with a focus on the gender issue concerning the perception and status of the female traveller in the context of England of that time, are discussed.

CHRONOTOPE OF "THE PATH OF LIFE"

Bird has an excellent sense of place that is apparent in her detailed description of the places she visits; it seems that she has experienced every moment of their existence:

Many Chinese mansions contain six or seven courtyards, each with its colonnade, drawing, dining, and reception rooms, and at the back of all there is a flower garden adorned with rockeries, fish-ponds, dwarf trees, and miniature pagodas and bridges. (1883, p. 50)

She continues with a description of the ancient city of Canton. She presents a picturesque account of the outdoors, the streets:

...in which the poor dwell are formed of low, small, dark, and dirty houses, of two or three rooms each. [...]. This is a meagre outline of what may be called the anatomy of this ancient city, which dates from the fourth century B.C., when it was walled only by a stockade of bamboo and mud, but was known

by the name of "the martial city of the south," changed later into "the city of rams". (1883, p. 50)

Fascinated by this scenery, she contemplates and brings forth the notion of time and the moments that are passing:

My admiration and amazement never cease. I grudge the hours that I am obliged to spend in sleep; a week has gone like half a day, each hour heightening my impressions of the fascination and interest of Canton, and of the singular force and importance of the Chinese. Canton is intoxicating from its picturesqueness, colour, novelty and movement. Today I have been carried eighteen miles through and round it, revelling the whole time in its enchantments, and drinking for the first time of that water of which it may truly be said that who so drinks "shall thirst again"—true Orientalism. (1883, pp. 50-51)

Then, in a very revealing passage, Bird yearns for an escape from time and fancies how it might be if time could stand still:

As we sat at mid-day at the five-storied pagoda, which from a corner of the outer wall overlooks the Tartar city, and ever since, through this crowded week, I have wished that the sun would stand still in the cloudless sky, and let me dream of gorgeous sunlight, light

without heat, of narrow lanes rich in colour, of the glints of sunlight on embroideries and cloth of gold, resplendent even in the darkness, of hurrying and coloured crowds in the shadow, with the blue sky in narrow strips high above, of gorgeous marriage processions, and the "voice of the bridegroom and the voice of the bride," of glittering trains of mandarins, of funeral processions, with the wail of hired mourners clad in sackcloth and ashes, of the Tartar city with its pagodas, of the hills of graves, great cities of the dead outside the walls, fiery-red under the tropic blue, of the "potter's field" with its pools of blood and sacks of heads, and crosses for crucifixion, now, as on Calvary, symbolical of shame alone, of the wonderful river life, and all the busy, crowded, costumed hurry of the streets, where blue banners hanging here and there show that in those houses death has stilled some busy brains forevermore. (1883, p. 51)

During the course of narration, many times Bird gives information about the different paths she had taken and, in some parts, reports the road-building processes in Malacca. Yet for Bird, a road is not a linkage between countries and cities but, on a metaphorical level, a bridge between humankind and nature:

I have said nothing about the magnificence of the scenery for a part of the way, where the road goes through a grand mountain pass, where all the vegetable glories of the tropics seem assembled, and one gets a new idea of what scenery can be; while beneath superb tree-ferns and untattered bananas, and palms, and bright-flowered lianas, and graceful trailers, and vermilion-coloured orchids, and under sun-birds and humming birds and the most splendid butterflies I ever saw, a torrent, as clear as crystal, dashes over the rocks, and adds the music of tumbling water to the enchantment of a scene whose loveliness no words can give any idea of. The pass of Bukit Berapit, seen in solitude on a glorious morning, is almost worth a journey round the world. (1883, p. 304)

CHRONOTOPE OF 1883-ENGLAND

Bird's journey is classified as simply a part of the time-space belonging to the historical present of nineteenth-century England, 1883. To discuss this chronotope with reference to the gender issue, this section will deal mostly with Bird's situation as a travel writer in the male-dominated society of England at that time.

Isabella Bird was born into the British upper-middle class of the Victorian era, at a time of the professionalisation of the academic disciplines. As a female, she had no access to the academic training that

could confer on her the appropriate status of 'scientist', yet she found that fieldwork, in the sense of exploration, was as open to her as to anyone with adequate resources. As the disciplines in general were professionalised, and particularly geography came to be strictly defined, women like Bird were removed from the newly-defined label of 'geographer' (Cosslett, 1996). Domosh, in her feminist study of women travellers in the Victorian era, points out that this fieldwork was limited to only a few elite white males, and was promoted within the male club atmosphere of the Royal Geographic Society (RGS) in England and in American Geographical Society in the United States (1991, p. 97). Denied institutional support, Victorian women travelled and explored at their own expense and to their own preferred destinations. Therefore, their solitary travels were neither followed up with full-scale explorations nor sponsored by institutions – as was the case with their male counterparts. The episodic stories of Bird, as was the case with other nineteenth-century women travellers, are extremely diverse; nevertheless, they share some common threads, one of which is their rather obvious recognition of the personal goals of their travels. The so-called objective discoveries of new places were not separated from the discoveries of their own selves.

If one were to draw Bird's journeys on a map, her routes would not resemble rather direct lines to the sources of rivers or tops of mountains or cities, if comparing with most of her male counterparts. Instead, her

routes were frequently circular, appearing to have no specific destination. Her routes repeatedly took the form of what Stoddard calls planned journeys, "of which the aim is simply to proceed between known points, with no suggestion of adding to knowledge other than through traversing unfamiliar routes" (1986, p. 142). Bird's choice of direction mostly came from internal sources, since she was on a quest for a place where she could live a type of life denied her at home. Growing up in a world restricted by Victorian standards and expectations, her life had been shaped for her. Therefore, her freedom came from living in places removed from that circumscription (Dorana, 2010). Generally, those women like Bird often spoke of the empowerment they felt when they were exploring and of their utter despair on losing that power when they returned home. This was felt most acutely when they were visiting regions that were located within the colonial power structure. "Colonialism allowed women to be powerful as representatives of the white race; it created a structure for a type of power dependent on race, not on sex" (Domosh, 1991, p. 98).

The chronotope of nineteenth-century England is not Bird's "natural" safe home, even though much of her "textual" time is spent there; she needed to travel for her health because once she returned home she was often diagnosed with severe physical problems. When speaking of her decision to travel through Japan, she claimed it was recommended for her health:

Having been recommended to leave home, in April 1878, in order to recruit my health by means which had proved serviceable before, I decided to visit Japan, attracted less by the reputed excellence of its climate than by the certainty that it possessed, in an especial degree, those sources of novel and sustained interest which conduce so essentially to the enjoyment and restoration of a solitary health-seeker. (qtd. in Domosh, p. 98)

Her fulfilment was derived not in the external discovery of 'new' geographies, but in the process of exploring, in experiencing a world in which she could participate in her own definition:

The women travellers followed invisible red lines across a map into a distant unknown. But the pot of gold they were chasing was not the mountain, the source of the river, or the oasis in the desert, but the long shadows, cast by the tropical sunlight and mountain glare, of themselves. (Birkett, 1989, p. 71)

Many such women found that their inclination as sympathetic observers could act as a basis for their authority within their own culture, and therefore they were keen supporters of the uniqueness of fieldwork. Bird made a point of noting that, as a woman travelling alone, she was able to observe matters that others may have missed:

As a lady travelling alone, and the first European lady who had been seen in several districts through which my route lay, my experiences differed more or less widely from those of preceding travellers; and I am able to offer a fuller account of the aborigines of Yezo, obtained by actual acquaintance with them, than has hitherto been given. (qtd. in Domosh, p. 99)

Bird, as a representative of a colonial power in the colonised land of Malaya, as mentioned earlier, found the power and the identity she was denied in her own land, since she was judged by the Malays, not by her race, to be superior. This empowerment facilitated Bird to suggest her own sometimes personal observations, rather relying more on facts and, in most cases, to consider the native people and inhabitants of Malaya to be an inferior race, whilst overlooking her own status as female back in her own country.

CHRONOTOPE OF 1883-MALAYA

Chronotopes in literary texts are not separated from the cultural environment in which they arise; Bakhtin points out in his discussion of chronotope that "out of the actual chronotopes of our world – which serve as the source of representation – emerge the reflected and created chronotopes of the world represented in the work" (1981, p. 253). This is how we can see

many references to cultural values in the chronotope of Malaya-1833. In her introductory chapter, Bird describes the people of Malaya thus:

The Malays undoubtedly must be numbered among civilized peoples. They live in houses which are more or less tasteful and secluded. They are well clothed in garments of both native and foreign manufacture; they are a settled and agricultural people; they are skilful in some of the arts, especially in the working of gold and the damascening of krises; the upper classes are to some extent educated; they have a literature, even though it be an imported one, and they have possessed for centuries systems of government and codes of land and maritime laws which, in theory at least, show a considerable degree of enlightenment. (1883, p. 18)

Of Malays' religion, laws, customs and morals, Bird affirms that they are bound up together. They practise Islam and are "strict Mussulmen", while the uneducated Malays mix up their own traditions and superstitions with the Koran, their Holy Book. A pilgrimage to Mecca is the "universal object" of Malay ambition. Of their religious values she continues:

They practice relic worship, keep the fast of Ramadhan, wear rosaries of beads, observe

the hours of prayer with their foreheads on the earth, provide for the "religious welfare" of their villages, circumcise their children, offer buffaloes in sacrifice at the religious ceremonies connected with births and marriages, build mosques everywhere, regard Mecca as the holy city, and the Koran, as expounded by Arab teachers, as the rule of faith and practice. (1883, p. 18)

Of their social habits, Bird refers to cock-fighting which has the "dignity of a literature of its own" and is one of the popular Malay sports; meanwhile:

...the grand sport is a tiger and buffalo fight, reserved for rare occasions, however, on account of its expense. Cock-fighting is a source of gigantic gambling and desperate feuds. The birds, which fight in full feather and with sharpened steel spurs, are very courageous, and die rather than give in. (1883, p. 23)

Despite a "realistic" reflection of these experienced events in a work of art, Bakhtin points out that once a man is in art, he is not in life, and vice versa, but he recognises these different places as contained by a larger unit of which they are constituents. In this regard Holquist declares, "both art and lived experience are aspects of the same

phenomenon, the heteroglossia of worlds, values, and actions, whose interaction makes dialogue the fundamental category of dialogism" (2002, p. 111). In Bird's travel account, the reader can perceive the actual life experiences of the narrative plot and how they are interwoven with the general theme of the voyage. Chronotope in this case provides a means to explore the complex, indirect and permanently-mediated relation between art and life (Mutnick, 2009).

According to Bakhtin, literary chronotopes are highly sensitive to historical change; different forms of communication and societies result in different chronotopes, both inside and outside literary texts. In Bird's narrative particularly, we can see that specific chronotopes, such as the influence of the Arabs and their religion, Islam, do in fact shape themselves into a sort of association to the exterior condition in which they arise; one will convincingly presume that this correlation between a particular historical intra-textual world and an equally particularised extra-textual world should in each case be unique (Holquist, 2002, p. 112). Bird offers an example of such cultural and religious influences on Malays:

Their theory of medicine is derived from Arabia, and abounds in mystery and superstition. They regard man as composed of four elements and four essences, and assimilate his constitution and passions to the twelve signs of the zodiac, the seven planets, etc., exaggerating the

mysterious sympathy between man and external nature. The successful practice of the hakim or doctor must be based on the principle of "preserving the balance of power" among the four elements, which is chiefly effected by moderation in eating. (1883, pp. 20-21)

As for the influence of Islam, what Bird calls Mohammedanism, she points to the Malays' pilgrimage to the holy city of Mecca and the way Muslim women dress up:

The pilgrimage to Mecca is the great object of ambition. Many Malays, in spite of its expense and difficulties, make it twice, and even three times. We passed three women clothed in white from head to foot, their drapery veiling them closely, leaving holes for their eyes. These had just returned from Mecca. (1883, pp. 140-141)

In this kind of reading of the text we can realise that chronotopes are capable of entering into dialogue with specific extra-literary historical contexts. More specifically, it is in this sort of juxtaposition that the cautious reader can perceive the tension inherent in "historical Poetics". One can say that chronotopes can be used to examine the relation between the text and its times, and thus act as a very helpful "fundamental tool" for a broader social and historical analysis even beyond the domain of literary texts. It is at this

level that the significant contribution of chronotopes to a historical poetics can best and most clearly be seen.

CONCLUSION

Chronotopes' valuable meaning for narrative is very obvious. Chronotopes are the organising centres for the fundamental narrative events of literary fiction. As indicated, chronotope is where the knots in a narrative are tied and untied and in this way, they help towards better understanding of time and space in narratives. Consequently, the chronotope brings narrative events together and makes them concrete. Three types of chronotopic units are examined in relation to the historical and cultural paths of the two points in time and space, Malaya and England of 1883. Bird's experiences and travels between/through/across the two chronotopes of 1883-Malaya and 1883-England made her, in this sense, become a "new" individual whose travels through various chronotopes taught her not only how to reconceive time and space but how to re-gender it. In the 1883 chronotopes, Bird generally travelled for quite specific reasons, but what she was seeking was as much empowerment and self-knowledge as "objective" knowledge. Denied an institutional context in the England of the nineteenth century, she was, in a sense, free in her travels and more explicitly aware of her subjective goals. As she implies in her individual account, we should be careful not to become trapped in a time-space in which we "chance" to be living through our inward lives; we have access to a different clock and

by our higher sense of time and place we can travel to different lands, and adopt the skins, personas and sexes of different people; in this regard, all times can be inhabited, all places visited.

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Engaging ESL Students in the Writing Classroom Through the Multiliteracy Approach

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ABSTRACT

The consensus on ‘socially responsible’ practices in today’s literacy pedagogy indicates that the parameters of school literacies have been significantly extended with the rapid cultural and technological changes in literate forms of communication in recent years. Increasingly, educators around the globe experience dilemmas in engaging with the issue of what to do in literacy pedagogy due to varying cultural identities and the proliferation of multi-channelled communication technologies. Such concerns are also important in Malaysian ESL classrooms. This paper presents the findings of a case study of teaching writing by an ESL teacher using the multiliteracy approach. The respondents were 37 Form Four Science students in a Chinese school in Penang. The research instruments used included semi-structured interviews with the ESL teacher and Teacher Rating Sheets which were used to evaluate the students’ progress in continuous writing. The findings show that the students’ continuous writing performance improved as they experienced activities assisted by Information and Communications Technology (ICT) in various stages of writing. Findings also revealed that the students’ engagement in the process of writing was instrumental in developing their ideas for their essays and simultaneously promoted their motivation during the writing lessons. The implication of the results suggests that literacy educators must take into consideration various pedagogical practices which will serve effectively in the teaching and learning of writing through technology as a medium.

Keywords: English as a Second Language, Information and Communication Technology, learning element, literacy, multiliteracy approach, multimodal, writing

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INTRODUCTION

Today’s education is perceived as a gateway to avenues that enables each individual to participate in various global debates, to make

informed choices and creative contributions, that can empower not just individuals but whole classes and communities towards nation-building (Pullen & Cole, 2010). In coping with the challenges of globalisation, the realities of today's global economic changes impact on the dynamic evolution of information and communication technology (ICT hereafter) and literacy evolution in the workplace. In educational environments, literacy instruction is changing in profound ways as these new technologies provide opportunities to enhance meaningful literacy practices (Leu, 2002). Efforts towards this end are being seen in many western classrooms; however, there is a scarcity of research on innovative use of technology in ESL classrooms in Asia. This study aims to fill this gap in the literature as it examines the effects of the multiliteracy approach (MLitA hereafter) on the continuous writing performance of ESL learners in a Chinese school in Penang. It is imperative that these changes be addressed in educational settings to help improve students' ability to understand a range of social and scientific issues. In addition to more traditional literacies of paper, pencil and books, today's ESL learners who are exposed to and engaged in diverse forms of technology prefer to carry out reading, writing and communication online through Facebook, Twitter, Tumblr, Youtube, Instagram, Blogspot and others (Larson, 2008). In line with such global trends, teachers in Malaysia too need to effectively embed technology in their classroom teaching in order to meaningfully affect their students' learning experiences.

Kalantzis and Cope (2009) note that significant changes in today's globalised era demand that learning and education prepare students to equip themselves with soft skills that are relevant in future workplaces. Today's interconnected world of technology promotes a knowledge economy that focuses on the use of information and knowledge through innovation and creativity (Leu, 2002; Leino, 2006; Menkhoff & Bengtsson, 2011). Additionally, the English language currently plays a significant role as it is widely used in world economy and it is a medium through which the challenges of corporate sectors, governments and technological revolutions may be confronted. The Tenth Malaysia Plan (2011-2015) is the national agenda to prepare students to compete in the global community which focuses on the vision of the Government Transition Programme and the New Economic Model (Tenth Malaysia Plan, 2010). Human capital is perceived as holistic in nature where emphasis is placed on producing students who are well equipped with knowledge and skills that encompass science and technology, entrepreneurial capabilities, cultural values and other real-world skills.

Teaching English language literacy skills in contemporary ESL classrooms is evolving dynamically in cohesion with the multiplicity of communication channels, media, cultural and linguistic diversity (Kalantzis & Cope, 2005). Students engage with different texts according to their social and private contexts which include web-based stories, interactive stories, hyper-narratives in computer games, Internet, podcasting, online news, e-mail,

text messaging, MSN, Facebook, Twitter, Skype and weblogs. Hence, the MLitA takes into consideration these new practices which fundamentally change perspectives of students' learning processes in the classroom as they are being integrated as part of the global world through the mass media, Internet and the multiplicity of communication channels and social networking. Students expect teachers to weave technology into classroom activities as part of the learning process as they perceive this to be important.

Writing is a skill that is vital in today's globalised classrooms. Students need to develop good writing ability in order to effectively express their ideas in various academic fields. Furthermore, effective writing ability is related to a country's human capital as it is the amalgamation of education, personal experience and skills that contribute to the impact of the workforce. However, one of the most daunting and challenging skills for ESL students in Malaysia is the writing skill and in relation to this, Nor Shidrah *et al.* (2005) highlight that students' anxiety and boredom in the writing classroom is further aggravated when teachers pressure students to produce linguistically accurate essays without exposing them to current approaches to writing in a creative manner. Schools in Malaysia, as in many other countries in the Asian region, are characterised by conventional approaches to grammar drills, classroom confined settings, textbook-centred methods, the teacher as the primary source of information, the students

as passive learners, excessive pressure to pass exams and an emphasis on uniformity (Mukundan, 2011).

In addressing these new challenges, ESL students require effective instruction on writing skills in order to understand the range of literacies used in making meanings from multimodal communication elements. As a result of such concerns, many language teachers acknowledge the view that the concept of multiliteracies has become relevant and prominent in current literacy and learning environments. Accordingly, Tan and McWilliam (2009) assert that 21st century learning should involve elements of multiliteracies that relate to students' lifeworlds as such integrations would make learning more relevant and responsive to students' needs. The birth of new digital technologies is linked to current terms in the literature review, which Kalantzis and Cope (2009, p.8) conceptualise as "new worlds, new learning environments, new persons and new literacies." The learning that takes place in classrooms today has to be relevant to the reality of real-world developments in the face of globalisation of world economy and various information and communication technologies.

THE PEDAGOGY OF MULTILITERACIES

In terms of operationalising the multiliteracy theory into perspectives of pedagogy, teaching and learning is perceived as comprising four orientations which are currently practised and similar to the four factors in the multiliteracy pedagogy:

situated practice, overt instruction, critical framing and transformed practice. Responding to the changing dynamics of new times, the pedagogy of multiliteracies promotes students' higher order thinking skills through the various pedagogical choices in this framework which are termed as knowledge processes. The knowledge processes encompass the cognitive skills of experiencing, conceptualising, analysing and applying.

In the framework of the multiliteracy theory, literacy includes multimodal texts involving the elements of linguistic, visual, auditory, gestural and spatial designs (Kalantzis & Cope, 2009). In deconstructing the myth about the term 'literacy', scholars such as Kress (2003) and Gee (2004) suggest that educators consider literacy by taking a socio-cultural view that it is more than reading and writing of print-based texts to consider the multiple ways literacies are used all around us. In support of this view, Kalantzis and Cope (2004, p.39) also state that "pedagogy is the stuff of knowing and knowing is what connects the stuff of the mind with the stuff of the world. Knowing is a way of acting, a way of thinking and a way of meaning." These various channels of knowing are construed as different 'movements' or 'moments' in the learning process as reflected in Fig.1:

In the multiliteracy approach, when a sequence of knowledge movements or processes has achieved a certain level, even if only momentarily, it is termed as pedagogy as illustrated in Table 1.

TABLE 1
Mapping the multiliteracy pedagogy with knowledge processes
(Source: Kalantzis and Cope, 2005)

Knowledge Process	Multiliteracy Pedagogy
Experiencing	Situated Practice
Immersion in experience and the utilisation of available discourses, including those from the students' varied worlds	
Conceptualising	Overt Instruction
Systematic, analytic and conscious understanding: the introduction of an explicit language to describe the design of meaning	
Analysing	Critical Framing
Interpreting the social and cultural context of particular designs of meaning; standing back from meanings and viewing them critically in relation to their purposes and cultural context	
Applying	Transformed Practice
Transfer in meaning-making practice which puts the transformed meaning to work in other contexts or cultural sites	

The learning elements (LEs hereafter) which were designed for this study integrates all the four knowledge processes listed in the table above and the action research teacher conducted the lessons by adhering to the multiliteracy pedagogy. This study takes into account the objectives of the MLitA in

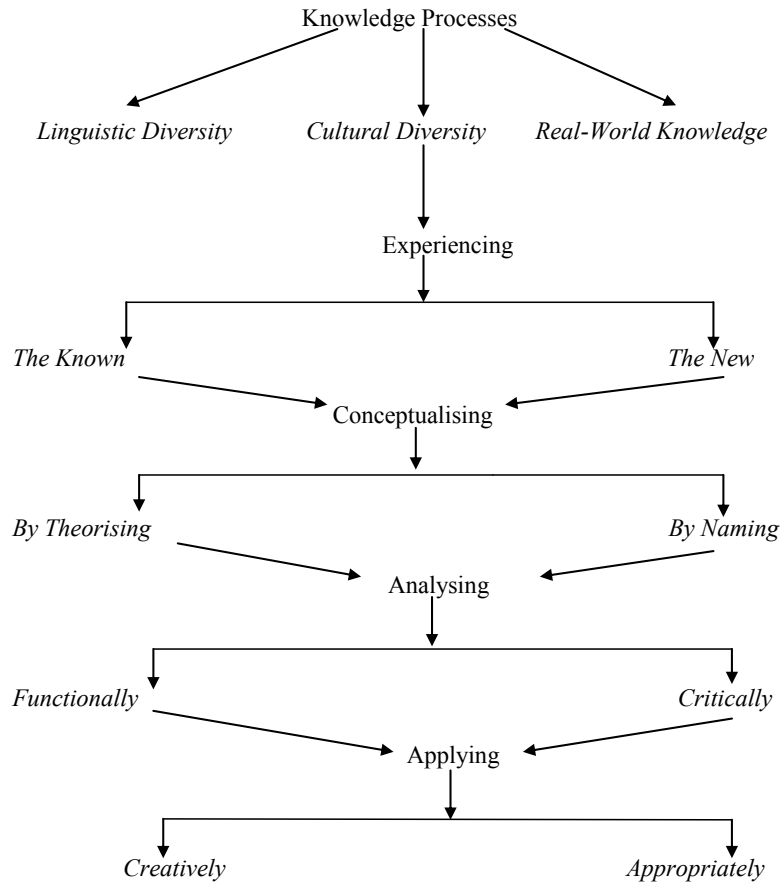


Fig.1: Knowledge Processes in the Multiliteracy Pedagogy (Source: Kalantzis & Cope, 2004, p.30)

the teaching and learning process during the implementation of the LEs which are used as lesson plans. The New London Group (1996) had coined the term multiliteracies as an initiative to bridge the issue of what to do in literacy pedagogy. This is also in relation to the different national and cultural experiences that are challenged by the changing nature of workplaces, citizens in changing public spaces and in changing dimensions of our community lives and our lifeworlds (Kalantzis and Cope, 2009).

In this study, the MLitA refers to the conceptual framework used in this study that takes into account the multiliteracy theory which forms the basis where the writing lessons incorporate the use of technological tools that supplement students' learning and teaching process.

METHODOLOGY

The study was guided by the following research questions:

RQ 1: To what extent does the multiliteracy approach affect ESL students' continuous writing performance?

RQ 2: What are the ESL teacher's perceptions of teaching continuous writing using the multi literacy approach?

Research Design

Traditionally, case studies facilitate an in-depth investigation which highlights a detailed insight of the particular nature of research studies and various characteristics of the concerned population (Kaufman & Kaufman, 2005). Following this, the study used a case study design as the researchers wanted to provide a detailed and accurate observation of how the MLitA can be used in a writing classroom. A case study research design enabled the in-depth analysis of the classroom context in which the intervention occurred and helped to sustain the description of the intervention itself. The action research carried out in operationalising this study's conceptual framework is contextualised in relation to similar situations in which the practices can be carried out. McDonough and McDonough (1997) perceive this as a naturalistic generalisation; as was the case with the present study in the context of a writing classroom. The findings of this case study promises to have wider implications for a range of stakeholders such as ESL teachers and students,

curriculum designers and officers in the Ministry of Education responsible for organising professional development courses for secondary school teachers in Malaysia.

This study adopted an action research approach (training the ESL teacher to teach writing skills by using the MLitA) where the information is highly detailed and comprehensive (Yin, 2009). It also allowed the researchers to analyse three ESL teachers' perceptions in evaluating the effects of the MLitA (using a Teacher Rating Sheet) as a teaching tool in the ESL writing classroom.

Research Sample

The research sample involved one ESL action research teacher, three classroom observers and 37 ESL students (a Form Four Science class). The Principal had sought the cooperation of the researchers not to name the school as a measure of safeguarding the privacy of the teachers and students involved in this study. Hence, the school where the study was conducted is referred to as 'School A'. The students from School A (a Chinese vernacular school) have to master three languages, which are BahasaMelayu (the first official language), English (the second official language) and Mandarin, which is the medium of instruction in the school.

The students were chosen based on purposive sampling (Mc Niff & Whitehead, 2010). The class of Form Four Science students was selected by the Head of the English Panel in mutual agreement with the

School Principal as this study was perceived as an avenue for these students to improve their writing skills in order to perform well in their *SPM* (equivalent to the British 'O'levels) exam the following year. The selected class of students was identified by the Head of the English Panel. The streaming of classes is based on students' *PMR* (lower secondary school examination) results. The above average classes consist of students who scored straight As in all the content subjects and the average classes consist of students scoring grades B and C in the various subjects. The average class chosen for this study comprised a mixed-ability group of students in terms of their *PMR* results. The ESL teacher involved in the study classified the students' writing ability according to the school's existing grading system: good students (grade A), average students (grade B) and below average students (grades C and D).

An initial interview with the Head of the English Panel at the school revealed that students in School A showed low motivation in their writing activities and were passive during their ESL lessons. The Head of the English Panel and teachers who were interviewed expressed their enthusiasm to participate in this study. The teachers in the English panel consisted of experienced teachers who had a minimum of five years' work experience in teaching ESL. The Head of the English Panel selected the action research teacher to conduct the study based on her years of teaching ESL. An additional factor for choosing the action research teacher was on the basis that her class was

selected as the sample for this study. The selection of the three ESL teachers for the classroom observations was based on the criteria shown in Table 2 below:

TABLE 2
Selection Criteria of Classroom Observers

No.	Criteria for selection	No. of subjects
1.	ESL teachers with < 30 years of experience:	
	Teacher A	1
	Teacher B	1
2.	ESL teachers with >10 years of experience:	
	Teacher C	1

The rationale for using the number of years of work experience of the teachers in teaching ESL as a basis for selection was that the Head of the English Panel was of the view that the teachers with more than 30 years of teaching experience do not use technology or other multimedia tools as a pedagogical supplement in their teaching. The Head of the English Panel expressed the hope that the participating ESL teachers would benefit from the exposure to teaching continuous writing using the MLitA. As a facilitative effort, the participating teachers' teaching schedules (time tables) were revised to accommodate this study in order to allow them to conduct the classroom observations.

Research Instruments

The first method used in this study was a semi-structured interview. An interview schedule was constructed in order to enable the formulation of appropriate questions that facilitate the collection of the required

data to answer the research questions. The construction of interview questions for the ESL teacher was given due consideration in regards to the research questions, objectives and conceptual framework of this study. This procedure involved segregating themes and issues in relation to the area of study which is closely aligned to the teaching and learning of writing using the MLitA. The responses provided by the action research teacher were analysed deductively. The analysis looked into various aspects that encompassed the manner in which the action research teacher perceived the effectiveness of the MLitA to teach writing and if there were challenges, similarities or differences to the routine lessons.

The second research method used was a teacher rating sheet (TRS hereafter) which was adapted from The Designs Guide (Kalantzis & Cope, 2004) and used by the observers to gauge the effectiveness of the MLitA in the writing lessons. The classroom observations focused on the evaluation of

knowledge processes in the LE which is the main focus of the TRS. The assessment schema of the TRS is significant in this study as the categories in the scale (using the MLitA) constitute an integral component of the conceptual framework of this study. The elements of the TRS are shown in Table 3.

The assessment criteria were divided into five sections:

1. Demonstrations of experiential knowledge (students' ability to use their previous and new knowledge to interpret the essay topic)
2. Demonstrations of conceptual knowledge (students' ability to understand the requirements of the topic after researching)
3. Demonstrations of analytical knowledge (students' ability to select appropriate ideas in relation to the topic after researching)
4. Demonstrations of applied knowledge (students' ability to construct thesis

TABLE 3
Assessment criteria in the teacher rating sheet (TRS)

ASSESSMENT CRITERION	EVIDENCE
The student demonstrates that she can:	
Demonstrate Experiential Knowledge	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Experiencing: The Known • Experiencing: The New
Demonstrate Conceptual Knowledge	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conceptualising: By Naming • Conceptualising: By Theorising
Demonstrate Analytical Knowledge	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Analysing: Functionally • Analysing: Critically
Demonstrate Applied Knowledge	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Applying: Appropriately • Applying: Creatively
Multimodal representations Multiliteracies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Linguistic • Visual • Audio • Gestural and Spatial

- statements, topic sentences and supporting details and fulfil the requirements of the writing genre) and
5. Multiliteracies (students' ability to integrate multimodal meanings in their various presentations; graphics, gestures, spatial, linguistic, visual and audio)

Hence, the evidence that the teacher observers looked for was based on the various knowledge processes advocated in the multiliteracy theory (knowledge processes of experiencing, conceptualising, analysing and applying). The rating for each assessment criterion and evidence ranged from 1-20 marks and the total amounted to 100 marks (Appendix 1).

Procedure

This action research study advocated the implementation of the multiliteracy theory where learning elements (LEs) were used as lesson plans in the writing classroom. The first step in implementing the multiliteracy approach required the attendance of the action research teacher and the three classroom observers at five intensive workshops on using the MLitA (each workshop lasted for two hours). These workshops were conducted by the researchers and the aim was to explicate the multiliteracy framework underlying the study's conceptual framework. During the workshop sessions, the action research teacher was guided on using the MLitA in the writing classroom and she was assisted in categorising the activities in relation to

the knowledge processes in the LEs. The LEs prepared by the action research teacher had significantly shown an overview of some of the major learning experiences that encompassed the use of various ICT skills which Kalantzis and Cope (2005, p.242) term as "Multiliteracies for Learning and Productive Pedagogies".

Secondly, the action research teacher was required to implement the MLitA when teaching writing to her students. In this regard, the teacher used the multiliteracy approach to teach various essay skills to the Form Four students which were vital in terms of fulfilling the writing requirements in the SPM writing component. These pedagogical aspects encompass the basic structure of writing an essay which includes the following activities: planning pre-writing activities, preparing the essay framework, writing thesis statements, writing topic sentences and maintaining unity and coherence in essay writing. Students were later guided through the paragraph writing processes of planning, writing thesis statements, generating ideas, writing topic sentences, maintaining unity and coherence within a paragraph, using discourse markers and revising essay drafts.

The next stage involved the use of the multiliteracy approach in the writing classroom by using the prepared LEs which were planned in accordance to the conceptual framework of the MLitA. The duration of the study was seven months. Each LE took approximately one month to complete. Appendix 3 shows the topics of the LEs, which include Science and

Technology (LE 1), People (LE 2 and 3), Values (LE 4), Social Issues (LE 5) and Environment (LE6). The activities carried out in the writing classroom were planned in accordance with each multi literacy knowledge process and were collaboratively carried out by the students in groups. Students presented their essay frameworks by using a variety of channels such as PowerPoint presentations, graphics, role plays, mind maps, video clips and debates. Students wrote their essays at the end of each LE – each genre and title was based on the topic related to the specific LE.

Next, at the pre-writing stage for each LE, after students were exposed to the features of each essay genre, a continuous writing essay question was given to the students on an individual basis during a double-period ESL writing lesson (duration of one hour). The objective of this method was to gauge individual students' writing performance in terms of their composite scores after the implementation of the six LEs at the end of the research.

Then at the final stage of the implementation of each LE, classroom observations were carried out in order to gain in-depth information on the use of the multiliteracy approach. The three classroom observers used Teacher Rating Sheets (TRS) to investigate the effects of the MLitA on students' continuous writing. The rating sheets were used as the observation schema to evaluate students' use of the multiliteracy knowledge processes. The observers used the TRS to observe students' participation in the writing classroom and to

evaluate the range of multiliteracy activities that were carried out in the six LEs. An observation for each LE was carried out and the total number of classroom observations generated 162 sets of TRS (3 teachers x 9 groups=27 x 6 activities=162). Finally, after the implementation of the six LEs, an interview session was conducted by the researchers with the ESL action research teacher in order to glean insights into the extent to which the MLitA affected students' continuous writing performance.

RESULTS

Results from classroom observations

Table 4 shows the students' assessment scores for the domain on 'Conceptual Knowledge'. The observers rated 58.0% of the group activities as 'excellent' (collaborative competence) as they felt that the groups were able to use their previous knowledge to engage with the essay topics and simultaneously engage with the main ideas interactively based on what was researched. Students in the groups also showcased their ability to use previous and new knowledge to discuss thesis statements, topic sentences and supporting details in relation to the various essay topics. Another 29.6% of activities assessed demonstrated autonomous competence in students' ability to figure out for themselves the relevance between their personal experiences and using those experiences to relate to the essay topic while simultaneously connecting new ideas relevantly to the thesis statements, topic sentences and supporting details.

TABLE 4
Conceptual Knowledge

Assessment scale	Frequency	Percentage
Excellent (16-20)	92	56.8
Good (12-15)	51	31.5
Average (6-11)	19	11.7
Total	162	100.0

Almost half (48.8%) of the activities (see Table 5) were assessed as level 3 where students were able to work with their group members to demonstrate collaborative competence. Students were able to effectively select appropriate ideas and make causal connections, corroborate ideas from multiple sources and analyse ideas. A percentage of 41.4% of the groups were able to analyse causal connections (level 2; autonomous competence) to construct plausible interpretations of various ideas related to the essay topics. Around 16 groups needed scaffolding (level 1; assisted competence) in understanding the causal connections pertaining to the essay topic, and their understanding was checked through the relevance of ideas selected and presented during the various activities.

TABLE 5
Analytical Knowledge

Assessment scale	Frequency	Percentage
Excellent (16-20)	79	48.8
Good (12-15)	67	41.4
Average (6-11)	16	9.9
Total	162	100.0

Table 6 shows that 54.3% of group work reflects students' ability in mastering the requirements of each essay genre and

their creativity in outlining the framework of their essays through the construction of thesis statements, topic sentences and supporting details. However, 37.7% of the students were able to independently present their work without explicit scaffolding, and they managed to display their ability in demonstrating their understanding of fulfilling the requirements of the various genres through the construction of thesis statements, topic sentences and supporting details satisfactorily. Another 8.0% of observed group work needed scaffolding in enhancing their understanding of particular writing genres and construction of thesis statements, topic sentences and supporting details.

TABLE 6
Analytical Knowledge

Assessment scale	Frequency	Percentage
Excellent (16-20)	88	54.3
Good (12-15)	61	37.7
Average (6-11)	13	8.0
Total	162	100

Table 7 shows the multiliteracy scores obtained by students on the six activities presented in the LEs. It is interesting to note that 62.4% of activities were given an 'excellent' rating by the observers in communicating meaning using multiple modes of meaning which encompass the linguistic, visual, audio, spatial and gestural aspects during the various presentation sessions. The observers rated 26.1% of the students' work as good in this aspect and another 11.5% of group work was deemed as being average.

TABLE 7
Multiliteracies Knowledge

Assessment scale	Frequency	Percentage
Excellent (16-20)	101	62.4
Good (12-15)	42	26.1
Average (6-11)	19	11.5
Total	162	100.0

Results from the interview

Results from the semi-structured interview revealed that the action research teacher found various skills were acquired by the students during the writing lessons using the MLitA. According to her:

Students' creativity in their writing was evident through their thesis statement, topic sentences and supporting details. Their coherence and unity in each paragraph was achieved. I saw this in their drafting stage when I checked their essays. There were no major problems except for the prioritizing of topic sentences in paragraphs according to their significance of sequence.

Creativity of students was gained through the various collaborative activities at the pre-writing, while-writing and post-writing stages. Results revealed that the average and weaker students gained confidence and improved their style of writing. The writing lessons using the MLitA integrated the process-based approach while simultaneously incorporating activities that were mapped against the knowledge processes. According to the teacher:

My writing lessons were different as the knowledge processes in the Learning Element made a great difference in helping me plan the relevant activities systematically in the pre-writing stage, while writing and post writing. Learning outcomes were well achieved.

The teacher also emphasised that her students' mastery of each writing genre was clearly explicated at the pre-writing stage of the LE, and this enabled her students to understand the features of it as it was necessary for their writing skills. The normal lessons neglect this aspect to a certain extent as more emphasis is given to the copying of sample essays or producing essays according to the product approach.

It was also reported that the normal writing lessons facilitated students' existing knowledge but the MLitA lessons encouraged students to research ideas that were relevant to the essay topics. According to the teacher:

Students were able to be responsible in choosing points for their essays creatively and this I feel helps students to be autonomous learners. In the sense that they are able to research and decide for themselves the relevant topic that suited their thesis statements. Normally, students are just asked to think of points and straight away start writing their essays but the MLitA lessons have made a huge difference

in this way.

The teacher further elaborated that:

Students gained confidence in their writing when they mastered the art of constructing thesis statements, topic sentences and supporting details. The organisation aspect was more concrete in this way. There was more coherence and unity in the students' writing.

When the teacher was probed on whether the use of technology and multimedia advocated in the MLitA had made a difference in the teaching of writing, she said:

as I had never believed in using ICT in my teaching, the MLitA has changed my belief overnight, I would say. ICT had made an impact in many ways, especially in students' motivation of learning writing. Also, students improved their writing performance through ICT.

According to the teacher, the activities at the pre-writing, while-writing and postwriting stages also showed positive learning outcomes:

The various presentations at the pre-writing stage had created lots of enthusiasm and motivation among students as they favoured working with ICT. Students' work had made

me very impressed at their creativity of researching ideas which enabled me to achieve my writing outcomes.

Students who did not look forward to writing classes appeared to be generally motivated during the writing activities advocated in the MLitA as pointed out by the teacher in particular reference to the peer-writing conferences that were carried out through email, Skype, MSN, facebook, blogs and school websites. According to a student:

When I enter my class for writing lessons, I get demotivated myself when I notice that students are inattentive and hardly respond to the writing lessons. When I introduced the idea of peer conferencing to give feedback on each other's group work, I was expecting a negative response but to my delight students were excited at the thought of using ICT for this process of peer conferencing. Their interest and motivation enabled them to do a good job.

The teacher pointed out that students' engagement level was very high during the writing activities using the MLitA and that this was reflected by students' motivation when participating in numerous group activities. The students' responses to the writing lessons using the MLitA were positive and the teacher highlighted that these students were motivated to be

confronted with diverse activities and that this was reflected by the positive outcomes of their writing skills. These results concur with the scores given by the classroom observers using the TRS which showcases students' ability to build a concrete writing framework which was established and which served as a guideline when they started writing their drafts at the while-writing stage.

DISCUSSION

The TRS was integrated as a research instrument in this study to gauge the learning outcomes of the LEs used (from LE 1 to LE 6). Based on the TRS, students' excellent presentations of thesis statements, topic sentences and supporting details highlight that effective pedagogy takes into account the students' background knowledge, which is pertinent in planning and advocating efficient pedagogical practices (Kalantzis & Cope, 2005).

The use of the TRS highlights the positive effect of the MLitA on students' presentations of thesis statements, topic sentences and supporting details during the various activities at the pre-writing stage in the ESL classroom. The TRS scores shown in Table 3 (Experiential knowledge), Table 4 (Conceptual knowledge), Table 5 (Analytical knowledge), Table 6 (Applied knowledge) and Table 7 (multiliteracy knowledge) show students' ability to build a concrete writing framework which was established and which served as a guideline when they started writing their drafts at the while-writing stage. This concurs

with the Vygotskian (1978) concept of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) that emphasises on learning that takes place within a learner's comfort zone, the conceptual region just beyond the individual's capability to perform (or think) without external support of some kind.

The perceptions of the teacher and classroom observers revealed some pertinent pointers based on the conceptual framework of this study which highlights Vygotsky's theory underlying the MLitA. The collaborative activities carried out during the writing lessons using the MLitA achieved the impact of promoting a positive learning environment where the average and weak students benefited in terms of cultivating positive self-esteem which simultaneously enhanced their writing performance. The various activities paved the way for students to research ideas using ICT as a medium and to later present their work.

Kellough and Kellough (2006) make the point that teachers should use effective teaching approaches that can help establish a positive classroom environment, facilitate a classroom environment that encourages students to learn actively by taking into consideration students' learning preferences and administer techniques that are grounded on cooperative and social interactive learning.

CONCLUSION

The findings of this study highlight the positive effects of the MLitA in relation to the collaborative activities which integrated

ICT. This study revealed that when the teacher's pedagogical approach is appealing and addresses students' interests, then students are motivated to learn, and their engagement with the lessons can give rise to positive learning outcomes. The collaborative activities carried out in the writing classroom (using the integration of ICT as a pedagogical supplement) can serve as a basis for teachers in terms of incorporating it in the current exam-orientated writing system in order to promote students' engagement and creativity and help positively impact their learning outcomes. The findings of this study confirm that when students are motivated and interested in their lessons, the learning outcomes are productive. The significance of the MLitA can be regarded in relation to implementing this framework as an approach to teaching writing among secondary ESL students in a Chinese school. However, further research is needed to establish if this approach is viable in the teaching of writing among other ethnic student populations in secondary schools in terms of overcoming other challenges encountered in the teaching and learning of writing in ESL classrooms.

However, there are several limitations that curtail the extent to which the findings of this study can be generalised. This study is based on only one Form Four ESL class in a Chinese school and limited to one action research teacher who conducted the writing lessons using the MLitA and three ESL teachers who observed the writing lessons. Therefore, the relatively small sample size employed by this case study

may not reflect the statistical support for any conclusive findings. This is especially in terms of directly generalising to the entire ESL student population of schools in the country. Although further research may reveal additional implications for teaching and learning writing in ESL classrooms, the ESL teacher and observers in this study reported many positive learning outcomes for ESL learners which they feel can help the learners prepare for other writing tasks. Indeed, the findings indicate that the weaving of technology into the activities of a writing classroom can help effectively integrate new literacies into the current educational system in Malaysia towards preparing the learners for the literacy futures they deserve.

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APPENDIX 1

TEACHER RATING SHEET (TRS)

DATE:

NAME OF GROUP:

TITLE OF ACVITY:

Activity being reviewed:

PowerPoint Presentation

Graphics Presentation

Mind Map Presentation

Role Play Presentation

Video Clip Presentation

Debates Presentation

ASSESSMENT CRITERION The student demonstrates that she can:	EVIDENCE	RATING
Demonstrate Experiential Knowledge	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Experiencing: The Known Experiencing: The New 	0-20
Demonstrate Conceptual Knowledge	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Conceptualising: By Naming Conceptualising: By Theorising 	0-20
Demonstrate Analytical Knowledge	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Analysing: Functionally Analysing: Critically 	0-20
Demonstrate Applied Knowledge	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Applying: Appropriately Applying: Creatively 	0-20
Multimodal representations Multiliteracies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Linguistic Visual Audio Gestural and Spatial 	0-20
TOTAL		

Adapted from Kalantzis and Cope (2004, p.54)

Assessment Criterion Scale for each Knowledge Dimension	Rating	Assessment Criterion for Overall Scale	Rating
Excellent	(16-20)	Excellent	(80-100)
Good	(12-15)	Good	(60-79)
Average	(6 -11)	Average	(40-59)
Poor	(>5)	Poor	(>39)

APPENDIX 2

SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW QUESTIONS (ESL TEACHER)

1. What do you think is the most important aspect of writing?
2. What are your students' strengths and weaknesses in writing?
3. What approach have you been using to teach writing? Has it been effective and interesting?
4. What aspects of the Learning Element was an advantage or disadvantage to your students?
5. What are the differences and similarities between the Learning Element and the Lesson Plan?
6. Does the Learning Element make a difference in your teaching of writing?
7. Do you find the knowledge processes as helpful in planning the lessons in the LE?
8. How do the knowledge processes facilitate the planning of writing activities?
9. Do you consider the Learning Element an important pedagogical tool in the teaching of writing?
10. Does the Learning Element enable you to achieve your learning objectives?
11. What are the factors that need to be taken into consideration when using the MLitA in the writing classroom?
12. Do you think the Multiliteracy Approach can be an effective measure in overcoming students' weaknesses in writing? Please elaborate.
13. Which aspect of the Multiliteracy Approach to teaching writing was the most beneficial?
14. Did the integration of technology make a difference in the teaching of writing?
15. Were there any differences in your students' responses in using the MLitA?
16. Did you find any improvement in your students' writing abilities? Please elaborate.
17. Were the collaborative group activities beneficial to students? Please elaborate.
18. Were the pre-writing activities helpful as an initial preparation method before students start writing their essays?
19. In what way did the writing of drafts help your students?
20. What specific improvements (if any) did you see in your students' development of the various knowledge processes (experiential, conceptual, analysing, applying)?
21. How did the Learning Element help you in the teaching of writing? Please elaborate.

22. Do you think the Multiliteracy Approach is practical in the teaching of writing?
23. Do you find the Multiliteracy Approach relevant and practical for present times?
24. Do you have suggestions that could serve as guidelines for teachers wanting to adopt the MLitAas a form of literacy practice in the ESL writing classroom?

APPENDIX 3**A SUMMARY OF THE LEs USED IN THE MLitA TO WRITING LESSONS**

Learning Element	Topic	Writing Genre	Learning Objectives	MLiTA activities
1	Science and Technology	Reflective Essay (Title: Modern inventions and their Impact on Human Beings)	Write a reflective essay cohesively and coherently on modern inventions and their impact on human beings based on relevant thesis statements, topic sentences and supporting details.	a) PowerPoint presentation of essay framework on thesis statement, topic sentences and supporting details. b) Peer conferencing: feedback through email. c) Essays published on class websites.
2	People	Free Style Essay (Title: Teenage Fashions)	Write a free style essay cohesively and coherently on teenage fashions based on relevant thesis statements, topic sentences and supporting details.	a) Mind Map presentation of essay framework on thesis statement, topic sentences and supporting details. b) Peer conferencing: Feedback through Skype and MSN. c) Essays are published on individual students' Facebook.
3	People	Descriptive Essay (Title: Describe a person who has made a deep impression on you)	Write a descriptive essay cohesively and coherently on a person who has made a deep impression based on relevant thesis statements, topic sentences and supporting details.	a) Graphic presentation of essay framework on thesis statement, topic sentences and supporting details. b) Peer conferencing: Feedback through Facebook. c) Essays published in school magazine.

4	Values	Narrative Essay (Title: Write a story ending with: ... honesty pays)	Write a narrative essay creatively, cohesively and coherently on a story ending with: ... honesty pays	<p>a) Role play on the plot of the narrative.</p> <p>b) Peer conferencing through Skype or MSN.</p> <p>c) Essays are published in the school bulletin board.</p>
5	Social Issues	Argumentative Essay (Title: Teenagers today are only interested in entertainment. Do you agree? Support your opinion)	Write an argumentative essay cohesively and coherently on your opinion if teenagers today are only interested in entertainment.	<p>a) Debates</p> <p>b) Peer conferencing: Feedback through e-mail</p> <p>c) Essays are published on personal blogs.</p>
6	Environment	Factual Essay (Title: Global warming is becoming an issue in today's era. Discuss)	Write cohesively and coherently on global warming based on relevant thesis statements, topic sentences and supporting details.	<p>a) Video clips on global warming.</p> <p>b) Peer conferencing using Skype or MSN.</p> <p>c) Peer conferencing using Skype or MSN.</p>

Comparing Physical Activity of Malaysian Malay Men and Women Before, During, and After Ramadan

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ABSTRACT

The aims of this research were to investigate whether there is any difference in the physical activity levels between Malay Muslim men (Muslim) and Malay Muslim women (Muslimah) at Universiti Putra Malaysia (UPM) before, during, and after the month of Ramadan, and also to determine the factors restricting their involvement in physical activities. Fifty-three UPM Malay Muslim male staff and fifty-four UPM Malay Muslim female staff participated in the research. The Yamex-Digi walker CW700 pedometer was used to measure the physical activity level of the staff for four consecutive days. Results showed that there was no significant difference in the physical activity levels of the Malay Muslim and Muslimah in UPM before, during, and after the month of Ramadan. The reported *t*-test results comparing the two genders before, during, and after the month of Ramadan were $f=0.003$, $p<0.96$, $f=1.047$, $p<0.31$, and $f=3.106$, $p<0.08$, respectively. It was reported that the lack of self motivation/laziness played the most important role in restricting the involvements of both genders in the physical activities.

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INTRODUCTION

Maintaining an active level of physical activity every day is needed to remain

healthy throughout life. Every individual has to adopt an active lifestyle throughout the year to ensure that the risk of chronic diseases can be reduced. The way to achieve this goal depends very much on the daily activities of the individual. Many studies have been conducted to determine the activity levels among adults (see Bravata *et al.*, 2007; Pratt *et al.*, 1999; Ramadan & Barac-Nieto, 2003). However, compared to other studies that focuses on the effects of fasting on the physical activity among the Malay Muslim (Malay Muslim men) and Muslimah (Malay Muslim women), this study focused more on the normal daily living conditions during fasting and the variation in the physical activity levels between the two genders. Many findings support the claim of this study that during Ramadan, the level of physical activity among the Muslim and Muslimah will be reduced (see Al-Hourani & Atoum, 2007; Ramadan, 2002; Roky *et al.*, 2004). However, the level of reduction in the physical activity remains unknown. Knowledge of the levels as well as the differences in the levels between genders is helpful in identifying what needs to be done to raise the activity levels among individuals of different genders. Hence, this study sought to provide valuable information regarding the physical activity levels among genders in the period before, during and after the month of Ramadan. The findings will help to increase the awareness concerning the level of physical activities, especially among the Muslim and Muslimah during Ramadan. In addition, the study also offers better insights into the factors

restricting the Muslim and Muslimah's involvement in physical activities during this period.

Some studies have reported that males are more physically active as compared to females (Carl *et al.*, 2000; Pratt *et al.*, 1999). The findings of these studies showed that the more physically active status reported among males is true, especially among other races in Malaysia, who maintain a consistent active routine of living throughout the year. However, for Muslims and Muslimahs, their daily routines are very much affected, especially during the month of Ramadan, due to the requirement to fulfil religious requirements (Al-Hourani & Atoum, 2007; Ramadan, 2002). Their physical activities during this month are very often postponed to other months or maintained at minimal levels because Muslims and Muslimahs (past puberty) are required to fast from dawn to sunset. This usually results in Muslims and Muslimahs reducing their physical activity levels during that particular month.

According to Tudor-Locke and Bassett (2004), a minimum of 10,000 steps per day is required to achieve an active lifestyle status. The active lifestyle status is recommended because it links positively with individual's health benefits (see The Star, 2009; Tully *et al.*, 2005), and it is accepted that during the month of Ramadan, the physical activities among the Malay Muslim and Muslimah in Malaysia are reduced but how much of the reduction in these physical activities between the genders remains unclear. In other words, the level of reduction in the physical activities between the genders

is still not known. Therefore, the aim of this study was to investigate whether there is any difference in the physical activity level between Malay Muslim and Muslimah before, during, and after the month of Ramadan. The secondary aim of the study was to analyse the different factors restricting their involvement in physical activities during this period.

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

Subjects

The subjects in this research consisted of 53 Malay Muslim men (Muslim) and 54 Malay Muslim women (Muslimah), respectively. They are UPM staff who had volunteered for the study, representing 15 faculties and 8 institutes or centres. The subjects aged between 22 to 55 years. An inclusion criterion was that the subject must be working with UPM for at least one year and was selected using convenience sampling. All the subjects had given their written consent to participate in the study prior to testing. They were also taught how to wear the pedometer and to correctly record their daily activities in the Daily Activity Form. This Daily Activity Form contained hourly check box as a reminder for the subjects to wear the pedometer. Information pertaining

to their involvement in physical activities, and the factors influencing their involvement in these activities were obtained through structured interview and questionnaire. Details regarding their physical attributes such as weight, height, and body mass index are shown in Table 1.

Instrumentation

The Yamex-Digi Walker CW700 pedometer was used to measure the level of physical activity among the subjects. Following the same procedure carried out by various researchers in the usage of pedometers (Tudor-Locke *et al.*, 2005; Bassett *et al.*, 2000; Bassett *et al.*, 1996), the pedometer was worn daily by the subjects (except during sleeping and showering time) over five consecutive days. Their daily activities were monitored using the Daily Activity Form which the subjects filled in on an hourly basis. If a low count of ≤ 2500 steps/day was recorded, the Daily Activity Form was referred to confirm the count. They were later asked to explain and verify the accuracy of the pedometer reading. If it turned out that subjects had forgotten to wear the pedometer, the recording would then be extended to another day. A questionnaire was also utilized to ascertain the factors

TABLE 1
Physical characteristics of UPM Malay Muslim and Muslimah

Variables	Male (n=53)		Female (n= 54)	
	Mean	Mean	SD	SD
Height (cm)	167.11	7.48	156.35	5.86
Body Mass (kg)	70.82	14.09	57.49	11.96
Body Mass Index (kg m ⁻²)	25.30	4.57	23.73	5.22

restricting their physical activities. The factors identified included own-self, lack of family support, lack of friends/companions, lack of support from neighbours, lack of support from society, lack of facilities, etc.

Procedures

The data collection process was divided into three phases: before Ramadan, during Ramadan, and after Ramadan. The data before Ramadan were collected a month prior to that particular month. Meanwhile, the data during the Ramadan phase were collected during the second and third week of Ramadan, and for after Ramadan, the data was gathered in the third and fourth week after Ramadan. All the phases required a period or duration of two weeks to complete the data collection process.

Statistical Analysis

Descriptive statistics was used to compare the step counts before, during, and after Ramadan. Meanwhile, T-Test was used to investigate whether there was any significant difference in the levels of physical activities between the Malay Muslim and Muslimah UPM staff before, during, and after Ramadan. The statistical significance was set at alpha .05.

RESULTS

The results of the descriptive step counts for both the Malay Muslim and Muslimah before, during and after Ramadan are shown in Table 2. On average, the Malay Muslims recorded higher daily step counts as compared to Muslimahs. This showed that Malay Muslims are physically more active compared to the Muslimahs. On average, the men walked around 8008.20 ± 2322.89 steps per day compared to the women who recorded an average daily step count of 6288.22 ± 1826.73 per day. Based on the step counts reported before, during and after Ramadan, the Malay Muslims were found to be more active physically (before, during, and after Ramadan) as compared to the Muslimahs. However, the physical activity patterns observed between the Malay Muslim and Muslimah were found to be similar, with the highest average step counts reported before Ramadan, followed by after Ramadan, and the lowest step counts reported during the month of Ramadan (Table 2).

When comparing the results based on gender, no significant differences were reported in the level of physical activities undertaken by the Malay Muslim as compared to the Muslimah before, during,

TABLE 2
Step counts among UPM Malay Muslim and Muslimah

Step Counts	Male (n= 53)		Female (n= 54)		Overall (n=107)	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Before Ramadan	8375.38	2478.36	6716.45	2548.16	7307.21	2726.93
During Ramadan	7529.89	2483.11	5828.86	1910.84	6423.82	2376.82
After Ramadan	8119.12	4033.16	6319.08	2417.56	7612.12	2904.08
TOTAL	8008.20	2322.89	6288.22	1826.73		

and after Ramadan. The reported t-test results for before, during, and after Ramadan were $f=0.003$, $p<0.96$, $f=1.047$, $p<0.31$, and $f=3.106$, $p<0.08$, respectively. These results showed that there was no significant reduction in the level of physical activity between Malay Muslims before, during, and after Ramadan as compared to Muslimahs for the same periods. The highest differences in terms of the mean step counts between the Malay Muslims and Muslimahs were reported after Ramadan (1800.04 steps), followed by during Ramadan (1701.03 steps), and before Ramadan (1658.93 steps). On average, the physical activities among the Malay Muslimahs were found to more likely to be affected by the fasting month as compared to the Muslims. This could be seen by the larger reduction in the number of the average step counts for the periods before Ramadan and during Ramadan between the Muslimahs (887.59 steps) as compared to the Muslim men (845.49 steps). After Ramadan, however, the Muslim men were found to pick-up faster in terms of their physical activities with the average step counts increased of 589.23 steps as compared to the Muslimahs who reported

a lower step count increase of 440.22 steps (Table 3).

As for the factors restricting the Malay Muslim and Muslimah's involvement in physical activities, most of the subjects admitted that the main factor restricting them was own self (lack of self motivation and laziness). Muslim men attributed 94.3% of their non-participation in physical activities to this particular factor, while Muslimahs attributed a lesser value of 79.6% (Table 4). As for Muslim men, certain factors such as family, neighbours, society, and facility had the least influences on their involvement in physical activities. Meanwhile for the Muslimahs, the lack of support from the society and also the lack of facilities were reported to have the least impacts on their involvement in physical activities.

DISCUSSION

The physical activity patterns for both the Muslim men and Muslimahs at UPM were found to be similar. The level of the physical activities was reported to be highest before the month of Ramadan, followed by after Ramadan, and during Ramadan. However,

TABLE 3
Step count differences between Malay Muslim and Muslimah

Step Counts	Mean		Mean Different (Male & Female)
	Male	Female	
Before Ramadan (A)	8375.38	6716.45	1658.93
• Mean Different (A & B)	845.49	589.23	
During Ramadan (B)	7529.89	5828.86	1701.03
• Mean Different (B & C)	887.59	440.22	
After Ramadan (C)	8119.12	6319.08	1800.04
TOTAL	8008.20	6288.22	1719.98

based on gender, there were no significant differences in terms of physical activity levels reported before, during, and after Ramadan. The findings of this study also indicated that the month of Ramadan had a significant effect on reducing the levels of physical activity especially among the Malay Muslim men. This finding is in line with those of Soh *et al.* (2010a) and Soh *et al.* (2010b) in terms of the effects of Ramadan in reducing the physical activity levels significantly among Malay Muslims, especially before and during the month of Ramadan. However, the value reported was not significant for other results, such as before Ramadan versus after Ramadan, and during Ramadan versus after Ramadan. The males were usually reported to be more physically active as compared to the females, and these have also been reported in the studies by Carlos *et al.* (2011), Carl *et al.* (2000), and Pratt *et al.* (1999). These studies also indicated that there were general physical activity patterns shown during the life cycle of a person. This pattern could be different among the Muslim and Muslimah because their daily routines are very much

affected, especially during the month of Ramadan, as a result of spiritual fulfilment (Al-Hourani & Atoum, 2007; Ramadan, 2002).

In the case of the Muslim men and Muslimah, they need to continue to find ways of maintaining or modifying their levels of physical activities around the demands of fasting and other spiritual activities during Ramadan. Hence, maintaining regular physical activity throughout life is necessary and challenging because we face different physical and mental demands every day. These demands required us to act accordingly to maintain the level of physical activity which is related closely in enhancing quality of life.

Based on the findings of this study, the behavioural changes associated with reduction of working hours (shorter working hours during Ramadan) plus more time spent on fulfilling the spiritual requirements had contributed to reduction in overall levels of physical activities among the Muslim men and Muslimahs. This is in line with Roky *et al.* (2004) who reported that behavioural changes associated with reduction of

TABLE 4
Factors influencing UPM Malay Muslim and Muslimahs' involvements in physical activities

Factors	Male (n=53)		Female (n=54)	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Own-self (lack of self motivation and laziness)	50	94.3	43	79.6
Family (lack of family support)	0	0	6	11.1
Friends (lack of friends support)	3	5.7	4	7.4
Neighbours (lack of neighbours' support)	0	0	1	1.9
Society (lack of society support)	0	0	0	0.0
Facilities (lack of facilities)	0	0	0	0.0
OVERALL	53	100	54	100

working hours (more sedentary) were reported during the month of Ramadan. According to Abby *et al.* (1995) and Ramadan and Barac-Nieto (2003), the frequency of participation in physical activity may be particularly important for achieving beneficial changes. In the study by Abby *et al.* (1995), a minimum time frame of two years was needed to achieve HDL cholesterol change after initiating a regular moderate-intensity exercise regimen. In conclusion, regular physical activities must be maintained throughout the year for the whole life to achieve maximum health benefits (Iwane *et al.*, 2000). Hence, in the case of the month of Ramadan, Muslim men and Muslimahs should strive to maintain regular physical activity or achieve at least the minimum required levels of physical activity throughout Ramadan. However, in this study, it was found that their level of physical activities was not significantly disruptive.

According to the physical activity standards using steps count suggested by Tudor-Locke and Bassett (2004), the Malay Muslim men at UPM had average step counts of 8375.38 ± 2478.36 (before Ramadan), 7529.89 ± 2483.11 (during Ramadan), and 8119.12 ± 4033.16 (after Ramadan) per day, which could be considered as 'somewhat active' persons or individuals. Meanwhile, the Malay Muslimah at UPM had average step counts of 6716.45 ± 2548.16 (before Ramadan), 5828.86 ± 1910.84 (during Ramadan), and 6319.08 ± 2417.56 (after Ramadan) per day,

which could be considered as 'low active' persons or individuals. Although both the Malay Muslim men and Muslimahs had reported different levels of physical activities, the differences in the activities reported between the genders before, during, and after the month of Ramadan were not significant based on Tudor-Locke and Bassett (2004).

The main factor restricting the involvements of Malay Muslims and Muslimahs at UPM in the physical activities was their own-selves. This factor, in particular influenced Malay Muslim men more (94.3%) as compared to Muslimahs (79.6%). In addition, Malay Muslimahs also indicated other factors as having influenced their involvement in the physical activities as compared to the Muslim men. The factors were family, friends, and the availability of facilities. The Malay Muslim men stated only friends as having an influence on their involvement in physical activities.

It is important to address the limitations of this study. This study was carried out among the staff at one university in Malaysia and the findings could not be generalised to the staff of other universities in Malaysia. Nevertheless, this research used the pedometer to measure the level of physical activities among the Muslim men and Muslimahs. Therefore, the findings for this study are more reliable and objective in reflecting physical activity status among Malay Muslims and Muslimahs for future improvement.

CONCLUSION

Based on the average number of steps taken, most of the Muslim men and Muslimahs at UPM were found to be not physically active enough to achieve the minimal 10,000 step counts a day, as recommended by Tudor-Locke and Bassett (2004). In fact, both genders, especially the Muslimah, did not walk much on a 'normal' day when they did not fast, and much lesser during the month of Ramadan. As a result, they are unlikely to gain benefits in term of health from their exercises or daily physical activities. Based on Tudor-Locke and Bassett's (2004) physical activity classification, Malay Muslim men had higher mean step counts per day. Meanwhile, the Muslimahs with lower mean step counts per day were reported to be in the 'low active' category. Nevertheless, both the mean step values were found to be very low as compared to the recommended value to be achieved to pose health benefit. Ramadan may not be a time to be active, but blame cannot be placed on it as even during the other months, they were also not active. Moreover, wearing a pedometer is known to be an incentive to the wearer to increase their physical activities by 2,183 steps a day in an unconscious response to exercise more (Bravata *et al.*, 2007), especially when the step count is known (Clemes *et al.*, 2008). In addition, both the Malay Muslim men and Muslimahs might record lesser step counts per day in their real life as compared to the results of this study. Hence, more encouragement is needed to motivate them to walk more.

As obesity in Malaysian is reported to be escalating, where two out of five adults were reported to be overweight or obese (CRI English Online, 2009), changing lifestyle by becoming physically more active is very crucial (Soh *et al.*, 2008). One study has shown that by just walking an additional 0.5-0.75 miles per day is associated with better glucose control (Swartz *et al.*, 2007). Hence, the interest to walk 10,000 steps/day programme initiated by the Malaysian Ministry of Health to encourage Malaysians to be physically more active should be supported (The Star, 2009), continued, and even enhanced to achieve the maximum health benefits. In addition, for those who are already physically active, Nemoto *et al.* (2007) recommend increasing the walking intensity because it offers much better health benefits, which include protection against age-associated increases blood pressure and decreases in the thigh muscle strength and peak aerobic capacity. These assertions and recommendation should be taken seriously by Malay Muslim men and Muslimahs.

The main factor restricting both Muslim men and Muslimah's involvement in physical activities was their own-selves. However, this restricting factor (own-self) was shown to have higher impact on the Malay Muslim men (94.3%) as compared to the Muslimah (79.6%). On the other hand, the Malay Muslimahs cited other factors as having more influence on their involvement in physical activities as compared to the Muslims. The factors are family, friends, and availability of facilities. On the contrary,

the Malay Muslims attributed only friends as having had any influence on their involvement in physical activities.

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Relationship between Sources and Teachers' Sense of Efficacy among Novice Teachers in Selangor, Malaysia

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ABSTRACT

This study investigated novice teachers' sources of efficacy in relation to the application of knowledge in Educational Psychology. The questionnaires were administered to a sample of 160 novice teachers from 102 secondary schools in Selangor, Malaysia. The findings indicated that the novice teachers demonstrated a moderate level of teachers' sense of efficacy. The three sources of efficacy, namely, mastery experience, vicarious experience, and social persuasion were identified as the predictors of teachers' sense of efficacy [Adjusted $R^2 = 0.50$, $F(3, 155) = 53.16$, $p < 0.01$]. The implication of the study on the theory and practice of the teachers' sense of efficacy was also discussed. Suggestions and recommendations were offered to enhance and foster senses' of efficacy among the novice teachers.

Keywords: Teacher self-efficacy, sources of efficacy, novice teacher, Malaysia, educational psychology

INTRODUCTION

The aim of the Malaysian educational system is to ensure a balanced development of her citizens intellectually, spiritually,

emotionally and physically in order to create a healthy and well-integrated society (Ministry of Education, 2004). Since teachers are the backbone of a good educational system, various research has been conducted to identify good quality teaching. Effective teachers have been characterized as being caring, empathetic yet in control, warm, enthusiastic, fair, democratic, responsive, understanding,

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kind, stimulating, original, alert, attractive, responsible, steady, poised and confident (Minor, Onwuegbuzie, Witcher, & James, 2002; Ryan, & Cooper, 1988). Effective teachers also believe in their own abilities, have high expectations and are members of the learning communities themselves (Minor *et al.*, 2002). The aim of teacher education is to prepare teachers to meet the increase and diverse needs of the students, as well as the learning and teaching environment (Wong, 1977).

LITERATURE REVIEW

Educational Psychology

In order to facilitate the creation of effective teaching skills, the study on the foundation of education for prospective teachers is vital. Theoretical knowledge draws on the concepts from psychology, history, philosophy, and sociology of education enable teachers to engage in meaningful reflections and decision making as they apply the knowledge and skill gained to the specific and complex reality of the classroom (Orteza *et al.*, 1990; Reitman, 1977; Ryan, & Cooper, 1988). Educational Psychology is a powerful tool to understand the minds of the learners and to foster ways of effective teaching (Olson & Bruner, 1996; Ashton, 1999).

In order to prepare teachers in facing the complexity, multidimensionality and uncertainty in teaching and learning, the main purpose of Educational Psychology is to develop the psychological perspective among teachers (Anderson *et al.*, 1995). Before a teacher is able to make full use of

the psychological perspective developed in Educational Psychology, his or her educational belief is another powerful factor that will affect the acquisition and interpretations of the knowledge in Educational Psychology (Pajares, 1992). This belief later influences teacher's teaching behaviour in planning, instructional decision and classroom practice. Nespor (1987) noted that teacher's belief plays a major role in affecting teachers in defining the teaching tasks and selecting the teaching strategies especially in the area of classroom and behaviour management, as well as in the adaptation of learning materials, assignments, and assessment (Wertheim & Leyser, 2002).

Noticing the importance of teacher's educational belief, Doyle and Carter (1996) claimed that the process of establishing the beliefs on the psychological knowledge and its relation to practical and real-world teaching problems have unfortunately been troublesome. This is practically due to the fact that the same theory can support different actions, and different theories can lead to the same practice (Murray, 1989). Therefore, most of the teachers are confused in their own belief with the usefulness and applicability of theoretical explanations, especially in the field of Educational Psychology. The root of the problem is not that the theory is wrong or unworkable, but teachers are either having too few opportunities to apply theory to practical situations, or having too many obstructions in translating the theory (Ryan & Cooper, 1988).

The disappointment on the failure of Educational Psychology in contributing to the effective teaching in schools has been highlighted by Kyriacou (1986) and also by Knoff and Batsche (1991). Their statement has now become a true phenomenon in Malaysian schools, where teachers have failed to handle the psychological problem faced by students. The Ministry of Health Malaysia (*Student's Psychological Problem*, 2004) reported that school children nowadays are facing numerous illnesses including headache, social isolation, insomnia, anxiety and nervousness.

Hence, besides the psychological assistance provided by clinical psychologist, teachers at school, who are equipped with the knowledge of Educational Psychology, should function as the main resource to solve the mentioned situations. Teachers with psychological perspectives should be able to assist students in identifying their learning difficulties individually and to provide strategies to overcome the problems effectively (Woolfolk, 2004). Furthermore, teachers' daily classroom instructions, behaviours, as well as their interests in developing an environment that supports positive learning also impact students' emotional responses and developments (Nichols *et al.*, 2003).

Therefore, teachers who genuinely apply knowledge of Educational Psychology in their teaching task analysis, planning of classroom instructional strategies and dealing with students' diverse backgrounds will indirectly lessen the psychological burden of their students, as well as improving

their own quality of teaching. With the rise of quality in teaching, teachers are more confident in planning, decision-making and classroom management, as well as the increase of teachers' judgment of their own capabilities to engage students in learning (Campbell, 1996; Tschannen-Moran *et al.*, 1998). This latter concept of beliefs on competency and capabilities has been known as teacher efficacy.

Teachers' Self-efficacy

The construct of teacher efficacy can best be explained in Bandura's social cognitive theory. A teacher's efficacy belief is defined as the judgment of his capabilities to foster students' learning, and to bring about desired outcomes, even with those difficult or unmotivated students (Bandura, 1977). It is a simple idea with powerful and significant implications, especially in determining success or failure in a teacher's behaviour (Albion, 1999; Henson, 2001; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk, 2001).

Individual's belief on his capability to achieve a certain level of performance or his sense of efficacy influences behaviours on goal setting, levels of effort and persistence (Wood & Bandura, 1989). With appropriate knowledge and skills, perceived efficacy further promotes self-generated analytical strategies. When facing an obstacle, people with higher efficacy are able to maintain strategic thinking in order to find optimal solutions, whereas those with lower sense of efficacy will tend to avoid the situations, fail to generate their thinking abilities, and therefore, solve the problem ineffectively

(Bandura, 1997). In other words, skilful people will not necessarily perform if they have serious self-doubts about their capabilities (Ryckman, 1997).

Many studies have been conducted to examine the relationships between teachers' sense of efficacy and their teaching behaviours. Teacher's efficacy is positively correlated with teacher's preferences for positive management strategies (Emmer & Hickman, 1990), teachers' beliefs on their own instructional competence and their attitudes about pupil control (Woolfolk *et al.*, 1990), teachers' usage on individualized and diagnostic teaching strategies (Wertheim & Leyser, 2002), teacher's greater enthusiasm for teaching (Hall *et al.*, 1992), and likeliness to stay in the teaching profession (Burley *et al.*, 1991). Therefore, teachers' efficacy is an important variable in producing effective teaching and is related to positive teaching behaviours and students' outcomes such as students' achievement (Ross, 1992), students' own sense of efficacy (Anderson *et al.*, 1988) and students' motivation (Midgley *et al.*, 1989).

Sources of Efficacy

Realizing the importance and consequences of teachers' efficacy on teachers' behaviours and students' outcome, researchers have further extended their effort in investigating the origin of teachers' sense of efficacy. Bandura (1997) proposed four general sources of efficacy, namely, mastery experience, vicarious experience, social persuasion, and physiological or emotional arousal.

Among these four, mastery experiences provide the most dependable source of efficacy as they are one's own personal experiences on success or failure. Repeated success enhances efficacy expectations, whereas repeated failure lowers the sense of efficacy. Vicarious experiences are information observers gained through seeing or visualizing others. Watching others of similar competency performing will instil high self-perceptions of efficacy in observers. Social persuasion is a socialization function of convincing people that they are capable or not capable in accomplishing a task at a required level. Last but not least, one uses the state of physiological or emotional arousal, such as anxious and tense, as information for the judgment of his capability that is the perceived efficacy (Bandura, 1977; Ryckman, 1997).

Besides the four general sources of efficacy information proposed by Bandura, over the years, researchers have identified other possible factors that will influence the level of teacher efficacy. Despite the inconsistency and mixture in the research findings, the countless empirical studies in exploring various potential variables in influencing teachers' sense of efficacy have improved the understanding, measuring and definition of the construct.

In addition, research has been carried out to investigate teacher's level of efficacy in relation to the subject matter taught and the students' effect (Raudenbush *et al.*, 1992), various leadership styles of principals (Hipp & Bredeson, 1995), teachers' participation in decision-making (Moore & Esselman,

1992), various teaching career stages (Woolfolk Hoy, 2000), as well as other demographic variables such as teacher's age, gender, race, level of education, the school context (urban, suburban or rural), school level (preschool, elementary, middle or high school), and years of teaching experience (Campbell, 1996; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk, 2002).

In the study of the relationship between teacher efficacy and the years of teaching experience, Bandura (1997) highlighted that the development of teachers' sense of efficacy is the most malleable during early learning. Thus, teachers' mastery experiences during training programmes, practical teaching and the induction years could be critical to the long-term development of teachers' efficacy (Shaughnessy, 2004; Woolfolk Hoy, 2000). The growth of knowledge and input received during this period of time may strengthen the pre-service and novice teachers' efficacy beliefs (Lin *et al.*, 2002). Parallel with the knowledge gained, the teachers must develop the confidence in an attempt to apply the knowledge in a needed situation (Gorrell & Capron, 1990). The teachers must have the beliefs that with their extra teaching efforts and adaptations, they are able to facilitate success in students' achievement and other related positive outcomes (Campbell, 1996).

The implementation of teachers' efficacy and teaching efficiency is supported by a longitudinal study of Stein and Wang (1988). They found that teachers who successfully implemented new instructional strategies exhibited a higher level of

efficacy as compared to those who faced failure in the implementation of the new knowledge learned. As the result of these previous suggestions and evidences, more attention should be given to the pedagogical, psychological, organizational and interpersonal supports in order to enhance and sustain the development of teachers' efficacy, particularly to the novice teachers who are in their early years of teaching (Shaughnessy, 2004). In other words, greater understanding of the factors, including the sources of efficacy that facilitate, inhibit or impact the development of efficacy beliefs among novice teachers would be valuable.

Consequently, the inclusion of Educational Psychology in teacher training programmes, as well as the beliefs on the applicability of new instructional methodologies in real classroom situations, has contributed to types of experiences identified by Bandura (1977, 1986), as the sources contributing to the self-perception of competence (i.e., mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, social persuasion, and physiological or emotional arousal). However, prior conceptualizations of teacher efficacy had ignored these sources of information and their relationship to efficacy (Henson, 2001), especially the growth of knowledge during teacher education programme and early years of teaching that might have strong influence to strengthen teachers' efficacy beliefs (Lin *et al.*, 2002).

According to Bandura (1997), in order to promote transferability of cognitive skills, especially the applicability of Educational Psychology into real teaching, teachers

need repeated experiences to apply the knowledge and skills gained to diverse tasks and diverse settings. The success of mastering knowledge in Educational Psychology and applying it in the analysis of complex teaching tasks will instil a strong sense of efficacy among teachers. However, in contrast to the usual finding that these mastery experiences are the most important sources of efficacy, Heppner (1994) found that verbal persuasion of peer consultation and students' feedback are more influential sources of efficacy information. Novice teachers in Heppner's study also indicated that to promote their mastery experiences in teaching, they need more knowledge and extra skills on goal settings, using objectives to guide teaching, developing critical thinking skills in their students and themselves, understanding students' developmental needs, facilitating classroom activities in a more productive and effective way, and handling unmotivated students. On the basis of these research findings, it can be hypothesized that Educational Psychology is a powerful source in instilling teachers' sense of efficacy.

Along with the mastery experiences and social persuasion as sources of efficacy, observation of competent and skilful teachers who demonstrate and model the applicability of Educational Psychology theory in real teaching situations to promote effective instructional and learning environment will also strengthen teachers' sense of efficacy (Wertheim & Leyser, 2002). Physiological or emotional arousal in learning and applying Educational Psychology will also

affect teachers' perceived capabilities in teaching effectively. Feeling of pride when successfully implementing new teaching strategies that promote learning will enhance teachers' sense of efficacy, whereas feeling of anxiety and worry on the evaluation and grade determination during training programme of Educational Psychology will lower teachers' teaching efficacy.

While teachers' sense of efficacy plays an integral role in determining the effectiveness of teaching and success of an educational system, the investigation of the factors that may influence the formation of efficacy belief, based on Bandura's four sources of efficacy information, still remain unexplored and ignored (Henson, 2001). Meanwhile, the need to examine the sources of efficacy has become inevitable. Lim (1997) found that secondary school teachers have low level of job satisfaction and low efforts in their teaching tasks. Furthermore, Rohaya (1999) identified that a majority of Malaysian secondary school teachers do not have strong efficacy belief in their teaching. Rahmah (2005) also found that majority of the novice teachers in Sarawak have a moderate level of overall sense of efficacy. These findings clearly reflect the need and urgency to examine and identify factors that promote Malaysian teachers' sense of efficacy.

Nonetheless, past research had not specifically studied on the relationship between knowledge in Educational Psychology and teacher efficacy. There are several valid claims on the role of Educational Psychology in promoting

effective teaching (Anderson *et al.*, 1995), which consequently influence the teachers' sense of efficacy indirectly (Tschannen-Moran *et al.*, 1998). Henceforth, teachers' beliefs on the applicability of Educational Psychology knowledge, as well as their confidence in translating and transferring them in real teaching and learning environment, will therefore affect the judgment of teachers' efficacy (Gorrell & Capron, 1990; Lin *et al.*, 2002).

Furthermore, Educational Psychology as a course is highly criticized in its failure to act as a tool in facilitating meaningful teaching and learning (Berliner, 1992). Educational Psychology is based on a foundation metaphor which has been particularly vulnerable to the critics of being too theoretical (Hoy, 1996; Rigden, 1996; Ashton, 1999). This is due to the expectation posed on the students to acquire factual and conceptual knowledge in encyclopaedic form rather than to apply the knowledge on learning how to teach (Shuell, 1996).

Additionally, most pre-service and novice teachers learn courses including Educational Psychology just to pass the examination and fulfil the requirement for graduation. They do not understand the theory being studied and even question the purpose of 'memorizing' all the facts and theories in the course. The student teachers often question the course instructor on the purpose of studying such vast information that seems a waste of time as the topics become useless when dealing with real children (Woolfolk Hoy, 2000a).

The situation becomes worse when

the novice teacher enters the real school environment. With the internal factor of forgetting the theories learned in Educational Psychology and external encouragement and advices by senior colleagues to ignore the irrelevant theoretical background learned at university, the novice teachers then automatically interpret classroom events according to the commonly held belief or based on their common senses (Ryan & Cooper, 1988).

Teachers' self-beliefs are determinants of teaching behaviour and students' outcomes (Henson, 2001). Therefore, it is impossible to observe an optimal usage of Educational Psychology in real life teaching and learning if the novice teachers themselves do not believe in the theory and have a misconception between the applicability of psychological theory to the solutions of educational problems (Nespor, 1987; Pajares, 1992; Shaughnessy, 2004).

The failure of application of Educational Psychology as a pedagogical foundation can be observed from a research done by Ruslina (1998) which aimed to identify the factors that contribute to students' disciplinary problems. Her findings indicated that besides the factors of students' family background, personal factors and influence of peers, an important contributor towards students' disciplinary problem is the teachers' behaviour. Teachers' pedagogical techniques, classroom management, strategy in giving rewards and punishments, teachers' attitudes towards student and the teachers' communication and interpersonal skill contribute to the students' disciplinary

problems in the respective schools. In other words, teachers have failed to apply the Education Psychology knowledge they have gained into the real-life classroom setting.

Another study was carried out by Sakinah (1991) to identify effective methods of maintaining school discipline. A case study was done and a total of five teachers were interviewed and observed. One of the important findings related to this particular study is that one of the effective methods listed was the use of psychological methods such as reinforcement and effective classroom management strategy to maximize the maintenance of the school discipline.

Hence, this study explored the teachers' four sources of efficacy, namely, mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, social persuasion, and physiological or emotional arousal, in relation to the application of knowledge in Educational Psychology. Taken the fact that efficacy belief is a useful indicator of the likely success of Educational Psychology integration, further investigations are to be taken to identify which particular source of efficacy information relative to Educational Psychology will best function as an enhancement tool of efficacy beliefs. Besides that, this study will also look into other moderating variables namely, gender, ethnic groups, and subject matter knowledge that may influence teachers' sense of efficacy.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

Generally, this study attempted to study the teacher's four sources of efficacy in relation to the application of knowledge in

Educational Psychology. In addition, this study also looked into a few moderating variables that might influence teachers' level of efficacy beliefs. Following this, the specific objectives of the study are:

- i. To determine the level of teachers' sense of efficacy among novice teachers.
- ii. To examine the relationship between the demographic variables and teachers' sense of efficacy among the novice teachers.
- iii. To explore the level of the four sources of teachers' efficacy among novice teachers.
- iv. To examine the relationship between the sources of teachers' efficacy and teachers' sense of efficacy among the novice teachers.
- v. To identify factors predicting the teachers' sense of efficacy among the novice teachers.

METHODOLOGY

Research Design

In order to achieve the objectives of the study, a descriptive survey approach was adopted where questionnaires were been used for data collection (Wiersma, 2000). A correlation design was used to study the relationship and correlation among the variables. The independent variables of the study were the four sources of teachers' efficacy, namely, mastery experience, vicarious experience, social persuasion, and physiological or emotional arousal. On the other hand, the dependent variables in this

study were the level of teachers' efficacy, whereas the moderator variables in this study were the teachers' gender, ethnic group, and the subject matter knowledge the teacher is teaching.

Population and Sample

The accessible population comprised of the novice teachers in the state of Selangor who taught in national secondary schools for a maximum of three years. Based on the calculation using power analysis (Cohen, 1977), 220 subjects were randomly selected as sample of this study. Random cluster sampling was used as the technique to select the sample (Burns, 2000; Wiersma, 2000). Two of the districts chosen randomly as the sample were the Districts of Petaling and Klang in Selangor. The study was carried out at 102 government secondary schools. All the novice teachers in the districts were included as the sample of the study. The questionnaires were mailed to the respondents. The final follow-up phone calls were made after the next six weeks to appeal for the completion of the questionnaires due to the usefulness of the study. From 220 sets of questionnaires that were posted to the subjects, 160 returned, reporting 73% of return rate.

It was found that there were 31 male teachers (19.38%) and 129 female teachers (80.62%) involved in the study. Most of the subjects were Malays (81.25%), followed by Chinese (13.75%) and Indians (5.00%). A majority of the teachers taught either the major or minor subjects that they learnt in university (84.38%) and only 15.62% of the

teachers were teaching the subjects that they were not trained in university.

The inequality distribution of the respondents based on the demographic variables can be justified from the fact that the study was carried out in the government secondary schools, where there were more Malay female teachers compared to other categories. Moreover, such distribution is also concurrent with the percentage of population of teachers in Selangor state based on gender, where approximately 80% of the teachers are female and the distribution of population according to ethnic groups in Malaysia, where 65.1% of the resident population are Malays (statistic obtained from the website of Jabatan Pelajaran Negeri Selangor and Population and Housing CENSUS, 2000).

Instruments

There were two instruments used in this study; the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) developed by Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001), and the Sources of Teacher Efficacy Inventory (STEI), which was adapted by the researcher from the Sources of Self-Efficacy Inventory (SOSI). The original authors of SOSI are Kieffer and Henson (2000). Apart from the two sets of questionnaire, the researcher also attached another section requiring the subjects to fill in data regarding their background.

Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES)

Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2002) used the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale

(TSES) to assess the efficacy judgment of in-service teachers who were categorized into two criteria, the novice and experience teachers. Reliability found on the three subscales of the 24 items long form scale was also very high, that is, 0.87, for the efficacy of instructional strategies, 0.88 for efficacy of the classroom management, and 0.84 for efficacy of student engagement. Due to the language background of the subject teachers, TSES was translated into *Bahasa Melayu* and also validated through the process of translating and retranslating of both languages into Bahasa Melayu and English. Teachers' sense of efficacy was measured in three areas of teaching tasks, which included students' engagement, instructional strategies, and classroom management. The teaching efficacy measured in this study would be assessed using a 5-point Likert Scale, ranging from (1) Strongly Disagree; (2) Disagree; (3) Less Agree; (4) Agree; and (5) Strongly Agree.

Sources of Teacher Efficacy Inventory (STEI)

The four sources of teachers' efficacy in terms of Educational Psychology were assessed using a scale developed by the first author. Along with the effort to establish a new instrument to examine the four sources of teacher efficacy in relation to the application of knowledge in Educational Psychology, the previous inventory used by Kieffer and Henson (2000) to assess the four sources teacher efficacy in general was used also as references. Adaptations were made in

reference to the 35 items of the Sources of Self-efficacy Inventory (SOSI) constructed by Kieffer and Henson (2000), which is a 7-point Likert-type scale instrument ('1' for Definitely Not True For Me to '7' for Definitely True For Me). The four scales in SOSI were constructed based on Bandura's (1997) four sources of efficacy, namely, mastery experience (9 items), vicarious experience (9 items), social persuasion (10 items), and emotional or physiological arousal (7 items). Meanwhile, the coefficient alpha for the four subscales obtained by the research done by Kieffer and Henson (2000) was 0.71 for mastery experience, 0.78 for vicarious experience, 0.45 for social persuasion, and 0.60 for physiological or emotional arousal, respectively.

This particular study studied the sources of teachers' efficacy in relation to the application of knowledge in Educational Psychology for the teaching task. Therefore, the original items in SOSI were modified by changing the general teaching tasks to the application of the knowledge in Educational Psychology for teachers' planning and their daily routine task specifically. This new instrument, which is named Sources of Teacher Efficacy Inventory (STEI) consists of 66 items measuring the four sources of teachers' efficacy and was assessed using a 5-point Likert Scale ranging from (1) Strongly Disagree; (2) Disagree; (3) Less Agree; (4) Agree; and (5) Strongly Agree.

The teachers' mastery experiences are measured by items presume that the success in the application of Educational Psychology in daily teaching tasks or

successful experiences on the applicability of Educational Psychology leads to higher efficacy. Conversely, failures and mistakes lead to lower efficacy. Vicarious experience is measured by the items which indicate that the observations and review of journal articles result in applying Educational Psychology in daily teaching tasks. Social persuasion is measured by items which have been coded in such a way that social persuasion created influence in applying Educational Psychology in teaching. Meanwhile, physiological and emotional sources of efficacy are measured by the items that indicated the individual emotional and physiological arousal, including increased heart rate, stress, tense, anxiety, disappointment, increased voice tone, as well as happiness in applying Educational Psychology in daily teaching tasks.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Level of Teachers' Sense of Efficacy among Novice Teachers

In determining the level of teachers' sense of efficacy, the novice teachers in Selangor were found to have a moderate level of teaching efficacy ($M=3.85$, $SD=0.38$). The majority of the novice teachers (66.9%) also possessed a moderate level of sense of efficacy. The teachers rated their efficacy for instructional strategies as the highest ($M=3.98$, $SD=0.37$), followed by efficacy for classroom management ($M=3.83$, $SD=0.45$), and efficacy for students' engagement ($M=3.75$, $SD=0.42$). In general, teachers had a positive judgement of their capabilities in teaching (see Table 1).

TABLE 1
Means and Standard Deviations for the Variables in Teachers' Sense of Efficacy

Variables	Mean	SD
Teachers' sense of efficacy	3.85	.38
Efficacy for students' engagement	3.75	.42
Efficacy for instructional strategies	3.98	.37
Efficacy for classroom management	3.83	.45

The research findings correspond to a local research done by Rahmah (2005) where the novice teachers in the state of Sarawak were shown to have a moderate level of overall sense of efficacy (68.6%), as well as moderate levels in the three subscales of teachers' efficacy, namely, efficacy in instructional strategy (70.4%), efficacy in classroom management (66.2%) and efficacy in students' engagement (68.3%).

The moderate level of teachers' sense of efficacy among the novice teachers indicated that majority of them perceived themselves as having only a moderate confidence in their teaching competence and capabilities to accomplish the teaching tasks. According to Tschannen-Moran *et al.* (1998), the analysis of teaching tasks seems to be extra challenging to novice teachers. They are most likely to experience reality shock when they face the complex school environment which is totally different from the expectation they formed during teacher training.

Shaughnessy (2004) supported the fact that teachers' confidence in teaching skills has increased during the training

programme, but declines in teaching efficacy after the first year of teaching (Burke-Spero & Woolfolk, 2003; Hoy & Woolfolk, 1990). Thus, it appeared that after a few years of teaching, the novice found difficulties in applying the knowledge and skills they have learnt in the university into the efforts to instil learning in their students (Shaughnessy, 2004). The occurrence of a simultaneous multidimensional and uncertain scenario in schools may also increase the stress level among the novice teachers and result a moderate sense of efficacy among the teachers (Tschannen-Moran *et al.*, 1998).

In this study, the teachers' sense of efficacy was measured by using the scale on the teachers' self-perception in accomplishing the three areas of teaching tasks, which included students' engagement, instructional strategies, and classroom management. The results indicated that the novice teachers perceived highest confidence level in providing instructional strategies as compared to the other two subscales. This might be related to Bandura's (1986) Social Cognitive Theory, where the personal factor of both efficacy beliefs and knowledge in various instructional strategies influence each other. In other words, the cognitive process of figuring effective strategies enhances confidence and elicits stronger beliefs on capabilities (Pintrich & Schunk, 1996). In turn, a higher sense of efficacy affects the teachers' confidence in the implementation of alternative strategies and assessments in the classroom, as well as the planning of lessons according to the

diversified needs of the students.

The results also indicated that a majority of the novice teachers possessed a moderate level of classroom management efficacy. This also means that the novice teachers perceived themselves as having only a moderate level of confidence in their ability to control on students' behaviours, to establish smooth running of daily routines and to establish a system on classroom management with different groups of students. The moderate level of classroom management efficacy might be caused by the novice teachers' lack of experience in developing conceptions in classroom management. Being new, they may also face problems in transferring the ideas and knowledge learnt regarding classroom management into the real-life classroom situation. They might fail to identify the use of suitable motivational concepts such as reinforcement, rewards, punishments, and need fulfilments in modifying disruptive students' behaviours (Woolfolk, 2004). The lower level of efficacy in classroom management also suggests that the novice teachers tend to spend more of their time, efforts and focus in controlling students' behaviour rather than fostering effective teaching and learning in their classes.

In this study, the novice teachers' efficacy in students' engagement was moderate but the lowest among the three efficacy subscales. This also showed that novice teachers lacked confidence in managing teaching tasks related to students' engagement which included handling difficult students, facilitating

critical thinking, motivation and creativity in students' learning and to foster students' self-belief to excel. The lower mean score in the efficacy of students' engagement among the novice teachers suggested that the tasks in engaging students in the classroom were the most difficult and challenging. Relating the reciprocal relationship between teachers' efficacy in students' engagement and teachers' behaviour (Pintrich & Schunk, 1996), the novice teachers with lower efficacy beliefs would probably setback easily in handling the tasks in engaging the students. They might not be persistent and exert enough efforts in facing the problems arise.

In general, the moderate teachers' sense of efficacy level among the novice teachers may contribute to the low sense of efficacy in students' engagement. Hence, more measures should be taken in order to foster teachers' belief in their abilities to engage students in their learning. Ironically, although teachers are equipped with the knowledge and skills from teacher education programme, novice teachers still need to be guided in transferring the knowledge into real complex teaching context.

The Relationship between the Demographic Variables and Teachers' Sense of Efficacy among Novice Teachers

In examining the relationship between the demographic variables and teachers' sense of efficacy among the novice teachers, t-test and ANOVA analyses were executed. It was found from this study that there was no significant difference in overall teachers' sense of efficacy scores between males ($M=3.90$, $SD=0.43$), and females ($M=3.84$, $SD=0.37$; $t(158)=0.73$, $p>0.05$). There were also no significant differences in all the three subscales of teachers' sense of efficacy based on gender. Male and female novice teachers were not significantly different in their efficacy for students' engagement, instructional strategy and classroom management (see Table 2).

The current research finding has the same result as that of the previous research by Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2002) who found that there was no difference in efficacy beliefs based on gender. However, the Malaysian studies by Rahmah (2005) and Teng (2006) found a significant difference in teachers' sense of efficacy based on gender, whereby male

TABLE 2
Differences in Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Based on Gender

	Male (N=31)		Female (N=129)		t	df	p	η^2
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD				
Teachers' Sense of Efficacy	3.90	.42	3.84	.37	.73	158	.47	.003
Efficacy for Student Engagement	3.76	.47	3.75	.41	.13	158	.90	.000
Efficacy for Instructional Strategy	3.99	.44	3.98	.36	.13	40	.89	.000
Efficacy for Classroom Management	3.94	.46	3.80	.45	1.60	158	.11	.016

teachers were shown to have higher sense of efficacy than their female counterparts. On the other hand, there was also no statistically significant difference in the level of the overall teachers' sense of efficacy for the three ethnic groups in the study [$F(2,157) = 0.42, p > 0.05$]. The three ethnic groups were also not different significantly in their efficacy for student engagement [$F(2,157) = 0.51, p > 0.05$], efficacy for instructional strategy [$F(2,157) = 0.56, p > 0.05$], and efficacy for classroom management [$F(2,157) = 0.41, p > 0.05$], as shown in Table 3.

Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2002) also found that there was no significant difference in teachers' sense of efficacy based on ethnic groups. Conversely, Rahmah (2005) discovered a significant difference between Chinese and Ibans in the overall teachers' sense of efficacy, teachers' efficacy in classroom management and teachers' efficacy in students' engagement, whereby the Iban teachers were found to be

stronger in their teaching efficacy. However, the magnitude of the differences in the means of teachers' sense of efficacy scores based on the subject matter knowledge was very small. There was no significant difference in the teachers' sense of efficacy scores for teachers who taught their major or minor subjects ($M = 3.86, SD = 0.38$), and for teachers not teaching their major or minor subjects ($M = 3.82, SD = 0.38; t(158) = 0.56, p > 0.05$), as shown in Table 4.

None of the previous research has found a similar result as that of this particular research. Most of the research found that the subject matter knowledge is influencing teacher's capability to teach. A study of Raudenbush, Rowen, and Cheong (1992) found that teachers tend to be more efficacious in academic classes compared to those in non-academic classes such as physical education learning. Rahmah (2005) found a significant difference in teachers' efficacy in instructional strategy where

TABLE 3
Differences in Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Based on Ethnic Groups

		Sum of Squares	df	F	Sig.
Teachers' Sense of Efficacy	Between Groups	.12	2	.42	.66
	Within Groups	22.88	157		
	Total	23.00	159		
Efficacy for Student Engagement	Between Groups	.18	2	.51	.60
	Within Groups	28.25	157		
	Total	28.44	159		
Efficacy for Instructional Strategy	Between Groups	.16	2	.56	.57
	Within Groups	22.05	157		
	Total	22.20	159		
Efficacy for Classroom Management	Between Groups	.17	2	.41	.66
	Within Groups	32.39	157		
	Total	32.56	159		

teachers who were teaching their subject options had higher sense of efficacy. Ross and Bradley (1999) also supported the fact that teachers teaching the subject outside their area have lower teaching efficacy.

In conclusion, the influence of school effects and demographic variables towards teachers' sense of efficacy may vary. However, of all the school effects and demographic variables studied in this research, all the moderating variables did not affect the novice teachers' sense of efficacy. It was observed that only three sources of teacher efficacy, namely, the mastery experience, social persuasion and vicarious experience strongly influenced the level of teachers' sense of efficacy of the sample teachers studied. In other words, the novice teachers' sense of efficacy in the state of Selangor was only affected by their mastery experience, social persuasion

and vicarious experience in applying the knowledge of Educational Psychology in their daily teaching tasks.

The teachers' sense of efficacy among the novice teachers in the state of Selangor was found to be at the moderate level. This implied that the novice teachers were challenged in adapting into the new school environment. Based on Bandura's (1986) triadic reciprocal causation and the cyclic nature of the dynamic interplay between the environment, behaviour, and personal factors (Henson, 2001), teachers with moderate sense of efficacy will be diffused with feelings of self-doubt, insecurity and loneliness (Krasnow, 1993). They may even have a feeling of powerlessness, frustration, disappointment, disillusionment, guilt, and even anger and fear (Gillham, 1981).

With the negative feelings and lacking of self-confidence and coping ability, the

TABLE 4
Differences in Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Based on Subject Matter Knowledge

	Subject Matter Knowledge	N	Mean	SD	t	df	p	η^2
Teachers' Sense of Efficacy	Teaching Major or Minor Subjects	135	3.86	.38	.56*	158*	.57*	.002
	Not Teaching Major or Minor Subjects	25	3.82	.38				
Efficacy for Student Engagement	Teaching Major or Minor Subjects	135	3.75	.41	.04*	158*	.97*	.000
	Not Teaching Major or Minor Subjects	25	3.75	.49				
Efficacy for Instructional Strategy	Teaching Major or Minor Subjects	135	3.99	.38	.33*	158*	.74*	.000
	Not Teaching Major or Minor Subjects	25	3.96	.33				
Efficacy for Classroom Management	Teaching Major or Minor Subjects	135	3.84	.46	1.11*	158*	.27*	.008
	Not Teaching Major or Minor Subjects	25	3.74	.42				

novice teachers may continue to have a lower sense of efficacy resulting in less effort, perseverance and commitment in their teaching tasks (Woolfolk Hoy, 2004). They may also totally abort their attempts when dealing with obstacles and adverse situation (Tschannen-Moran *et al.*, 1998). Common consequences that follow may be unmotivated, burnout, pressure in work, lower job satisfaction level, and even leaving the teaching profession (Zubaidah, 1999). As the fact indicates that teachers' sense of efficacy is an important indicator for quality teaching and learning outcomes, Bandura (1986) further claims that teachers' sense of efficacy is crucial, particularly during the beginning years of teaching. This is because the sense of efficacy appears to be resistant to change once it is formed. Hence, the current study on examining the levels of efficacy among novice teachers has contributed to the society in being aware that the efficacy level among novice teachers is moderate and needs to be monitored.

Level of the four sources of teacher efficacy among novice teachers

With respect to the sources of teaching efficacy, social persuasion scores the highest with the mean score obtained was 3.85 (SD=0.32). The second highest source of teaching efficacy was from vicarious experience, with scoring mean of 3.82 (SD=0.32), followed by physiological or emotional arousal (M=3.61, SD=0.38), and mastery experience (M=3.58, SD=0.33), as shown in Table 5.

TABLE 5: Means and Standard Deviations for Variables in Sources of Efficacy

Variables	Mean	SD
Mastery experience	3.58	.33
Vicarious experience	3.82	.32
Social persuasion	3.85	.32
Physiological or emotional arousal	3.61	.38

The results indicated that a majority of teachers gained their efficacy in teaching via feedbacks from their superiors, students, colleagues, lectures in university, and social talk among teachers in the staffroom to apply Educational Psychology for better quality of instructions. Being new in the teaching profession, social communication and discussion established is useful to convince these novice teachers that they have the competence and capabilities (Ryckman, 1997) to implement teaching tasks that are based on the theoretical ground of Educational Psychology.

The mean score of the second highest source of efficacy, vicarious experience, was quite near to the mean score of social persuasion. This indicated that novice teachers perceived that they gained their confidence in translating the theory in Educational Psychology into practice effectively by observing on the expert teachers or by reading reviews that relate successful application of the theory in Educational Psychology into teaching tasks that increase engagement of students in learning, creating effective instructional strategies, and positive classroom management. The visualization of the images on success transferring of Educational Psychology into real life

teaching has enhanced novice teachers' perception on their capability to master the tasks on their behalf.

Physiological and emotional responses such as heart and respiratory rate, sweating, shivering hands, stress, tense and anxiety have been found to be the third effective source in affecting the novice teachers' judgement on their personal competency to use strategies of Educational Psychology in classroom (Woods & Bandura, 1989). Being young and inexperienced, it is common that the novice teachers face difficulty in managing their own physiological and emotional states (Woolfolk, 2004). In fact, novice teachers who have a high level arousal condition are unlikely to perform optimally. As a consequence, they will perceive a lower level of capabilities in coping with application of the theories into classroom situations.

A majority of the novice teachers did not really agree that they gained their efficacy of applying Educational Psychology through mastery experience. The experiences of success or failure in applying Educational Psychology in a classroom setting is less likely to act as a source for teachers to instil a feeling of confidence and capability in themselves. For novice teachers who are entering a new teaching assignment, they are most likely to experience a reality shock (Tschannen-Moran *et al.*, 1998). Teaching tasks and daily routine that are rather complex, uncertain and occurring simultaneously (Anderson *et al.*, 1995) may cause these novice teachers to ignore the importance of experiencing the application

of theoretical knowledge in Educational Psychology in the classroom themselves.

In gaining competence and capabilities to apply and to transfer the knowledge of Educational Psychology into daily classroom setting, the novice teachers depended mostly on the influences of external factors such as social persuasion from the community and vicarious experiences of experts and seniors in the school. Being new in handling their teaching tasks, the novice teachers may be influenced by their sensitivity and highly aroused physiological or emotional responses. A majority of the teachers' viewed the success or failure in applying the knowledge in Educational Psychology into daily classroom routine as less likely to serve as a source of efficacy.

From this study, majority of the novice teachers believe that social persuasion is the main source for them to apply the knowledge in Educational Psychology into their teaching tasks. This was followed by vicarious experience, physiological or emotional arousal and finally mastery experience. This finding has two consequential implications.

First of all, it is noted that novice teachers believe in the environmental factors (social persuasion and vicarious experience) as the sources for them to gain their efficacy. Hence, it is important to create a positive social communication and effective modelling in encouraging teachers to apply Educational Psychology in their daily classroom setting. All this while, the novice teachers have been making their senior teachers as the model and sources of problem solution. However, no specific

attention has been put forward to the quality and skills of these senior teachers.

It is vital that the persuasive messages conveyed include encouragement, praise or recognition of applicability of Educational Psychology in the teaching context. In accordance, negative persuasive context, such as criticism, ridicule, and belittling, will lower the level of a person's efficacy expectations (Ryckman, 1997; Tschannen-Moran *et al.*, 1998). Besides the positive and constructive social talk among the community, the content of verbal persuasions must also be set in a realistic boundary. The transferability of Educational Psychology knowledge must be made realistic to achieve. Henceforth, the characteristics of the persuader such as credibility, trustworthiness, and expertise are important factors to induce efficacy expectations (Bandura, 1977; Woods & Bandura, 1989).

The respondents of the study also rated their vicarious experience as the second source of efficacy. This implied that proper modelling is efficient for novice teachers to belief in the applicability of Educational Psychology in the class. Henceforth, the visualization of other similar model to apply the knowledge successfully will enhance the novice teachers' belief that they are also capable in reaching success under the same circumstances (Ryckman, 1997). Likewise, if the novice teachers see difficulties and unbeneficial consequences faced by model teachers, the efficacy expectations of these novices will decrease (Tschannen-Moran *et al.*, 1998; Woolfolk Hoy, 2000, 2004). The

second implication was derived from the fact that majority of novice teachers rated their mastery experience of application of Educational Psychology in teaching the lowest. This implies that the teachers lack the experience of being successful or failing to apply theories of Educational Psychology, especially in their training.

Relationship between the Sources of Teachers' Efficacy and Teachers' Sense of Efficacy among the Novice Teachers

In studying the relationship between the sources of efficacy and teachers' sense of efficacy, mastery experience of the application of Educational Psychology in teaching was found to be strongly and significantly correlated to the teachers' sense of efficacy [$r = 0.71$, $n = 160$, $p < 0.01$]. The positive correlation between the two variables indicated that teachers who had rated high in their gaining of confidence in applying Educational Psychology through mastery experience scored highly in their level of sense of efficacy. Based on the review of past reports, mastery experience is the most powerful and dependable source of efficacy expectation as they are a person's own experiences and provide direct feedback on one's capabilities (Bandura, 1977; Henson, 2001; Tschannen-Moran *et al.*, 1998; Woolfolk Hoy, 2000).

Among the three subscales of teachers' sense of efficacy measured in TSES, the teachers' efficacy in students' engagement showed the highest and significant correlation relationship with teachers' mastery experience of application of Educational

Psychology in teaching [$r = 0.70$, $n = 160$, $p < 0.01$]. This finding indicated that from the personal experiences of utilizing theories in Education Psychology, teachers gained their efficacy in engaging their students in the classroom. Novice teachers who experienced the application of knowledge in Educational Psychology are more likely to handle difficult students, to facilitate critical thinking, to promote creativity in students' learning and to foster students' self-belief in performing well, as shown in Table 6 below.

The second important source of efficacy for highly efficacious novice teachers found in the study was the social persuasion to apply Educational Psychology in teaching. There was a moderately strong and significant positive correlation between the teachers' sense of efficacy and teachers' social persuasion [$r = 0.46$, $n = 160$, $p < 0.01$]. This finding indicated that highly efficacious teachers gain their confidence in teaching via specific feedback from the supervisors, other teachers and even students that they have the competence and capabilities to apply Educational Psychology into their

teaching tasks (Chiles & Zorn, 1995; Ryckman, 1997).

The teachers' sense of efficacy also correlated to the third source of teachers' efficacy, i.e. teachers' vicarious experience of application of Educational Psychology in teaching. There was a moderately low and significant positive correlation between the teachers' sense of efficacy and teachers' vicarious experience [$r = 0.33$, $n = 160$, $p < 0.01$]. This result indicated that by the observation or visualization of another's effective application of Educational Psychology in the classroom, teachers have come to believe that they are also capable in reaching success under the same circumstances (Ryckman, 1997).

In contrast, there was a weak and significant negative correlation between teachers' sense of efficacy and teachers' physiological or emotional arousal in applying Educational Psychology in teaching [$r = -0.17$, $n = 160$, $p < 0.05$]. Novice teachers with higher level of physiological or emotional arousal state tend to have lower sense of teaching efficacy. Bandura (1997)

TABLE 6

The Relationship between the Sources of Efficacy and Teachers' Sense of Efficacy

Sources of efficacy	Teachers' Sense of Efficacy	Efficacy for Student Engagement	Efficacy for Instructional Strategy	Efficacy for Classroom Management
Mastery Experience	.71(**)	.70(**)	.59(**)	.65(**)
Vicarious Experience	.33(**)	.34(**)	.33(**)	.24(**)
Social Persuasion	.46(**)	.46(**)	.43(**)	.37(**)
Physiological or Emotional Arousal	-.17(*)	-.16(*)	-.11	-.18(*)

Note: ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed)
n = 160

also supports that the level of physiological or emotional arousal influences self-perceptions of teaching competence that is the teaching efficacy. The feeling of relaxation and positive emotions add to self-assurance and future success (Bandura, 1997).

Mastery experience is very important in increasing efficacy. This is because from this study, it was also found that high efficacy is strongly related to mastery experience. This finding implies that it is important to help the novice teachers to experience and to try out the knowledge learnt in the real classroom setting. Hence, amendment to the teacher training programme and follow-up workshops is needed to create the personal experience for novice teachers in applying the knowledge in daily teaching. It is vital to reduce the physiological or emotional arousal in transferring Educational Psychology in teaching task. Novice teachers must be able to learn and to use the theories in Educational Psychology in a relaxed manner. As indicated earlier, the feeling of relaxation and positive emotions add to self-assurance and future success (Bandura, 1997). The teacher with successful teaching experience is more likely to experience a higher level of efficacy expectation even in the face of challenging situations (Ryckman, 1997).

Factors Predicting the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy among Novice Teachers

Based on the conceptual framework derived from Teacher Efficacy Model by Tschannen-Moral *et al.* (1998), besides the four sources of efficacy, other moderating

variables, including the school effects and demographic variables, were believed to influence teachers' sense of efficacy. However, the review of literature has indicated that the influence and effects of these variables towards teachers' sense of efficacy are rather controversial in different research settings and locations. Among other, studies have been attempted to test the causal models that combine the school effects, teachers' demographic factors, as well as other influential factors, such as students' effect, principal behaviour, decision making structures and collective efficacy effects. However, no research has been carried out to determine the causal models of teachers' sense of efficacy based on the sources of efficacy.

In this particular study, a multiple regression analysis was used and the result indicated that novice teachers' mastery experience of application of Educational Psychology in teaching was the most significant predictor of the teachers' sense of efficacy, which account for the greatest amount of variance. Besides that, novice teacher who possess a high level of teacher's sense of efficacy is more likely to use social persuasion and vicarious experience as the sources to gain the efficacy in applying knowledge of Educational Psychology. However, due to the suppressor effect, highly efficacious teachers will only be influenced by the social persuasion and vicarious experience when they are fully experiencing the mastery experience in applying Educational Psychology in the classroom.

The model derived from the multiple regression analysis has also shown that there was a suppressor effect observed. This finding implies that without gaining the sense of efficacy via mastery experience in applying Educational Psychology in teaching, teachers who believe in using social persuasion and vicarious experience are unlikely to be highly efficacious. Hence, in order to produce teachers with high sense of efficacy, the sequence and strength of the influence of sources of efficacy are as follows: mastery experience (as the moderator), social persuasion, and vicarious experience. In other words, mastery experience is the main catalyst to ensure higher teachers' sense of efficacy. Therefore, mastery experience of success in learning and applying the knowledge and theories taught in Educational Psychology is important to ensure that teachers will have high efficacy. The content of Educational Psychology must not be based on an abstract psychology foundation but it should focus more on real classroom situations (Doyle & Carter, 1996).

It is also noted that none of the demographic variables or the school effects

has resulted in any significant influence towards teachers' sense of efficacy. This result is also supported by the model found from the multiple regression analysis. The implication is that the sense of efficacy of novice teachers in the state of Selangor is merely depending on the three types of sources of efficacy. The moderating variables were not the factors to be considered to improve the sense of efficacy among these novice teachers.

CONCLUSION

Based on the results of the current research work, there are several conclusions that can be made. The novice teachers in Selangor have a moderate level of teaching efficacy. The teachers rated their efficacy for instructional strategies the highest, followed by efficacy for classroom management, and efficacy for student engagement. The majority novice teachers in Selangor believe that social persuasion is the source for them to gain their efficacy and to apply Educational Psychology in teaching. This is followed by vicarious experience, and physiological or emotional arousal. The majority of novice teachers rated

TABLE 7
The Estimates of Model Coefficients

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
Constant	.88	.29		3.01	.003
Mastery Experience	.80	.08	.69	9.64	.000
Vicarious Experience	-.06	.11	-.05	-.54	.589
Social Persuasion	.09	.12	.07	.72	.472

their mastery experience of application of Educational Psychology in teaching the lowest.

Male and female novice teachers were not significantly different in their overall sense of efficacy, as well as for the three subscales in TSES, namely, students' engagement, instructional strategy, and classroom management. Similarly, different ethnic groups were not significantly different in their levels of overall teachers' sense of efficacy, efficacy for student engagement, efficacy for instructional strategy, and efficacy for classroom management. There was no significant difference in the teachers' sense of efficacy scores for teachers who teach their major or minor subjects and for the teachers not teaching their major or minor subjects. In particular, mastery experience of application of Educational Psychology in teaching was found to be strongly correlated to teachers' sense of efficacy. The positive and significant correlation between the two variables indicated that the teachers who rated high in their gaining of confidence in applying Educational Psychology through mastery experience scored highly in their level of sense of efficacy.

There was a moderately low and significant positive correlation between the teachers' sense of efficacy and teachers' vicarious experience of application of Educational Psychology in teaching. This result indicated that the observation or visualization of another's effective application of Educational Psychology in the classroom serves as the third source

for highly efficacious teachers. Social persuasion to apply Educational Psychology in teaching was found to have a moderately strong and significant positive correlation with the teachers' sense of efficacy. This indicated that social persuasion was the second important source for highly efficacious teachers. A weak and significant negative correlation between teachers' sense of efficacy and teachers' physiological or emotional arousal in applying Educational Psychology in teaching was also found in the study. This implies that novice teachers with higher level of physiological or emotional arousal state tend to have lower sense of teaching efficacy. The multiple regression analysis showed that novice the teachers' mastery experience, social persuasion and vicarious experience of application of Educational Psychology in teaching were the predictors of teachers' sense of efficacy. However, due to the suppressor effect, it is concluded that highly efficacious teachers will only be influenced by the social persuasion and vicarious experience when they are fully experiencing the mastery experience in applying Educational Psychology in the classroom.

In short, the results of the study have implied that novice teachers' sense of efficacy is at the moderate level and effort must be done to improve this situation. A crucial aspect to keep in mind is that the sources that are perceived as influential, namely the social persuasion and vicarious experience are to be emphasized in the following plans and suggestions. This is to assure the effectiveness of the implemented

strategies aimed at easing application of the knowledge in Educational Psychology for better adaptation of novice teachers to the new environment. Besides that, the teaching and learning of Educational Psychology course in universities must also be modified to create a successful experience and relaxing learning environment among the learners. By starting the teaching profession with mastery experiences and positive emotion, novice teachers will become more prepared towards the real complex school environment and hence, have higher confidence to manage problems.

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Learning Styles among Students Pursing Entrepreneurship Course in Higher Education

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of the study was to identify the learning styles among entrepreneurship course students in higher education. The sample comprised of 270 students who had enrolled in Entrepreneurship Course as a compulsory course in their respective programme of studies at Universiti Putra Malaysia (UPM). Concrete Processing learning style was found to be the most preferred learning style. In particular, technical programme students, science programme students and literature programme students rated Concrete Processing as their most preferred learning styles. The findings of this study are encouraging and have shown a favourable development of entrepreneurship education in universities. The learning styles need to be identified clearly because there is a need to access and apply knowledge for problem solving purposes. They enable policy makers to know how the students learn, how they transform information to knowledge, and how they transfer new knowledge into applications. Students' learning styles can help lecturers to fully understand the learning process and also how a student acquires knowledge. As it can be recommended from the findings of this study, entrepreneurship education should focus on the learning of entrepreneurial competencies needed by the students who must be equipped to reproduce or acquire existing business. Learning entrepreneurial competencies can increase the interest and entrepreneurial intention of the students to choose entrepreneurship as a career. This can offer a solution for the current graduate unemployment problem in Malaysia.

Keywords: Learning styles, entrepreneurship course, literature, technical and science programme

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INTRODUCTION

Entrepreneurship Education

Many universities and higher education institutions in Malaysia have recently introduced courses related

to entrepreneurship or majors in entrepreneurship. Entrepreneurship courses are aimed to provide undergraduates to create awareness of entrepreneurship as a career possibility. According to Davidsson and Henrekson (2002), entrepreneurship is an essential factor of the economic performance of a country. The role of entrepreneurship in promoting economic growth and job creation in any nation is now well recognized.

Angelo's (1993) classic article stresses that an investigation of students' learning styles helps teachers to know how their students learn more effectively. Since entrepreneurial competencies can be taught and learned, understanding their learning styles can help to improve teaching performance and enhance student learning. Developing and delivering entrepreneurship can be significantly affected by many factors. According to Custers and Boshuizen (1997), learning is essentially an internal process; only learners themselves can decide to learn and to act upon their learning. Changes occur in the way students learn, what students consider as important, and the context of that learning (Slotnick, 2001; Lloyd, 2007).

Entrepreneurship education which normally includes an exploration on starting and growing a business is often thought to be a likely subject for business discipline students but not for non-business discipline students like technical, science and literature/art students. According to Othman Talib *et al.* (2009), teachers need to identify the learning preferences and learning styles

of their students. The understanding of how best the students learn could then be matched with pedagogical approaches that are deemed appropriate for learning to take place at an optimal level. Thus, it is essential for educators to identify their students' learning styles in order to help them learn effectively and efficiently. An understanding of their learning style will provide students with the knowledge about their learning strengths and weaknesses and also make them more positive towards learning. On the relationship between learners' learning styles and entrepreneurship, Zaidatol *et al.* (2005) argue that learning styles play an important role in learning entrepreneurship at university. Cooney and Murray (2008) suggest that internationally, entrepreneurship or enterprise based modules are increasingly being incorporated into non-business courses and multi-disciplinary approach (Hill *et al.*, 2003; European Commission, 2008), and more significantly, "interest and demand in these modules is growing among science, engineering, and arts faculties." (Cooney & Murray 2008, p. 28). Therefore, there is a pressing need to broaden up the focus from merely business students to learners from other programmes such as science, technical and literature studies.

RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The objectives of the research reported in this study were:

- To determine students' preferred learning styles in learning entrepreneurship.
- To determine the students'

preferred learning styles in learning entrepreneurship based on their academic programmes of study.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

In order to accomplish the afore-mentioned objectives, the following research questions were posed:

- What are students' preferred learning styles in learning entrepreneurship?
- What are the students' preferred learning styles in learning entrepreneurship based on their academic programme of studies?

LITERATURE REVIEW

Learning Style

Learning styles are simply different approaches or ways of learning. One of the ways to understand how learners learn is to investigate their learning styles. Dunn and Griggs (2003) observed that the academic achievement of student is related to how they learn. There is no single way to define learning styles. Boyle, Duffy, and Dunleavy (2003) noted that learning is complex and there are gaps to study learning styles and effective learning strategies to examine the interrelationships of different aspects and components of learning. Acharaya (2002) argues that the theories of learning styles can be compacted and examined in four dimensions: 1) personality of the Learners; 2) Information Processing; 3) Social and Situational Interaction among Learners; and 4) Instructional Methods.

Stewart and Felicetti (1992)

define learning styles as those learning opportunities that stimulate a student to learn. Fleming (2001) defines learning style as "as individual's preferred ways of gathering, organizing, and thinking about information (p. 1). Vermunt (1996) conceptualizes learning styles not just as generic (habitual) or preferred processing strategies, but rather as consistent patterns of learning activities that are systematically linked to learning beliefs and motivational orientations.

Vermunt considers the way a student learns as a learning style (Vermunt, 1992, 1996, 1998). Learning styles consist of four aspects, namely, processing strategies, regulation strategies, learning orientation and learning conception (Vermunt & Vermetten, 2004, p. 362). Processing strategies are thinking activities that students use to process information in order to obtain certain learning results, such as knowing the most important points in the study material. Metacognitive regulation strategies are activities students use to monitor, plan and control the processing strategies and their own learning processes. Mental models of learning are conceptions and misconceptions students have about learning processes. Learning orientations are personal aims, intentions, expectations, doubts that students may experience during their educational career (Vittorio *et al.*, 1999).

Related Studies on Learning Styles

Various studies have been conducted all over the world on learning styles. In a study in South America, Lima *et al.* (2006) aimed

at identifying the learning styles of a group of cardiology residents (n=149, aged 29 (+2.7) with 63% being males) undergoing a training programme at the University of Buenos Aires. They also sought to identify the correlations of these styles. Data of their study were obtained through a 120-question survey developed by Vermunt and colleagues at the University of Tilburg in Holland. The study was carried out from April 2001 to April 2002, which identified four different learning styles: construction directed, reproduction-directed, application-directed, and undirected. In order to analyze the level of correlation with learning styles, the predominant learning styles were oriented towards knowledge application. In terms of variables, no differences regarding gender were detected. Those with a low final average registered a tendency towards reproduction-directed learning style, while the residents at public/state medical centres indicated construction-directed learning style tendencies. An application-directed learning style was found to predominate in this group of residents.

In an extensive review of literature on learning styles, Vermunt and Vermetten (2004) focused on a series of studies that have in common (a) the use of the Inventory of Learning Styles (ILS), an instrument aimed at measuring several components of student learning, namely, cognitive processing strategies, metacognitive regulation strategies, conceptions of learning, and learning orientations, and/or (b) an integrative learning theory focussing on the interplay between self-regulation and

external regulation of learning processes as a theoretical framework. One of the objectives reviewed is to increase the integration of existing conceptualizations of student learning components and to link metacognitive aspects of students' learning to students' cognitive processing strategies and study motivation. In the theoretical part, this conceptualization is linked to the theoretical notions on teaching and instruction and on the interplay between learning and teaching. The review covers the theoretical framework and conceptualization of students' learning, a description of the instrument, the internal structure of learning strategies, conceptions, and orientations in different educational contexts, as well as developments in learning patterns during the school career, consistency and variability in students' use of learning strategies, dissonance in students' regulation of learning processes, the relationships between learning patterns, personal/contextual factors, learning outcomes and process-oriented instruction.

Research on learning styles has been carried out extensively in many developed countries like the United Kingdom and the United States of America. In Malaysia, research on learning styles has started recently, so the number of studies done is relatively lower than those in the UK or the US. This section presents a review of learning style studies in Malaysia.

Syed Jamal Abdul Nasir bin Syed Mohamad and Ahmad Saat Daud Mohamad (2005) aimed at identifying the learning styles of distance learners at the Institute

of Education Development, Universiti Teknologi MARA in Malaysia. Felder's Learning Styles Index (LSI) was used to analyze 63 male and 99 female students. Based on the results of their study, banking studies students tended to have a sensory style as compared to finance and business studies students who were more inclined towards a visual style. The results also showed that the mass communication and public administration students dominated in the visual and sensory styles.

Moreover, Sarimah Abd Razak, Ramlah Hamzah, and Rosini Abu and Zakaria Kasa (2008) studied the learning styles of 635 technical secondary schools students in Malaysia. The research findings showed that majority of the Civil, Mechanical, and Electronic Engineering students were accommodators and convergers. Meanwhile, Commerce and Agricultural Science students were accommodators, convergers and assimilators. These researchers recommended that teachers use instructional strategies which accommodate their students' learning styles. Four learning styles are defined based on the relative position of an individual along the two dimensions: convergence, divergence, assimilation, and accommodation. Convergers use abstract conceptualization to perform active experimentation. Convergers' action is based on the abstract analysis of the task and projected strategies for successful completion of the task. Divergers apply reflective observation to concrete experience and usually generate a creative solution. Divergers are most often creative learners

because they tend to consider multiple strategies for learning and problem solving. Assimilators, whose primary concern is the explanation of their observation, tend to combine abstract conceptualization and reflective observation. Assimilators get mainly involved with refining abstract theories rather than developing workable strategies and solutions. Accommodators use active experimentation and concrete experience and have a clear preference for hands-on learning. On the contrary, accommodators tend to act promptly and adapt to diverse situations. Kolb's Learning Style Inventory (LSI) scores reflect an individual's relative preference with respect to the four learning orientations and the corresponding learning style.

Additionally, Norhidayah Ramli (2008) carried out a comparative study on the learning styles of second year education (living skills) students (n=50) and the teaching styles of their lecturers at Universiti Teknologi Malaysia. The researcher found that the students felt drowsy during the class and recommended teaching styles which match learners' learning styles in order to ensure effective teaching and learning.

A Framework of Learning Styles

As one of the prominent figures in the area of learning styles, Vermunt (1996) has been interested in finding out how far individuals maintain a degree of consistency across learning situations. He defines learning style as a coherent collection of learning activities and orientation that learners typically apply. It deals not only with cognitive

processing, but also with motivation, effort and feelings (and their regulation). Within Vermunt's (1992 & 1996) framework, four learning styles are defined, namely, meaning-directed, application-directed, reproduction-directed, and undirected.

In order to fulfil the objectives of this study, only two domains of Vermunt's (1990) framework of learning styles, namely, 'cognitive processing' and 'regulation of learning' have to be considered. The other domains, namely, 'learning orientations' and 'learning approaches' were not relevant. Thus, they were excluded from its theoretical framework. Table 1 presents a detailed account of 'cognitive processing' and 'regulation of learning' as the domains of Vermunt's framework that were considered in the theoretical framework of this study.

As it can be observed from the table, in terms of their cognitive processing, learners can be divided into four groups. The first

group that follows 'scale deep processing' seeks for the relationships between concepts and is interested in building an overview of them. 'Concrete processors', on the other hand, find it more helpful to use some concrete examples in their learning activities. The third group of learners follow 'scale stepwise processing' that enables them to highlight the main points. There is a final group of learners, according to Vermunt, that do not often process, and therefore, they find it hard to study.

In terms of regulation of learning, Vermunt also divides learners into four categories. The first category belongs to those learners who are self-guided since they are intrinsically curious to find out what keeps them from learning. The second category belongs to those learners who are both external and self-regulated. They use problems and examples for evaluating their understandings of concepts that are

TABLE 1
Learning styles and their components (Vermunt, 1992 & 1996)

Cognitive processing	Scale deep processing	Concrete processing	Scale stepwise processing	Hardly any processing
	Look for relationships between key concepts/theories: build an overview	Relate topics to everyday experience: look for concrete example and uses	Select main points to retain	Find study difficult; read and re-read
Regulation of learning	Mostly self regulation	Both external and self regulation	Mostly external regulation	Lack of regulation
	Self-guided by interest and their own questions; diagnose and correct poor understanding	Think of problems and example to test understanding, especially of abstract concepts	Use objectives to check understanding; self-test; rehearse	Not adaptive

particularly abstract. The learners in the third category tend to rehearse or self-test. Finally, the last group lacks regulation and is not adaptive at all. It was based on this framework that Vermunt (1992) developed the Inventory of Learning Style (ILS). Based on these previous studies, Vermunt's (1990) framework of learning styles was chosen as the most suitable for the purpose of the present study. The researcher found the domains of this framework and the subscales of Vermunt's inventory directly relevant to the objectives of the present study.

METHODOLOGY

Design of the Study

The study followed the quantitative method. In particular, a survey technique was used to collect the data. The researcher used a descriptive survey and a questionnaire for the selected respondents at Universiti Putra Malaysia. Descriptive statistics, employing measure of central tendency like the mean, median, and standard deviation, was used to obtain an accurate measurement of learning style.

Population and Sample

The population of this study comprised the first and second year students who had registered in the compulsory Entrepreneurship Course at Universiti Putra Malaysia (UPM). The population of the students stood at 903, according to the Registration Department of the Faculty. The actual research focus was on the students who underwent the Entrepreneurship Course

which was taught as a core subject in UPM to Science, Literature and Technical students (n=270) in three different faculties.

Sampling Method and Sample Size

Purposive sampling method was used to determine the appropriate sample. As it was mentioned, a group of Science, Literature and Technical students, who had registered in a compulsory Entrepreneurship Course, were selected for this study. The logic behind this choice was that Science, Literature and Technical students presumably came from different academic areas and were therefore more likely to indicate different learning preferences. Certainly, selecting the sample from other majors and faculties would have added to the reliability of the findings, but the researcher was urged to limit the scope of the study to ensure that she could collect appropriate data to fulfil the objectives of the study, considering the time and financial constraints. The sample size that was determined was a total of 270 students who were randomly selected from the population.

Data Collection Procedure

A structured questionnaire was used to collect the primary data. This data collection method was deemed as more appropriate than other possible methods due to the large size of the respondents. An additional advantage of questionnaires is that they can guarantee confidentiality, which can lead to eliciting more reliable and valid responses (Ary *et al.*, 1990).

Prior to data collection, preliminary preparations were made, which included

meeting the administrative officials in the respective faculties in UPM to get the permission to conduct the research. Additionally, lists of the students had to be retrieved from the respective faculties. The researcher also met the course coordinators to get their permission to administer the questionnaires. The researcher administered the questionnaire herself and also assisted the respondents should they encounter any difficulties in responding the questionnaire. The respondents were given 25 minutes to respond to all the items stated in the questionnaire before it was collected.

Data Analysis

A statistical technique was applied to interpret the collected data into meaningful research results for the study. The analysis for this study was carried out using SPSS version 16. The statistical methods used included a descriptive statistics that comprises frequency count, percentages, means, and standard deviation. The level of significance was set at .05.

Instrumentation

In order to meet the objectives of the research, information covering four key areas was investigated. For this purpose, three questionnaires were administered as one to the target respondents. The first questionnaire sought to elicit information on students' personal and academic backgrounds. This demographic questionnaire contained 11 questions on the respondents' personal (Section A: 4

questions) and educational (Section B: 7 questions) particulars. Section C contained two selected domains of the Inventory of Learning Styles (ILS) with 50 questions. Table 2 shows the structure of the survey questionnaire.

TABLE 2
Structure of Survey Questionnaire

Section	Title	No. of Items
A	Personal information	4
B	Educational particulars	7
C	Inventory of Learning Styles (ILS)	50
Total number of items		61

Learning Style Inventory

The instruments selected for this study were chosen based on the research questions and the purpose of the study. One of the objectives of the study was to determine the learning styles of the students. A variety of instruments are available in the literature to study learning styles. The most appropriate instrument for this study is Vermunt's (1992) Inventory of Learning Styles. The ILS was originally designed by Vermunt (1994) for research in the Dutch higher education sector, and it is based on an integrative theory and conceptualization of students' learning that encompasses students' processing strategies, regulation strategies, learning orientations and mental models of learning. Vermunt (1994, 1998, 2004) provides an excellent review of the development, validation and application of the ILS.

The Inventory of Learning Styles (ILS) aims at measuring several components of student learning, namely, (a) a deep processing strategy which combines the learning activities of relating, structuring, and critical processing, (b) a stepwise processing strategy which reflects the learning activities of memorizing, rehearsing, and analyzing, and (c) a concrete processing strategy with concretizing and applying as its major learning activities. Regulation strategies refer to students' activities for regulating and controlling the processing strategies and they therefore indirectly lead to learning outcomes.

The domains of learning styles selected comprised cognitive processing strategies and regulation strategies. The selected domains of Vermunt's (1990) instrument include the following sub-scales:

Domain I: Processing strategies

1. Deep Processing
 - b. Relating and structuring
 - c. Critical processing
2. Stepwise Processing
 - a. Memorising and rehearsing
 - b. Analysing
3. Concrete Processing

Domain II: Regulation Strategies

4. Self-Regulation
 - a. Self-regulation of learning processes and results
 - b. Self-regulation of learning content

5. External Regulation
 - a. Subscale external regulation of learning processes
 - b. Subscale external regulation of learning results
6. Lack of Regulation

The Inventory of Learning Styles was developed for use in higher education (Busato *et al.*, 1998; Vermetten, Lodewijks, & Vermunt, 1999; Vermunt, 1998). The instrument has been rigorously tested for its validity and the findings have indicated that its components are based on sound educational theories (Boyle *et al.*, 2003; Markham, 2004). Research findings have also indicated that this instrument provides a comprehensive measure of respondents' cognitive, affective, and regulative abilities (Busato *et al.*, 1999; Coffield *et al.*, 2004). Vermunt (1994) reported good internal consistencies for the different scales of the ILS, with alpha coefficients varying between 0.68 and 0.93. Many researchers have investigated its validity and reliability (e.g., Boyle *et al.*, 2003; Coffield *et al.*, 2004; Severiens, 1997; Vermunt, 1998). The instrument has a history of adaptability to the study context (Ajisuksmo & Vermunt, 1999; as cited in Vermetten, Vermunt, Lodewijks, 1999). It has been used for determining the learning styles of adult students (Van Eekelen *et al.*, 2005; Vermunt & Vermetten, 2004) and has a history of international use (Boyle *et al.*, 2003; Vermetten, Vermunt, & Lodewijks, 1999).

Before selecting it as one of the

instruments of the study, the researcher made an analytical examination on the full set of the Inventory of Learning Styles (ILS). A panel of experts was also consulted before making decision to use the ILS. The instrument has other domains, but this study only concentrated on two domains which included processing strategies and regulation strategies. Table 3 shows the selected constructs of the ILS and their respective sub-scales.

The students' learning approaches and regulation strategies were determined using 50 items. They were scored on a five-point Likert scale with scores ranging from 1 to 5, each value signifying a different frequency of occurrence. as follows: (1) I do this seldom or never; (2) I do this sometimes; (3) I do this regularly; (4) I do this often; and (5) I do this always (Vermunt, 1996). Section C of the questionnaire (see Appendix) shows this particular instrument. The ILS scale scores were computed by adding up the item scores. There is no reversed scoring. Both the first (processing strategies) and the second domains (regulation strategies) consisted of 25 items.

An example of a processing strategy statement, belonging to the subscale "relating and structuring" is: "I try to combine the subjects that are dealt with separately in a course into one whole". An example of a regulation strategy statement, belonging to the subscale "self-regulation of learning processes and results" is: "To test my learning progress, I try to answer questions about the subject matter which

I make up myself". An example of a learning orientations statement, belonging to the scale "certificate directed" is: "The main goal I pursue in my studies is to pass exams". An example of a mental model of learning statement, belonging to the scale "stimulating education" is: "The teacher should motivate and encourage me".

As English was not the first language of the respondents, a professional translator translated the instrument into Malay language, the official language of the respondents. In order to test the accuracy of the translated version, the items were back-translated into English by another translator. The original and the back-translated versions of the questionnaire were then cross-checked to avoid probable inaccuracies.

In order to validate the instruments further, a pilot test was carried out on a small group of the target samples (n=30). The commonly accepted threshold value in social sciences is an alpha of .70 or higher in order to consider a questionnaire reliable because at alpha .70, the standard error of measurement will be over half of a standard deviation (Tuckman, 1978). Table 4 illustrates the reliability test results. As shown in the table, the Cronbach alpha test results reveal a good internal consistency with the alpha coefficient of .858 for deep processing, .875 for stepwise processing, .606 for concrete processing, .908 for self regulation, .706 for external regulation and .765 for lack of regulation, respectively.

TABLE 3
Constructs and sub-scales of the ILS

Constructs	Sub-scale
Cognitive processing	Deep processing:
	A) relating and structuring
	B) critical processing
	Stepwise processing:
	A) memorizing and rehearsing
	B) analyzing
	Concrete processing
Regulation of learning	Self-regulation:
	A) learning process and results
	B) learning content
	External regulation:
	A) learning process
	B) learning results

TABLE 4
Reliability test results for the ILS

Component	Cronbach Alpha
Domain I: Processing strategies	
Deep Processing	.858
Stepwise processing	.875
Concrete processing	.606
Domain II: Regulation strategies	
Self-Regulation	.908
External regulation	.706
Lack of regulation	.765

RESULTS

Students' Preferred Learning Styles in the Entrepreneurship Course at Universiti Putra Malaysia

The first research question focused on the students' preferred learning styles. Table 5 illustrates the mean and standard deviation of each learning style. Processing strategies Domain ($M=3.16$, $SD=.62$) and Regulation

Strategies Domain ($M=3.08$, $SD=.60$) indicated a moderate level and were found to be the most preferred learning styles. External learning style ($M=3.16$, $SD=.55$) was the second most frequent, followed by Self Regulation ($M=3.10$, $SD=.61$), Step Processing ($M=3.09$, $SD=.58$), and Deep Processing ($M=3.07$, $SD=.62$). Finally, Lack of Regulation learning style ($M=2.98$ and $SD=.64$) was the least preferred.

Students' Preferred Learning Styles at Universiti Putra Malaysia Based on Their Academic Programmes of Study

The respondents were students from Literature (14.1%), Technical (11.9%) and Science programme (74.1%). Table 6 shows the students' preferred learning style based on their academic programmes. As indicated in the table, Concrete Processing ($M=3.18$, $SD=.60$) was the most preferred learning style among Literature students. The lowest mean score related to these students' was Deep Processing ($M=3.11$, $SD=.51$). As for the Technical students, their most preferred learning style turned out to be Concrete Processing ($M=3.37$, $SD=.64$). The least preferred learning style of this group was Lack of Regulation ($M=3.11$, $SD=.59$). Just like the Technical students, the Science students rated Concrete Processing ($M=3.32$, $SD=.70$) and Lack of Regulation ($M=2.96$, $SD=.66$) as their most and least preferred learning styles, respectively.

The results indicated that concrete processing was the most and lack of regulation was the least preferred learning style among UPM students. It was also

TABLE 5
Respondents' Learning Style Preferences

Lear ning Styles	low 1-2.33	Moderate 2.34-3.66	high 3.67-5.00	Mean	Standard deviation	Rank
Processing strategies Domain		✓		3.16	.62	
1. Deep Processing		✓		3.07	.62	5
2. Stepwise Processing		✓		3.09	.58	4
3. Concrete Processing		✓		3.30	.68	1
Regulation Strategies Domain		✓		3.08	.60	
4. Self Regulation		✓		3.10	.61	3
5. External		✓		3.16	.55	2
6. Lack Of Regulation	✓			2.98	.64	6

TABLE 6
Students' preferred learning styles based on their academic programmes

Programme	The most preferred learning style	The least preferred learning style
Literature	Concrete Processing Mean=3.18 Standard Deviation = .60	Deep Processing Mean=2.98 Standard Deviation =.51
Technical	Concrete Processing Mean=3.37 Standard Deviation =.64	Lack of Regulation Mean=3.11 Standard Deviation =.59
Science	Concrete Processing Mean=3.32 Standard Deviation =.70	Lack of Regulation Mean=2.96 Standard Deviation =.66

found that concrete Processing learning style was the most preferred learning style of the students in all the three programmes of study, including Literature, Technical, and Science.

DISCUSSION

The findings indicate that the participants rated their learning styles moderately in explaining their perception on overall Processing strategies Domain (M=3.16,

SD=.62) and Regulation Strategies Domain (M=3.08, SD=.60). In addition, the results showed the mean scores for both Processing strategies (3.16) and Regulation Strategies (3.08) indicated a moderate level. Concrete Processing (M=3.30, SD=.68) learning style was found to be the most preferred learning style. External learning style (M =3.16; SD=.55) was the second most frequent, followed by Self Regulation (M =3.10; SD=.61), Step Processing (M

=3.09; SD=.58), and Deep Processing (M=3.07; SD=.62). Finally, Lack of Regulation learning style (M=2.98, SD=.64) was the least preferred.

Interestingly, the results of this study are not in line with those by Marambe *et al.* (2007). They carried out a study to compare the learning strategies, orientations and conceptions measured by means of a validated Sri Lankan version of the Inventory of Learning Styles (ILS) at the end of the first academic year for a traditional curriculum student group and a new curriculum student group. The results of their study showed that the students of the new curriculum reported greater use of critical processing (M=2.32, SD=.87), concrete processing (M=3.19, SD=.87) and memorising and rehearsing strategies (M=2.41, SD=.73) during the first year of the course. Marambe *et al.* (2007) reported the Asian students lack proficiency in English and need to rely on critical processing, memorising and rehearsing strategies to learn.

Zaidatol (2005) found that lecturers often utilized the lecture method followed by examination (M=3.85) and discussion method (M=3.71), respectively. Moderately utilized methods by the lecturers were providing reading materials, conducting tutorials and emphasizing group learning as well as using projects and case studies. Lectures seldom utilized games and simulations, field trips or visits, laboratory work, using diary or log book and film. Based on the results of the present study, it can be concluded that the way the students

are taught does not match their learning styles. This may make the lessons boring for the learners and may even result in the failure of the transfer of information to knowledge.

As for the students' preferred learning styles based on their academic programmes of study, Technical students (M=3.37, SD=.64), Science students (M=3.32, SD=.70) and Literature students rated Concrete Processing (M=3.18, SD=.60) as their most preferred learning styles, respectively. According to Vermunt (2005), these students preferred applying the learnt subject matters by connecting the new knowledge to their own experiences and by using in practice what they learned in a course leading to knowledge integration. The results of this study are consistent with Eilington's (1996) who emphasized the importance of role-plays in the teaching and learning process that could allow students to experience real-life situations in a protected environment.

CONCLUSION

Concrete Processing (M=3.30, SD=.68) learning style was found to be the most preferred learning style. Technical students, science students and literature students rated Concrete Processing as their most preferred learning style. The findings of this study are encouraging and showing a favourable development of entrepreneurship education in universities.

Students' learning styles need to be identified clearly because there is a need to access and apply knowledge for problem solving purposes. They enable

policy makers to understand how students learn, how they transform information into knowledge, and how they transfer new knowledge into applications. Moreover, students' learning styles can help lecturers to fully understand the learning process, learn how a student acquires knowledge and conceptualization processing information. As it can be recommended from the findings of this study, entrepreneurship education should focus on the entrepreneurial competencies needed by the students who must be equipped to reproduce or acquire existing business. Learning entrepreneurial competencies can increase the interest and entrepreneurial intention of the students to choose entrepreneurship as a career. More importantly, this can offer a solution for the current graduate unemployment problem in Malaysia.

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***Sukuk* Securities and Conventional Bonds: Evidence of Significant Differences**

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ABSTRACT

Sukuk securities have similar features with conventional bonds. The financial press has, however, inappropriately referred to *sukuk* as Islamic bonds. This paper investigates *sukuk* securities empirically by first examining the yields to maturities of *sukuk* securities and conventional bonds of various issuers and maturities. Tests of differences in performance of the two classes of securities and Granger causality tests substantiate that these securities are different. This paper identifies some significant differences between the yield curves of *sukuk* securities and those of conventional bonds of the same issuers for the same term and rating. Results show significant differences between the average yields of *sukuk* and those of conventional bonds with the same quality and term issued by the same issuers from 2005 to 2012. Granger causality tests confirm that the yields of bonds do not Granger-cause the yields of *sukuk*, verifying no causality between the two. There is strong empirical evidence that the two types of debt instruments are not the same. This prompts re-examination of investment advisory and valuation methodology currently applied in the *sukuk* industry of 11 capital markets.

Keywords: *Sukuk*, Bond, Yield Curve, Yield-To-Maturity, Islamic Finance, Islamic Bond, Fixed Income Securities, Securitization, Debt Capital Market, and Malaysia

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INTRODUCTION

The aim of this paper is to report quite strong evidence on a current topic of intense interest in the Bursa Malaysia. Should the new debt instrument *sukuk* be considered as equivalent to the conventional bonds so that the *sukuk* certificates are properly described

as Islamic bonds? The financial press has dubbed *sukuk* as Islamic bonds, and we take this policy issue to be empirically verified. To do that, we collected relevant data series of *sukuk* and conventional bonds issued by the (i) same issuers, (ii) for the same terms, and (iii) with similar ratings and traded in Kuala Lumpur from 2005 to 2011. The research design is simple in that if these types of debt instruments are the same, matched samples of *sukuk* and bonds (with controls for quality ratings, term and issuer) must behave in the same manner. Should the actual behaviour of the two types be the same, then both may be termed as “bonds”, one being Islamic and the other being conventional as is the current industry practice: see also Godlewski, Turk-Ariss, & Weill (2011) on differences in the two securities. Our paper provides empirical verification for the distinctive difference between *sukuk* issues and bonds.

A close study of the origin, approval and contract conditions of issue of a *sukuk* show that *sukuk* issues and bonds are markedly different. The first key difference is that the yield to investors from a *sukuk* issue is based on profit shares, and is certainly not fixed and pre-determined, which is a requirement under Shari’ah law. The second difference is that part of the assets of the issuer is transferred to, or at least allow for legal claims from the date of issue, by a special purpose company, which is owned jointly

by the investors.¹ These critical differences, one would have thought, ought to have made the conventional bond, based on pre-agreed interest and issued without collaterals as notes, behave differently from that of a *sukuk*. This public issue debate has not examined this problem to date. This paper attempts to address this gap in the literature.

Sukuk securities are funding instruments traded in about 12 markets across the world as traded instruments and in about 20 markets as private issues. The market has grown to about US\$ 840 billion since this type of funding instruments was first issued in the 1990s (Ariff, Safari, & Shamsher, 2012). Some fundamental differences between the two financial instruments are evident, and call into question if the *sukuk* could be described by the financial press and scholars as Islamic bonds. These differences lie mainly in the very underlying nature or purpose of funding as well as the way these types of securities are structured. Both *sukuk* (if listed and traded) and conventional bond securities are traded in secondary markets with the same trading mechanism, so in a dual financial system context as in Malaysia, *sukuk* securities are priced in the market,

¹There are some six variations in this new funding instrument, and these are structured differently from the conventional bonds. Essential features of this type of funding are: profit-shared rewards instead of interest; asset backing with assets owned by the lenders; funds to be used for specific purposes with some purposes forbidden. For more details see Ariff, Iqbal and Shamsher (2012), Jobst *et al.* (2008), Rohmatunnisa (2008), Sole (2008), Tariq (2004), Tariq and Dar (2007) and Wilson (2008).

presumably by experts in the market, in ways similar to the conventional bills and bonds.

This paper reports our findings from analysing the yields of seemingly look-alike securities from both types. This objective is set for this paper in order to determine whether securities issued by the same issuer i.e. with the same risk class, for the same period of time i.e. for the same duration or maturity, as ethical Islamic *sukuk* certificates and conventional bonds traded in the same market in Malaysia provide similar yields to maturity. In case the yields are the same for identical securities from both types, one may conclude that the existing valuation model for conventional bonds may be applicable also for such Islamic products i.e. *sukuk*, and that the two instruments are the same.

The rest of the paper is organised as follows: The theoretical aspect of pricing is described in Section 2 with references to *sukuk* and conventional bonds. We also adopt Granger causality test to verify if there is causality in either direction for the two types of securities. Since the literature on *sukuk* securities does not cover this issue at all, we choose to cover the relevant literature on conventional bonds and discuss the potential relationship of *sukuk* to conventional instruments. A description of the methodology and the data set to be used is in section 3. The findings are presented in a separate section, Section 4, followed by concluding remarks in the final section of the paper.

FIXED-INCOME THEORY AND SUKUK

Williams (1938) is the source of the valuation model applied to price the conventional bond. This theory suggests a theoretical value to the bondholder of a conventional bond as the present value of the stream of payments – the interest coupons and the redemption or face value - discounted by the market interest rate:

$$P = \frac{M}{(1+r)^N} + \sum_{t=1}^N \frac{C}{(1+r)^t} \quad (1)$$

where P is the market price of a bond, C is the amount of periodic coupon payments pre-fixed at the time of issue; M is the amount of maturity payment (i.e. the face value of a bond certificate); r is the discount rate (i.e. market required yield at the time of pricing) and N is the issue tenure (i.e. number of payments). An important issue here is whether the *sukuk* instrument, which has a fixed rental payment at regular intervals under a lease agreement for an *ijarah sukuk*, should or should not be priced using this equation. This issue is relevant because there is no valuation justification made for its application in this manner, although the market participants appear to do so. One can only examine this valuation issue after ensuring via an empirical test as in this paper as to whether the two types are the same.

Yield-To-Maturity (YTM) is the internal rate of return earned by a bondholder who buys a bond certificate today, at market price, and holds it until maturity, and thereby

being entitled to all coupon payments as well as maturity payment (Ariff, Cheng, & Neoh, 2009; Bodie, Ariff, & Rosa, 2007; Cox, Ingersoll, & Ross, 1985). There are few accepted methods of computing the yields, and the industry has adopted methods which are equivalent to the method specified in Cox *et al.* cited above.

If the *sukuk* funding instruments are the same as the above, then this valuation theory applies squarely also as the valuation theory for the *sukuk* instrument. Applying the above theory and deriving the yield for (i) bonds and (ii) *sukuk* will provide statistics to confirm if the two are priced by the same theorem. If identical, the two are the same; otherwise the behaviour of one is different from the other. Given the complex structuring of the latter with several markedly different features of the *sukuk* from those of the simple conventional bond, it appears that the results may not be the same. By observing the difference in pricing behaviour, this issue can be tested.

Another means of testing the similarity is to apply causality modelling. By testing for causality in either or both directions, the yields of the conventional bonds traded in the same market as the *sukuk* certificates could be compared. This is done using the Granger causality test as being the most appropriate over other tests. The Granger causality (1969) theory is:

$$\begin{cases} X_t = \sum_{j=1}^m a_j \cdot X_{t-j} + \sum_{j=1}^m b_j \cdot Y_{t-j} + \varepsilon_t \\ Y_t = \sum_{j=1}^m c_j \cdot X_{t-j} + \sum_{j=1}^m d_j \cdot Y_{t-j} + \eta_t \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

If a variable Y (say bond yields) is Granger-caused by variable X (the *sukuk*), then causality exists, so the two are similarly behaving because the yields – the essential component of each of the two – are being caused by one type. The conventional bond market developed rapidly as the Malaysian economy expanded after World War II; the conventional bond market has a long history and experience (see Ariff et al. 2009). The *sukuk* market evolved in the late 1990s, and has rapidly grown because of its attraction for users as well as because of the push by the central bank to create this new market as the major funding market of the world. In terms of size, the *sukuk* market value, according to Bond Pricing Agency Malaysia, accounts for 40 per cent of both the *sukuk* and conventional funding markets at the end of 2011. The total value of *sukuk* securities outstanding in 2011 was more than RM 352 billion (US\$ 115 billion). It is reasonable to predict that causality may run from the conventional bond market to the *sukuk* market, given the larger size of the latter. If the causality tests establish causality, then the two markets may be characterised as being similar. Otherwise, the two are different types of funding markets. The test statistic is the F-ratio in the Granger equation.

METHODOLOGY AND TEST MODELS

To investigate the possible existence of a difference(s) between Yield-to-Maturity (YTM) of *sukuk* securities and YTM of conventional bonds with identical terms,

ratings and issuer, the pair-sample t-test is most appropriate: (see: Ott & Longnecker, 2000; Press, Teukolsky, Vetterling, & Flannery, 2007; Rubin, 1973). We compiled pairs of data consisting of Yield-to-Maturity of *sukuk* certificates and those of bonds. The test is the paired sample mean difference t-test using the standard error of the two samples. A parametric paired sample t-test is conducted using monthly yields of pairs of *sukuk* and the conventional securities with the same characteristics i.e. the same issuer, same ratings and maturity: daily yield series are used, and the yield on first traded day of the month is used.

The paired sample t-statistic is calculated using Equation 3:

$$t = \frac{\bar{Y}_s - \bar{Y}_c}{\sqrt{\frac{\sigma_s^2}{n} + \frac{\sigma_c^2}{n} - \frac{2\sigma_s\sigma_c\rho_{s,c}}{n}}} \quad (3)$$

where,

- t : t-statistics
- \bar{Y}_s : Mean Yield-to-Maturity of *sukuk* securities
- \bar{Y}_c : Mean Yield-to-Maturity of conventional bonds
- σ_s : standard deviation of yield of *sukuk*
- σ_c : standard deviation of yield of conventional bond and
- $\rho_{s,c}$: correlation coefficient between yield of *sukuk* and conventional bond

This test was performed on averages and medians of various types of issuers including sovereign (Government of

Malaysia and Central Bank of Malaysia)² quasi-sovereign (Cagamas Bhd)³ and Corporate (Corporate AAA) for various maturities ranging from 3 months to 20 years. YTM data for the first working day of each month for the period of August 2005 to April 2012 were collected from *BondStream* database made available by the Bond Pricing Agency to University Putra Malaysia.⁴ Data for daily prices and market index (Kuala Lumpur Composite Index, KLCI) were obtained from DataStream. The statistical tests were done using EViews software.

FINDINGS

Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics for various *sukuk* securities and conventional bonds are presented in Table 1 (detailed descriptive statistics for each type securities are presented in Tables 1A, 1B and 1C as Appendices). The aggregated statistics suggest that the mean yield of *sukuk* securities for all types of issuers and for all forms of maturities is 3.74 per cent. However, it varies by a minimum of 2.84 for *sukuk* securities issued by BNM with 3 months maturity, as given in Table 1A and the maximum of 5.78 for *sukuk* securities issued by AAA-rated corporate with 20 years maturity, as given

²Bank Negara Malaysia or BNM

³Malaysian National Mortgage Corporation

⁴Product of Bond Pricing Agency of Malaysia.

These yield data series from the market is similar to the YTM that could be computed using the available procedures such as in Cox, Ingersoll and Ross (1985). The market series has been checked and verified to be correct.

in the Table 1C. On the other hand, the mean yield of conventional bonds for all types of issuers and for all forms of maturities is 3.72 per cent. It varies by a minimum of 2.83 for conventional bills issued by BNM with 3 months maturity, as given in Table 1A and the maximum of 5.70 for conventional bonds issued by AAA-rated corporate with 20 years maturity, as given in Table 1C.

At issuer level (Table 1), the highest mean yield of *sukuk* securities for all issue-tenures is found for AAA-rated corporate issued *Sukuk* securities: the mean is 4.37 per cent, while the lowest mean yield is for *sukuk* issued by Bank Negara Malaysia with 2.94 per cent. On the other hand, the highest conventional mean yield for AAA-rated corporate issuers is 4.39 per cent, while the lowest mean yield is for conventional bills and notes issued by Bank Negara Malaysia with 2.92 per cent.

Yield Curves

The results of the analyses are presented in this section. The yields are calculated as the average Yield-to-Maturity of a *sukuk* security issued by a particular issuer for a certain period of time. For instance, yield of BNM's 3-month *sukuk* securities is the average of yield of this security as recorded by data providers in the period of study (2005-2012). Bond Pricing Agency Malaysia provides aggregate Yield-to-Maturity for securities issued by a particular class of issuer for a specific maturity. Hence, yields are in aggregated form based on observations collected on first day of each month. Yield curve is the relation between the cost of borrowing in a security issued by a firm over maturity period of a debt security for a given issuer for a given rated quality. Therefore, yield curves provide a common measure for comparison of market behaviour of *sukuk* and bond securities as

TABLE 1
Aggregate Descriptive Statistics of *Sukuk* vs. Conventional Bonds

	Mean	Median	Mode	Std. Dev	Range	Min	Max
Government							
Conventional	3.56	3.58	3.45	0.69	3.36	1.82	5.18
<i>Sukuk</i>	3.60	3.64	3.69	0.69	3.36	1.82	5.18
Bank Negara Malaysia							
Conventional	2.92	2.97	1.92	0.56	2.15	1.82	3.97
<i>Sukuk</i>	2.94	2.97	1.88	0.57	2.15	1.82	3.97
Cagamas							
Conventional	4.02	3.94	3.57	0.80	4.20	2.21	6.41
<i>Sukuk</i>	4.05	3.98	3.56	0.81	4.20	2.21	6.41
AAA Corporate							
Conventional	4.39	4.28	3.92	0.90	4.45	2.28	6.73
<i>Sukuk</i>	4.37	4.23	4.38	0.94	4.45	2.24	6.69

Note: For details of these mean figures, see Appendix.

it reflects their respective costs to the firm. In fact, yield is simply the rate of return to investors and cost to the issuer, so it is a common term for what investors get.

The yield curves are fit and presented in two plots. Yield curves for *sukuk* securities and conventional bonds issued by various issuers are plotted as in Figure 1A and Figure 1B. The plots are presented as YTM of (i) conventional against (ii) *sukuk* issues in two graphs. The two issuer types are of increasingly higher risk rating with sovereign being the lowest risk – therefore with the lowest yields – on the one end, and the AAA-corporate issues at the other end. As both instruments are used for financing, both possess similar features such as incremental increase according to lengthening of maturity.

As Fig.1(A) suggests, the yields of Government Islamic Issues (GII) are higher than those of conventional bonds issued by the same issuer, the Malaysian Government Securities or MGS. The difference between *sukuk* yield and conventional bond yield is larger as maturities increase from 2 years to 15 years. The maximum difference between yields of *sukuk* securities and conventional bonds for this category is for securities with 3-year maturities. The difference is 7.31 basis points. On average, there is a 3.41 basis point difference between yields of *sukuk* securities and conventional bonds. The total outstanding value of *sukuk* securities issued by Malaysian government as at end of 2011 was RM112 billion. Multiplying yield difference and market size indicates that the Malaysian government needs to

pay an extra RM 3.8 billion for its *sukuk* securities per year compared to conventional issues of same term and quality. This means that *sukuk* investors earn RM 3.8 billion higher returns compared to investors in the conventional bond market.

Fig.1(A) also shows the yield curve of the BNM, Bank Negara Malaysia, the central bank, which issues *sukuk* securities as well as conventional securities. These securities are only issued with maturities for up to two years. The graph shows that the yield of the former is higher than that of conventional yields for all maturities. Moreover, the difference between these yields increases as the maturity of the pair of securities increases. The maximum difference between yield of *sukuk* securities and conventional ones issued by BNM is 4.28 basis points for securities with 2 years' maturity. On average, there is a 2.19 basis point difference between yields of *sukuk* securities and conventional bonds. The total outstanding value of *sukuk* securities issued by BNM in 2011 was RM 31.8 billion. Multiplying yield difference and market size indicates that BNM needs to pay RM696 million more for its *sukuk* securities per year.

Fig.1(B) shows the yield curves of securities issued by quasi-government bodies i.e. Cagamas Berhad. The yields of *sukuk* securities issued by Cagamas Berhad are higher (see the graph) than the yield of Cagamas conventional bonds. This difference increases as the tenure of the securities grows beyond 5 years. The maximum difference between yields issued by Cagamas occurs at 20 years' maturities:

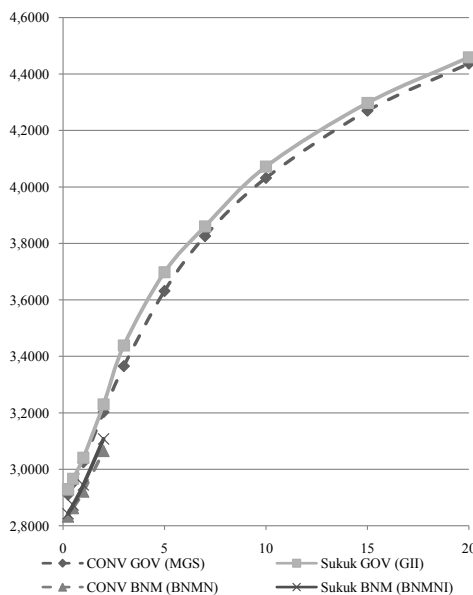
it is 5.52 basis points. On average, there is a 2.75 basis point difference between yields of *sukuk* securities and conventional bonds. The total outstanding value of *sukuk* securities issued by Cagamas Berhad in 2011 was RM10.76 billion. Multiplying yield difference and market size indicates that Cagamas needs to pay an excess RM296 million for its *sukuk* securities per year.

Fig.1(B) also shows the yield curves of securities issued by AAA-rated corporate issuers. Yields of *sukuk* securities are *less* than yields of conventional bonds for maturities less than 10 years: it is *more* for periods beyond 10 years. The maximum difference between yields of *sukuk* securities and conventional bonds issued by corporate issuers with maturities of less than 10 years is for those with 2 years' maturity with

-8.01 basis points. However, the maximum amount for securities with maturities longer than 10 years is +8.48 basis points for securities with 20 years' maturity. Long-dated *sukuk* securities are perceived by the market as being more risky, thereby attracting higher yields. Long-dated *sukuk* are more risky, given the risk of greater uncertainty beyond 10 years.

On average, there is a -2.17 basis point difference between yields of *sukuk* securities and conventional bonds. The total outstanding value of *sukuk* securities issued by Malaysian AAA Corporate issuers in 2011 was RM 47.14 billion. Multiplying yield difference and market size indicates that the AAA corporate issuers would save RM 1,024 million on their *sukuk* securities per year.

A) Yield Curve of Government Issued Securities



B) Yield Curve of Quasi-Government and Corporate Securities

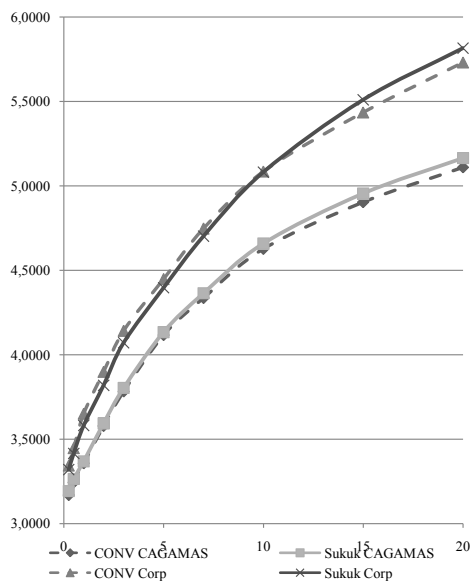


Fig.1: Yield Curve for *Sukuk* Securities vs. Conventional Bonds

Comparison of Yields of Sukuk Securities and Conventional Bonds

The results of the paired sample t-test on the equality of means are summarised in Table 2 (panels A, B and C). Out of the 34 tested pairs (10 pairs each for Government, Cagamas and Corporate, and 4 pairs for Bank Negara) of mean yields of *sukuk* and conventional bonds, 31 cases (i.e. 91 per cent of all pairs) showed significant differences in their yields to maturities. In 27 cases, the null hypotheses were rejected at 0.01 significance levels. Thus, one can conclude that the Yield-to-Maturity of *sukuk* securities differ from conventional bond counterparts, where the issuer and the issue tenure the same.

Table 2A presents the statistics pertaining to mean yield of *sukuk* and conventional

bond. As t-statistics suggest, the mean yield of *sukuk* securities and conventional bonds are significantly different for all forms of securities issued by the Government or BNM. The difference between the means of these two forms of securities are positive, indicating that *sukuk* securities tend to yield more than conventional bonds issued by the Government of Malaysia or Bank Negara Malaysia *ceteris paribus*. Thus, the market associates higher risks to *sukuk* structures rather than conventional structures. Godlewski, Turk-Ariss & Weill (2011) suggested that the adverse selection can cause this phenomenon. Firms with lower profit expectations tend to issue profit-loss-sharing based *sukuk*, while firms with higher profit expectations issue interest-based conventional bonds.

TABLE 2A
Paired Samples t-Test Results: Government and BNM

Tenure	<i>Sukuk</i>	Conv	Δ (<i>Sukuk</i> -Conv)	t-Stat
Government				
3M	2.9283	2.9100	0.0183	2.882***
6M	2.9664	2.9518	0.0145	2.539**
1Y	3.0405	3.0245	0.0160	2.494**
2Y	3.2299	3.2019	0.0279	3.529***
3Y	3.4386	3.3655	0.0731	6.093***
5Y	3.6978	3.6313	0.0665	6.900***
7Y	3.8604	3.8256	0.0348	4.762***
10Y	4.0723	4.0319	0.0404	5.096***
15Y	4.2973	4.2699	0.0274	3.946***
20Y	4.4591	4.4366	0.0225	3.039***
BNM				
3M	2.8421	2.8320	0.0102	3.065***
6M	2.8734	2.8620	0.0115	2.858***
1Y	2.9439	2.9208	0.0231	4.476***
2Y	3.1074	3.0646	0.0428	5.353***

, *: significant at 0.05 and 0.01 significance levels, respectively

Table 2B provides the mean yields of *sukuk* securities and conventional bonds for securities issued by Cagamas Bhd. As the paired sample t-statistics shows, these differences are significant except for securities with 1 or 2 years' maturity. The difference between means of *sukuk* securities and conventional bonds is a positive figure, indicating that *Sukuk* securities tend to yield more than conventional bonds issued by Cagamas Berhad *ceteris paribus*. Therefore,

one may assume that the market assigns higher risks for *sukuk* securities than for the conventional bonds.

Finally, Table 2C presents the statistics for *sukuk* securities and conventional bonds issued by AAA-rated corporate issuers. For AAA-rated corporate-issued securities, the mean yields of *sukuk* securities and conventional bonds are significantly different for all cases except for 10-year maturity securities. The differences are

TABLE 2B
Paired Samples t-Test Results: Government Agencies

Tenure	<i>Sukuk</i>	Conv	Δ (<i>Sukuk</i> -Conv)	t-Stat
3M	3.1926	3.1691	0.0235	2.624**
6M	3.2642	3.2444	0.0197	2.599**
1Y	3.3684	3.3568	0.0117	1.421
2Y	3.5935	3.5782	0.0153	1.648
3Y	3.8034	3.7822	0.0212	1.872*
5Y	4.1336	4.1162	0.0174	1.842*
7Y	4.3640	4.3355	0.0286	3.125***
10Y	4.6586	4.6268	0.0318	3.278***
15Y	4.9543	4.9036	0.0506	3.960***
20Y	5.1647	5.1095	0.0552	3.734***

*, **, ***: significant at 0.10, 0.05 and 0.01 significance levels, respectively

TABLE 2C
Paired Samples t-Test Results: Corporate Issues

Tenure	<i>Sukuk</i>	Conv	Δ (<i>Sukuk</i> -Conv)	t-Stat
3M	3.3200	3.3436	-0.0236	-4.821***
6M	3.4155	3.4469	-0.0314	-6.181***
1Y	3.5809	3.6509	-0.0700	-6.866***
2Y	3.8188	3.8990	-0.0801	-6.423***
3Y	4.0710	4.1416	-0.0705	-5.624***
5Y	4.3965	4.4484	-0.0519	-5.081***
7Y	4.7019	4.7470	-0.0451	-6.416***
10Y	5.0812	5.0849	-0.0038	-0.321
15Y	5.5092	5.4347	0.0745	2.814***
20Y	5.8152	5.7304	0.0848	2.957***

***: significant at 0.01 significance level.

negative numbers for securities with 7 years maturity or less, while for securities with 10 years maturity or more, the difference is positive. In other words, the mean of yield of *sukuk* securities issued by AAA-rated corporate issuers is lower than its conventional bonds for issues with 7 years' or less maturity. For securities with long-term maturities of 10 years and more, the mean of yield of *sukuk* securities is more than that of the conventional bonds *ceteris paribus*. This finding is not consistent with the findings on other issuers such as the Cagamas. This might be due to the different market perception on the funding purpose of the corporation in Malaysia.

Granger Causality Test of Yields of Sukuk and Conventional Bonds

The previous section showed that the mean yield of *sukuk* is statistically different from yield of conventional bond counterparts. Since each pair of securities is issued by the same issuer for the same period of time, it is expected that the correlation between yields of these securities may be high. This may be a reason for a hypothetical argument that they have some causal relationship. One may wish to test if changes in yield of one type of security may cause change in the other series. In other words, one may want to test for Granger causality (Granger, 1969) between yields of *sukuk* securities and those of conventional bonds. This test is to identify if the more established conventional bond market is in fact determining the yields of *sukuk*. If *sukuk* is a different market, then there should be no such causality relation.

In order to test the causal relationship between yields of *sukuk* and conventional counterparts, two Granger causality tests were conducted on each pair of securities. First, it is tested that change in yield of *sukuk* can cause change in yield of conventional bonds. Second, it is tested that change in yield of conventional bonds can cause change in yield of *sukuk*. In other words, the test is to see if the yields of conventional bonds Granger-cause yields of *sukuk*. Results of pair-wise Granger causality test on each pair is presented in Table 3.

The first test conducted was to check for availability of Granger causal relation between *sukuk* and conventional bonds. The null hypothesis tested was "yield of *sukuk* security does not Granger-cause the yield of conventional bond counterparts." As the figures in Table 3 suggest, out of 34 pairs of securities tested, in only 9 pairs was the null hypothesis rejected at 0.05 significance level. In other words, yields of *sukuk* securities Granger-cause yields of conventional bonds in only 9 out of 34 pairs (or 26 per cent). This indicates that one may not generally conclude that yields of *sukuk* securities Granger-cause the yield of conventional bond counterparts. Results show that yield of *sukuk* issued by Government (6 months and 3 years), Cagamas (2 years, 3 years and 5 years) and AAA-rated corporate (1 year, 5, years, 7 years and 10 years) Granger-cause their conventional bonds counterpart. Results do not show a concrete pattern in terms of issuer or maturity of the security for having a Granger causal effect.

The second test conducted was to check for the presence of a Granger causal relation between conventional bonds and *sukuk*. The null hypothesis tested was “yield of conventional bonds does not Granger-cause the yield of *sukuk* security counterparts.” Out of the 34 pairs of securities tested, in 14 pairs the null hypothesis was rejected at 0.05 significance levels. This indicates that one may not generally conclude that yield of conventional bonds Granger-cause the yield of *sukuk* security counterparts. These results show that yields of conventional bonds issued by Government for 1-year, 3-year and 20-year terms, Cagamas for 3-year, 5-year, 7-year and 10-year terms and AAA-rated corporate for 1-year, 2-year, 3-year, 5-year, 7-year, 10-year and 15-year terms Granger-cause their *sukuk* counterpart. Results do not show a definite pattern in terms of issuer or maturity of the security for having a Granger causal effect.

Finally, as in Table 3, bi-directional Granger causality (see Enders, 1995; Hossain, 2005) between yields of *sukuk* and conventional bonds is observable in 7 out of 34 pairs or 20 per cent. In other words, in 7 pairs of securities, both null hypotheses are significantly rejected, or, yields of *sukuk* Granger-cause yields of conventional bonds and the other way around. This may signal that both variables are Granger-caused by a third variable yet to be explored. Results show that yields of *sukuk* and conventional bonds have bi-directional Granger causal relation in securities issued by Government for a 3-year term, Cagamas for 3-year and 5-year terms and AAA-rated corporate for 5-year, 7-year and 10-year terms.

In summary, it is reasonable to conclude that with a few exceptions, there is no causal relationship between *sukuk* and conventional bonds. This is the second evidence apart from the yield differences tested earlier to affirm that the two types of debt instruments are *not the same*. This conclusion has important implication for market operation, valuation practices, risk estimation and regulatory rule setting. These are challenges to be addressed in future research.

CONCLUSION: ARE *SUKUK* ISSUES ISLAMIC BONDS?

Critically important evidence is presented in this paper to provide how the market perceives and rewards investors. If investors in the two types of bond are treated equally for the same risk, same term and same issuer, *sukuk* securities and conventional bonds can be said to be the same; thus, the description of *sukuk* as Islamic bonds is justified. As aggregate results indicate, with few exceptions, the market associates significantly higher risks to *sukuk* securities than to conventional bonds, hence the observed higher returns. Besides the previously mentioned reasons that were highlighted by other studies, there are some other factors that may cause such differences.

It may be that the special-purpose company taking over part of the assets makes the issuing firm more risky. Or perhaps the reward to investors coming from profit shares or rent-like payments (not interest) makes *sukuk* more risky. Consequently, the results appear to refute, or at least challenge, the applicability of

TABLE 3
Pair-wise Granger Causality Tests with Lags = 2

Issuer	Maturity	<i>Sukuk</i> security does not Granger-cause conventional bond		Conventional bond does not Granger-cause <i>Sukuk</i> security	
		F-Statistic	Prob	F-Statistic	Prob
Government	3M	1.324	0.2722	0.4743	0.6242
	6M	3.376**	0.0395	0.4704	0.6266
	1Y	1.492	0.2315	3.446**	0.0371
	2Y	2.666*	0.0761	2.383*	0.0993
	3Y	4.040**	0.0216	3.221**	0.0456
	5Y	1.333	0.2698	0.4734	0.6247
	7Y	0.5173	0.5982	0.0238	0.9765
	10Y	0.4388	0.6465	0.6029	0.5499
	15Y	0.0587	0.943	1.4308	0.2456
	20Y	0.6290	0.5359	3.097**	0.0511
BNM	3M	1.1887	0.3119	0.021	0.9789
	6M	1.0310	0.3631	0.0672	0.935
	1Y	0.7308	0.4859	0.4226	0.6573
	2Y	3.0436*	0.0559	1.820	0.1717
Cagamas	3M	1.6454	0.1999	0.4852	0.6175
	6M	2.6787*	0.0753	0.4056	0.668
	1Y	2.5042*	0.0886	0.6739	0.5128
	2Y	7.9141***	0.0008	3.066*	0.0525
	3Y	9.6807***	0.0002	5.198***	0.0077
	5Y	4.7749**	0.0112	3.562**	0.0333
	7Y	1.9031	0.1563	3.570**	0.0331
	10Y	0.5511	0.5786	3.1692**	0.0478
	15Y	0.0262	0.9741	2.771*	0.0691
	20Y	0.3919	0.6771	1.9766	0.1458
Corporate	3M	0.7150	0.4925	0.2803	0.7563
	6M	0.6945	0.5025	0.9558	0.3892
	1Y	3.393**	0.0389	4.480**	0.0146
	2Y	2.2634	0.1111	3.257**	0.0441
	3Y	2.3571	0.1018	4.2991**	0.0171
	5Y	3.2842**	0.043	6.2905***	0.003
	7Y	3.3870**	0.0391	8.177***	0.0006
	10Y	3.455**	0.0367	6.902***	0.0018
	15Y	0.109	0.8965	5.222***	0.0076
	20Y	1.3967	0.2538	0.676	0.5113

Note: *, **, ***: significant at 0.10, 0.05, and 0.01 significance levels, respectively.

the conventional model in pricing *sukuk* securities. Evidence does not appear to support the market description that the *sukuk* are Islamic bonds. Therefore, we suggest that the finance press differentiate between the *sukuk* securities and bonds, as it is shown that they are empirically different. This is beyond the contractual differences that exist among these two types of financing instruments. Once this is recognised, there would be need for fresh valuation models based on cash flow identification and risk measurement factors. That work should begin once a common ground is found that the *sukuk* certificates are to be treated as a different class of debt instrument. Our findings verify by way of several tests why *sukuk* behaves differently from bonds.

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APPENDIX

TABLE 1A

Descriptive Statistics of *Sukuk* vs. Conventional Bonds: Government & BNM

	N Valid	Mean	Median	Mode	Std. Dev	Range	Min	Max
Government Issued Securities (MGS vs. GII)								
CONV(3M)	77	2.91	2.93	1.88	0.571	1.84	1.82	3.66
CONV(6M)	77	2.952	2.95	1.92	0.579	1.98	1.85	3.83
CONV(1Y)	77	3.025	3.02	2.86	0.576	2.06	1.92	3.98
CONV(2Y)	77	3.202	3.2	3.2	0.484	2.1	2.2	4.3
CONV(3Y)	77	3.365	3.33	3.2	0.398	2.13	2.37	4.5
CONV(5Y)	77	3.631	3.61	3.34	0.309	1.8	2.78	4.58
CONV(7Y)	77	3.826	3.81	3.91	0.310	1.84	2.91	4.75
CONV(10Y)	77	4.032	4.03	4.19	0.371	1.93	3.09	5.02
CONV(15Y)	77	4.27	4.26	4.01	0.391	1.77	3.35	5.12
CONV(20Y)	77	4.437	4.5	4.15	0.385	1.58	3.6	5.18
<i>Sukuk</i> (3M)	77	2.9283	2.93	1.88	0.592	1.96	1.82	3.78
<i>Sukuk</i> (6M)	77	2.9664	2.95	1.92	0.597	2.04	1.85	3.89
<i>Sukuk</i> (1Y)	77	3.0405	2.99	2.86	0.582	2.11	1.97	4.08
<i>Sukuk</i> (2Y)	77	3.2299	3.19	3.04	0.475	2	2.3	4.3
<i>Sukuk</i> (3Y)	77	3.4386	3.39	3.44	0.360	1.84	2.63	4.47
<i>Sukuk</i> (5Y)	77	3.6978	3.66	3.69	0.305	1.8	2.85	4.65
<i>Sukuk</i> (7Y)	77	3.8604	3.83	3.71	0.309	1.79	3	4.79
<i>Sukuk</i> (10Y)	77	4.0723	4.07	3.88	0.346	1.81	3.17	4.98
<i>Sukuk</i> (15Y)	77	4.2973	4.28	4.35	0.373	1.67	3.45	5.12
<i>Sukuk</i> (20Y)	77	4.4591	4.5	4.68	0.374	1.5	3.68	5.18
Bank Negara Malaysia Issued securities (MGS vs. GII)								
CONV(3M)	61	2.8320	2.9	1.88	0.598	1.9	1.82	3.72
CONV(6M)	61	2.8620	2.92	1.92	0.594	1.91	1.85	3.76
CONV(1Y)	61	2.9208	2.96	2.86	0.572	1.9	1.92	3.82
CONV(2Y)	57	3.0646	3.09	3.2	0.447	1.77	2.2	3.97
<i>Sukuk</i> (3M)	61	2.8421	2.9	1.88	0.609	1.92	1.82	3.74
<i>Sukuk</i> (6M)	61	2.8734	2.92	1.92	0.607	1.95	1.85	3.8
<i>Sukuk</i> (1Y)	61	2.9439	2.96	2.86	0.577	1.93	1.97	3.9
<i>Sukuk</i> (2Y)	57	3.1074	3.09	3.13	0.448	1.77	2.3	4.07

TABLE 1B
Descriptive Statistics of *Sukuk* vs. Conventional Bonds: Government Agencies (Cagamas Berhad Securities)

	N Valid	Mean	Median	Mode	Std. Dev	Range	Min	Max
CONV(3M)	81	3.1686	3.19	3.53	0.4784	1.93	2.21	4.14
CONV(6M)	81	3.2417	3.22	3.56	0.4629	1.87	2.34	4.21
CONV(1Y)	81	3.3516	3.33	3.73	0.4489	1.83	2.5	4.33
CONV(2Y)	81	3.5669	3.5	3.36	0.3837	1.65	2.95	4.6
CONV(3Y)	81	3.7662	3.67	3.68	0.3399	1.59	3.23	4.82
CONV(5Y)	81	4.0932	3.98	3.91	0.3538	1.4	3.51	4.91
CONV(7Y)	81	4.3105	4.21	4.13	0.3764	1.46	3.72	5.18
CONV(10Y)	81	4.5963	4.48	4.32	0.4512	1.87	3.8	5.67
CONV(15Y)	81	4.8758	4.8	4.8	0.4707	2.16	3.89	6.05
CONV(20Y)	81	5.0851	4.99	4.84	0.5152	2.39	4.02	6.41
<i>Sukuk</i> (3M)	81	3.1910	3.19	3.53	0.4994	1.93	2.21	4.14
<i>Sukuk</i> (6M)	81	3.2605	3.23	3.56	0.4799	1.87	2.34	4.21
<i>Sukuk</i> (1Y)	81	3.3627	3.33	3.73	0.4639	1.83	2.5	4.33
<i>Sukuk</i> (2Y)	81	3.5815	3.5	3.33	0.3810	1.57	2.95	4.52
<i>Sukuk</i> (3Y)	81	3.7863	3.68	3.68	0.3303	1.45	3.23	4.68
<i>Sukuk</i> (5Y)	81	4.1098	4	3.94	0.3495	1.38	3.53	4.91
<i>Sukuk</i> (7Y)	81	4.3377	4.22	4.13	0.3785	1.45	3.73	5.18
<i>Sukuk</i> (10Y)	81	4.6265	4.52	4.52	0.4518	1.85	3.82	5.67
<i>Sukuk</i> (15Y)	81	4.9240	4.9	4.58	0.4742	2.11	3.94	6.05
<i>Sukuk</i> (20Y)	81	5.1375	5.08	5.08	0.5132	2.37	4.04	6.41

TABLE 1C
Descriptive Statistics of *Sukuk* vs. Conventional Bonds: AAA-Rated Corporate Issued Securities

	N Valid	Mean	Median	Mode	Std. Dev	Range	Min	Max
CONV(3M)	81	3.3414	3.35	3.29	0.4860	2.17	2.28	4.45
CONV(6M)	81	3.4420	3.43	3.43	0.4409	1.9	2.6	4.5
CONV(1Y)	81	3.6404	3.57	3.53	0.3966	1.59	3.1	4.69
CONV(2Y)	81	3.8831	3.74	3.74	0.3697	1.61	3.32	4.93
CONV(3Y)	81	4.1200	4.01	3.92	0.3621	1.61	3.62	5.23
CONV(5Y)	81	4.4233	4.38	4.51	0.3692	1.57	3.87	5.44
CONV(7Y)	81	4.7169	4.63	4.57	0.3919	1.7	4.03	5.73
CONV(10Y)	81	5.0493	4.99	4.93	0.4339	1.85	4.21	6.06
CONV(15Y)	81	5.3993	5.4	5.8	0.4516	1.98	4.41	6.39
CONV(20Y)	81	5.6975	5.68	5.7	0.4881	2.12	4.61	6.73
<i>Sukuk</i> (3M)	81	3.3169	3.31	3.25	0.4877	2.17	2.24	4.41
<i>Sukuk</i> (6M)	81	3.4101	3.39	3.39	0.4331	1.9	2.56	4.46
<i>Sukuk</i> (1Y)	81	3.5719	3.49	3.49	0.3815	1.61	3.04	4.65
<i>Sukuk</i> (2Y)	81	3.8049	3.7	3.7	0.3360	1.56	3.3	4.86
<i>Sukuk</i> (3Y)	81	4.0510	3.98	3.98	0.3160	1.54	3.58	5.12
<i>Sukuk</i> (5Y)	81	4.3720	4.34	4.2	0.3330	1.57	3.83	5.4
<i>Sukuk</i> (7Y)	81	4.6721	4.62	4.21	0.3752	1.7	3.99	5.69
<i>Sukuk</i> (10Y)	81	5.0437	5.05	4.89	0.4353	1.84	4.18	6.02
<i>Sukuk</i> (15Y)	81	5.4681	5.53	5.8	0.5359	2.15	4.38	6.53
<i>Sukuk</i> (20Y)	81	5.7762	5.9	5.66	0.5292	2.11	4.58	6.69

Hugging the Trees for Life: Implicating Bitzer in the Non-violent Rhetorical Situation of the Chipko Movement

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ABSTRACT

This essay examines the non-violent rhetorical situation of the Chipko movement in India. According to Kirkscey (2007), Lucas (2006) and Gorsevski (2004), efforts to understand non-Western movements and non-violent rhetoric have long been sidelined in comparison to understanding movements in the West and those that are more aggressive in manner. This study hopes to fill in the gap in scholarship by highlighting the non-violent approach employed by the Chipko movement using Bitzer's (1968) rhetorical situation as a theoretical framework. The essay looks into the rhetorical situation of the movement, focussing on its exigency, audience and constraints. Later, an assessment of the Chipko movement's response as rhetor is offered. How *Satyagraha* (Gandhi's non-violent form of protest) influenced the movement's method will also be considered. The analysis suggests that the Chipko movement's non-violent tactics of saving the trees proves to be fitting and effective.

Keywords: Non-violent rhetoric, rhetorical criticism, social change, social movements

INTRODUCTION

As the maharajah's axemen approached the first tree marked for felling in the heavily wooded district of Rajasthan, in India's Himalayan foothills, Amrita Devi wrapped herself around its trunk. The inhabitants, adherents of the

Bishnois religious sect, held trees as sacred. Each child, for example, had a special tree to talk to and hug. But the maharajah of Jodhpur, wishing to build himself a new palace, had dispatched a crew to chop down trees to fire his lime kiln. The axemen ignored Amrita Devi's pleas to spare the forest. As she clung to the tree, crying "A chopped head is cheaper than a felled tree!"

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the axe came down. After she had crumpled to the ground, her three daughters each in turn took her place defending the trees. All were killed. Then, persons from forty-nine surrounding communities responded to the villagers' call for help. Facing a major confrontation, the axemen warned the villagers that resistance would mean death for them also. They continued to hug the trees, refusing to yield. By day's end over three hundred and fifty women and men had been slaughtered. The maharajah, on learning why the tree cutting had been progressing so slowly, had a change of heart. He abandoned the palace building project, ordered a halt to the cutting of trees, and went to the scene of the violence to apologize to the villagers. He promised that never again would their trees be cut. (Breton, 1998, pp.3-4)

INTRODUCTION TO THE CHIPKO MOVEMENT

The above narrative relates the first recorded protest of the Chipko movement that took place in 1730 in a Bishnoi (or "Vishnoi") village near Jodhpur. According to the narrative, a group of 362 (some reports mention 350) men, women and children were led by a woman by the name of Amrita Devi to protect the trees in their village from being felled for the Maharaja's new palace (Breton, 1998; Linkenbach 2007). The

loggers did not spare the men and women; nevertheless, the story of Amrita Devi and her followers has been kept alive among and by those in the movement.

What is the Chipko Movement? What is its significance?

The Chipko movement is also known as the "Hug the Trees" movement. Primarily made up of peasant women who believed in Gandhi's non-violent philosophy, the movement employed, among others, the protest tactic of tree-hugging as a form of passive resistance to save their forest from irresponsible logging (Mellor, 1997). *Chipko* means "hug" or "embrace" in Hindi. The movement's belief in non-violence as a means of protesting was very appealing to the masses, as evident by the spread of the movement in different areas in India (Mallick, 2002). The movement does not hold only historical significance; it serves as an example of how a movement can be effective without involving violent actions. Due to its long history, the Chipko movement is said to be "one of the most celebrated environmental movements in the world" (Bandyopadhyay, 1999, p. 881). Yet, despite its historical significance, few studies have looked at the Chipko movement as a rhetorical text. Unsurprisingly, scholars such as Lucas (2006) and Kirkscey (2007) have long noted the lack of literature on non-Western social movements. This is unfortunate because unless we make an effort to understand non-Western movements, our understanding of social movement rhetoric will remain partial. Concurrently,

Gorsevski (2004) is of the opinion that the topic of non-violent rhetoric is understudied mainly because using peaceful means to protest is often undervalued due to some misconceptions such as equating non-violence to signs of weakness, naivety and idealism¹. This essay² hopes to fill the gap in literature by highlighting the non-violent rhetoric of the Chipko movement in the dialogue on environmental movements. To assess the effectiveness of their non-violent methods and to determine whether their responses were fitting, I utilise Bitzer's (1968) rhetorical situation. Based on my analysis, the Chipko movement's response to exigency may be seen as rhetorically fitting or appropriate if assessed using Bitzer's theoretical framework. Also, in keeping with Alcott's (1991) caution about speaking for/about Others and the Standpoint Theory (Kinefuchi & Orbe, 2008; Swigonski, 1993), I include narratives that originate from members of the movement. This, I hope, will

¹In my dissertation, I contend that non-violent rhetoric is not just a technique/tactic. Rather, it is also the manifestation of a philosophy that aims to not only address exigencies, but also to amend the role of the adversary to that of ally. Non-violent rhetoric does not only address the material conditions of a situation; it also incorporates the spiritual and/or religious as a mode of address. Incorporating the spiritual, or recognising that one is accountable for Others (whether human or non-human) helps solidify a person's commitment to non-violence.

²This paper was part of my dissertation, completed at the University of Denver (Summer, 2012) with Dr. Christina R. Foust as Dissertation Director. I would like to thank Dr. Foust for her endless support during my studies at the University of Denver.

help in my efforts to amplify the non-violent voices of the Chipko protesters.

I begin my analysis with a brief outline of the geographical and historical context of the Chipko movement. This will be followed by details of the movement's rhetorical situation according to Bitzer's (1968) theoretical framework. The use of Bitzer in this essay is appropriate because Bitzer's theory relating to people's exigencies (hardship), audiences (friends/rivals) and constraints (challenges) adds an element of humanness to the analysis. Features such as exigence, audience and constraints are elements that can be found in almost all situations regardless of cultural context. In other words, the use of Bitzer may be seen as appropriate to study both Western as well as non-Western situations or social movements. Furthermore, Bitzer's focus on what constitutes a "fitting response" in a rhetorical situation will help us assess the movement's rhetorical tactics (i.e. were the movement's tactics appropriate/effective or otherwise). Lastly, I will consider how *Satyagraha* (Gandhi's non-violent form of protest) influenced the movement's method in response to the people's situation.

BACKGROUND TO AND HISTORY OF THE CHIPKO MOVEMENT

Since ancient civilisation, the forests in India have been a great resource for human survival (Linkenbach, 2007). The peoples' livelihood depended on food, fuel, fodder and water from the forest. However, colonial rule changed the people's lifestyle dramatically. Under colonial rule and in the

name of “development,” the forests became a mere commodity to cater to the needs of the colonising foreigners while sidelining those of the local people. Of course, colonialism alone cannot be blamed for the exploitation of natural resources as this continued even after India gained independence in 1947. As Linkenbach maintains, the forests of India are not only of value economically. More importantly, they are of great value in terms of spiritual/religious and social life. Most Indians are spiritual in nature. Every person is considered a “moving temple” in which the light of God is said to dwell, and servicing others is considered servicing God (Chidananda, 1987). The people’s deep connection to their natural surroundings was one of the main conditions that led to the exigency faced by the Chipko movement.

METHOD: RHETORICAL CRITICISM

Humans use symbols to communicate (Kuypers, 2009; Foss, 2004; Griffin, 1969). Some examples of these symbols, or representations of other things, include spoken and written words, art, dance, clothing and the body. In rhetorical criticism, scholars assume that words, visuals and actions are used as symbols to communicate and/or persuade. Additionally, “When we critique instances of rhetoric...we are allowing ourselves to take a closer, critical look at how rhetoric operates to persuade and influence us...it is a *humanizing* activity...it explores and highlights qualities that make us human” (Kuypers, 2009, p.13). Because of its human dimension, rhetorical criticism

may be considered an art. By “art,” I mean that criticism does not follow a scientific method to generate knowledge. It is not concerned with how a critic distances him/herself from the object of analysis. The critic is permitted—even encouraged—to include his/her own political convictions throughout the process of criticism.

At the same time, good criticism is not just about flaunting one’s personal opinion. Certain norms are to be followed to create knowledge that is relevant or applicable for others to understand. What are highly sought after are supportive arguments and appropriate justification. In other words, there is a systematic way of evaluating a text (a “text” can be in spoken, written and visual form). Foss (2004) believes that rhetorical criticism “enables us to become more sophisticated and discriminating in explaining, investigating, and understanding symbols and our responses to them” (p. 7). More importantly, it is important for the critic to highlight to the reader things that are not “obvious” in a rhetorical text (Black, 2009). Black contends that good criticism is dependent on the critic (political convictions included). Criticism as a method is important not only because it brings to light issues that would otherwise be unnoticed; criticism as a method also forces a critic to be thorough or knowledgeable and responsible in his/her writings. Critics who practise rhetorical criticism help add to or build on rhetorical theories (Foss, 2004). These theories in turn help improve existing research and “improve our practice of communication” (Foss, 2004, p. 8).

For Parrish (2005), rhetoric is not limited to the study of instrumental effects. The focus is more on the *quality* of a rhetorical act. The quality of a work of criticism is naturally dependent upon the critic him/herself. It is not enough to know speeches or artifacts. Preferably, a critic must have good general knowledge in “history, politics, literature, and all the liberal studies” since the speeches one studies “may range through all the fields of human knowledge, they may be rich in allusions to persons and events, at the critic must be able to follow all the workings of the orator’s mind” (Parrish, 2005, p. 39). Critiquing a text must include a deep understanding of the *situation* in which the rhetorical act took place. This leads me to my next point relating to Bitzer’s Rhetorical Situation.

BITZER’S RHETORICAL SITUATION

Lloyd Bitzer’s (1968) theory on what constitutes a Rhetorical Situation is used as the main theoretical framework in this study. In his essay, Bitzer describes the rhetorical situation as the condition where the characteristics around a rhetorical text help rhetoricians determine whether the text is forceful or inadequate. Bitzer’s theory consists of three components – *exigence*, *audience* and *constraints*. *Exigence*, according to Bitzer is a state of imperfection that must be addressed urgently via discourse. Discourse introduced into the situation would modify the exigence either partially or completely. Modification or change must be positive. Situations in which change via discourse is not possible

(e.g. death), are not considered exigent. An example of exigence would be the rapid pace of climate change that affects all people regardless of race, class and region. This situation requires urgent attention where discourse may play a role in changing the mindset of individuals and/or policy makers.

Audience, according to Bitzer (1968), consists of individuals who are not only free to be influenced by discourse, but also those who are capable of playing the role of moderator or change. Here, Bitzer makes a distinction between a rhetorical audience and a scientific or poetic audience. For Bitzer, although scientific and poetic works engage the mind of an audience, these works do not necessarily fashion their audiences as agents of change.

The third component of a rhetorical situation is known as *constraints*, which refers to “persons, events, objects, and relations which are parts of the situation because they have the power to constrain decision and action needed to modify the exigence. (S)ources of constraint include beliefs, attitudes [...] motives and the like” (Bitzer, 1968, p. 8). Occasionally, an orator’s own personal characteristics and style may serve as a constraint. Borrowing from Aristotle, Bitzer classifies the constraints into two categories: 1) “artistic proofs” (originating from the rhetor); and 2) “inartistic proofs” (originating from the situation and/or the audience). An example of “artistic proofs” would be an orator who comes from a position of privilege and finds it a challenge to relate to an audience made up from a marginalised population. An

example of “inartistic proofs” would be an audience that refuses to cooperate or listen to the orator.

Bitzer claims that for a situation to qualify as a rhetorical act, three conditions need to exist (*exigence, audience and constraints*). By placing emphasis on the situation, the rhetor and the rhetorical activity become secondary. In other words, the situation is the precondition of a given rhetorical activity. Discourse only becomes rhetorical if or when it responds to a situation. Bitzer (1968) contends:

It is clear that situations are not always accompanied by discourse. Nor should we assume that a rhetorical address gives existence to the situation; on the contrary, it is the situation which calls the discourse into existence (p.2).

An example of a situation leading to a rhetorical activity would be the recent Arab Spring, which began in Tunisia as a response to an oppressive government. In this particular situation, an oppressed society may be considered the *exigency*, the people of the nation may be considered the *audience* and abusive authority or a government that is not willing to cooperate with its people may be seen as the main *constraint*.

EXIGENCE

In the case of the Chipko movement, we will see later how the participants not only addressed their exigency via

verbal discourse, but also via non-verbal symbols such as the act of marching and tree-hugging. As I mentioned earlier, in the Chipko movement, the people’s view of their natural resources goes beyond the material. The forest is in fact viewed as sacred or holy—so sacred that it is worthy of worship and held in high esteem. As stated by Baker (1987), the preservation of trees and wildlife is considered one of the 29 tenets of the Vishnoi (or “Bishnoi”) faith. Trees or nature are not only divine, they are considered “family” (brothers and sisters). It is no wonder then, that the people of the region feel that it is their responsibility to care for those who are a part of their family. Given this cultural and religious backdrop, the Chipko movement’s philosophy revolved around three main beliefs, namely: 1) There is life in *all* creation, whether it be human beings, animals, plants, rivers or mountains; 2) All life is a testimony of a higher power. All life deserves respect; and 3) Austerity is held in high regard since a desire for excessive materialism interferes with one’s path to self-realisation and true happiness (Bahuguna, 1987, p. 9). It was the people’s realisation of the forests’ significance in spiritual value as well as its role as source of livelihood that sparked their vigour to stand as shields for the trees. It was also Amrita Devi’s protest in 1730 that first signalled an important milestone for the people who relied heavily on their forest for their livelihood.

According to Weber (1989), the story of Amrita Devi has been retold countless times to gain support from villagers. It is used

as evidence that even “simple” villagers can make a difference. The history of the movement may have begun as early as the 1700s, but it is the modern turn in the Chipko movement that is most widely written about. Linkenbach (2007) reported the first (modern) Chipko activities that occurred between April to May 1973 as a response to the government’s (Forest Department) unjust treatment of the villagers of Mandal, an area near Gopeshwar. The villagers were denied a small number of ash trees for agricultural use; yet at the same time, a large number of trees were granted to a sporting goods company (the Simon Company). An activist by the name of Chandi Prasad Bhatt helped gather the villagers to act against the company (Fredell, 1996). The villagers decided to act by hugging the trees to prevent them from being felled. The protest was seen as monumental because the loggers eventually chose to withdraw. Though the company was allocated a different section of the forest, the villagers continued their act of protest, forcing the loggers to withdraw.

After the first modern Chipko protest, the movement continued to grow in nearby areas. In Tehri, another activist by the name of Sunderlal Bahuguna (along with other villagers) continued the protest against forest exploitation by hugging trees (Fredell, 1996). One of the most well-known protests took place in March 1974, in the Raini (or “Reni”) forest (Linkenbach, 2007). While the village men were absent and occupied with other matters relating to forest management and officials, the loggers took the opportunity to head for the forest where

they were spotted and reported to Gaura Devi—the head of a women’s organisation in the village. Without delay, Gaura Devi marched with the other women of the village to oppose the loggers. In Gaura Devi’s words,

Brothers, this forest is our maika (mother’s house). We get medical plants and vegetables from it. Do not cut the forest! If you cut the forest this hill will plunge on our village, the flood will come and the winter fields will be washed away... (Linkenbach, 2007, p. 58).

Addressing her opponents as “brothers” and referring to the forest as her *maika* or “mother’s house” illustrates Gaura Devi’s attempt at recreating or maintaining a relationship between her fellow humans and non-human living beings. This aligns with the Chipko’s principle that life in all creations is of value. Gaura Devi’s appeal to the loggers also further emphasised the exigency they were experiencing and the dependence of the village folk on the forest resources.

The Chipko’s exigency was a result of forest exploitation and excessive development. Prior to the 1970s and before road-building began, Himalayan forests were not easily accessible to commercial loggers (Breton, 1998). However, not long after roads were built on the hillsides, logging became widespread. Insensitivity to the area’s ecosystem and the local population’s needs soon led to excessive logging practices and, eventually, to

environmental disaster. Disasters in the region included massive landslides and floods that became common. It was the frequent floods in the mid 1970s and the landslides that led to the realisation of the state of exigency (Weber, 1989).

It can be said that, thus far, the problems of the Chipko movement were primarily a result of development. First, it was to “develop” the Maharaja’s palace. Later, it was to develop the country, whether it was via outside (colonial) or local (Indian government) influence. Development may appear beneficial at face value. Unfortunately, development is not always favoured. Not surprisingly, the Chipko movement was criticised and labelled as anti-development. Since the Industrial Revolution in Europe, development has come to be defined in terms of material wealth. Changes in people’s mentality also meant that nature is seen as 1) “(A) commodity over which human beings have a birth right of exploitation”, and 2) “Society is only for human beings” (Bahuguna, 1987, p.15). This further resulted in male migration from the hills to the plains in search of better job opportunities, leaving the women in charge of households (Jain, 1984). The women tended to the family while conducting agricultural activities and turned to the forest for supplementary resources such as food, fodder, water and medicinal plants.

From Bahuguna’s (1987) perspective, in less affluent nations, ever since foreign exchange became more important than God, people have not been reluctant to risk

the fertility of their land to gain material mileage. This, in turn, contributed to the fast-paced destruction of the forest. When asked about the state of the local forest, Bahuguna claimed,

We have to preserve [the] natural forest first. Wherever clear felling has been done, they should re-stock [the forest] with the indigenous species. Otherwise they will plant those areas with eucalyptus or teak and the area will be turned into a timber mine. A forest is something else. It’s a community of living things in which big trees, small ones, bushes, birds, insects, wild animals etc. are present. Unfortunately, by turning forests into timber mines, the balance has been lost [...] Forests are the mothers of rivers [...] For oxygen, soil and water, you have to maintain the forests (quoted in Padre, 1992, pp. 11-12).

Bahuguna’s appeal demonstrated the irreplaceable value of the forests. While material goods may be replaced once used, natural resources cannot necessarily be restored to their original state once destroyed. From the women’s standpoint, development was detrimental not only to the environment, but also to the people. In Jain (1984), one woman (whose name was not mentioned) spoke of the construction of roads negatively. In the woman’s words,

Now outsiders are coming to sell their fancy ware to us who had never used these bright things before. The people in hill areas are now being exploited by outsiders and many people are being displaced from their land by outsiders...Come with me to the local market and see for yourself that it is monopolised by outsiders who sell things which we have no use for except making us lazy and good for nothing (Jain, 1984, p.1790).

Because of the felling of trees, the daily activities and issue of survival became complicated for the women. They had to walk long distances over steep slopes with heavy loads on their backs to obtain their needs. This caused some to fall to their death. Unfortunately for the women, development in hill areas failed at improving their quality of life. Not only did commercial felling add to the burden of their daily duties in requiring them to walk further to gather food, fodder and firewood, irresponsible logging also weakened the soil, and this endangered their homes and source of water. As seen in the Jain (1984) quote above, development also contributed to the displacement of local ways of life where outside goods were monopolising the market, making the locals detached from their local ways. Moreover, some of the people's attachment to new material "things" was leading them to undesirable behaviour and attitudes.

The development of communication and roads also made it easier for the village men to leave the hills for the plains (Weber, 1989). This too, was another source of exigency since the women were not given a choice to do the same. Instead, they were forced to stay in the hills to care for the children while burdened at the same time with back-breaking work and household management. Weber (1989) relates how the women struggled with their increasing workload while the men worked in the plains. Their overwhelming workload meant very little time was left to perform domestic chores such as cooking and cleaning and caring for their young children. It was reported that some mothers had to resort to locking their children in rooms or tying the children to cots when they left their house for work far from their village. The situation was dire. Weber mentioned an instance where a child was burnt to death in the family's hearth due to neglect, and another case where a group of seven village women resorted to mass suicide by jumping into a river because "they could no longer bear the misery of their lives" (p. 99).

AUDIENCE

In the Chipko situation, there were multiple groups of audience that had the capacity to make a positive change. The primary audiences were the women villagers, followed by the men, contractors and government agencies. The villagers in the situation needed to realise that although they were simple peasants, they had the capacity

to rise and defend their forests—their source of livelihood and spiritual connections. At the same time, while development is desired, it should not be at the risk of their natural resources and way of life. For the men in the movement, it was important that they saw the dire living conditions and were not blinded by excessive development or growth that was only concerned with economic gains. For the contractors and government agencies, there was a need to understand the needs of the local population and to see that exploitation of forest reserves had negative consequences for the country's natural environment and the direct link it had to the people's homes and survival. It was also important for government agencies to not give in to the notion of "development" as defined in the West. In essence, the Chipko's Gandhian influence saw development in terms of a better quality of life that did not necessarily include material wealth. Gandhi believed that there ought to be a limit to luxury where "plain living" should be encouraged to enable "high thinking" (Weber, 1989).

CONSTRAINTS AND WOMEN'S CULTURAL STATUS

Before their success, the Chipko movement did not escape constraints. Their constraints fell under "artistic proofs" (from the rhetor) as well as "inartistic proofs" (from the audience) (Bitzer 1968). In other words, the constraints can be said to originate from inside the Chipko movement; the women's cultural status and some of the men's attitudes were constraints in the

situation. Outside of the Chipko movement, the government/forest agencies and the contractors' actions/attitudes were the constraints. In relation to the constraints, Weber (1989) claims that two thirds of the 3.2 million hectares planted between the years of 1951 and 1980 were for industrial use and not for the supply of firewood, a pressing need of the locals.

Bandyopadhyay (1999) clarifies that the Chipko movement was rooted in economic injustice and the fight for survival. The issue of gender came into the picture by chance. The women's involvement largely was a result of the men's absence from the villages as they had left to seek employment in urban areas due to the shortage of permanent jobs in the villages. The women did not have much choice but to rise up and protect the trees. Sunderlal Bahuguna³, a leading Chipko activist/messenger, confirmed this when he explained:

In our area, women are the backbone of our social and economic life. [...] If you see family life, it is women or our mothers who sacrifice more. They wake up early in the morning

³ According to Breton (1998), the Chipko movement did not have a formal organisational structure or headquarters. Therefore, it did not have an elected leader or official members. The movement operated mainly by word of mouth and was connected "horizontally", not "vertically" (p. 6). Though it operated without any formal structures, a few names such as Sunderlal Bahuguna, Chandi Prasad Bhatt and Gaura Devi often arise when one locates material on the movement. Still, Bahuguna sees himself more as a messenger, and not so much as a leader.

at 4 and go to bed at 10 or 11. Sacrifice is the first qualification for a soldier of the non-violent movement (in Padre, 1992, pp. 6-7).

Bahuguna's comment was an affirmation of the significance of the women's role in the Chipko movement. The women's role in the community was not limited to their day-to-day activities as caretakers of their homes and families. Instead, the women also served as frontliners of the struggle. With no intent of essentialising, Bahuguna confirmed the women's position as managers of their families. Bahuguna looked upon the women's role with respect, not disregard. Although Bahuguna may have looked upon the womenfolk with high regard, the same cannot be said about society in general. In Jain (1984), the women's role in the Chipko movement was said to be mostly domestic. Matters relating to leadership, authority and government were considered men's domain. Jain noted that the men who were more involved in village councils or village bodies tended to regard government officials with high opinion and apprehension. On the other hand, for the women, no such concern presented itself since their interactions with government officials were very rare, if any. The women simply knew that the felling of trees had a negative impact on their family's well-being. On the contrary, the men were certain that the government was powerful and was not to be questioned. Essentially, the culture and environment at the time encouraged women to focus on livelihood and family life while the men focussed on public power/governance and authority.

Though it may have been a constraint with negative implications, the women's social status and their domestic burden may have also contributed to their drive, which motivated them to protest. Restricted involvement in village bodies and limited exposure to government officials also meant the women were fearless. The women's involvement in the movement did not just help to maintain the community's survival; it also helped shed new light on the women's social status as their roles as members of society grew beyond the domestic domain. Though not totally free from traditional constraints, at the very least, the women's involvement marked a period in which their voices or sense of agency was more visible in the community.

SATYAGRAHA AND NON-VIOLENT RESPONSE

Bahuguna (1987) believed that for sustainable development to be realised a fusion between the "mysticism of the East and Science and technology of the West" should be sought (p.18). Bahuguna mentioned one tenet of the movement's philosophy known as *ayajyan* (noble objective), which requires the "working of the head" (knowledge) to be in sync with one's hands (action) and heart (devotion) (p.18-19). It was not enough for humans to be advanced in scientific knowledge. Instead, this strength should be accompanied with the awareness of others' needs. Bahuguna (1987) insists, "(T)here is no dearth of dedicated people, who are working in this direction; but their energies are being wasted in theoretical work, mostly

in establishing and managing institutions... Chipko did nothing of these... they reached to (people's) hearts through footmarches" (p.19).

The Chipko movement reached a significant milestone in 1980 when a government ban (under Prime Minister Indira Gandhi) was placed on the felling of trees in all parts of Uttarakhand (the area most affected). In the documentary *As Women See It* (Dhanraj, 1983), early scenes show a group of women singing while they walk through the forest to collect firewood and fodder. It is obvious from the scenes that, while the women were highly committed to the welfare of their families, they were also tired and frustrated with the quality of their life. They seemed resentful of the fact that the men were not more involved in their daily tasks. Singing while working seemed to be a common practice among the women. It was the manifestation of the solidarity among the women. Apparently, singing among the villagers also served as a method of activism. In Weber (1989), for example, folksongs are said to be one of the most effective method for educating the masses. Chipko activist, Ghanshyam Sailani, wrote one of the well-known folksongs. It speaks of the relationship between humans and nature:

*I have been standing for ages,
I wish to live for you.
Do not chop me, I am yours.
I wish to give you something in
future.
I am milk and water for you.*

*I am thick shade and showers.
I manufacture soil and manure.
I wish to give you foodgrains.
Some of my kind bear fruits.
They ripen for you.
I wish to ripen with sweetness.
I wish to bow down for you.
I am the pleasant season.
I am spring, I am rains.
I am with Earth and life.
I am everything for you.
Do not cut me, I have life.
I feel pain, so my name is tree.
Rolling of logs will create
landslides.
Remember. I stand on slopes and
below is the village Where we
were destroyed.
Dust is flying there.
The hill tops have become barren.
All the water sources have been
dried up.
Do not cut us, save us.
Plant us, decorate the Earth.
What is ours, everything is ours.
Leave something for posterity.
Such is the Chipko movement.
(in Weber, 1989, pp. 80)*

What makes the above folksong compelling is its standpoint; it was written in such a way as to illustrate how or what a tree may say if it had the ability to speak. The human-nature connection the folksong expresses further enhances the belief that the Chipko movement is ecological in origin,

and not just economical. The folksong may have begun as an appeal citing how the tree serves as a provider. However, towards the end, it seems more of a warning that destruction will follow if the tree's life is brought to an end. In some ways, this positionalising also aligns with that of the women participants of the Chipko movement. On one hand, the women may be seen as care-givers of their family. Yet, if treated wrongly or if threatened, the women can also rise up as protesters against the government and loggers. Villagers in the 1974 protest reportedly moved to the forest while they played drums, shouted slogans and sang songs such as the one below written by the women in Lata:

Hey, didi [elder sister], hey bhulli [younger sister], let us all unite and with our own efforts let us save our jungle.

The maldars [rich people] and thekedars [contractors] want to make money.

Our cows and our cattle, they go to the jungle

And with them our young people.

Hey, Rishi Maharaj [a local form of address to a god or supreme being], come and

show yourself with your real power.

Chase far away the 600 trucks heavily loaded, and along with them drive back the strangers.

Hey, Lata Bhagvati [addressing

the goddess of Lata, Nanda Devi], come and show yourself with your real power,

chase far away the malders [rich people] and thekedars [contractors].

When our jungle is saved, only then will we return [to our villages].

(in Linkenbach, 2007, p. 65).

The above song seems particularly striking because of its reference to the god Rishi Maharaj and the goddess Nanda Devi. While the previous folksong can be read as arising from the standpoint of a non-human being, this folksong appears to call out to or summon a non-human being or a divine entity, to be more specific. The line, "Hey, didi [elder sister], hey bhulli [younger sister], let us all unite and with our own efforts let us save our jungle." specifically calls out to the women to display solidarity, encouraging them to stand up as agents of change. Calling out to a goddess also extends the notion of sisterhood and a strong bond with nature. Again, this illustrates the movement's focus on relations and care, whether it is between humans or with non-humans.

In the movement's protests, songs did not exist on their own. Instead, music was often accompanied by marches or processions as evident in one of the scenes in *As Women See It*. In one particular scene, villagers were shown marching and singing to express their outrage against the contractors. These protesters did not use

only their own bodies as instruments of protest. They also constructed an effigy of the contractors they wished to cast out of the forest, and threw it over a bridge. In the words of one of the activists,

Whenever someone in the village is possessed by a bad spirit, we exorcise him by beating the bad spirit out of him. The contractors have possessed our forests so we made an effigy of them and chased them away.

What makes the above action interesting is the protesters' choice to avoid physical violence (unto the loggers) by creating an effigy to communicate their fury. The reference to "bad spirits" and "exorcism" implies the people's dependence on divine intervention to solve their misfortune. At the same time, however, the villagers did not depend on prayers alone. Instead, the choice to stage a protest also served as evidence of the people's collective agency.

Besides music and marches or processions, it is evident from literature on the Chipko that *padayatras* (journey by foot, especially one that is long in distance) were common in the Chipko movement. According to Weber (1989) *padayatras* helped deliver the Chipko movement to remote areas. Weber claims, "the aim (of *padayatras*) is to communicate with the villagers in the villages visited and more so to raise the political awareness in the country" (p. 87). Further, *padayatras* not only served as a means of communicating face to face with the people; it was also a

means of recruiting new members.

Tree-hugging, singing, the use of effigies, processions and *padayatras* are non-violent forms of protest. These methods align with *satyagraha*, a Gandhian concept that is supported by members of the Chipko movement. By *satyagraha*, Gandhi meant "holding onto Truth," "firmness in Truth," a "relentless search for Truth" and "Truth force" (King, 1999; Gandhi 2001). Gandhi's *satyagraha* combined principled non-violence with shrewd techniques of resistance to subjugation (p. 15). Gandhi's attention to "truth" aligns with Bitzer's views on the rhetorical situation because what is viewed as Truth exists independently of human perception (i.e. just because one is not aware of a given situation does not mean that the situation does not exist or is not "true"). One of the aims of *satyagraha* (according to Weber, 1989) is to convert the opponent into a friend. It is an approach that must be used *with* someone, instead of *against* someone. For example, Weber reports that in many instances, the activists not only managed to put a stop to tree felling, they also took the time and initiative to explain to the contractors the reasoning behind the protest. The protesters informed the contractors of the importance of the trees for survival and "remind[ed] them that they too were (generally) mountain people who would experience the same problems...if they did not protect the forests" (Weber, 1989, p. 80). Essentially, *satyagraha* places the importance of the interrelationship between "faith in the goodness of [people], truth, non-violence,

self-suffering, the relationship of the means to the end, a rejection of coercion, and fearlessness..." (Weber, 1989, p. 83). *Satyagraha* also influenced the Chipko members' acts of fasting and negotiating in addition to the singing, processions, *padayatras* and hugging of trees.⁴ According to Gandhi, belief in God or a "higher being" is a prerequisite to *satyagraha*. How one defines God is not relevant. What is more important is that one believes in a Supreme Power. Gandhi insists, "To bear all kinds of tortures without a murmur of resentment is impossible for a human being without the strength that comes from God" (p. 364).

DISCUSSION / CONCLUSION

In the Chipko movement, the protesters' state of spirituality was clearly obtained via their focus on non-violent means. The protesters' inclusion of songs, poetry and *padayatras* etc. was a conscious effort to increase their spiritual commitment/connections to both humans and non-humans (nature). Efforts shown by the activists in this study serve as evidence that those at the grassroots level, no matter how marginalised, are

capable of overcoming environmental and political exigencies without relying on violent means of protest. On the contrary, by using non-violent ways, the people exhibit a measure of direct action that is just as powerful (if not more powerful) to defeat their adversaries. Studying the rhetoric of non-violent movements not only helps us to understand their strengths and possible limitations. At the same time, it will also help to further advance this type of rhetoric as a leading mode of rhetoric, and not just as an alternative. In other words, non-violent rhetoric *can* be an effective method for activism. Non-violent rhetoric is *not* a tool for the weak.

The Chipko movement began as a result of conflicts over forest resources. Although colonial impact played a role in the inception of the movement, the people's growing needs and the government's ignorance of the population's conditions resulted in conflict and struggles. Despite, or due to, perhaps, their non-violent approach and strong spiritual principles, the women of the Chipko along with the men and children, managed to overcome their hardship. The movement's *fitting response* to the situation serves as a fine example for other activists or movements struggling for the same justice.

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⁴ Although some would understandably equate *satyagraha* with civil disobedience, Gandhi (2001) maintains that civil disobedience and non-cooperation are *branches* of *satyagraha*. King (1999) defines *civil disobedience* as "deliberate, peaceful and open violations of statutes, laws, orders, decrees, or military or police directives, accompanied by willingness to accept all of the penalties" (p. 527). While civil disobedience relates to the refusal to obey human/state law (Gandhi, 2001), the concept of *satyagraha* relates to a deeper, spiritual meaning.

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Art of Speaking – An Impression of Man: Analysing the Need for Communication and Soft Skills

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ABSTRACT

This paper aims to establish the fact that simply scoring good marks and completing a degree is not enough to succeed in this swiftly changing world. Soft skills are an indispensable part of the present system of education. This paper documents a brief survey of soft skills with a focus on etiquette and manners and how, with them, students can have a more complete personality. The paper aims at revealing the need and role of good communication skills for professional students and how they can help in building a successful career. Soft skills, along with good manners and conduct can complement the personality of any individual. Etiquette and manners form an integral part of soft skills, as each aspect of communication i.e. listening, speaking, body language, writing etc. is interrelated with courtesy. There is ample evidence that technical students lack the required standard of communication skills, particularly when measured against the needs of the industry. The teaching of soft skills and communication must not be undertaken merely to complete the syllabus; it should also be seen as a means to instil good manners and offer tips on appropriate behaviour. Impeccable soft skills and etiquette go hand-in-glove with every level of good and effective communication, good behaviour, age-appropriate conduct and, above all, becoming a better co-worker and human being.

Keywords: Education, EQ, hard skills, IQ, life skills, soft skills, training

INTRODUCTION

Life's not about finding yourself; Life is about creating yourself (Shaw)

The rapid development of industry and technology has made communication imperative. Communication is the most important tool at the heart of all organisational operations. In fact,

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recruitment advertisements of all major and minor organisations specifically ask for candidates with good communication skills. Higher and professional education not only requires fluency in spoken language but also in written form. Graduates of technical programmes require an ever increasing range of skills to maintain relevance in the global environment of the new millennium. The expectations and requirements that the industry has of professional students vary from place to place and from business to business and, hence, are varied and complex. There is ample evidence that graduate engineers lack the required standard of soft skills, particularly when evaluated against industrial needs.

This paper documents a brief survey of soft skills with a focus on the role of etiquette and manners in producing pupils who are more complete in personality. Soft skills along with good manners and conduct can complement the personality of any individual. The teaching of soft skills and communication must not be undertaken with the objective of merely completing the syllabus but also should be seen as a means to instil manners and to offer tips for appropriate behaviour. If basic and elementary etiquette is taught to pupils especially at a young age, they can flower into individuals who will easily be able to climb the ladder of success. If educators take special responsibility to teach soft skills in a broader perspective teaching etiquette in speaking, listening, table manners and telephone and mobile use in addition to teaching courtesy, empathy,

honesty and ethics can have a major positive influence on the development of students' personality. Soft skills pertaining to etiquette and manners can fulfil an important role in shaping an individual's personality. It is highly important for everyone to acquire adequate skills of general conduct beyond academic and technical skills. Expertise in communication and soft skills is now considered the most crucial element in the make-up of a global engineer.

Unemployability is today a greater issue than unemployment. As APJ Abdul Kalam, former President of India has said, "*It is not unemployment that is the major problem; it is the question of unemployability that is the major crisis in this competitive arena....*" As if in answer to this we have the words of Dr. Jitendra K Das, Director of FORE School of Management: "*At FORE we are driven by employers' demands, and we shape up our students in such a way that they become employable and get selected for the industry.*"

It is very important to create a good impression and impact for professional development. Good soft skills will help to attract the interest and gain the trust of other people. Technical skills will not have any value if the individual possesses poor soft skills. Soft skills help a person to contribute his best to the team and the organisation so that the best results may be achieved. Personnel with soft skills are better empowered than other workers and can create opportunities for themselves. Soft skills not only improve an academician's career, for instance; they also lead to personal

growth. The goal of soft skills training is to give the personnel an opportunity to learn and practice new patterns of behaviour and, in doing so, to enhance human relations. Soft skills development focusses on those elements of training that require changes in behaviour and thinking. Organisations today recognise the strong relationship between the soft skills of their employees and effective customer relationships. Soft skills focus on how a person conducts himself or herself at work. Each category of skills can be applied to almost any position in nearly every company. That's one of the reasons why so many institutions of higher education offer students the opportunity to develop soft skills as part of the curriculum. Soft skills do not only provide benefits in one field nor do they need to be discarded after serving their purpose. These skills can help the individual in every area of his professional life. It includes all aspects of verbal and non-verbal communication to ensure that the user is equipped to sell himself effectively.

Good personality and communication are synonymous with good etiquette, well-mannered behavior and good conduct. Impeccable soft skills and etiquette go hand-in-glove with every level of effective communication, good behavior, age-appropriate conduct, and above all, becoming a better co-worker and human being. Etiquette and good manners form an integral part of soft skills as each aspect of communication i.e. listening, speaking, body language, writing etc. is linked to courtesy. Moreover, a Well-groomed and

well-mannered personality can significantly increase chances of success in personal, social and professional life. Developing etiquette and manners as part of one's personality can be learnt effortlessly through skills, and can prove beneficial in building relationships and forming a pleasant impression.

Any facilitator's dream is that graduates, especially professionally qualified ones, should not only be experts in a certain field but display a mature personality and a well-balanced, rounded education as well. This characteristic is reflected in soft skills, not in hard skills. Soft skills should complement hard skills, which are the technical requirements of a job the student is trained to do. It is highly important that every student acquires adequate skills beyond academic or technical knowledge. While hard skills are a passport for one's career, soft skills are the visa. Hard skills take one to the country whereas to enter it, a visa, or soft skills, is needed. Hard skills are needed for earning a living and soft skills are needed for living a life well and successfully. Developing great tech skills but ignoring the need for soft skills is akin to moving one step forward and taking two steps backwards.

METHODOLOGY

Most empirical studies done on soft skills find that the highest rating criteria from employers' perception are communication skills (Scheetz, 1977; Henry & Raymond, 1982; Scott & Frontezak, 1996). Other important criteria are team work and

learning skills followed by technical skills. Billing (2003) conducted a comparative study between the United Kingdom, the United States, New Zealand, Australia and South Africa on skills requirement among graduates. His study demonstrates that for all countries under study, communication skills were the most important. According to Scheetz (1977) communication skills include oral, writing, listening, positive thinking and interaction with customers. Apart from this, his study found that employers were looking for a workforce equipped with leadership skills, is adaptable, mature and confident and has interpersonal skills. Courtesy, basic etiquette, interpersonal relationship, time management, body language, a positive attitude, leadership qualities and communication skills are the significant soft skills that employers desire in their workforce. Indeed, these are required not only in one's career but also in order to lead to life of success.

The ability to practise high moral standards in professional tasks and social interactions is one of the major requirements in soft skills. These skills also include the ability to analyse ethical problems and make problem-solving decisions. Having a sense of responsibility towards society is another criterion of soft skills.

The paper exhorts facilitators to take special responsibility regarding soft skills because undergraduate study is the optimum period when facilitators have a major influence on the development of their students. Personnel with soft skills are more empowered than others and create

opportunities for themselves. Soft skills not only improve an academician's career but they also offer personal growth. The goal of soft-skill training is to give personnel an opportunity to learn and practise new patterns of behaviour and, in doing so, to enhance human relations. Training in soft skills focusses on those elements that require change in behaviour and thinking.

Manners and etiquette are expressions of inner character, and both go hand-in-hand. Manners include common sense, a combination of generosity of spirit and specific know-how. Proper etiquette is meant to help people get along with each other and avoid conflict. Manners are made up of trivialities of deportment which can be easily learnt with the help of communication. Etiquette and manners cover behaviour in speech, action and the act of living; in other words, in every type of interaction and in every situation. The rules of proper etiquette and protocol have been around for years, but they are far more important in this day and age than they have ever been before. Implementing proper etiquette and protocol skills into everyday life should be the norm for everyone, including children. After all, a person who displays proper etiquette not only feels good about himself; he also makes those around him feel important and respected through effective communication. An understanding of interpersonal communication infused with etiquette and manners is an essential ingredient in cooking up good relationships. Interpersonal communication lies at the junction of our cultural understanding and

construction and consequently, each of these components influences one another in more ways we can imagine. Language or the way we speak is perhaps the most pertinent tool in communication. There are rules of cultural etiquette that regulate the appropriate expression of a language. Applying etiquette and manners in communication enhances what we want to convey to our loved ones. Etiquette refers to socially accepted behavior and manners to appropriate action that should be followed in formal situations. It includes office manners, dining etiquette and procedures to be followed in different situations. Etiquette differs according to culture and nation. But there are certain common features which are generally accepted across the world. For example; showing respect to and being gentle with the elderly and women, taking care of guests, being gentle and polite in words and actions, eating without making a loud noise etc. All this should be taken care of in personal as well as professional life.

Behaving appropriately can help one succeed in reaching one's goals. The pertinent question that arises is, can etiquette be taught and, if yes, then how? Manners and etiquette in the classroom can be taught by brainstorming with students to get them talking about appropriate behaviour in various settings. Discussions can be held on what is the appropriate behaviour for conversations, including listening when someone is speaking to you, speaking when spoken to, not talking about private matters in public and looking at the person to whom you are speaking. Students can be asked to

role-play conversations with their peers and adults, focussing on making small talk about appropriate and positive topics, giving and receiving a compliment graciously and to always be polite and smiling. The catalyst for real change will come with these subtle changes.

It is best when a professional person guides his/her behaviour by the following values which are essentially related to reason, purpose and self-esteem. The question which arises is, is man's life an art of living? Or is it the expression of freedom with or without moral values to give added meaning to it?

Speech is one of the means to add value to human living. Speech can reflect one's behaviour, moral values and ideas. It articulates vision, endurance, will power, forbearance, integrity, and courage, among others. Speaking is the action of conveying information or expressing one's thoughts and feelings in spoken language. The words one chooses can have an incredible impact on the way people perceive one. An effective communicator is one who is able to successfully deliver a message in its entirety to any recipient.

Effective communication is also all about the art of speaking persuasively and in such a way that will convince the listener that one really knows what one is talking about. The art of speaking is the ability to speak well, that is, to get to the point, express the core of the matter at hand, say only what is necessary, be convincing and pleasing and have the ability to influence others. The ability to do all this is an art.

This art can definitely be acquired. With frequent practice, these skills will become easier; they are worth learning as they are the key to success. Soft skills can be polished at any given time as every act of life is an opportunity to practise soft skills; one can improve by practising them when conversing professionally, by encouraging others, by providing constructive feedback or by speaking positively at every chance. As Belzer says, soft skills is an art; one should be ready to acquire them. (Belzer, 2004)

There are a number of institutes that offer courses in soft skills in India, namely:

- Indian Institute of Technology Roorkee
- Indian Institute of Technology Kanpur
- Indian Institute of Technology Kharagpur
- National Institute of Technical Teachers' Training Chandigarh
- National Institute of Technical Teachers' Training Kolkata
- National Institute of Technical Teachers' Training Bhopal

Some are born with the gift of the gab and others acquire it but for both groups, speaking skills are improved through practice. To improve in speaking skills, one must be aware of the dos and don'ts of speaking skills. The art of speaking is a showcase of the individual's moral values and can display their importance. Firstly,

speech depicts an individual's character and hence it has to be carefully nurtured. Secondly, all individual characters can definitely have an impact on the national character so one's character has to be consciously developed.

DISCUSSION

What are soft skills?

Soft skills is an umbrella term which includes communicative skills, listening skills, team skills, leadership quality, creativity and logic, problem-solving skills, diplomacy and change readiness, among others. Soft skills aims at developing key skills such as:

1. Business etiquette
2. Interpersonal skills
3. Negotiation skills
4. Team skills
5. Social skills
6. Public skills
7. Listening skills
8. Communicative skills
9. Telephone etiquette
10. Table manners
11. The ability to motivate others
12. The ability to maintain social talk as well as carry on discussions
13. Group presentation
14. The ability to explain details to others
15. Leadership skills

16. Behavioural traits such as attitude, motivation and time management
17. English communication skills
18. Grooming - dressing etiquette, office etiquette
19. Effective use of body language
20. Presentation skills
21. Interview skills
22. Group discussion
23. Time management
24. Stress management etc.
8. Speaking at an audible and soothing volume of voice
9. Avoiding being aggressive during discussions
10. Dressing to suit one's profession and to create positive vibes in one's workplace
11. Taking the lead
12. Clear communication
13. Taking care of one's behaviour and dealing with the annoying behaviour of others

These can be practised through effective speech techniques.

RESULTS

How to enhance soft skills

Soft skills cannot be learnt quickly in an intensive class; they are developed throughout life. Better interpersonal relationship management skills can be enhanced through the following:

1. Participation in team activities
2. Cultivation of positive attitude and thinking
3. Positive work ethic
4. Co-operation with others
5. Socialising
6. Being an active listener
7. Greeting family members, colleagues and one's superiors at work

These soft skills can be developed through constant practice and training. Soft skills alone may not land one a job but along with hard skills they are the best tool one can have in seeking employment. In fact it is believed **that hard skills get you hired but the lack of soft skills get you fired**. "Soft skills are very important in business. It is essential to be technically sound, but one should also have the ability to convey the idea to the masses in the simplest possible manner," says Mayurkumar Gadewar, an ERP consultant with Pricewaterhouse Coopers. Prasad Kaipa *et al.* (2002)¹ conducted a study on the role of soft skills development in entrepreneurial success and categorised important the soft skills as leadership, decision-making, conflict resolution, negotiation, communication, creativity and presentation skills. It was

observed that soft skills are essential for entrepreneurial success and maximising human capital in any enterprise. The findings of the study also emphasised the importance of hiring the right people with the right skills set. Prasad Kaipa *et al.* described soft skills as the keystone to success and stated that good leadership presupposes refined soft skills. Some of the skills are related to attitude while others are processes and still others relate to awareness, self-control, and team focus, influencing others and building relationships. The researchers observed that nearly one quarter of executives in high-tech positions get into trouble due to poor soft skills. About 70% of managers feel that soft skills are more important now than they were five years ago. According to Prasad Kaipa, 'Technical skills get you at the door, but soft skills keep you at the job' (Prasad Kaipa *et al.*, 2002).

We have to fine-tune students' attitudes, values, beliefs, motivation, desires, feelings, eagerness to learn, willingness to share and embrace new ideas, goal orientation, flexibility, persuasion, futuristic thinking, ability to feel compassion and diplomacy and the various skills sets of communication, manners and etiquette so that they will be able to deal with different situations diligently and responsibly. Companies nowadays look for people skilled in all the above-mentioned areas. It is neither wise nor possible for anyone to overlook these skills. According to a Nasscom-McKinsey report, the Indian business sector's biggest challenge ever is that of talent shortage. It faced a talent shortage of 3.1 million

knowledge workers, across Industry, by 2010 compounded by the fact that a mere 10% of fresh graduates of that year were actually employable! The situation is grave, but it can be addressed through solutions that empower the youth such as reshaping assessment methods, especially exams, at the large affiliating universities to assess higher-order thinking skills and not measure memorised knowledge. This would require institutions to focus on learning rather than memorisation and mere understanding. In order to do so, curricula should be designed in a way to promote teaching-learning sessions where students are actively learning and developing their own analytical and evaluation skills. In the age of globalisation, it is all the more essential to have interpersonal skills to work efficiently with people of varying cultures from all over the world.

A team is a small number of people with complementary skills (i.e. skills that go together to complete the set of skills needed to perform a task/project) who are committed to a common purpose, performance goals and approach for which they hold themselves mutually accountable (i.e. each team member is equally responsible for successfully performing the task/project) (Jan Kutzenback, Douglas Smith)

With globalisation, the geographical boundaries have disappeared. Now project teams in most companies comprise

experts from all over the world. With technological advancements people can now hold meetings and discussion via video conference, chat or emails. Therefore, cross-cultural understanding has become a new skill that companies look for in prospective employees.

People are like diamonds. Their basic value multiplies a hundred fold when they are polished. Today's youth needs to be groomed for the challenges of real life world. (Ramesh Batavia, xxxx .) For ages we have had a higher education system which allows us to train our youth to handle machines or issues or numbers. However, we do not train them to deal with the most important component of any industry i.e. people. Soft skills are sometimes referred to as people skills. Based on the examples provided earlier, soft skills are not easy to quantify, and are sometimes described as intangible.

It has been said that one's IQ (Intelligence Quotient) is fixed from birth. But one's EQ (Emotional Intelligence Quotient), IPQ (Influence and Persuasion Quotient), MQ (Motivation Quotient) and all other types of "Q" can be improved on.

CONCLUSION

Individuals are like shoes; the more you polish them, the more they shine, said Ramchandram, a soft skills, etiquette and public speaking trainer. This paper aims to drive home the fact that simply scoring good marks and completing a degree is not enough to succeed in this swiftly changing world. The gap between academic output

and industrial requirement must be bridged to improve the employability of students and to enhance the quality of higher education.

Soft skills are the answer, and should become an indispensable part of the present system of education. In addition to this, it has become utterly important to raise children with social and moral ethics so that they may become good human beings and responsible citizens. Hence, apart from academic skills, soft skills and emotional management skills, social ethics should also be inculcated in children so that they may have a holistic upbringing and education.

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Motivation, Challenges and Success Factors of Entrepreneurs: An Empirical Analysis

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this paper is to investigate the motivation factors, challenges and success factors of entrepreneurs in India. Primary data have been collected from entrepreneurs and analysed to approach the objectives. The results indicate that the main motivation factors are intrinsic factors like following one's dreams, being one's own boss and earning lots of money. Self-confidence and a high degree of commitment are the most important success factors, and the biggest challenges are the raising of funds and hiring and retaining of the workforce. The study might help young technocrats in understanding entrepreneurship in the Indian context. It may also aid policymakers in taking steps for promotion of entrepreneurship in India. However, more evidence-based information is needed on the entrepreneurs in India before any generalisation of results can be made. Additionally, the empirical tests were conducted only on the entrepreneurs in the National Capital Region in the period from 2009 to 2010 and, hence, the results of the study cannot be assumed to extend beyond this group of entrepreneurs or to different study periods.

Keywords: Entrepreneurship, entrepreneurial motivation, entrepreneurial challenges, entrepreneurial success factors

INTRODUCTION

The entrepreneur is one who undertakes to organise, manage and assume the risks of a business. Moreover, an entrepreneur is

an innovator or developer who recognises and seizes opportunities; converts those opportunities into workable/marketable ideas; adds value through time, effort, money or skills; assumes the risks of the competitive marketplace to implement these ideas; and realises the rewards from these efforts (Kuratko and Hodgetts 2007).

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Although it is assumed that a rational human being is risk averse, an Entrepreneur chooses risk taking. Being an entrepreneur is often viewed as an aversive career choice where one is faced with everyday life and work situations that are fraught with increased uncertainty, impediments, failures and frustrations associated with the process of new firm creation (Campbell, 1992). Regardless of this, there are some individuals who take the risk and become entrepreneurs. Examining the scenario of entrepreneurship in India, it has been observed that entrepreneurial activity has declined in India in the past few years. As per the Total Entrepreneurship Activity (TEA) data of Global Entrepreneurship Monitor Report, the TEA level in India was only 6.9 per cent in 2008 while it was 17.9 per cent in 2002. Liberalisation of the Indian economy in 1991 and the Information Technology boom of the mid to late 90s have been significant factors, leading to the wave of entrepreneurship sweeping through the country. The Indian government encouraged entrepreneurship by providing training and facilities to entrepreneurs. India is ranked second in the world in entrepreneurial activity; however, India now appears to have a Total Entrepreneurial Activity level rather close to the world average. India now stands ninth in the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor survey of entrepreneurial countries. It is ranked the highest among 28 countries in necessity-based entrepreneurship and fifth from the lowest in opportunity-based entrepreneurship.

Entrepreneurial activity is essential for the growth and development of a country.

As per Schumpeter (1926) "it is difficult to see how economic regions would compete without individuals, who constantly renew business processes and innovate with new products, services and strategies." It contends that developing new entrepreneurs is seen as a major strategic task in the policy programmes of government. Thus it makes sense to investigate the motivation and success factors of the entrepreneurs and to understand the challenges faced by the entrepreneurs in India.

LITERATURE REVIEW

There is a substantial amount of literature available on motivation factors, challenges and success factors of entrepreneurs in other countries, but in India few studies could be found on this issue. However, studies from other developing countries might be considered relevant in the Indian scenario. Hussain and Yaqub (2010) in their study on Pakistani entrepreneurs found that in developing countries money is the main motivation factor for small entrepreneurs. Customer service and relative business experience are the key success factors while lack of access to financial capital, bureaucratic hurdles and environmental uncertainty are the major challenges for entrepreneurs. Segal, Borgia and Schoenfeld (2005) found that tolerance for risk, perceived feasibility and desirability significantly predict self-employment intentions. Researcher Bradley R Johnson (1990), in his reviews of achievement motivation of entrepreneurs, found that psychological traits and motives are important factors

behind the motivation of entrepreneurs. Cooper and Artz (1995) in their study examined the importance of satisfaction to an entrepreneur's willingness to remain in a venture. Particular goals, attitudes and backgrounds were all found to be important determinants of an entrepreneur's eventual satisfaction. Gilad and Levine (1986) proposed two closely-related explanations of entrepreneurial motivation, the 'push' theory and the 'pull' theory. The 'push' theory argued that individuals are pushed into entrepreneurship by negative external forces such as job dissatisfaction, difficulty finding employment, insufficient salary or an inflexible work schedule. The 'pull' theory contends that individuals who are attracted to entrepreneurial activities are seeking independence, self-fulfillment, wealth and other desirable outcomes. Research (Keeble *et al.*, 1992; Orhan & Scott, 2001) indicates that individuals become entrepreneurs primarily due to 'pull' factors rather than 'push' factors.

Regarding the success factors of a business, it is evident that the owner's previous experience, access to capital and interpersonal skills are crucial for the success of a small business (Pratt, 2001). Hard work, interpersonal skills and customer service orientation of the business owners are also important drivers of the performance of small businesses (Benzing *et al.*, 2005; Chu *et al.*, 2007; Coy *et al.*, 2007; Duscheneau & Gartner, 1990). Psychological factors like attitude towards risk, innovativeness, planning skills etc. have a critical impact on performance of the business (Frese *et al.*, 2002; Koop *et al.*, 2000).

Poor infrastructure, corruption, unstable political and economic environment, complex taxation and poor law and order are common problems faced by developing countries like India. Kalyani (2006) in his study on problems of small-scale entrepreneurs found that entrepreneurs face production, marketing, infrastructure and financing problems like retention of key workers, developing new products/services, expansion to other markets, increasing productivity, upgrading technology, creating business alliances, management of cash flows, expansion outside their territory, risk management, finding new financing, buying another company or launching a spinoff and going public.

From the above review of literature, it can be understood that there are many motivation, success and challenge factors suggested by researchers. But most of the studies have been conducted in developed countries where the economic conditions and infrastructural facilities are advanced. In a developing country like India, entrepreneurs face different situations. Against this backdrop, the purpose of this study is to investigate the motivations, success factors and challenges faced by entrepreneurs in India.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A primary study has been conducted among entrepreneurs in the National Capital Region of India. On the basis of the literature surveyed a closed-ended questionnaire has been developed to understand the motivation factors, success factors and

challenges faced by the entrepreneurs. The reliability and validity of the instrument have been tested before administering the questionnaire. Cronbach's alpha, a measure of internal consistency reliability (Pedhazur and Schmelkin, 1991), was 0.77. An alpha level of 0.70 or above is generally considered to be acceptable (Barringer and Bluedorn, 1999). The primary data has been collected from approximately 100 entrepreneurs selected randomly from the population. A five-point Likert scale has been used to measure perceived motivation and success variables: 5 was "extremely important"; 4 was "very important"; 3 was "can't say"; 2 was "not very important"; and 1 was "unimportant." A higher mean score on a variable indicates greater importance. On the basis of responses mean scores and standard deviations have been calculated for all the questions. Factor analysis was used to determine whether the success variables group together on significant factors. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (Kaiser, 1970; Kaiser, 1974) and Bartlett's test of Sphericity (Bartlett, 1954) were used for test to establish the justification of implementation of factor analysis. Principal component analysis, scree plot and component matrix were used to establish factors.

EMPIRICAL RESULTS

The data analysis in Table 1 revealed that the main motivation factor for an entrepreneur is "to reach his dreams"; the next most important motivation factor is "to do what one enjoys to do." "Money" and

"to be his/her own boss" are also important motivation factors. Similar findings have been observed in the studies carried out by Bewayo, 1995; Shabbir and Gregorio, 1996. It indicates that the inner desire of a person is the most essential motivating factor for an entrepreneur. Moreover, since currently the market is full of job opportunities, downsizing and dissatisfaction with the job are not very significant motivating factors for an entrepreneur. During recession periods it has been observed that downsizing becomes a more important driving force for growth of entrepreneurship.

From Table 2, it could be observed that the main challenge which is faced by Indian entrepreneurs is "raising of funds" for the business. Similar results have been reported by Hussain and Yaqub (2010) in their study on entrepreneurs. Although in the past few years India has witnessed a fast growth in venture capital financing, financing is still a major challenge for small entrepreneurs. Secondly, "hiring workforce," retention of workforce and other workforce-related challenges are the next big problems for entrepreneurs. The attrition rates are found to be very high in small businesses. Having a right business idea for starting a business is a huge challenge for entrepreneurs. It has been observed that small entrepreneurs change their business idea within one to two years of starting the business. Choosing the right business partner and fear of failure are also the big tribulations which deter entrepreneurs from the entrepreneurial activity. The entrepreneurs surveyed have given least weightage to legal and regulatory

TABLE 1
Motivation Factors for Entrepreneurs

<i>S.No.</i>	<i>Motivation factors</i>	<i>Mean Score</i>	<i>Std. Dev.</i>
1	To reach your dreams	4.8	1.23
2	To do what you enjoy	4	0.89
3	Money	3.9	1.15
4	To be your own boss	3.5	1.06
5	To reach your full potential	3.2	0.85
6	To contribute to society	3	0.77
7	Dissatisfaction with the job	2.5	1.14
8	Downsizing	1.2	0.67

TABLE 2
Challenges Faced by Entrepreneurs in Initial Stages of Business

<i>S.No.</i>	<i>Challenging Factors</i>	<i>Mean Score</i>	<i>Std. dev.</i>
1	Raising of funds	4.5	0.95
2	Hiring of workforce	4.2	1.13
3	Choosing the right partner	3.7	1.04
4	Fear of failure	3.5	0.85
5	Having the right business idea	3	0.77
6	Legal and regulatory requirements	2.2	1.11
7	Lack of relevant knowledge	1.5	0.82
8	Not getting family support	1.2	1.03

requirements, family support and lack of knowledge.

The empirical analysis of success factors shown in Table 3 revealed that the “confidence of the entrepreneur in his ability to succeed” and “high degree of commitment” are the two most important success factors as perceived by the entrepreneurs. The other factors like “future orientation,” “high level of energy,” “risk taking ability,” “desire for responsibility,” “managerial skills,” “passion,” “knowledge of the business,” “persistence,” “networking skills” and “creativity” are also critical for success of an entrepreneur. However, the

entrepreneurs believe that “flexibility” and “prior experience in the business” are not essential for success of an entrepreneur.

The results of factor analysis on success factor variables have been shown in Table 4. The Keiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was 0.864 and Bartlett’s test of Sphericity was significant at 0.000. The factor analysis led to four factors, which account for 66.261 percent of the cumulative variance. These factors can be interpreted as: self-motivation, personality, risk-taking ability and business acumen.

The first factor is called ‘Self-motivation’. It explains 22.36 per cent of

TABLE 3
Critical success factors as perceived by Entrepreneurs

<i>S.No.</i>	<i>Success factors</i>	<i>Mean Score</i>	<i>Std. Dev.</i>
1	Confidence in your ability to succeed	4.3	1.21
2	High degree of commitment	4.1	1.27
3	High level of energy	3.8	1.25
4	Knowledge of the business	3.6	0.98
5	Future orientation	3.6	1.20
6	Passion	3.5	1.18
7	Networking skills	3.4	1.35
8	Desire for responsibility	3.3	0.95
9	Risk-taking ability	3.2	0.88
10	Managerial Skills	3.1	1.24
11	Creativity	3.1	1.16
12	Persistence	3	1.07
13	Flexibility	2.5	1.11
14	Experience in the business	2	1.27

TABLE 4
Principal component factor analysis (varimax rotation), factor loadings and communalities for success variables

<i>S.No.</i>	<i>Variables</i>	<i>Rotated Component Matrix</i>				<i>Communalities</i>
		<i>Component</i>				<i>Extraction values</i>
		<i>Factor 1</i>	<i>Factor 2</i>	<i>Factor 3</i>	<i>Factor 4</i>	
1	Future orientation	0.628				0.523
2	High level of energy	0.584	0.514			0.701
3	Confidence in your ability to succeed		0.989			0.584
4	Risk-taking ability			0.871		0.795
5	Desire for responsibility		0.707			0.588
6	Managerial Skills		0.739			0.713
7	High degree of commitment	0.757	0.476			0.731
8	Flexibility		0.695			0.542
9	Passion	0.506	0.640			0.682
10	Knowledge of the business			0.491	0.678	0.800
11	Experience in the business				0.901	0.853
12	Persistence	0.655				0.485
13	Networking skills		0.657		0.455	0.687
14	Creativity		0.719			0.594

variance and contains success variables: future orientation, high level of energy, high degree of commitment, passion and persistence. According to Zafirovski (1999) entrepreneurs are often induced by motives and impulses other than the rational pursuit of profit, such as power to create. However, entrepreneurs need creativity and proactiveness or a high capacity for anticipating opportunities and action orientation after failure and for goal orientation and solution seeking (McClelland, 1961). 'Personality' is the second factor. It includes variables: high level of energy, confidence in your ability to succeed, desire for responsibility, managerial skills, high degree of commitment, flexibility, passion, networking skills and creativity. This factor accounts for 20.84 per cent of variance. Individual personality traits have an impact on the success of an enterprise. One may acquire these traits by training and practice. Factor three can be referred to as "Risk-taking ability", and includes the variables of risk-taking ability and knowledge of business. It accounts for 12.04 per cent of variance. In order to manage a successful business, entrepreneurs need to take calculated risk. The fourth factor can be called "Business acumen". It consists of success variables: knowledge of business, experience in the business and networking skills. This factor explains 11.01 per cent of variance. It shows that prior knowledge and experience in the business are important factors for the success of a business.

CONCLUSION

The study aimed at gaining insights into the motivations of Indian entrepreneurs, their perception about success factors and the challenges faced by them. The questionnaire method was used to investigate 100 Indian entrepreneurs. The analysis of responses revealed that the Indian entrepreneurs are mainly motivated by intrinsic factors. They believe that by being an entrepreneur they can follow their dreams, be their own boss and earn lots of money. Their self confidence and high degree of commitment are the most important success factors. They believe that one can succeed if he/she has strong determination and firm belief in his/her ability to succeed. The success factors were grouped into four major factors: self-motivation, personality, risk-taking ability and business acumen. The biggest challenge to the entrepreneurs is the raising of funds. Entrepreneurs also face a challenge in hiring and retaining workforce.

The study might be helpful for young entrepreneurs seeking to understand the Indian scenario of entrepreneurship. It might also be valuable for policymakers who need to understand the motivations, challenges and success factors for taking steps for the promotion of entrepreneurship in India. A number of limitations of this study can be identified. Firstly, more evidence is needed on the entrepreneurs in India before any generalisation of results can be made. Second, the empirical tests were conducted only among entrepreneurs in the National Capital Region over the period 2009-2010; hence, the results of the

study cannot be assumed to extend beyond this group of entrepreneurs or to different study periods. The study has a further scope of research where the results of the study may be validated by taking actual cases of entrepreneurs.

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Soft Skills – An Employee Development Tool in Private Banks

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ABSTRACT

Soft skills play a vital role in professional success as they help the individual to excel in the workplace, and therefore, their importance cannot be ignored in the present era. Hard skills are defined as the technical or administrative procedures that are related to an organisation's core business. These types of skill still have significant value in the business world but soft skills, which are increasingly gaining in significance the world over, refer to the ability to convey an idea to the masses in the simplest possible manner through communication, problem solving, conflict resolution, teambuilding, motivating and other similar skills. These soft skills are typically interpersonal skills and are often difficult to measure. Yet, a lack of these skills will be reflected in poor organisational performance. Presently, business organisations have also started recognising the importance of soft skills as they help in maintaining relationships with customers and in developing a successful business. In this study, an effort has been made to bring to light the wedded relationship between soft skills and the competitive edge of the present times. It focusses, therefore, on the latest mantra to be heard in the competitive world, which is 'soft skills'. It acts as a stimulus for a harmonious life that synthesises both personal and professional lives. Soft skills are elaborated on here as the protective gear needed by the individual in order to face this competitive world with confidence. The soft skills demonstrated by the individual are part of his individual contribution towards the success of the organisation

with which he is aligned. This is especially true for business organisations dealing face-to-face with customers; the effective use and display of soft skills are generally the reason for a higher level of success. One such business organisation is the bank. The banking industry requires employee to

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interact with a wide range of customers from all walks of life. This study was conducted using the Workforce Profile Study in the banking industry; about 60 soft skills which employers seek in their employees were studied. These soft skills are the personal traits and skills that an employer considers as being the most important while selecting employees for jobs of any nature. Banking provides employees with the opportunity to interact with a wide range of people from all walks of life; indeed, the business of banking is driven by relationships, which are believed to be most soundly and firmly built only through personal contact. The upshot of growing competition is that banks have recognised that they must be responsive to customer demands for services; otherwise, they risk losing those customers. It is observed that if one is to work well with others, then he must communicate with them at some point. Strong oral and written communication skills are becoming increasingly crucial and most sought after by business organisations. One needs to be able to understand another person's language, be it technical or artistic. The aim of this research is to analyse the role of soft skills in converting a business into a successful business. The findings of the BEI survey collected from my research indicate that soft skills play a crucial role in differentiating a superior performer from an average performer in the banking industry.

Keywords: BEI –Behavioural Event Interview, IQ- Intelligence Quotient, EQ- Emotional Quotient, SS-Soft Skills, HS-Hard Skills/TS-Technical Skills

INTRODUCTION

Soft skills are the ability to communicate effectively, promote teamwork within the organisation, present ideas, manage projects and people, solve problems and provide excellent customer care. Soft skills also include strategic thinking, managing processes and technologies, promoting the support centre within the organisation and building upon customer relationships. They are critical to the success of a business. The statement, "People are our greatest asset," though a cliché often heard in corporate boardrooms, is, nevertheless, true in most industries. Modern-day organisations are increasingly giving weight to soft skills when it comes to recruiting people. This is seen more in areas like banking, insurance etc. where interaction with the client is extremely high and of critical importance. Human resources are not only the drivers and principal value-creators of the output of such industries; they are also the intellectual capital. In the last decade, banks both large and small have emphasised relationship-based strategies to drive profitable revenue growth. Since "tellers can make or break the bank," according to America's Community Banker, banks rely heavily on training to produce employees who will be their "Brand Ambassadors" and build relationships with their customers. Another stressed, "if we're not building relationships, we're not doing our jobs." Technical skills are necessary but no longer sufficient in the workplace today. Companies do not want skilled workers only, but skilable workers, those who can learn and adapt to changing strategies, who

are flexible enough to meet the demands of new strategies. Here is where soft skills step in. Soft skills refer to the characteristics and attributes that anyone can develop to use almost anywhere, anytime, regardless of type of work or workplace. Various soft skills that are drawn on by business establishments today are time management, grammar skills, business writing, advanced interpersonal communication, effective presentations, fundamentals of customer service, managerial leadership, building strategic partnerships, business ethics and problem solving, cross-cultural business communication, e-mail, etiquette, fundamentals of customer service, fundamentals of selling, interviewing skills, negotiating professional selling over the phone and continuous improvement team development, among others.

Soft skills are necessary when one wants to create change. The ability to listen, understand, talk and persuade are just as important as analytical thinking.. Corporations around the world recognise that, in order to gain a competitive advantage, they also need to make sure their people have “soft skills.” Skills such as excellent communication abilities, being able to work well with others and being able to show empathy with their customers and with their peers are important skills to master because they can lead employees towards reaching their full potential.

Anna Leask and Brian Garrod (2002) emphasised on the range, diversity and perceived importance of current and future skills. The main findings highlighted a focus

on operation skills, with soft skills also seen as being important in the future. However, less emphasis was given to strategic skills, either now or in the future. According to Coleman (1983) there is a combination of competencies that contribute to a person’s ability to manage him or herself and relate to other people-matters twice as much as IQ or technical skills in job success. A constantly changing work environment due to technology, customer-driven markets, an information-based economy and globalisation are currently impacting on the structure of the workplace and leading to an increased reliance on, and demand for, soft skills. Duncan (1998) believed that for effective performance in the workplace, companies need their employees to have not only domain knowledge and technical and analytical skills, but also skills to deal with the external world of clients, customers, vendors, the government and public, and to work in a collaborative manner with their colleagues. Gadewar (2006) said that soft skills are very important in business. It is essential to be technically sound, but one should also have the ability to convey the idea to the masses in the simplest possible manner. Planning is necessary but execution is also equally important. It takes soft skills to execute any idea because implementing ideas involves dealing with people directly. Technical and job-related skills are a must, but they are not sufficient when it comes to progressing up the ladder. Hansen (1980) commented that every employer is looking for a specific set of skills from job-seekers that match the skills necessary to perform

a particular job. However, beyond these job-specific technical skills, certain skills are nearly universally sought by employers. Job-seekers can rectify weaknesses through training and professional development or by accepting coaching/mentoring from someone who understands these skills. Mathew (1978) viewed the world as being flat, with people from different cultures and countries constantly interacting with one another. Hence it is vital to understand the customer, not only in terms of project delivery but also with reference to his perspective in order to relate to him. This compelling need is driving the market for soft skills training such as Managerial Training, Team Leadership, Outbound Training, Executive Training and Corporate Leadership Training. Sumeet Mehta (2001) found that soft-skills training is essential because it is not included in the academic curriculum. Therefore, corporate houses have to take on the task of grooming employees who are the link between the company and the external world so that they are able to present themselves better. In the initial years of career building, technical abilities are important to get good assignments. However, when it comes to growing in a business organisation, it is personality that matters. Mintzberg (1984), while speaking on the importance of soft skills for MBAs, refers to the crucial soft skills -- leadership, teamwork, communication and the ability to think outside the box of a discipline -- that separate the best from the rest in the management world. According to a NASSCOM-McKinsey study (2003),

the average growth rate of 35 per cent per year has created the need for technically sound professionals who have the people management skills to be effective managers. However, soft skills such as effective communication, the ability to work in teams and strong interpersonal skills are what enable a person to move up the ladder.

According to Goleman (1995) the five major emotional competencies are self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy and social skills. There is no doubt that people with good IQ, sound reasoning, analytical skills and high levels of energy and drive fit easily into that category. However, companies also look for people with common sense who know how and when to do the right thing, and who have the wider set of complementary soft and social skills which enable them to get the best out of others and to maximise the performance of their business.

BENEFITS

Some benefits of soft skills are: increased credibility with customers, increased customer satisfaction, more productive employees, low competition, increased employee ROI (Returns on Investment), strong teams and leadership, demonstrated dedication to customer service and support, measurable results and improvements, demonstrated knowledge and expertise of service and support strategies, processes and technologies incentives and rewards and challenges for employees.

The following skills are beneficial for individuals: recognition from the industry,

employer and peers, new employment opportunities, promotion and advanced opportunities, increased ability to perform on the job, increased responsibilities, lifelong credentials and professional accomplishment.

TYPES AND IMPORTANCE OF SOFT SKILLS

Soft skills can be broadly categorised into two major categories, namely personal qualities and interpersonal qualities. Personal qualities comprises responsibility, self-esteem, sociability, self-management and integrity/honesty while interpersonal skills comprises participation as a member of the team, teaches others, serves client/customers, exercises leadership, negotiates and works with cultural diversity.

“Soft skills” is a sociological term which refers to clusters of characteristics that are apparent in different people to different degrees. They include personality traits, social graces, facility with language, personal habits, friendliness and optimism. Soft skills complement hard skills, which are the technical requirements of a job. According to psychologist Daniel Coleman, a combination of competencies that contribute to a person’s ability to manage him or herself and relate to other people matters twice as much as IQ or technical skills in job success. Results of recent studies on the importance of soft skills indicated that the single most important soft skill for a job candidate to possess is interpersonal skills, followed by written or verbal communication skills and the ability to work under pressure. They

are, in many instances, complementary, and serve to unlock the potential for highly effective performance in people qualified with the requisite hard skills.

OBJECTIVES OF RESEARCH

The prime objective of this research is:

- To identify the five most important soft skills at the managerial level of the private banking sector that set apart superior job performers from average job performers.

This study will be helpful in reaching the following objectives:

- To provide an understanding of the strategic relevance of the development of certain critical soft skills in order to gain a competitive advantage in the face of global challenges in the banking sector. The training imparted at the managerial level by banks will be examined in order for recommendations to be made for efforts to create more employees who are soft-skills orientated.

This study is intended:

- To highlight the significance of soft skills and increase its acceptance by members of a business organisation.

Finally, this study is intended:

- To identify whether soft skills are necessary additions to core competencies for performing the job in the banking industry.

THE BANKING INDUSTRY

One of the industries that have gone through a sea of change of late is the banking industry. The players in the financial sector are facing intense competition now. In the beginning a community had one bank. Now, however, the community has a choice of service providers. Today, dominance depends on differentiating one's service as the preferred choice. "The customer is the king," has been widely accepted, and hence, banks are making refinements that customers ask for: more branches, ATM cards, credit cards, lower fees, specialised loan programmes and so on. With the customer having a say in how the business is organised now, banking has become a challenge. Of course, this change in competitiveness in the banking industry has happened against a backdrop of changing customer appetites for financial services products. Both household and business customers have responded to the advances in financial technology and have profoundly changed the way they use financial assets. Over the past five decades, bank supervision has been changing at a breathtaking pace – mirroring the evolution of the financial services industry itself. The challenges that the banks face are enormous. Banking is still a business involving people as well as numbers. The banking industry is currently in a phase of continuous transition. While PSU banks are shedding flab by implementing VRS schemes and deploying technology aggressively, private players are looking at consolidating their strengths through mergers or acquisitions.

Internet banking has gained wide acceptance internationally and seems to be fast catching up in developing countries like India and Bangladesh in Asia, with more and more banks entering the fray. However, the future of banking will see customers addressing most of their needs through self-directed means, and the key differentiator will be how effective a bank is in getting its customers online and deriving measurable value from this presence. One can sum up the whole Internet banking scenario with the adage, "For while winners may not see massive gains, the losers will fade from view as their ability to compete is eroded with every mouse click."

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Research design

In this study the survey method of the Behavioral Event Interview (BEI) was used for collecting data. Unstructured discussions with key people in the banking industry were conducted to gain an in-depth view of the various issues regarding importance assigned to soft skills in the industry and the training that is being given in the area. Both the exploratory and the descriptive research designs were used.

Exploratory research

All research must start with exploratory research. This is a preliminary phase and is absolutely essential in order to obtain a proper definition of the problem in hand. The major emphasis is on the discovery of ideas and insights. The exploratory study is

particularly helpful in breaking broad and vague problems into smaller, more precise sub problem statements hopefully in the form of a specific hypothesis. We may say that exploratory studies help in formulating a hypothesis for further research. Exploratory study is also used to increase the familiarity with the problem under investigation.

Descriptive research

The descriptive research design simply describes something such as demographic characteristics. The descriptive study is typically concerned with determining frequency with which something occurs or how two variables vary. This study is typically guided by an initial hypothesis. For example, an investigation of insurance policy made by the salaried class with respect to socioeconomic characteristics such as age, sex, ethnic group, project money, education level, geographic location and so on would be a descriptive study. A descriptive study requires a clear specification of who, what, when, where and why as the apex of the research. It requires formulation of a more specific hypothesis and its testing through statistical inference techniques .

Data collection

After identifying and defining the research problem determining specific information required to solve the problem, it is necessary to find sources of data which may yield precise and accurate results; to this end, both primary and secondary data have been collected.

Primary data

Primary data are generated by employing questionnaires, surveys, personal interviews and observation. Primary data pertains to demographic or socioeconomic characteristics as well as the attitude, opinions, awareness and knowledge.

Secondary data

Secondary data is the data that have been already collected and made readily available by other sources. Such data are cheaper and more quickly obtainable than primary data, and also may be available when primary data cannot be obtained. Secondary data are quite useful for research as they are economical, save effort, expense and time, and help to improve the understanding of the problem. They also help to make primary data collection more specific, filling in gaps and deficiencies and identifying additional information that needs to be collected. Moreover, they provides basis for comparison of data collected by the researcher.

Sample size

50 from private banks (ICICI, Baghat and HDFC)

Research methodology

Random sampling

Test Applied

T-Test

For various skills the data have been collected from fifty respondents from different banks for different categories. The scoring of various skills was made. The comparison of various skills was made between the different categories of respondents. The means as well as standard deviation for all the competencies were calculated. From the standard error of difference of means of scores on various competencies, ratios were calculated.

DATA ANALYSIS

The ranking given to each competency by the employees is provided in Table 2. These means also are ranked from highest to lowest importance for both groups. The ranking for each competency listed was determined by taking the sum of the ratings for that competency by each respondent and dividing this by the number of respondents. The competencies were then categorised into soft skills. The mean importance for

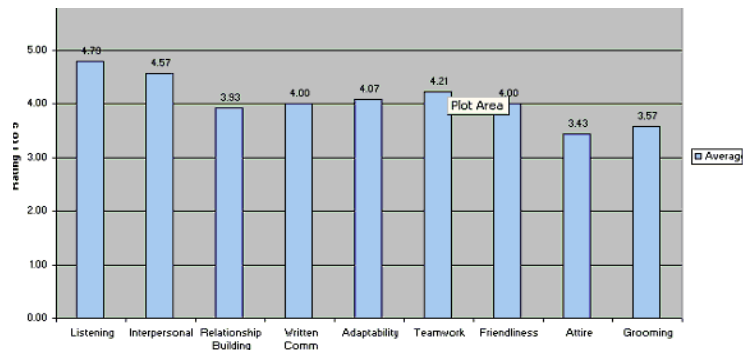


Fig.1: Average of interactive soft skills rated by managers for different traits

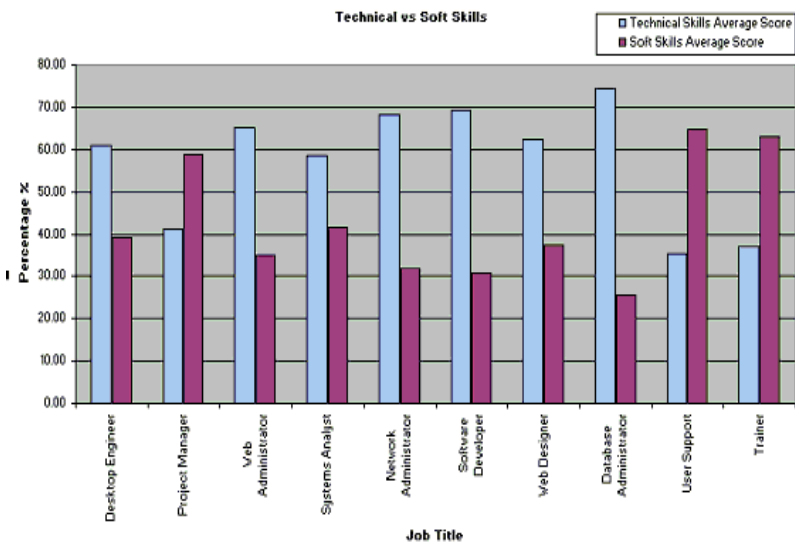


Fig.2: Comparison between technical and soft skills recorded among the people holding managerial positions

each category was determined by summing the mean importance of each competency within that category and dividing this by the number of competencies for each category.

The significance of the calculated T values was tested at the .05 and .01 levels using one-tailed T-tests at ($p < .05$ & $.01$).

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

This research data (Fig.3A) elaborate that 12 out of 50 survey respondents were not aware of soft skills, meaning that 76 per cent were aware of them. Thirty-two out of 50 were able to communicate their performance to the client in an impressive manner while 18 found themselves unable to do so. Very few of them, specifically nine of them, had been taught soft skills in their educational curriculum. Forty-two per cent of them were of the opinion that technical/job-related skills were enough for them to improve in their field. Sixty per cent of the survey respondents agreed on the need for training in soft skills to enhance their performance. Seventy-four per cent of the respondents stressed that soft skills can be enhanced through training. A similar response was obtained on the question of responsibility of the business organisation in providing training in soft skills. The majority, numbering 80 per cent of the respondents, emphasised that soft skills make an employee globally competitive. Thirty-five of the survey respondents could enhance their soft skills by training while the rest did so by reading. Eighty per cent of the employees under investigation think that soft skills are important in creating a good

first impression on clients. Sixty per cent of the respondents were of the opinion that knowledge of soft skills must be imparted at the beginner level rather than at the advanced level. Most of them, that is, about 82 per cent thought that training in soft skills would help in their job appraisal. Seventy eight per cent of them strongly believed that good soft skills help to attract clients for business. Based on the data collected and evaluated (Fig.3B), soft skills have been placed in order of importance: leadership, communication skills, coordination, patience and optimism, commitment to work, initiative, adaptability, team spirit, self confidence, problem solving, motivation, self-control, empathy, body language and others. The rating of competencies for the successful managerial persons in private banks assessed statistically (Table 3 and Table 4) against 63 competencies listed by Asia-Pacific Journal of Cooperative Education. The soft skills essential for managerial persons in descending order are: delegation of action, CW I, team spirit, focused. empowering colleagues, systematic planning, assertive, self-confidence, leadership, extending support, diagnostic use of concepts, persuasion, responsible, pacifying clients and proactive problem solving followed by other soft skills. The T-Test study also indicates the importance of communication, self-confidence, persuasion, leadership, team spirit, motivation and other soft skills. All values above 2.40 are significant; they are: CWI, self-confidence, pacifying clients, proactive and persuasion. Competencies

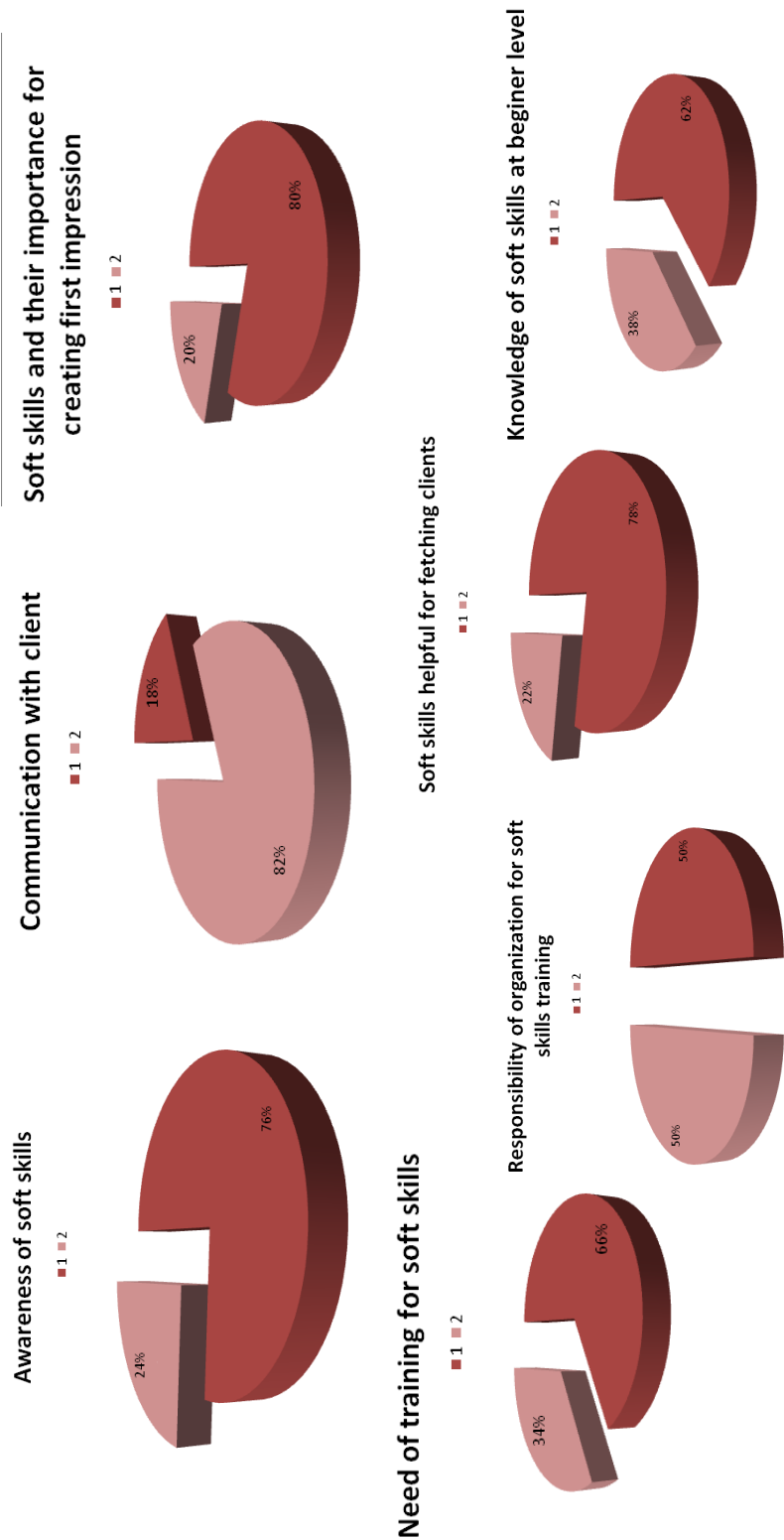


Fig.3A: Response

RATING OF SOFT SKILL IN ORDER OF THEIR IMPORTANCE FOR VARIOUS TRAITS

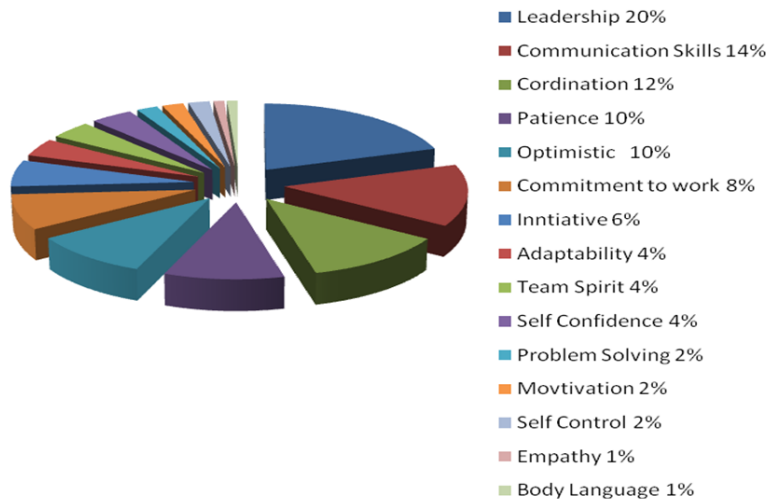


Fig.3B: Rating of soft skills in order of their importance for various traits

that scored less than 2.40 value at .01 level are non-significant in all categories of respondents. This indicates that these are the soft skills that should be possessed by all the employees. This research concludes that soft skills help managerial personnel to connect better with customers and build long-term relationships with them. The presence of certain soft skills enhances the level of customer orientation in managerial executives and motivates them to push their limits. Development of some soft skills makes them more competent to take up bigger challenges. Most of the institutions train their managerial personnel in the area of soft skills. Training on a lot of soft skills is given during induction of new employees. Importance is given to soft skills like problem solving, time management, decision making, communication, motivation, team

spirit and initiative.. Organisations these days, especially service-based ones, are becoming more customer-orientated. In the face of such a situation, the presence of soft skills helps managerial executives to succeed at the consumer level.

CONCLUSION

Business organisations want workers who have a positive attitude and who can work well with others, Training in soft skills, therefore, should be provided to managerial personnel to connect better with customers and to build long-term relationships with them. Development of some soft skills makes employees more competent to take up bigger challenges. Training of soft skills should be imparted during the induction of new employees. Importance should be given to soft skills such as problem solving,

communication, leadership, persuasion, time management, team work and decision-making. Knowledge and practice of these soft skills facilitate the building of a strong relationship between employee, employer and customer, which is essential to convert a business into a successful business and an average employee to a superior one.

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APPENDIX

TABLE 1
Difference between soft skills and hard skills

Sln	Hard Skills	Soft Skills
1	Hard skills are skills associated with technical aspects of performing a job and usually include the acquisition of knowledge.	Soft skills are skills often referred to as interpersonal, human, people, or behavioural skills, and place emphasis on personal behaviour and managing relationships between people.
2	Hard skills thus are primarily cognitive in nature, and are influenced by an individual's <i>Intelligence Quotient</i> (IQ).	Soft skills are primarily affective or behavioural in nature, and have recently been associated with the so-called <i>Emotional Quotient</i> .
3	Hard skills described technical skills and knowledge as being a threshold in that they represent a minimum level necessary to be able to perform a job with basic competence.	EQ is regarded as a blend of innate characteristics and human / personal / interpersonal skills
4	Hard skills are essentially equivalent to cognitive skills	Soft skills are equivalent to complementary skills

TABLE 2
Competencies with their frequencies

No.	Competency	Frequency	No.	Competency	Frequency
1	Self-cConfidence	68	16	Analytical Skill	3
2	Trustworthy	1	17	Challenge Seeker	2
3	Information Seeking	26	18	Problem Solving	26
4	Good Rapport with Client	2	19	Systematic Planning	13
5	Persuasion	50	20	Optimistic	7
6	CWI	94	21	Efficiency Orientation	4
7	Sees and acts on opportunity	8	22	Coordination	1
8	Diagnostic use of concept	12	23	Multi-tasking	1
9	Soliciting additional information	1	24	Think logically and sequentially	1
10	Empathy	9	25	Self Control	9
11	Proactive	21	26	Judgement Ability	4
12	Realising importance of business relationship	9	27	Concern for high quality of work	3
13	Interpersonal understanding	9	28	Catering to Customers need	1
14	Good observation power	1	29	Foresight	2
15	Initiative	3	30	Customer Orientation	7
			31	Conceptual Thinking	15
			32	Commitment to work	30

TABLE 2 (continue)

No.	Competency	Frequency	No.	Competency	Frequency
33	Generous	1	48	Stamina and Sustainability	2
34	Pacifying Client	17	49	Responsible	5
35	Persistence	31	50	Grateful	1
36	Perceptual Objectivity	3	51	Anticipating consequences	2
37	Patience	8	52	Taking actions rapidly	1
38	Use of influence strategy	4	53	Delegation of Actions	1
39	Motivation	22	54	Managing Group Process	6
40	Sympathy with customer	1	55	Courteous	1
41	Extending Support	3	56	Use of socialized power	1
42	Empowering colleagues	2	57	Coaching	1
43	Emphasis on personality	1	58	Accountability	2
44	Emphasis on body language	1	59	Focussed	3
45	Assertive	7	60	Attention to details	2
46	Leadership	7	61	Strong Determination	1
47	Team Spirit	5	62	Understanding Situation	1
			63	Trusting others	1

***Source:** *Asia-Pacific Journal of Cooperative Education*, 2002, 3(2), 8-18

TABLE 3

Means and t-test for competencies for managerial persons in private banks.

No.	Competency	Mean Score	t-score
1	Self-cConfidence	3.4	4.919**
2	Trustworthy	0.1	-
3	Information Seeking	1.3	2.623**
4	Good Rapport with Client	0.2	-
5	Persuasion	2.2	3.836**
6	CWI	5.5	5.815
7	Sees and acts on opportunity	0.3	1
8	Diagnostic use of concept	0.6	1.964
9	Soliciting additional information	0	-
10	Empathy	0.5	1.861
11	Proactive	1.4	4.583
12	Realising importance of business relationship	0.6	1.964**
13	Interpersonal understanding	0.5	1.861
14	Good observation power	0.1	-
15	Initiative	0.1	1.5

TABLE 3 (continue)

16	Analytical Skill	0.3	1.406
17	Challenge Seeker	0.1	1
18	Problem Solving	1.4	2.751*
19	Systematic Planning	0.8	2.228
20	Optimistic	0.6	1.246
21	Efficiency Orientation	0.3	1.964
22	Coordination	0.1	-
23	Multi-tasking	0.1	-
24	Think logically and sequentially	0.1	-
25	Self Control	0.5	1.464
26	Judgement Ability	0.2	1.5
27	Concern for high quality of work	0.2	1.5
28	Catering to Customers need	0.1	-
29	Foresight	0.2	2.236
30	Customer Orientation	0.5	2.449**
31	Conceptual Thinking	0.8	3.28*
32	Commitment to work	1.4	-
33	Generous	0.1	-
34	Pacifying Client	0.9	4.707**
35	Persistence	1.6	2.133
36	Perceptual Objectivity	0.1	-
37	Patience	0.6	1.5
38	Use of influence strategy	0.2	-
39	Motivation	1.3	1.5
40	Sympathy with customer	0.1	-
41	Extending Support	0.3	-
42	Empowering colleagues	0.2	-
43	Emphasis on personality	0.1	-
44	Emphasis on body language	0.1	-
45	Assertive	0.7	-
46	Leadership	0.6	1
47	Team Spirit	0.4	1
48	Stamina and Sustainability	0	-
49	Responsible	0.4	1
50	Grateful	0	-
51	Anticipating consequences	0	-
52	Taking actions rapidly	0.1	-
53	Delegation of Actions	0.1	-
54	Managing Group Process	0.6	-
55	Courteous	0	-
56	Use of socialized power	0	-

TABLE 3 (continue)

57	Coaching	0.1	-
58	Accountability	0.2	-
59	Focussed	0.1	-
60	Attention to details	0.2	-
61	Strong Determination	0.1	-
62	Understanding Situation	0.1	-
63	Trusting others	0.1	-

TABLE 4

Means and std.dev for the competencies for managerial persons in private banks.

No.	Competency	Mean	Std. Dev
1	Self-confidence	1.5	0.659
2	Trustworthy	0	0
3	Information Seeking	1.18	0.405
4	Good Rapport with Client	0	0
5	Persuasion	1.38	0.669
6	CWI	2.2	1.258
7	Sees and acts on opportunity	1	0
8	Diagnostic use of concept	1.5	1
9	Soliciting additional information	0	0
10	Empathy	1	0
11	Proactive	1.27	0.467
12	Realising importance of business relationship	1	0
13	Interpersonal understanding	1	0
14	Good observation power	0	0
15	Initiative	1	.
16	Analytical Skill	1.5	0.707
17	Challenge Seeker	1	.
18	Problem Solving	1.27	0.467
19	Systematic Planning	1.6	0.894
20	Optimistic	1	0
21	Efficiency Orientation	1	0
22	Coordination	0	0
23	Multi-tasking	0	0
24	Think logically and sequentially	0	0
25	Self Control	1	0
26	Judgement Ability	1	0
27	Concern for high quality of work	1	0
28	Catering to Customers need	1	.
29	Foresight	1	0
30	Customer Orientation	1	0

TABLE 4 (continue)

31	Conceptual Thinking	1	0
32	Commitment to work	1.17	0.389
33	Generous	0	0
34	Pacifying Client	1.29	0.488
35	Persistence	1.14	0.363
36	Perceptual Objectivity	1	.
37	Patience	1	0
38	Use of influence strategy	1	0
39	Motivation	1.18	0.405
40	Sympathy with customer	1	.
41	Extending Support	1.5	0.707
42	Empowering colleagues	2	.
43	Emphasis on personality	1	.
44	Emphasis on body language	1	.
45	Assertive	1.75	1.5
46	Leadership	1.5	1
47	Team Spirit	2	1.414
48	Stamina and Sustainability	0	0
49	Responsible	1.33	0.577
50	Grateful	0	0
51	Anticipating consequences	0	0
52	Taking actions rapidly	1	.
53	Delegation of Actions	3	2.828
54	Managing Group Process	0	0
55	Courteous	1	.
56	Use of socialized power	1	.
57	Coaching	1	0
58	Accountability	1	.
59	Focussed	2	.
60	Attention to details	1	.
61	Strong Determination	1	.
62	Understanding Situation	1	.
63	Trusting others		



Improving Organisational Communication in the Era of Globalisation

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ABSTRACT

The formation of the World Trade Organisation (WTO) in the year 1995 with around 127 signatories and subsequent developments have intensified competition among countries and the business organisations all over the world. This development is accompanied by increased financial flow and opportunities for all. Survival of the fittest has, therefore, become the mantra in the new global world trade scenario. These developments have received a further boost from the use of information technologies (ICTs) in business operations. With growing competition, the concern for employee involvement has also been growing in business organisations. It is being realised that in a fiercely competitive world market, human resources play a very crucial role in giving an organisation an edge over its competitors. Efforts are therefore being made by organisations to increase communication with employees in the hope that this will increase their involvement in the organisation, thus helping the organisation to have a competitive advantage over its rivals. Communication matters because failures on this front can prove costly. They can lead to misinformation, which can then lead to disruption or stoppage of work. They can also upset the whole rhythm of production, lessening cooperation between employees and their supervisors and creating ill-feeling that causes a disruption in productivity. No organisation can afford this.

Keywords: Information Technologies (ICTs), World Trade Organisation (WTO)

INTRODUCTION

In the new global world trade order, organisational communication has been attracting attention. Communication, particularly internal communication within an organisation, has always been considered important for increasing the

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involvement of employees in the affairs of an organisation, and the questions always asked were, what to communicate and how much to communicate.

However, things are changing now, more so, after the formation of the World Trade Organization (WTO) in 1995 and the subsequent increase in competition worldwide for the expanding world market. Business establishments world over have now realised that to take advantage of the increasing opportunities and to get a competitive advantage over competitors, increased involvement of the employees through increased communication is essential.

Business organisations are established for making profit. In fact, profit is the predominant objective of a business organization and is essential for its survival. However, in the fast changing world trade scenario, business organisations have to strive harder by initiating organisational changes in various directions including the technical, financial, structural, cultural etc. Improving communication, particularly internal communication, has been found to be crucial for gaining the willing cooperation of employees and is instrumental in increasing their productivity and giving a competitive advantage to the organisation over its rivals.

COMMUNICATION MATTERS

Communication, particularly, internal communication i.e. communication with employees at all levels, is very crucial. A failure on this front can prove very costly. It can lead to misinformation, which can

lead to disruption or stoppage of work, upsetting the whole rhythm of production. It can also lessen cooperation between employees and supervisors, creating ill-feeling between them in the process that can in turn lead to reduced productivity. Adequate communication leads to increased productivity through more effective work performance among employees through greater cooperation with supervisors and management.

To get willing cooperation from employees, it is also essential to communicate to them what the organisation thinks of them and what their prospects are within the organisation.

To get greater cooperation and involvement from employees, it is necessary to tell them:

- Why they are doing the job
- What they are expected to do and why
- How they are performing against the targets set

WHAT TO COMMUNICATE?

In former times it was said: "Tell your subordinates what you think will interest them; skip all the boring stuff." However this does not sound like good advice now, as by following it, the communicator may miss many things which subordinates need to understand. Also, he may tell them many things, which, though interesting, may be of little relevance.

The primary message that needs to be communicated to employees include:

- Everything that will enable them to better perform their jobs
- Everything that concerns their rewards related to the job

It is in the interest of the organisation that such matters are communicated in time to employees.

COMMUNICATING EFFECTIVELY

Communication with employees can be effected in the following ways:

- Face to face communication
- Discussion with staff representatives
- In-house journals and notice-boards

It is important to decide on the method to be used and to be aware of what can be communicated through it. This, naturally, will depend on the matter to be communicated and the number of employees to whom it is to be communicated. It has been observed that communication often breaks down because managers and supervisors either use wrong methods or try to communicate the wrong type of information through a particular method.

All methods of communication have their advantages and disadvantages, as well as their strengths and weaknesses. However, of the three methods, face-to-face communication seems to be vital and more beneficial as:

- Explanations to a small group is more fruitful and less time consuming

- In a group, people benefit from hearing answers to the questions of others
- Timid people who are too shy to ask questions benefit from the questions asked by others

However, in a large organisation, a judicious combination of all the three methods is essential.

WRITTEN COMMUNICATION

Written communication plays a very important role in the larger communication network of an organisation. Official written communication includes memos, letters, D.O. letters, notices etc. All of these have different purposes.

Managers and those in positions of authority at different levels have to shoulder this responsibility. It is important that they are careful in communicating through this mode and give sufficient thought before sending out messages. Before using this mode, they should ask themselves questions such as:

- Who will receive the communication?
- How will he/she react?
- Will it serve the intended purpose?
- Can it do any harm, if the message is not conveyed correctly or misunderstood?

To ensure that the intended purpose is served, the communicator has to master

the art of giving clear and precise orders, so worded that no one could possibly misunderstand, misinterpret or distort them. A good communication can help the employee act with greater precision and success. However, if what a communicator writes is not clear, the reader will not know what the communicator wants of him. Also, if the orders are confusing, the reader will waste time figuring out what the communicator means, or he will have to send the orders back to the communicator for clarification. A written communication is the expression of thought. It is not simply an act of writing; it has to be preceded by careful thinking.

ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF WRITTEN COMMUNICATION

- It is permanent
- It is available for reference
- The writer can choose words carefully when dealing with complex and sensitive matters
- It provides evidence of information/instructions/advice given
- It is convenient and can be circulated quickly among many people

However, there are certain disadvantages of written communication. These are:

- The communicator is likely to forget or ignore the needs of the reader when he is writing out

the message as his reader is not physically present beside him

If a letter, memo or a report is misleading or confusing, the communicator is not with the reader to explain or clarify things. The reader may take action on the basis of the written word. If the action in this case is inappropriate, it would be too late for the communicator to do anything about it as the damage would have been done by then.

WAYS TO IMPROVE COMMUNICATION – THEORETICAL INSIGHT

Chester Barnard (1938) has emphasised that communication is the main task of managers and executives. Today, industry leaders emphasise the need for improvement in communication within an organisation. Further, Dr. Dan B. Curtis, Jerry L. Winsor and Ron Stephens (1985-86) have concluded on the basis of a study that effective communication skills are tantamount to the success of an organisation.

The responsibility in any organisation for improving communication within the body rests primarily with those in leadership positions because subordinates take cues on how to communicate from those in authority over them.

To improve communication in an organization, therefore, leaders and managers need to provide a good working climate, as the prevailing organisational climate has profound influence on communication in an organisation.

Of the three basic climates discussed in literature (Kline, 2011) viz. dehumanised,

over-humanised and situational, where the situational can be said to lie somewhere between the first two, appears to be the most appropriate for improving communication and productivity in an organisation. The observation is based on my own and others' experience, and my own experience as Controller of Examinations at S.N.D.T. Women's University, Mumbai, Maharashtra, India.

The dehumanised climate is based on the basic assumptions that subordinates:

- Are lazy
- Will not take responsibility
- Lack desire to achieve significant results
- Demonstrate inability to direct their own behaviour
- Show indifference to organisational needs
- Prefer to be led by others and avoid making decisions whenever possible

Leaders believing in this approach tend to:

- Withhold information from subordinates as confidential information is considered to be unsafe in their hands
- Tell subordinates not only what to do, but how to do it
- Do all the upward and lateral communication themselves
- Talk individually with subordinates to keep each person competing for their favour

The over-humanised climate at the other extreme is based on the basic assumptions that:

- Human relations are more important than organisational objectives
- Conflicts and tensions should be reduced at all costs
- Motivation of subordinates should be almost totally intrinsic and self-directed
- Participative decision making is always superior to decisions made by one or a few -Kline A. John (2011)

The situational climate lies somewhere between the two extremes and is based on the belief that organisational goals and individual goals need not be at odds with each other. It advocates seeking an "appropriate" climate based on the situation under consideration Kline A. John (2011).

The approach is based on three basic assumptions:

- A flexible climate that can adapt to the complex and changing nature of the needs of individual employees and those of the organisation is superior to a fixed climate
- Individuals are not naturally passive or resistant to organisational needs or reluctant to assuming responsibility
- Since individuals are not basically lazy, work can be structured to bring the goals of individual

employees and those of the organisation in line with each other

A situational climate can then lead to:

- Increase in feelings of self-worth and respect for others on the part of subordinates
- Increase in productivity because of the perception that the goals of individual employees and those of the organisation are similar
- Increase, in turn, in the amount of intrinsic motivation and a greater sense of responsibility Kline A. John (2011)

Of the three approaches, based on my experience as an administrator, as Controller of Examinations at S.N.D.T. Women's University, assessing situational climate is the most appropriate to achieve the goals of an organisation.

Finally, to achieve success, a leader must communicate one-on-one with key personnel as they are the ones who can help him communicate his ideas and policies to subordinates. Therefore, industry leaders should:

1. Show genuine interest and concern; this can be achieved through appropriate facial expressions, head nods, gestures and bodily posture which reflect openness and positive reinforcement

2. Put the other person at ease by appearing relaxed and breaking down barriers with friendliness
3. Be natural because genuineness and sincerity are foundations for effective communication
4. Not assume a superior manner or pretend to be what he is not
5. Respond to a conversation as it develops with spontaneous comments rather than forge ahead with "prepared" comments or arguments
6. Respect the other person's point of view
7. Seek to understand what the other person really means and not necessarily what is said
8. Reduce his own defensiveness
9. Not dominate the conversation to the point where the other person is shut out.
10. Listen attentively to what the other person is saying instead of planning what he is going to say next

This observation coincides with my own experience as an administrator, as Controller of Examinations at S.N.D.T. Women's University, Mumbai, India.

CONCLUSION

Communication in an organisation, whether upward or downward, or verbal or written, needs to be effected carefully, and the right words and language must be chosen. The proper mode of communication with the proper use of words can boost the morale of workers, leading to increased productivity, which is essential in order to get optimum results and have a competitive edge over competitors in a globalised, liberalised scenario.

This paper attempts to bring together the practical experience of the author over a long period of administrative responsibilities he shouldered in government and college and university administration and the theoretical insight from literature on the subject. It should not be out of place here to mention that that NAAC team that visited the University and awarded it Five Stars specifically praised the efforts of the author as Controller of Examinations as “A living example of Participatory Management.”

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The Journey of ‘Communication’ from its Evolution to its Exploiters

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ABSTRACT

Communication begins at birth with touch, then with vision, and finally with speech and hearing or audition. Each child needs to learn the “codes of his/her culture” because the language of each culture is different. Yet, if a child is to learn about his/her world, the ability to communicate must exist. Even after a baby learns the rudiments of communication through touch, vision and hearing, those skills need to continue to be refined until about age seven, when the brain is ready to deal with the abstracts/concepts involved in reading, writing, comprehension, maths “language” or concepts and body language. This short article is a dissemination of concepts with concern to the evolution of communication or language as expressed in the famous dubiety, “First came the egg or the hen?” Today when research into languages, culture and language acquisition is at a peak, we should not shy away from the question of the origin of ‘communication’ and ‘language’ in order to consider which may have come first. The second part of this article is a brief discussion on the global language and its significance and incorporation in language classrooms in India. The last section of this article focusses on the types of change occurring in the use of the English Language as used by young people nowadays.

Keywords: Communication, language, evolution, global, classrooms, technocrats

INTRODUCTION

The aim of this short article is to envisage the term “Communication” as an ongoing process emerging from ‘lexis’. The term originates from the Latin word “communico” which means “to share.” In prehistoric times, communication among primates was probably first through gestures and

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then through grunts, squawks and squeals generated by the vocal apparatus. With the passage of time, meanings conveyed by the use of limbs, body signals and voice became refined as “language”. It is no wonder that language is the most important evolutionary invention of the last few million years. It may rather be called an adaptation that has helped our species to exchange information, make plans, express new ideas and totally change the appearance of the planet. Miller (1981), in his book *Language and Speech*, says, “the most complicated mechanical motion that the human body can perform is the activity of speaking. While generating the sounds of spoken language, the various parts of the vocal tract perform movements that have to be accurate within millimetres and synchronized to within a few hundredths of a second.” It is a fact that we can all speak without thinking. However, we cannot solve basic mathematical problems without concentration. Why is doing mathematics difficult for many, in comparison to generating or interpreting language, which is more complicated? Evolution definitely designed some parts of our brain to specifically deal with language.

In order to keep communication between individuals as an ongoing process, human beings have emerged as generators of different languages in addition to the age-old non-verbal signifiers of communication. I am interested in how certain languages, such as the English Language, have become prominent around the globe. Languages, like human beings, may not assume immortality. However, the English Language continues to

be called a living language. The third section of this paper is a discussion of whether the English Language, if it has lived so long, has retained its real self. Focussing on the youth fraternity of India, here there is an attempt to address the hypothesis in the research.

PURPOSE AND HYPOTHESIS OF THE STUDY:-

1. “Communication” came prior to “language.”
2. English Language is the global language.
3. English Language as used by young adults has changed with time. Though students are aware of their imperfections in the use of the language, do not hesitate to communicate in the language in a forum because it shows that they are cool, modern and belong to Gen Y. Is there any struggle to keep this reform alive? The language ‘English’ has its lights and its shades. The lights seem to be more prominent. The total number of languages as listed in “The Ethnologue” is 6805¹.

Languages	Total countries speaking	First language speakers (in millions)
Spanish	44	329
English	112	328

(The Ethnologue, 2009)

From the above figures we can very well estimate the popularity of the Spanish and English languages worldwide. However, the latter is more widespread in use in

¹ 16th Ed. M. Paul Lewis, Editor, 2009, SIL, International

comparison to the former which may be established by the number of countries that speak it.

ORIGIN: LANGUAGE OR COMMUNICATION?

On the matter of the history and development of particular languages, one question has intrigued scholars for ages, and that question has to do with the origin and evaluation of language in the human species in general. What was the nature of the first language? "Considerable evidence suggests that the capacity for language is a species-specific, biologically innate trait of human beings. Another mesmerising question is: which came first, 'language' or 'communication'? Did we already have a language for communication or did we simply communicate without language in pre-historic times? One idea that mildly satisfies is that human beings began to mimic the sounds of nature and used these sounds as referents for the sources of the sound. This theory is sometimes disparagingly referred to as the "bow-wow" theory" (Akmajian *et al.*, 2001). The existence of onomatopoeic words such as bow-wow, meow, crash and boom might be taken as evidence of such mimicking. It has also been suggested that a gestural language, that is, a system of hand gestures, facial expressions and signals, also played a role in communication. In addition, it is sometimes speculated that human language gradually evolved from the need for humans to communicate with each other in coordinating certain group tasks. The idea here is that people working in groups

can co-operate more efficiently if they can use a vocal language to communicate. But such "functional" theories of the origin of language seem quite dubious. Why could not a sign language or gestural language work as a communication system in the context of groups at work?

Once human language evolved, language came to be exploited fully for all kinds of social functions; but the needs involved in such functions cannot be identified as the first cause of language evolution. At present the most reasonable suggestion on the origin and evolution of human language is that it was intimately linked with the evolution of the human brain. Over the last 5 million years there has been a striking increase in brain size, ranging from about 400 cubic centimetres in our distant hominid ancestors to about 1,400 cubic centimetres in modern *Homo sapiens* (Miller, 1981). The mere increase in brain size would not necessarily have led to superior intelligence and the evolution of language, since dolphins, for example, have a brain comparable in size to that of humans, yet have only a rudimentary communication system. Furthermore, even a mere increase in general intelligence might not necessarily have led to the evolution of language. Dolphins and primates, for instance, are considered to be more sophisticated or complex than birds. Lenneberg (1964) has pointed out that humans with IQ levels significantly below normal can nevertheless grasp the rudiments of language. So, brain size is only one factor that may have played a role in the evolution of language; changes

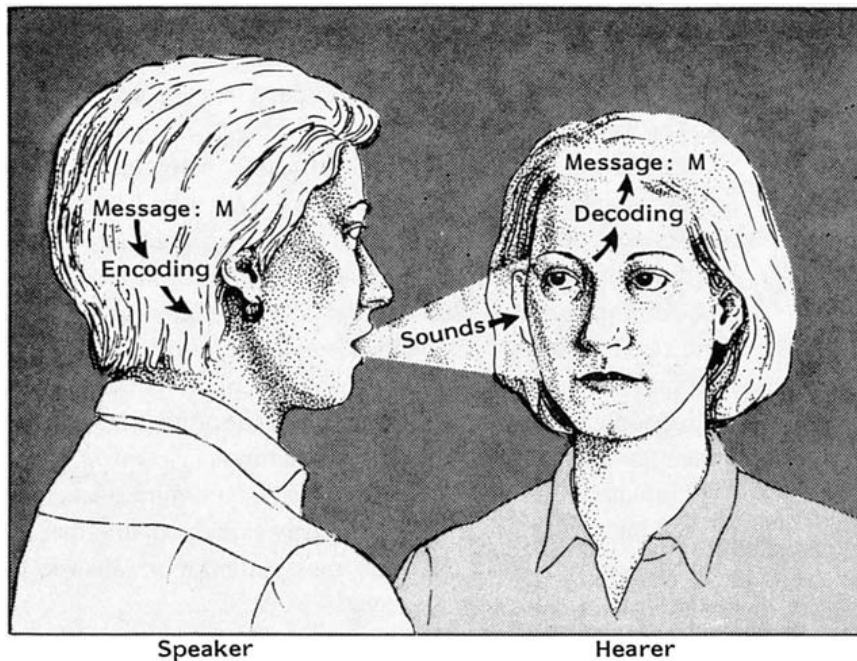
in the organisation and complexity of the brain must also be supposed to have played a crucial role. Hypothesis speaks of the origin of language, some 50,000 to 1,00,000 years ago. There is an abrupt change in the quality and nature of tool development between 50,000 and 1,00,000 years ago, signalling to some anthropologists the emergence of modern humans. It is plausible that this increased ability may have been associated with a qualitative change in language ability. Because of inadequate solid evidence to base any claim concerning the origin and evolution of human language, the questions still remain unanswered. Leieberman (1975) contended that the vocal tract of Neanderthal man had only a limited capacity for speech because his vocal tract was shaped differently from that of modern humans. However, recent evidence negates this (National Geographic, 1989).

Not only are we clueless about the commencement of language, we do not have any idea of what the earlier stages of language might have been like, even in the more recent stages before the modern era. As mentioned earlier, language is a biological phenomenon, and in the biological world it is frequently possible to find earlier forms of life existing simultaneously with more evolved forms. For example, the Coelacanth was a biologically primitive fish known only in fossil form until a living specimen was discovered and identified in 1938 (Akmajian *et al.*, 2001). Might it be possible to encounter a group of people who speak a form of language that can be identified as an earlier form of modern language? Small,

previously unknown groups of people have indeed been discovered from time to time in jungle areas in New Guinea and the Philippines (Molony, 1988). These groups have apparently been isolated from other humans for long periods of time and have no knowledge of the modern world. Their existence might claim that they speak a more primitive language that could be an earlier form of modern human language. Hence, we are limited to studying the history of languages on the basis of written records, dating back only 6,000 years.

SUCCESSFUL LINGUISTIC COMMUNICATION

For the last 50 years the most common and popular conception of human linguistic communication has been the "Message Model" (Akmajian, 2001). When the Message Model is applied to human linguistic communication between speakers of a language, the speaker acts as a "transmitter", the hearer acts as a "receiver", and the vocab-auditory path (sound wave) is the relevant channel. This model accounts for certain common-sense features of talk exchanges: it predicts that communication is successful when the hearer decodes the same message that the speaker encodes; and as a corollary it predicts that communication breaks down if the decoded message is different from the encoded message. Likewise, it portrays language as a bridge between speaker and hearer whereby "private" ideas are communicated by "public" sounds, which function as the vehicle for communicating



(Akmajian *et al.*, 2001)

Fig. 1: Successful Linguistic Communication

the relevant message. Another issue lays in wait for discussion and that is the level of difficulty of communication, based on the simplicity or complexity of the concepts of knowledge to be conveyed. Table 1 explains lucidly how the message may be communicated to the different strata of audience and what tentatively interests them in the linguistic communication.

ENGLISH GOES GLOBAL

For the linguistic communication to be successful a language comes to the scene. With the fast and widespread expansion of colonialism both in time and space, English became established in the colonies of the British Empire. In due course of time, colonialism gained momentum in

various forms affected largely by economics and technology. Consequently, more and more countries started falling prey to monolingualism in the form of English currently popularly labelled as a global language (Chandalia, 2009). First among Indians, Raja Ram Mohan Roy was the chief protagonist who wanted English to be taught in Indian schools and colleges. He believed like many others that the knowledge of English could facilitate the possibility of early freedom for India by giving the Indians the knowledge of several democratic and freedom movements abroad. The importance of the ability to speak or write English has recently increased significantly because English has become the de facto standard. Learning English has become popular for business, commerce

TABLE 1
Simplicity of Thought and Level of Communication

The audience	The audience asks	Typical Explanation
Semiliterate or illiterate	How can we use the information?	Chalkboard presentations/posters, oral tradition
Primary-school or equivalent	What is it?	Simple talks about nature, inventions
Secondary-school or equivalent*	Why is it?	Illustrated texts, magazines, audiovisual material
University students, graduates*	What is the basis in quantification, philosophy?	Experiments, tests, seminars, conferences
Other : Scientists, Engineers**	What must I do to develop my career?	Interdisciplinary journals, workshops, visits
Decision-makers : governmental industrial, university**	Why should society adopt and pay for discoveries, technical innovations?	By consultants, research and development advisors, special committee named to guide the decision-makers

*These two categories comprise the large, public audience often called the urban literate population.

**These two categories can be expected to have access to technical media of various kinds of scientific and engineering journals.

(Richardson, 1993)

and cultural reasons and especially for internet communication throughout the world. India is the catalyst of various global changes, with the potential to command international growth, possessing the largest youth workforce and is the world's second-largest English-speaking country. With globalisation and Indian companies going global, Indian professionals are expected to interact with international clients and customers. Proficiency in the English Language has become inevitable for grabbing an opening in the global concerns. The phenomenon seems unavoidable because only English-speaking Indians can connect a contemporary India with the modern world. Corporate India is finally beginning to engage in the global talent pool. A diverse workforce is today a business imperative. In the corporate

world, English is used for international communication, top management meetings and high-level negotiations. English is the preferred language for internal and external communication inter- and intra-companies worldwide. Employers expect the workforce to possess excellent communication skills apart from knowledge and expertise in their respective field. "Speaking English increases your salary 35%- Business Week Statistics" (Chaudhary, 2009). India appeared to have an edge over international competition because of its long association with English, the use of English for administration and the fact that English is taught either as a school language or is used as the medium of instruction. With the number of foreign investors flocking to India growing and the growth of outsourcing, English has come to play a key role in professional relationships

between foreign and Indian companies. However, business organisations have started to realise that our language skills are inadequate for international communication.

Demand for Business English has burgeoned in recent years and there has been a mushrooming of courses for learners, courses for teachers, materials for learners and reference materials. There is further proliferation of terms used in Business English that focus on people, purpose or jobs. So, we hear about "English for Professionals", "English for Professional Purposes", "English for Secretaries" or "Secretarial English" and many more. In a competitive market we aim to distinguish our products and services from those of our competitors to find a special niche. This may be one significant reason for the range of terms: the need to sound as if we have a unique selling point (John, 1996).

THE CHANGING ENGLISH LANGUAGE

Now at the beginning of the twenty-first century, as we witness the rise of interactive digital media such as the Internet, conditions are even more conducive to the production of innovative styles of youth culture. Language will necessarily take on new forms and uses in a world in which communication is mediated through numerous agencies. With the proliferation of television channels, social networking sites, blogs, animations, film-culture, video and computer games, today's generation of youths live a life that is completely dominated by technology and pop culture.

The pressure to fit in the group, to be one of the crowd, is so overpowering for youngsters today that most of them live a life dictated by what they see in movies, TV serials, fashion and popular magazines. Language is used creatively in specific local contexts to achieve particular social and interactional goals, and in the process, both language and culture are being reshaped to fit new, locally meaningful identities. With regards to this, Clark and Kenji (2011) have rightly stated that the rapid expansion of Internet use, electronic communication and user-orientated media such as social networking sites, blogs and microblogging services has led to a rapid increase in the need to understand casual written English, which often does not conform to rules of spelling, grammar and punctuation. Besides the two familiar modes of communication, written and spoken language, there exists, Prof. David Crystal argues, a "third medium" of Internet language, or Netspeak as he calls it. Irregular language used in casual English found in social media can be grouped into several distinct categories as follows (Clark & Kenji, 2011).

1. Abbreviation (shortform)
e.g. nite - night
sayin - saying
gr8 - great
2. Abbreviation (acronym)
e.g. lol - laughing out loud
iirc - if I remember correctly
3. Typing error/misspelling
e.g. wouls - would
rediculous - ridiculous

4. Punctuation omission/error
e.g. im – I'm
dont – don't
5. Non-dictionary slang
This category includes word sense disambiguation (WSD) problems caused by slang uses of standard words, e.g. *that was well mint* ("*that was very good*").
6. Wordplay
Includes phonetic spelling and intentional misspelling for verbal effect, e.g. *that was soooooo great* ("*that was so great*").
7. Censor avoidance
8. Using numbers or punctuation to disguise vulgarities, e.g. *shlt, f****, etc.
9. Emoticons

The development of mobile phones with full keyboards, touch screens or advanced word formation programmes has facilitated the process by which young people have embraced this technology as a hallmark of their generation (Skierskowski & Wood, 2012). Studies seek to determine the linguistic specificities of SMSes defined as a register (Ravid & Tolchinsky, 2002) of written communication. Along these same lines, Crystal (2001) emphasised the importance of the concept of "language variety" which can be applied to oral and written language, legal language, scientific language, regional particularities of a language, literature and also to computer-

mediated writing, including SMSes. Some examples of the linguistic alterations may be slang/abbreviated slang terms (e.g. "dunno"), acronyms (e.g. LOL), g-drop (e.g. "doin"), number for sound (e.g. L8), letter omissions (e.g., R for "are"), emoticons (from the 2001 LIWC), abbreviations (e.g., x for kiss), combined words (e.g., nevermind) and expansions (e.g., bitchhhhhhhhhhh).

CONCLUSION

Thus it may be definitely understood in the line of the hypothesis that it is still a dilemma whether Homosapiens first communicated with or without a language. That English has gone global has been established in the paper, and with regards to the third hypothetical statement we find innumerable examples of English use by youth who call themselves "cool" because they use deviations from Standard English. There is a wide scope of study beyond this paper as to how this emerging language can be used in the language classrooms as curricula in tertiary-level education.

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Financial Literacy of New Job Entrants

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ABSTRACT

In today's competitive environment there is a pervasive need to develop a financial foundation as an essential life skill for students to ease their entry into professional life from their present comfort zone. Financial literacy will help improve their critical personal choices of lifestyle, cash flow and investment portfolios. The purpose of this study is to explore the perception of new job entrants on the importance of financial awareness and their present knowledge of financial investments and various instruments in the market. Further, it conducts an empirical investigation into the differences on the above on the basis of key variables such as gender, educational background and geographical regions. It is expected that the findings would provide a reflection of the gaps between the present financial knowledge of students and the practical wisdom they will need to make sound judgements. The results will throw light on the areas that demand attention to achieve the required financial base in graduating students.

Keywords: Financial literacy, newjob entrants,technical, non-technical, investment options

INTRODUCTION

Fresh graduates and post-graduates make up the bulk of new job entrants as they are about to enter the complex world of work where survival is tough. To secure a good future and provide well for their present

they must have some important life skills to be able to make smart and informed decisions. One essential life skill which calls for attention is financial literacy. Financial education is basic education that all individuals, especially today's young adults, should receive. In the course of their lives, young adults will eventually need a credit card, mortgage or a savings account to manage their finances. Inadequate financial knowledge and skills are seen to be a

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contributing factor towards unsustainable levels of household debt, a growing number of bankruptcies and decreased levels of savings (Fox *et al.*, 2005).

Financial literacy is the ability to understand finance. More specifically, it refers to the ‘set of skills and knowledge that allows an individual to make informed and effective decisions regarding the use and management of money’ (ASIC, 2003; Noctor *et al.*, 1992). A more comprehensive definition appeared in the Journal of Financial Service Professionals which stated that ‘personal financial literacy is the ability to read, analyze, manage and communicate about the personal financial conditions that affect material well being’ (Anthes, 2004).

In India, the middle class currently numbers some 50 million people, but by 2025 will have expanded dramatically to 583 million people--some 41 percent of the population (Farrell Diana *et al.*, (2007). New job entrants are part of this middle-class boom. These youngsters have a lifestyle that is more affluent than their pockets can afford, due to which they get trapped into easy credit. The spending of college graduates is rising about 12% a year--more than twice the pace of the economy’s growth.

Our country’s economic system and society’s well being depends on knowledgeable consumers, among other factors. Financial difficulties that people face today reduce their productivity, affect their and their family’s health physically, economically and psychologically and are a tremendous burden on society. Therefore,

learning how to manage money is as important as earning it. Students need greater knowledge about their personal finances and the economy as well as “real life” skills (e.g. balancing a check book, budgeting, reducing debt, understanding credit cards, saving, having good credit, paying interest, investing and purchasing a car or a home). After all, wealth is not about how much you earn. It is more about how you manage your money – how much you spend, how much you save and how well you invest it. Therefore, the need for holistic education to develop necessary life skills is felt along with the necessity of specific knowledge imparted by educational institutions.

In this paper we try to find out about various aspects of financial literacy displayed by new job entrants. Firstly, we investigated aspects of financial literacy (knowledge, attitudes and behaviour) on a sample of final-year students i.e. new job entrants. Also, differences are explored on basis of gender, educational background and the region of India to which they belong. Secondly, we examined the differences in personal and non-personal influences on the level of financial literacy of college students.

BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

According to a report, “Financial Literacy of Youth --A Sensitivity Analysis of the Determinants”, by the International Journal of Economic Sciences and Applied Research (55-70) the effects of financial illiteracy are seen in all types of communities -- be it high-income or low-income groups. A high income does not translate into financial

security without financial education. Even well-educated, high-income consumers in many countries including developed and westernized societies find themselves living pay-cheque to pay-cheque because they have not been taught how to budget or manage their money.

The need for financial education is felt in developed and developing countries alike. In developed countries, the increasing number and complexity of financial products, the continuing shift in responsibility for providing social security from governments and financial institutions to individuals and the growing importance of individual retirement planning make it imperative that financial education be provided to all. In the developing countries also, the increasing participation of a growing number of consumers in newly developing financial markets will necessitate the provision of financial education if these markets are to expand and operate efficiently. In addition, the substantial growth of international transactions during the last decade, resulting from new technologies and the growing international mobility of individuals, makes the improvement in financial education, increasingly, an international concern.

As a response to the recent financial crisis, the United States government set up the President's Advisory Council on Financial Literacy in January 2008, charged with promoting programmes that improve financial education at all levels of the economy and helping to increase access to financial services. In the developing world, the Indonesian government declared 2008

"the year of financial education," with a stated goal of improving access to and use of financial services by increasing financial literacy. Similarly, in India, The Reserve Bank of India launched an initiative in 2007 to establish Financial Literacy and Credit Counselling Centres throughout the country to would offer free financial education and counselling to urban and rural populations. The World Bank too has followed this trend – it recently approved a \$15 million Trust Fund on Financial Literacy.

Financial literacy can be considered to be low among youths as seen in most of the research, which shows that it is due to the level of complexities and variety in the financial world. In Australian society, as is the case in most western democracies, from the age of 15, a typical teenager learns to drive, starts part-time work and receives superannuation (pension) from the employer of the minimum statutory requirement of 9%. At 18, the youth buys a car, gets a credit card (normally offered through promotion by banks with special rates to university students) and works longer hours and or studies full-time or part-time. This scenario is typical as the youth is involved in complex and highly responsible and possibly demanding situations and has to make financial decisions on income and expenses, budgets and future investments. Australian youth debt levels are a major concern. A major study by the ANZ in 2003 found that low levels of financial literacy were associated with low levels of employment, single and ages from 18-24

(ANZ, 2005). In the USA, undergraduate students carried an average of three credit cards and had an average credit card debt of \$2,327 in 2002. This was a 15% increase from 2000 (Nellie Mae, 2002, cited by Tucker, 2003).

In India, the need for financial education is even greater considering the low levels of literacy and the large section of the population, which is still out of the formal financial set-up. A report titled "Financial literacy: Reserve Bank of India's Initiatives" by V.S. Das, Executive Director, Reserve Bank of India, Mumbai talks about the need for financial literacy in India and RBI's moves in this direction. One such project "Project Financial Literacy" with the objective of disseminating information regarding the central bank and general banking concepts to various target groups, including school and college going children, women, rural and urban poor, has been taken up by the central bank.

To conclude, economic and financial sector reforms have allowed higher disposable incomes for the public, making financial education important for financial stability. Financial education would benefit the financially-excluded by enabling them to understand the benefits and the ways to join the formal financial system. It could also benefit the financially-included by helping them make informed choices about the products and services available in the market to their best advantage. This paper endeavours to assess the perceived importance of financial awareness among new job entrants and their current level of

financial knowledge of specific financial instruments. As demographic and socio-economic variables are known to govern perceptions, attitude and behaviour, the study also makes an examination of the impact of gender, educational background and geographical region on the above-mentioned issues.

The following sections present the methodical framework and findings of the study.

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study is to explore new job entrants' perceptions on the *need for financial education* and *importance of having awareness of financial behaviour*. Additionally, it explores the current *influences* on how to manage money and the *level of financial knowledge* on specific areas such as investment, taxes, debit/credit card usage, insurance and loans/debt. Further, it investigates the difference on these variables vis. a vis. gender, educational background (such as non-technical or technical) and regional areas (such as north, west, south, east and central India).

The study therefore hypothesises the following:

H1: The level of *importance of financial awareness* will be different for (a) male and female students (b) technical and non-technical students and (c) students from different regions.

H2: The level of *learning about managing money* (a) from personal sources will be significantly higher than

non-personal sources (b) will differ for male and female students.

H3: The level of *information on investment options* will be different for (a) male and female students (b) technical and non-technical students.

H4: The level of *information on taxes* will be different for (a) male and female students (b) technical and non-technical students.

H5: The level of *information on debit/credit card usage* will be different for (a) male and female students (b) technical and non-technical students.

H6: The level of *information on insurance policies* will be different for (a) male and female students (b) technical and non-technical students.

H7: The level of *information on loans and debt* will be different for (a) male and female students (b) technical and non-technical students.

A structured questionnaire was used in data collection. The questionnaire consisted of statements that were designed using the Likert scale to measure the perceptions of new job entrants on the need for financial education and importance of having awareness on financial behaviour; the current influences on how to manage money and the level of financial knowledge on specific areas such as investment, taxes, debit/credit card usage, insurance and loans/debt. The questionnaire also included descriptive measures including gender, educational background and regional area.

Sample

Data for the study were gathered from a web survey on the facebook account of one of the authors over a one-month period. The snowball sampling technique was primarily employed to encourage responses. The resultant sample of 159 consisted of 61% males and 39% females; 83.6% technical students and 16.4% non-technical students with 78.6% students originating from the north; 6.9% from the west; 6.3% from the east; 3.8 % from the south and 4.4 % from central India.

Measures

The constructs used in this study such as *importance for financial awareness; learning about managing money; information on investment options, information on taxes, information on debit/card usage, information on insurance and information on loans and debts* were measured as multi-item scales. As the extant literature did not present scales that specifically measured the importance of these constructs, they were designed and content validated for use in this study. The details are presented below:

Importance of financial awareness

A four-item Likert scale was employed with the following indications (1) Not important (2) Somewhat unimportant (3) Not sure (4) Somewhat important (5) Very important. A higher value reflects high level of importance on the scale. Scale items included statements on importance of maintaining records, balance between

income and expenditure and maintaining adequate financial coverage. Coefficient alpha was used to measure the internal consistency of the scale. Cronbach alpha was reported to be 0.718, which deems the scale reliable (Nunally, 1978).

Learning about managing money through personal sources

A five-item Likert scale was employed with the following indications (1) None (2) Very little (3) Not applicable (4) To an extent (5) A lot. A higher value reflects high level of learning on the scale. Scale items included statements on learning about managing money from parents, friends, school, life experiences and financial planner/counsellor. Coefficient alpha was used to measure the internal consistency of the scale. Cronbach alpha was reported to be 0.51, which deems the scale reliable.

Learning about managing money through non-personal sources

A five-item Likert scale was employed with the following indications (1) None (2) Very little (3) Not applicable (4) To an extent (5) A lot. A higher value reflects high level of learning on the scale. Scale items included statements on learning about managing money from books, media, internet, informal public seminar/class. Coefficient alpha was used to measure the internal consistency of the scale. Cronbach alpha was reported to be 0.665, which deems the scale reliable.

Information on investment options

A four-item Likert scale was employed with the following indications (1) Very knowledgeable (2) Somewhat knowledgeable (3) Not sure (4) Somewhat ignorant (5) Very ignorant. A higher value reflects low level of information/knowledge on the scale. Scale items included statements on level of information/knowledge on fixed deposits, mutual funds, stocks and shares and post office schemes. Coefficient alpha was used to measure the internal consistency of the scale. Cronbach alpha was reported to be 0.806, which deems the scale reliable.

Information on taxes

A four-item Likert scale was employed with the following indications (1) Very knowledgeable (2) Somewhat knowledgeable (3) Not sure (4) Somewhat ignorant (5) Very ignorant. A higher value reflects low level of information/knowledge on the scale. Scale items included statements on level of information/knowledge on personal taxation and indirect taxes. Coefficient alpha was used to measure the internal consistency of the scale. Cronbach alpha was reported to be 0.832, which deems the scale reliable.

Information on debit/credit cards

A four-item Likert scale was employed with the following indications (1) Very knowledgeable (2) Somewhat knowledgeable (3) Not sure (4) Somewhat ignorant (5) Very ignorant. A higher value

reflects low level of information/knowledge on the scale. Scale items included statements on level of information/knowledge on the use and penalties on debit/credit cards. Coefficient alpha was used to measure the internal consistency of the scale. Cronbach alpha was reported to be 0.642, which deems the scale reliable.

Information on insurance

A two-item Likert scale was employed with the following indications (1) Very knowledgeable (2) Somewhat knowledgeable (3) Not sure (4) Somewhat ignorant (5) Very ignorant. A higher value reflects low level of information/knowledge on the scale. Scale items included statements on level of information/knowledge on life and auto insurance. Coefficient alpha was used to measure the internal consistency of the scale. Cronbach alpha was reported to be 0.763, which deems the scale reliable.

Information on loans/debt

A four-item Likert scale was employed with the following indications (1) Very knowledgeable (2) Somewhat knowledgeable (3) Not sure (4) Somewhat ignorant (5) Very ignorant. A higher value reflects low level of information/knowledge on the scale. Scale items included statements on level of information/knowledge on housing loan, personal loan, auto loan and educational loan. Coefficient alpha was used to measure the internal consistency of the scale. Cronbach alpha was reported to be 0.903, which deems the scale reliable.

RESULTS

The findings of the study reveal important insights on inclinations and attitudes of new job entrants towards financial literacy and behaviour. Firstly, as can be seen from Table 1, almost 69% of the youths feel the need to improve their financial knowledge. Table 1 also reveals the importance of financial awareness to them; the mean score for this construct is 4.37 (SD=0.601). This indicates that these new job entrants highly rate the importance of being financially aware. In addition to this the study also explores the sources (personal, non-personal) from which the new job entrants learn to manage their monetary affairs.

Fig.1 reveals the same with parents as the most popular source and financial planner/ counsellor as the least popular source.

The study also made an appraisal of the present financial knowledge on specific areas such as investment, taxes, debit/ credit card, insurance and loans /debt. The findings reveal that these new job entrants are most knowledgeable on taxes and least knowledgeable on debit/credit card usage.

The hypotheses postulated in the previous section were examined as follows:

H1 (a) and H1 (b): An independent sample *t*-test was performed, comparing the mean score of *importance of financial awareness* for male students (M=4.26, SD=0.65) with that of female students (M=4.54, SD=0.46). This test was found to be statistically significant, $t(158)=2.949, p=0.004$. Hence, H1

TABLE 1
Mean Scores on Key Variables

1. Need for a personal finance course (in percentage)	
Yes	68.6
No	18.2
Not Sure	13.2
2. Importance of Financial Awareness (mean scores on five-point Likert scale)	
GENDER	
Male	4.26
Female	4.54
EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND	
Technical	4.44
Medical	3.98
REGION	
North	4.38
West	4.4
East	4.62
South	4.2
Central	3.92
3. Sources of learning about Managing money (mean scores on five-point Likert scale)	
PERSONAL	3.38
NON-PERSONAL	2.94

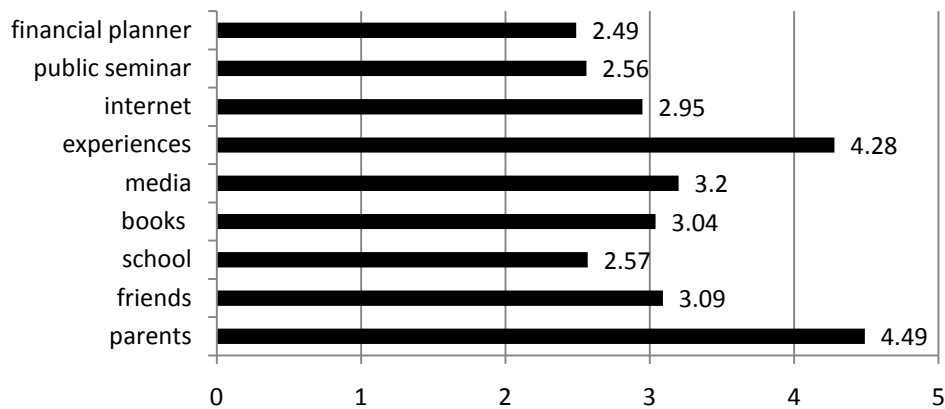


Fig.1: Learning about managing money

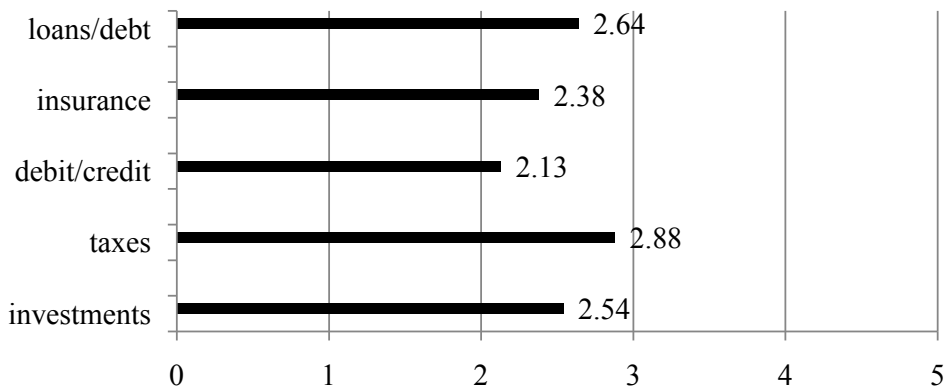


Fig.2: Level of knowledge

(a) stands supported. Similarly, the t -test was used to evaluate H1 (b). The scores for technical students ($M=4.44$, $SD=0.48$) and non-technical students ($M=3.98$, $SD=0.92$) were compared. This test was found to be statistically significant with $t(158)=14.31$, $p=0.000$. Thus H1 (b) finds support from the findings of this study.

H2: A 2 (sources for information) X 2 (Gender) mixed model ANOVA revealed a significant effect for sources of information, $F(1,158)=46.35$, $p<.000$. Eta-squared = 0.29. Information acquired from *personal sources* measured as $M=3.38$ ($SD=0.66$) and *from non-personal sources* as $M=2.94$ ($SD=0.91$). However, there were no significant main or interaction effects of new job entrants' gender on the sources of information. The mean score for male respondents for personal sources was 3.26 ($SD=0.69$) and for female respondents as 3.58 ($SD=0.57$); the

scores for non-personal sources are as follows – male respondents ($M=2.84$, $SD=0.93$) and female respondents ($M=3.09$, $SD=0.84$). Thus support for H2 (a) is found from this investigation but H2 (b) i.e. gender based-differences stands rejected.

H3 (a) and H3 (b): An independent sample t -test was performed, comparing the mean score of *information on investment options* for male students ($M=2.53$, $SD=0.98$) with that of female students ($M=2.55$, $SD=0.83$). This test was found to be statistically not significant, $t(158)=0.108$, $p=0.914$. Hence, H3 (a) stands not supported. Similarly, the t -test was used to evaluate H3 (b). The scores for technical students ($M=2.48$, $SD=0.87$) and non-technical students ($M=2.85$, $SD=1.11$) were compared. This test was found to be statistically significant with $t(158)=3.63$, $p=0.050$. Thus H3 (b) finds support from the findings of this study.

H4 (a) and H4 (b): An independent sample *t*-test was performed, comparing the mean score of *information on taxes* for male students ($M=2.88$, $SD=1.19$) with that of female students ($M=2.87$, $SD=0.92$). This test was found to be statistically not significant, $t(158)=0.087$, $p=0.903$. Hence, H4 (a) stands not supported. Similarly, the *t*-test was used to evaluate H4 (b). The scores for technical students ($M=2.75$, $SD=1.01$) and non-technical students ($M=3.5$, $SD=1.28$) were compared. This test was found to be statistically significant with $t(158)=10.53$, $p=0.001$. Thus H4 (b) finds support from the findings of this study.

H5 (a) and H5 (b): An independent sample *t*-test was performed, comparing the mean score of *information on debit/credit card usage* for male students ($M=2.11$, $SD=0.89$) with that of female students ($M=2.16$, $SD=0.89$). This test was found to be statistically not significant, $t(158)=0.294$, $p=0.769$. Hence, H5 (a) stands not supported. Similarly, the *t*-test was used to evaluate H5 (b). The scores for technical students ($M=2.01$, $SD=0.77$) and non-technical students ($M=2.76$, $SD=1.14$) were compared. This test was found to be statistically significant with $t(158)=17.38$, $p=0.000$. Thus H5 (b) finds support from the findings of this study.

H6 (a) and H6 (b): An independent sample *t*-test was performed, comparing the mean score of *information on*

insurance policies for male students ($M=2.33$, $SD=1.15$) with that of female students ($M=2.45$, $SD=0.92$). This test was found to be statistically not significant, $t(158)=0.715$, $p=0.476$. Hence, H6 (a) stands not supported. Similarly, the *t*-test was used to evaluate H6 (b). The scores for technical students ($M=2.32$, $SD=0.99$) and non-technical students ($M=2.69$, $SD=1.37$) were compared. This test was found to be statistically significant with $t(158)=2.61$, $p=0.010$. Thus H6 (b) finds support from the findings of this study.

H7 (a) and H7 (b): An independent sample *t*-test was performed, comparing the mean score of *information on loans and debt* for male students ($M=2.66$, $SD=1.15$) with that of female students ($M=2.61$, $SD=1.05$). This test was found to be statistically not significant, $t(158)=0.300$, $p=0.765$. Hence, H7 (a) stands not supported. Similarly, the *t*-test was used to evaluate H7 (b). The scores for technical students ($M=2.56$, $SD=1.05$) and non-technical students ($M=3.08$, $SD=1.34$) were compared. This test was found to be statistically significant with $t(158)=4.95$, $p=0.020$. Thus H7 (b) finds support from the findings of this study.

CONCLUSION

The findings from the study provide many meaningful insights. Firstly, it can be seen that a majority of the youths feel strongly to improve their present level of financial

knowledge. This is in congruence with the research results of Lalonde Kelly et al (2009) which indicate that students are aware of their financial literacy or lack thereof. Thus, there is a need for greater academic rigour in providing training, education and exposure to holistically train young new job entrants.

Secondly, the importance of being financially aware was also highly rated and particularly so by female students. A separate study on female students revealed a more significant increase in financial knowledge as a result of the curriculum than for male participants (Danes et al, 2007). Hence, it may be stated that gender-related roles are deep rooted, and female students seem to be more financially prudent. This study also made an assessment vis-à-vis academic background. Technical students rated the importance of being financially aware higher than non-technical students. It can be implied from this that non-technical courses need to revisit their curriculum and better design courses to meet present-day requirements of youth.

An interesting facet of the study was to explore the sources of information for managing money. Information acquired from personal sources such as parents, friends, school, life experiences etc. was rated higher than non-personal sources such as books, media, internet etc. Thus greater attention is required to develop and design integrated programmes to promote financial literacy among youth. Further, the study specifically aimed to assess the present level of knowledge of new job entrants on specific financial aspects. The findings

reveal that these new job entrants were the most knowledgeable on issues related to taxation followed by loans, investment options and insurance and least on debit/credit card usage. However, they have a moderate level of understanding of these aspects. Once again, this draws attention to the fact that new job entrants require better training related to these vital financial aspects which will eventually govern their financial behaviour. It may also be noted that male and female new job entrants had a similar level of knowledge on these aspects. This is similar to the findings of Murphy (2005) which revealed that gender differences in scores were found, but they were not found to be significant. However, new job entrants in technical areas had a lower level of information on these aspects.

This study provides meaningful insights for both academicians and practitioners. The findings provide an initial platform from which to develop programmes and policies for a holistic development of youth. Given the limited academic research attention on these aspects particularly in India, this study makes a meaningful contribution to academicians, researchers and organisations.

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A Study on the Street Vendors of Kathmandu Municipality

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ABSTRACT

Street vending is the most visible aspect of the informal sector, where thousands of people earn their living by selling goods on streets, sidewalks and other open public places. The number of street vendors is increasing day by day. Migrants from rural areas who do not possess the skill, knowledge and education to gain a better-paying job in the formal sector were found to settle for street vending. In most of cases, income generation is the secondary role for women whereas earning a living is the primary role for men. So access to income, savings, access and control over resources and freedom to use saved income for women were less significant than for men. The main expenditure of the vendors is on the basic needs of the family. Income earned through street vending has increased the financial independence and decision making power of women within the household. However, the majority of the women engaged in this sector were found to be overburdened with multiple responsibilities.

Nevertheless, this study has shown that traditional attitudes about sex, class and caste based segregation of occupation and work role distribution seem to be changing. This is evident from the fact that the number of Brahmin and Chhetri women and men engaged in street vending is found to be increasing compared to the number of Newar men and women who are engaged in street vending. Traditionally, the main occupation of the Newar is business. The main reasons for the men to be engaged in street vending are to provide for the family and unemployment, whereas the main reason the women are engaged in street vending is that their spouse's income is insufficient to provide for the basic needs of the family. The source of inspiration to pursue business for most of the women and men street vendors is themselves. Street vendors seem to be suffering from different health problems.

Among them the most common are gastritis, headache, backbone pain, cold and fever.

Street vendors also face expulsion from vending locations since there is no proper and systematic vending venue for

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their business. Sexual harassment is also a concern for female street vendors in some cases; the Metropolitan City Police are the major threat they face. But one of the key informants from among the customers highlighted that street vendors always caused obstruction for pedestrians and vehicles. It is evident then that street vendors need to be properly managed.

The study showed that 90 per cent of the male street vendors and only 55 per cent of the female street vendors are literate. Thus, there is a great difference in the literacy rate between male and female street vendors. Women street vendors have not yet been able to grasp the opportunity for education due to different social circumstances and lack of awareness.

Both women and men street vendors are not aware of computers and other business and marketing-related technologies. They possess little information about new trends of marketing and selling and also possess little information about the quality or the uses of the goods they sell. They also do not have sufficient time and money to find out about the technology. In this area, women street vendors are far behind the men. As businesses in the informal sector and especially street vending are becoming competitive day by day, there is need for street vendors to be aware of user-friendly technology and product knowledge. Technocrats, especially women technocrats, should be engaged to train women street vendors in terms of product knowledge and technology in order to sharpen the competitive edge of street vendors, especially women street vendors.

Keywords: Street vendors, privatisation, localization, informal sector, migrants, basic needs, lacking resources, leading factors, inspiration

INTRODUCTION

The liberalisation and privatisation policy that Nepal adopted after 1990 has seen more and more people engaged in the informal sectors such as street vending, construction work and domestic work as helpers because the formal sectors like education, health, civil service and social service demand a high level of efficiency, skill and knowledge. Furthermore, the increasing population of Nepal and the shrinking opportunities of employment in the formal sector have also pushed people to gain employment in the informal sectors. Moreover, more and more women are entering paid work, but their entry is mainly in the informal sector and home-based work (UNIFEM, 2005).

In 1972, the ILO and UNDP mission to Kenya introduced the concept of informal sector as follows:

- Ease of entry of new enterprise
- Family ownership
- Small size of operation
- Unregulated and competitive market
- Labor intensive technology
- No state support
- Deplorable working conditions
- Low wages
- (Joshi, 1995)

Street vending has been categorised under the informal sector. It is a global phenomenon where millions of people earn their living wholly or partly by selling a wide range of goods on the streets, sidewalks and other public places. It is conducted in the open air without any fixed framework for street vendors to operate their business.

Street vendors are self-employed individuals. Street vending is a means of survival for individuals who lack sufficient capital, skill and knowledge. People are making their existence by selling clothes, bags, shoes, cereals, fruits, books, technical items, seeds, plants, foods etc. on the road. However, the vendors work to maintain their regular livelihood. Street vending is also a good temporary job while permanent employment is being sought.

The number of street vendors and the nature (types) of goods they sell in New Road, Ratna Park, Old Bus Park, Bhotahity, Sundhara, Bagbazar, Judda Salik and Khichapokhari are as Table 1 below.

Kathmandu, the capital of Nepal, provides most facilities needed in

contemporary life and is home to all types of businesses. Thus, there is a tendency for people from all other districts in Nepal to migrate to Kathmandu in search of better-paying jobs. Most men and women migrants from the rural areas are less qualified for formal jobs, and so, are engaged in informal jobs that require low investment and offer low returns. As they do not have alternative employment opportunities, they seek easier sources of income. The cost of living in the city is higher, and these migrants find themselves struggling to make ends meet. In addition, they are often saddled with the responsibility of having to look after parents and children back in their villages. Married couples that arrive together in the city find that both must work in order to earn an income that is sufficient to manage the household.

The Kathmandu Metropolitan City office records of 2007 show that among 56 per cent of the total number of street vendors are males selling different items while 44 per cent are female vendors selling different items. This shows that the percentage of

TABLE 1

No of Street Vendors in New Road, Ratna Park, Old Bus Park, Bhotahity, Sundhara, Bagbazar, Judda Salik and Khichapokhari:

Nature of goods	Male		Female		Total	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Ready-made goods	856	58	630	42	1486	100
Vegetables and others	57	35	106	65	163	100
Push cart and cycle	64	65	34	35	98	100
Tea and lunch	50	61	32	39	82	100
Total	1027	56	802	44	1829	100

Source: The Kathmandu Metropolitan City office (2007)

male and female street vendors is almost equal.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The overall objective of the study is to provide meaningful information on street vendors in Kathmandu Municipality from the perspective of gender. The specific objectives are as follows:-

- To identify the factors that have led them to street vending
- To examine their income and expenditure
- To examine their health condition

STUDY METHOD

This is a study of the Municipality of Kathmandu District. The study was exploratory and descriptive. It is exploratory in the sense that very few studies on street vendors have been done, and descriptive in the sense that it has provided descriptive information about the socio-economic situation of Kathmandu street vendors.

The Kathmandu Municipality as a study area was selected with a specific purpose in mind. The respondents, the key persons of the NEST (Nepal Street Vendors Union) and personnel of Kathmandu Metropolitan City office were also taken with a specific purpose in mind. This study is based on field observation and collection of data through questionnaire. There were fifteen questions in the schedule including information on demographic background, income, expenditure, educational background, factors leading to engagement in street

vending, source of inspiration and health-related problems. The total sample size was 40, which consisted of 20 men and 20 women street vendors. They were interviewed using the convenience sampling method.

STUDY AREA

Kathmandu, the capital city of Nepal, is located in the central Development Region of Nepal. It is a development centre of the region and the most populated district in the country. The rapid growth of population in various urban centres like Kathmandu is largely owing to the shift of rural people to metropolitan cities in search of better-paid employment or for study. The area of the study was New Road, Ratna Park, Old Bus Park, Bhotahity, Sundhara, Bagbazar, Judda Sadak and Khichapokhari of the Kathmandu Municipality. These are the busiest markets of the capital and are all situated in the heart of the city where a large number of street vendors sell a variety of goods.

The population of the city is composed of various types of ethnic groups like Brahmin, Chhetri and Newar and the ethnic castes including Magar, Gurung, Rai and others.

MAJOR FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

Table 2 shows that most of the respondents belong to the age group 16-60 years; 100 per cent of the males are from the age group 16-60 while 95 per cent of the females are from the 16-60 years age group and 5 per cent of the females are above 60 years. None of the males and females are from the child

group i.e. from the age group 1-15 years. This shows that most of the street vendors are from the active age groups.

Table 3 shows that 35 per cent of the males are from the Brahmin caste, 40 per cent from the Chhetri, 5 per cent from the Ethnic group and 20 per cent from the Newar. On the other hand, 25 per cent of the females are from the Brahmin caste, 50 per cent from the Chhetri, 15 per cent from the Ethnic group and 10 per cent from the Newar. Most of the street vendors, then, are from the Brahmin and Chhetri castes. The data here shows that more men and women of the so-called upper castes are now engaged in the business of street vending although business has traditionally been the domain of the Newar caste. It would appear that a shift in traditional thinking is taking place.

Table 4 shows that 10 per cent of the males and 45 per cent of the females of the respondents are illiterate while 90 per cent of the males and 55 per cent of the females are literate. This highlights a great difference in the literacy rate between males and females. Males are more literate than female. This is probably due to the fact that women in Nepal are not yet given sufficient opportunity for education because of different social circumstances and lack of awareness.

The table 5 shows that 45 per cent of the female vendors are engaged in street vending due to the fact that their spouse earns insufficient income to fulfil the basic needs of the family. In contrast, 35 per cent of the male vendors are engaged in street vending in order to provide for the family. Therefore the reason for being engaged in

TABLE 2
Age Distribution of Respondents

Age	Male		Female	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
1-15	0	0	0	0
16-60	20	100	19	95
Above 60	0	0	1	5
Total	20	100	20	100

TABLE 3
Caste / Ethnicity of Respondents

Caste/Ethnicity	Male		Female	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Brahmin	7	35	5	25
Chhetri	8	40	10	50
Ethnic	1	5	3	15
Newar	4	20	2	10
Total	20	100	20	100

TABLE 4
Educational Status of Respondents

Educational Status	Male		Female	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Illiterate	2	10	9	45
Literate	18	90	11	55
Total	20	100	20	100

TABLE 5
Factors Leading to Street Vending

Reasons	Male		Female	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Unemployment	6	30	2	10
No house and land	3	15	1	5
Interest in business	1	5	1	5
Parental business	1	5	-	-
To provide for family	7	35	2	10
Insufficient income earned by spouse	-	-	9	45
Saving	-	-	3	15
Others	2	10	2	10
Total	20	100	20	100

street vending differs for men and women. 'Others' in the table refers to the terror of Maoist insurgents and the neglect of children.

Table 6 shows that 20 per cent of the male street vendors attribute friends as being the source of inspiration for their decision to pursue business while 5 per cent point to relatives, 50 per cent to self and 25 per cent to others. None pointed to their in-laws as the source of inspiration for their decision to pursue business. In case of the female street vendors, 5 per cent pointed to friends as the source of inspiration for their decision to pursue business, 5 per cent pointed to in-laws, 50 per cent to self and 40 per cent to others. None of the female street vendors pointed to their relatives as the source of inspiration for their decision to

pursue business. This suggests that women are not supported in their decision to become street vendors.

Table 7 shows that 50 per cent of the male street vendors earned an income in the range of Rs. 5001-10000, whereas 70 per cent of the female vendors earned an income in the range of Rs. 1000-5000. The reason for the monthly income of the women being lower than that of the men may be the lower investment of time and effort of the individual in the business as many of the women street vendors have multiple tasks: they have to take care of their children, do domestic work and operate their business as well. This triple responsibility is likely the reason that the women street vendors earn less than the men.

TABLE 6
Source of Inspiration for Business

Source of Inspiration	Male		Female	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Friends	4	20	1	5
In – laws	0	0	1	5
Relatives	1	5	0	0
Self	10	50	10	50
Others	5	25	8	40
Total	20	100	20	100

TABLE 7
Monthly Income of the Respondents

Income in Rs.	Male		Female	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
1000 – 5000	6	30	14	70
5001 – 10000	10	50	3	15
10001 – 15000	4	20	3	15
Total	20	100	20	100

DECISION ON EXPENDITURE

Only significant figures have been analysed under decision on expenditure. The figures on decision on expenditure show that 65 per cent of the female respondents take the decision about the expenditure for food while among the males, 65 per cent of the respondents said that family members, namely wives and mothers, make the decision on expenditure. But the other figures indicate that both spouses decide jointly on household expenditure. Forty per cent of the female respondents said that both spouses decide on expenditure for medicine and clothes while 48 per cent said that both spouses decided on expenditure for their children's education, 80 per cent said both decided on expenditure for entertainment and 60 per cent said both decided on

expenditure for capital goods. Among the men, 50 per cent of the respondents said that both spouses decided on expenditure for medicine and clothes, 53 per cent said both decided on expenditure for their children's education, 64 per cent said both decided on expenditure for entertainment and 50 per cent said both decided on expenditure for capital goods. Except for expenditure on food, the decisions on all other expenditure are made jointly by both spouses; this suggests equality in the relationship between husband and wife in the household.

Table 8 shows that 12 male street vendors suffered from headache, 5 from gastritis, 1 from backbone pain, 4 from cold and fever, 1 from high blood pressure, chest pain and acidity. Among the female street vendors 9 suffered from headache, 8 from

gastritis, 3 from cold and fever and 1 from backbone pain, high blood pressure, eye inflammation and chest pain respectively. Three of the male street vendors and 4 of the women street vendors did not suffer from any type of pain. Most of the male and female street vendors suffer from headache and gastritis. This may be due to working in the open and not eating at the proper time. More men than women street vendors suffer from headache while more women than men suffer from gastritis.

TABLE 8
Health Problems

Health Problems	Male	Female
	Frequency	Frequency
Headache	12	9
Gastritis	5	8
Backbone pain	1	1
Cold, fever	4	3
High blood pressure	1	1
Chest pain	1	1
Eye inflammation	0	1
Acidity	1	0
Nothing	3	4

* Multiple responses and the figures add up to more than 100

CONCLUSION

Street vending has been the most visible occupation of the informal sector where thousands of people earn a living by selling goods on the streets and sidewalks and in other open public places. The number of street vendors is increasing day by day. Migrants from rural areas arriving in the city in search of gainful employment and

who do not possess the skills, knowledge and education to qualify for a better-paid job in the formal sector were found to settle for street vending. Among women, street vending is the secondary work whereas among the men, it is the primary work. Access to income, savings, access and control over resources, freedom to use saved income were lower for female street vendors than for male street vendors. The main expenditure of the vendors is on fulfilling the basic needs of the family.

Income earned through street vending has increased the financial independence and decision-making power of women within the household. However, most of the women street vendors are overburdened with triple responsibilities. Nevertheless, there is some gender equality between the men and women street vendors.

This study shows that the traditional attitude of the people is beginning to change. This is also evidenced by the fact that the number of Brahmin and Chhetri involved in business is increasing to overtake the number of Newar in business. The Newar have traditionally been involved in business.

The main reasons for street vending among the men are to provide for the family and unemployment whereas for the women, it is because the income earned by the spouse is insufficient. For both genders, however, the source of inspiration for pursuing business is self.

Street vendors seem to suffer from different health problems. Among the most common are gastritis, headache, backbone pain and cold and fever.

Street vendors also face expulsion from vending places as there is no proper and organised vending place for street vendors. Sexual harassment is a problem for female street vendors in some cases and the Metropolitan City Police are the major threat to them. However, street vendors do cause some traffic problems such as obstructing roads meant for pedestrians and vehicles. This suggests that a proper management system of street vendors needs to be put into place.

Both women and men street vendors are not computer-savvy nor are they aware of business and marketing-related technologies. They possess little information about new trends of marketing and selling and also possess little information about the quality of the goods they sell. They do not have the time and money to find out about and learn new technology. They also do not know the uses of the items they sell. In this area, women street vendors are far behind the men. Since the informal sector businesses and especially street vending are becoming competitive day by day, there is a need for vendors to learn about technology as well as how to use it. Specific technocrats, especially women technocrats, could be got to train women street vendors accordingly and to impart knowledge and disseminate information to them from time to time so that the competitive edge of women and men street vendors can be increased.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR POLICY

The informal sector businesses including street vending is becoming competitive day by day. It is a large source of employment especially for women as compared to men. But it was found that street vendors face various problems from customers and the metropolitan police. There is a need for the government to provide proper management of street vendors, and this includes providing a safe and suitable location away from busy roads for them to operate their business. This will also ensure that the city is neat, clean and attractive.

In order to ensure that the human rights of street vendors are not violated, street vending should be legalized. Proper laws and regulations should be formulated to this end.

There is no actual gender disaggregated data in the NEST (Nepal Street Vendors Association). The association should, therefore, look into this and provide for the collection and archiving of data related to street vendors by gender as well as by overall immersion in the business. This will make it easier for the drafting of gender-friendly policies.

Both men and women street vendors are not aware of business- and marketing-related information technology. Even if most of the street vendors have no higher education, they need to learn information technology as they live and work in this age of information technology. The association should, therefore, provide the relevant training to street vendors in order that their knowledge and capacity might be increased.

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The Effects of the Genre-Based Approach on Engineering Students' Writing Ability

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ABSTRACT

The Genre-Based Approach (GBA) is a teaching writing method that has been discussed recently. Researchers and scholars have successfully employed GBA to help students practice writing in various contexts. The present study aims at investigating the use of the genre-based approach (GBA) and its effects on the writing achievement and attitudes of Thai engineering students. The sample consisted of 40 fourth-year engineering students who were enrolled in an English for engineering course. The study subjects were divided into three groups (high, medium, and low) based on their pre-test scores. Three lessons, which were directly related to writing content concerning engineering work (request e-mails, enquiry e-mails, and reports), were provided in 12 sessions. The post-test, attitude questionnaire, and interview were administered at the end of the experiment. The results of a one-way ANOVA analysis revealed that the writing ability of students in all three groups improved after the experiment with statistical significance. As for their attitudes, the findings showed that the students were satisfied with the teaching method, activities, and exercises. More importantly, they felt more confident in writing.

Keywords: Engineering students, ESP, Genre-based approach (GBA), teaching writing

INTRODUCTION

Research in genre analysis, particularly in the academic context, has been conducted since developments in the genre theory (Miller,

1984; Swales, 1990; Bhatia, 1991, 1993; Martin & Rothery, 1980, 1981; Hammond, 1989) were first published. The results have given language teachers an alternative in terms of using the genre-based approach (GBA) in teaching, especially at the tertiary education level. There are three schools or models of genre focusing on different

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concepts, namely, English for Specific Purposes (ESP), Systematic Functional Linguistics (SFL), and New Rhetorical Genre (NR) (Hyon, 1996). Their similarities and differences are crucial since they affect practical teaching strategies. In recent years, there have been extensive discussions about using GBA to teach writing. For example, Feedman (1994) and Leki (1995) questioned whether the explicit teaching of genres would enhance learning. In addition, Hyon (1996) suggests that researchers carry out more research on genre studies in order to see the effects of explicit teaching of genre on non-native students' reading and writing performances. However, it seems that most research relating to the explicit teaching of genres has been conducted in the field of academic writing and SFL genre (such as Henry & Roseburry, 1999; Mustafa, 1995; Kongpetch, 2006; Flowerdew, 2000).

As for the area of the ESP genre, there have been a few studies carried out to prove that the explicit teaching of genre helps students write. For instance, Henry and Roseburry (1998) taught their students (L2) how to write tourist brochures. Changpueng (2009) taught a group of Thai engineering students (EFL) how to write request e-mail through GBA. It was found that the students who had various language abilities not only improved their writing ability but also had positive attitudes towards the teaching method. Moreover, there is another point that scholars have discussed concerning teaching through GBA. Some proponents argue that teaching writing through GBA fits beginning and intermediate level language

learners more than advanced level learners. This is because learning to write based on GBA helps these learners to release their deep anxieties about their writing tasks. Also, when people learn something new, they usually like to rely on examples and in this way, students at low levels of proficiency can learn to write English from samples since they have little exposure to English writing (Kay & Evan, 1998; Kim, 2007). However, this point does not seem to have been adequately addressed with a solid base for the genre-based instruction.

Recognizing the existing need for clarification, the present study aimed to employ GBA (ESP genre) in teaching three different groups of engineering students (high, medium, and low proficiency groups). They were divided based on their writing ability in English. Writing reports, request e-mails, and enquiry e-mails were chosen as the contents of this study based on the results of a need analysis (Changpueng, 2009), which showed that these target genres were the top three required genres for engineers, engineering students, and ESP teachers. Additionally, this study aimed to evaluate the attitudes of the three different groups of students toward this particular teaching method.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

As this study focuses on the ESP genre, it is necessary to understand the word 'genre' as a concept. Swales (1990), who is a pioneer in the field of the ESP genre and who works on discourse structure and linguistic features of scientific reports, sees genres as a class

of communicative events with some shared sets of communicative purposes recognized by the members of a particular community. Swales (1990) defines genre as follows:

A genre comprises a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes. These purposes are recognized by the expert member of the parent discourse community and thereby constitute the rationale for the genre. This rationale shapes the schematic structure of the discourse and influences and constrains choices of content and style (p. 58).

The quotation suggests that if the participants in a communicative event share a common focus on purposes, the event constrains and shapes the schematic structure, and these events constitute a genre. The purposes are the rationale of the genre, and they help shape the ways it is structured and the choices of content and style it makes available (Hyland, 2007). Swales adds that genre is a crucial concept in professional communication since members of individual professions or discourse communities, share common purposes of communication; that is, genres (Swales, 1990).

This definition of genre has been influential in ESP work on genre analysis and has been used in the teaching of ESP and academic writing to ESL graduate students (Paltridge, 2004), as Hammond and Derewianka (2002) point out, “the overall concern of ESP is to assist students to gain

access to the English language demands they encounter in their studies or professions” (p. 186).

GBA entails how to utilize language patterns to accomplish coherent and purposeful prose. This means that writing does not mean only ‘to write,’ but also writing to achieve some specific purposes (Hyland, 2003). The definition of GBA involves three parts (Kay & Tony-Dudley Evans, 1998). First of all, it aims to make learners aware of the structure and purpose of texts of different genres—the significant features—and to empower them with strategies necessary to replicate these features in their own composition. Secondly, GBA uses the genre analysis as examples in teaching and learning. Finally, understanding texts in terms of their linguistic features is complemented with attention to their social contexts as well.

Based on the above definitions of genre and GBA, it can be concluded that designing lessons placed on the GBA needs to raise learners’ awareness of the following four items:

1. genre analysis (schematic structure of a particular genre or moves) as they are the content of the lessons;
2. the purpose of each genre;
3. the purposes and linguistic features of each move (or each part) of each genre; and
4. social context (sociolinguistic knowledge).

However, there are currently no clear models of how to design a genre-based ESP lesson, including the teaching steps involved (Hyon, 1996). This is addressed in detail in the next section. The present study aimed at answering the following research questions:

1. What is the writing achievement of students with different levels of English proficiency receiving writing instruction through the GBA?
2. What are the attitudes of students with different levels of English proficiency toward writing instruction through the GBA?

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Participants

The participants were 40 engineering students enrolled in one section of the English for engineering course at King Mongkut's University of Technology North Bangkok (KMUTNB) as an elective during the first semester of the academic year 2010. All of them were fourth-year students and were studying in the Department of Mechanical Engineering at KMUTNB. During the first year of their studies, these students were required to take three hours of English per week for two semesters as compulsory courses. Hence, in order to determine whether they have improved in writing ability and in their attitudes toward the teaching method used, they were divided into three groups based on their writing ability (pre-test scores). The groups were high, medium, and low. The criterion set

in dividing the number of students in each group was the 27% technique suggested by Wiboolsri (2008). This technique is normally used to differentiate high ability from low ability students. That is, the top 27% students were in a high ability group and the bottom 27% students was in a low ability group. And those in the middle are in a middle group. That is, 27% of 40 students were in each group. Therefore, there were 11 participants in each group and the number of participants at the end of the study was 33. The seven students excluded from the study were those who were in the middle-level group, and their pre-test scores were not clearly different from those in the high-level and low-level groups. However, it is important to note that these seven students were also taught with the GBA like their friends, but their post-test scores were not calculated as a part of the study. In this way, a relatively clear cut boundary among high, medium, and low ability students can be observed systematically.

Teaching Materials

As stated previously, the participants were enrolled in the English for engineer course, in which three writing lessons were provided during a 12-week period. The content of the courses is directly related to the writing content of their engineering work. This content was chosen from the results of a need analysis, which revealed that the three genres that Thai engineers used most frequently were e-mail (requests and enquiries) and reports (Changpueng, 2009). The results from the genre analysis of those

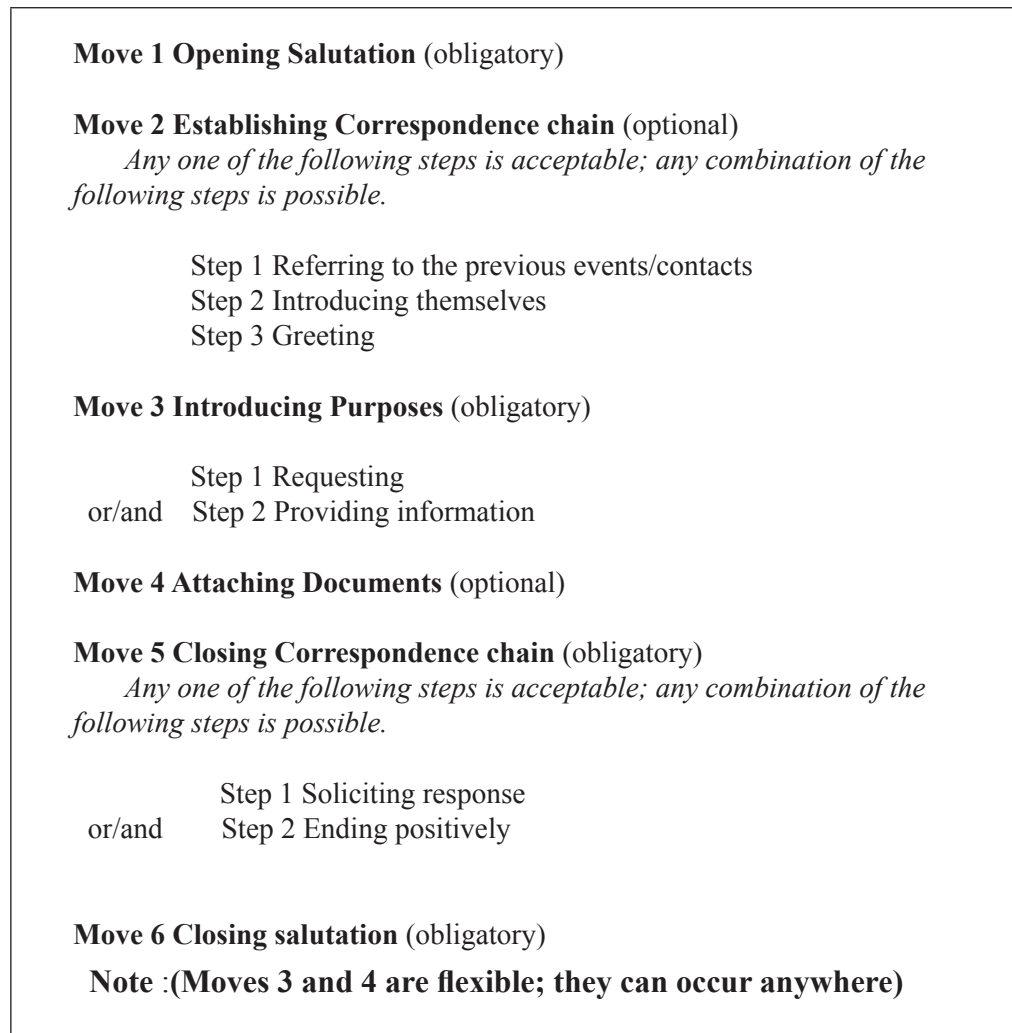


Fig.1: List of Moves and Steps of e-mail requests written by engineers

three different genres, which were analyzed by the researcher of this study, were used as the main materials (see the example in Fig.1). These results were triangulated by two experts in linguistics and one expert in business English teaching. Most of the materials and exercises were created by the researcher of the study, while some of them were adjusted from Bhatia (1993).

The materials were designed specifically to serve each step of teaching, which made the students aware of the purpose and structural features of the genres. The structural features consisted of standards of organizational structure (moves) and linguistic features (Kim, 2007); that is, the lessons focused on the sequencing of texts or genres and linguistic features of

each part of the organizational structure. In addition, the materials and exercises were also created to make students aware of how to use appropriate language (sociolinguistic knowledge) in different contexts and to use writing strategies to achieve their communicative purposes.

Teaching Methods

The three lessons were taught using the same method, so the explanation of the teaching method, GBA, will be described based on the details of the request e-mail lesson only. The lesson was mainly designed based on the teaching and learning cycle. The teaching and learning cycle is a teaching concept or model used in teaching writing based on GBA, especially for the Systematic Functional genre (SFL genre) (Hyland, 2007). Underpinning the teaching and learning cycle is the notion of scaffolding,

which relies on the social constructivism language acquisition theory (Feez, 2002; Hammond, 1992, as cited in Kongpetch, 2006, p. 11). Although the teaching and learning cycle was designed for SFL, it was possible to employ it for these lessons which were based on the ESP genre. This was because both the SFL and ESP genres rely on the concept of scaffolding. The second reason for choosing is genre analysis, which is the core of the ESP genre, is also a part of the second stage of the teaching cycle although details relating to genre analysis in the SFL and ESP genres may be somewhat different. One of the most straightforward representations of this cycle is offered by Feez (2002), as shown in Fig.2. The main purpose of the cycle is to ensure repeated opportunities for learners to engage in activities which require them to reflect on and criticize their learning by developing

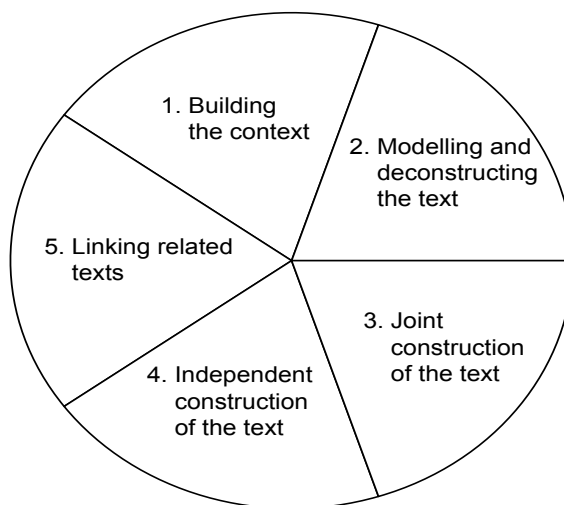


Fig.2: Stages of the teaching-learning cycle (Feez, 2002)

understanding of the texts (Hyland, 2007). Details of each stage are given below (Feez, 2002; Hyland, 2007).

1. Building the Context

This stage reveals the purpose of a genre and the setting in which it is commonly used. The emphasis in this step is placed on the functions of language and how meanings work in contexts. Also, the activities reveal what the text is about and what students already know about it. Thus, students were asked questions for discussion. For example, who writes it, for whom, why, etc.? What is the relationship between the writer and reader? (See Appendix 1)

2. Modeling and Deconstructing the Text

Activities in this stage are important because they have helped students to understand the text thoroughly. This step is focused on involving the teacher and students in discussing and exploring the whole text, clauses, and expressions level as well as the key grammatical and rhetorical features (moves/ structural pattern) used to express specific functions and the social relationship between the reader and the writer, including writing strategies. In order to help students understand key issues, they were asked to do many activities. For example, they were asked to analyze the samples themselves in terms of move analysis and lexico-grammar and were provided with worksheets to help them complete these tasks (See Appendix 2). Moreover, writing request emails requires

strategic skills, and as such, students were trained using practical exercises (See Appendix 3).

3. Joint Construction of the Text

Before writing independently, the teacher and students worked together in class to construct an example of the genre. This helped them to become familiarized with GBA to writing and developing confidence gradually. Next, each group of students was also asked to outline a writing situation and to practice writing together as the first draft with the teacher's support. Finally, the students revised their work based on the editing and revising checklist, before re-submitting it to the teacher.

4. Independent Construction of the Text

Independent writing is the ultimate goal of the L2 writing class. The purpose of this step was for students to apply what they had learned from GBA in class and groups to write a text independently, while the teacher supervised, encouraged, and advised them.

5. Linking Related Texts

This stage gave students the opportunity to investigate how the genre they had been studying was related to other texts that appeared in the same or similar context, to other genres they had studied, and to issues of interpersonal and institutional power and ideology. This could only be successfully conducted after the students had learned and understood the target genres provided in the

classroom as that would provide them with a basis to make comparisons.

Possibly, teachers can start teaching and learning at any stage and to go back and forth between stages, depending on the teacher's and students' writing ability (Hammond *et al.*, 1992).

Data Collection

Pre- and Post-tests

In order to determine the effectiveness of the teaching method in terms of student learning, the participants needed to complete a pre-test (during the first week of teaching) and a post-test as an achievement test to reveal how much they had improved after attending the course. The test in the subjective format (a criterion-referenced test) was administered. It consisted of three items (request and enquiry e-mails, and reports). The test lasted 1 hour and 30 minutes. In this study, the construct of the present test was set based on the components of the ESP test (i.e. Target Language Use (TLU), language ability, and background knowledge) and the principle of GBA (Bachman & Plamer, 1996; Douglas, 2000; Hyland, 2007). Inter-rater reliability had to be considered since there were two raters that marked this test (Alderson, 1996). The reliability of the two raters was assessed by correlating the marks given by two or more raters for the same students. The results of their grading were then calculated using Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient (Wiboolsri, 2008) and independent samples t-test. The correlation values between the two raters

of the test (items 1-3) were .96, .98, and .94, respectively. In addition, the index of difficulty of the test (items 1-3) was .37, .58, and .45, respectively.

Questionnaire

The attitude questionnaire was designed to evaluate the attitude of the students toward the teaching method, i.e. GBA. The form was written in Thai to prevent misunderstanding due to language. Then, it was verified by a panel of three experts. Students who enrolled in the course were asked to express their attitudes toward the teaching method at the end of the course. The questionnaire was divided into two parts: attitudes of the students after studying with GBA and comments about the teaching method. The first part (closed-ended questions) consisted of three parts; namely, teaching method, teaching activities, and writing achievement. This part was designed using the 5 points Likert scale (5 = strongly agree, 4 = agree, 3 = neutral, 2 = disagree, and 1 = strongly disagree). The second part was an open-ended question that asked the subjects to express their opinion and offer suggestions on the teaching method (See Appendix 4). The reliability of the questionnaire was 0.84.

Interview

The interview questions were somewhat similar to the questions in the questionnaire in terms of the topics, i.e. consisting of three components: teaching method, teaching activities, and writing achievement. Five students from each level group were

randomly chosen to be interviewed one day after they had expressed their attitudes in the questionnaire. Using five students for this purpose was suitable because these formed almost fifty percent of all the students in each group.

DATA ANALYSIS

In order to determine the writing achievement of the students, the scores from the pre-test and post-test were compared by using a dependent samples t-test to examine the extent to which the method of teaching writing used could enhance undergraduate engineering students' writing achievement. As for determining the writing achievement of the three different groups, the students were divided based on their English writing ability, whereby ANOVA

was used. Moreover, in order to determine the attitudes of the three different groups of students towards GBA, the mean scores were compared by using ANOVA. In addition, the answers from the respondents in the interview session were analyzed by using content analysis.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Writing Achievement

The first main findings of the study are presented in Tables 1 and 2. Table 1 compares the pre-test and post-test scores among the three groups of engineering students. The total score of the test was 60 points (i.e. 20 points each). The results revealed that the mean scores of the post-test were higher than those of the pre-test in each group. It was also found from the

TABLE 1

A comparison between the pre-test and post-test writing scores using t-test among the three groups of engineering students

Group	N	Pre-test		Group	N	Post-test		t
		Mean	SD			Mean	SD	
high	11	33	2.50	high	11	49.23	2.96	15.09*
medium	11	24.6	1.77	medium	11	48.27	3.01	25.39*
low	11	16.1	4.28	low	11	45.65	3.17	19.92*

*p < 0.05

TABLE 2

A comparison among the post-test writing scores of the three groups of engineering students

	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F
Post-test Between groups	62.32	2	31.16	
Within groups	278.59	30	9.29	3.35*
Total	340.91	32		

*p < 0.05

t-test results that the writing achievement scores from the post-test of the engineering students who were taught using GBA in each group were significantly higher than those obtained from the pre-test ($p < 0.05$). This means that the method of teaching writing, GBA, was effective.

As presented in Table 2, it was found from the ANOVA results that the writing achievement scores from the post-test among the three groups of engineering students who were taught using GBA were significantly different. It was also found that there was a difference between the groups. There was a significant difference in the writing achievement scores between the high-level group and low-level group. However, there was no significant difference in the writing achievement scores between the high- and medium-level groups or between the medium- and low- level groups. This means that the writing achievement of the three groups of the engineering students improved after receiving GBA instruction.

The Participants' Attitudes towards GBA

According to the research findings, it seemed that most of the students of the three groups favoured GBA, as shown in Tables 3 and 4. In particular, Table 3 shows the mean score of the attitudes of the three groups of engineering students towards teaching writing through GBA. Wiboolsri (2008) suggests that the acceptable value of the mean representing a positive attitude has to be higher than 3.5 for each question of the questionnaire. It was found that the mean scores of the high-, medium-, and

low- level groups were 4.04, 4.05, and 4.18, respectively. Thus, it can be said that all groups of students had positive attitudes towards GBA.

Table 4 shows another results from the questionnaire; no significant difference was observed in the engineering students' attitudes toward teaching writing with GBA in the three groups. This means that these three groups of students were satisfied with the GBA. Meanwhile, analysis of the students' comments on and responses to the questionnaire revealed their positive attitudes toward the GBA. These results were also confirmed by the results of the qualitative data (interview).

TABLE 3

The Mean scores of the attitude towards teaching writing using GBA among the three groups of engineering students

Groups	N	Mean	S.D
high	11	4.04	0.51
medium	11	4.05	0.41
low	11	4.18	0.48

TABLE 4

A comparison of the attitudes towards teaching writing using GBA among the three groups of engineering students

	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F
Between groups	.13	2	.07	
Within groups	6.58	30	.22	.29
Total	6.71	32		

* $p < 0.05$

The students thought that GBA was useful because their writing ability improved after attending the course. In addition, they

also felt more confident in writing. In more specific, the method, according to them, was not too difficult to understand. The results from the interview indicated that the students liked GBA. For example:

I thought that the GBA was a good teaching method since this method helped improve my writing ability (S3, M group).

I liked the teaching method because it was quite easy to follow. The contents of the lessons were also useful since they related to the work of engineers (S5, H group).

With regard to teaching activities and exercises, it was found from the questionnaire that the three groups of students had favourable attitudes towards the activities and exercises. However, some students in the high- and medium-level groups preferred a greater variety of activities, while those in the low group were satisfied with the variety of activities provided. Moreover, the three groups of students agreed that the lessons should provide more writing samples. The results from the interview confirmed these findings.

I thought all activities were suitable because they suited my English background knowledge (S3, L group).

Overall, the activities and exercises were fine for me but I preferred

more varied activities and genre samples (S1, H group).

In addition, the students in the three groups thought that the GBA of having students remember moves and steps, analyze samples of written texts, and then asking them to practice writing in class, in pairs, in groups, and individually was suitable for engineering students. The following excerpts were taken from the records of the interviews.

Studying writing with the GBA was suitable for engineering students since remembering patterns was easy for us. We adjusted what we wanted to write according to the patterns of writing different genres. This way of teaching helped us write with direction because before studying in this course we had no idea how to organize written texts and what we should write (S1, M group).

Although we have quite good English background knowledge, we do not know how to write appropriately in the community of engineers. Remembering patterns of moves and steps helped us organize our ideas. Now I can write better and I know that I can differently focus in writing each move. Also, I did not fix the order of moves and steps. It depended on what I focused (S1, H group).

In addition, it was found from the questionnaire that most students in the three groups were satisfied with the activities provided, and analyzing samples of texts. They thought that analyzing samples of the texts helped them write better. These results were confirmed by the interview results as well. In fact, most students in the low- and medium-level groups agreed that analyzing samples of the text was important. Three students in the high-level group also had similar thoughts, while two interviewees from the high-level group had different ideas. They thought that analyzing samples of the text was not necessary for them. For example:

Analyzing samples of texts was what we needed. This might be different from students who were good in English because they could express their thoughts according to what they wanted. For students who are poor in English, we need to analyze sentences since we can see more samples of sentence structures. We can learn from those samples of sentences. We remembered them and used them (S5, L group).

Although I can write quite well, I think analyzing samples of texts was required because I still needed to learn from the samples. For me, I didn't feel bored or tired in analyzing those sentences. I thought I learned new vocabulary and sentence structures from those samples (S2, H group).

Remembering move patterns was enough for me to write the target genres. It was not necessary to analyze sentences because we can combine the knowledge of move patterns with our English background knowledge (S1 and S3, H group).

In brief, it was found that the three different groups of engineering students had positive attitudes toward GBA since they had favourable attitudes towards the teaching method, activities, and exercises. Moreover, practicing writing through GBA helped them to improve their writing ability.

DISCUSSION

This study revealed that there was a statistical difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of each group of engineering students attending GBA lessons. This suggested that GBA is an effective method for teaching writing. This is possible because GBA has helped the students to understand the rhetorical move structure of the target genres clearly. In other words, GBA offers writers an explicit understanding of how target texts are structured and why they are written in the way they are (Hyland, 2007). Also, GBA helps students to identify the moves and strategies that are normally used to meet their communicative purposes (Swami, 2008). This is crucial because one of the difficulties faced by EFL students when asked to produce an academic written text is that they often have an inadequate understanding of how texts are organized to convey their purposes (Hyland, 1990).

The results of the present research support those of the previous studies (Swami, 2008; Henry & Roseburry, 1998, 1999; Mustafa, 1995). Another possible reason supporting the conclusion that GBA helps improve students' writing is the development of their cognitive processes after the students have done the required activities and exercises reflecting and thinking critically about the order of moves, the communicative purposes of each move, as well as the linguistic features and sociolinguistic knowledge. This is because understanding the ordering of moves, the communicative purposes of each move, and linguistic features helps familiarize students with parts of the authentic texts written by people in the engineering community, so that the students will, in turn, be able to write similar texts with all necessary parts/moves. In addition, students can also use the appropriate linguistic feature for each move and suitable language in terms of sociolinguistic knowledge. The impacts of the development of these cognitive processes could be seen in the students' ability to transfer their awareness of the move analysis results of each genre in writing effective request e-mails, enquiry e-mails, and reports. Swami (2008) mentions that effective improvement in writing requires doing tasks that helps to develop cognitive processes.

The students were also found to have positive attitudes towards GBA. This finding is similar to that of the previous studies by Henry and Roseburry (1998, 1999), Flowerdew (2000), Udomyamokkul (2004), and Swami (2008). This is probably because

the teaching method has helped them to improve their writing ability, so they gained more confidence in writing. The contents of the lesson are also directly related to the work of engineers. Mansfield (1993, as cited in Swami, 2008) states that GBA helps equip learners with knowledge about writing target genres in order to be able to participate in the real world of writing and this motivates them to study in ESP classes. Also, GBA provides the students with the confidence to handle genres. Moreover, they have favourable attitudes towards the activities and exercises of the lessons, especially the sentence analysis activities, since they thought that practicing writing via those activities had helped them to write better. However, some proponents have stated that the GBA fits beginning and intermediate language learners more than advanced learners because when people learn something new, they usually would like to find some samples that they can rely on (Kay & Dudley Evan, 1998; Kim, 2007). This means that advanced learners may not need to do sentence structure analysis activities since they know and have used those structures well. However, it seemed that the findings of this study somewhat differed from this argument because the results revealed that not only did the students in the low and high level groups have a positive attitude toward the sentence analysis activity, but also the students in the high level group shared a similar thought; that is, they learned how to write from the sentence samples.

IMPLICATIONS

The results of this study provide benefits to EFL teachers, especially those teaching English writing to Thai engineering students. First, with regard to teaching activities, the results pointed out that more emphasis should be placed on using a greater variety of activities. Comparing several examples of each genre and reviewing vocabulary can be examples of additional teaching activities. Moreover, asking students to categorize the grammar points, sentence structures, and sociolinguistic knowledge they can use in each move of each different genre can also be a choice for additional activities to help students show the extent to which they understand the linguistic features and sociolinguistic knowledge of each move. In order to prevent the students from feeling bored with analyzing sentence samples, the number of samples of text in the second and third lessons should be fewer than in the first lesson. In addition, adding more samples of each genre in the appendix of the course textbook should also be taken into consideration. The students can learn about sentence structures, grammar, and vocabulary by reading and analyzing those examples by themselves. Second, in order to make sentence analysis easier for students with low proficiency in English language, reviewing sentence structures and grammar should be focused on at the beginning of the course. As a result, students who are in the medium- and low- levels should have attended a basic writing course before taking the English for engineer course. In addition, it would be better if students could learn how

to write narrative and descriptive texts. This is because they need the skills to describe situations, features of equipment, and retell events that happen in writing e-mails and reports of engineers.

At the same time, more research should be conducted in the area using the GBA in teaching speaking skills to engineering students. This is because there are various genres in the area of speaking that engineers normally use in their work, such as presenting the results of their work, telephoning, and presenting problems at work.

CONCLUSION

This study has revealed that GBA is effective in enhancing writing abilities. In particular, the students could learn how to write from explicit teaching and developing cognitive processes, which had helped them become aware of the outline of each genre, communicative purposes, linguistic structures, and sociolinguistic knowledge. In addition, the three groups of students with different levels of proficiency's positive attitudes towards GBA have supported the effectiveness of its use. Also, it was found that this study did not support the argument that GBA fits beginning and intermediate language learners more than advanced learners (Kay & Evan, 1998; Kim, 2007). This is because most students thought that learning from sentence samples was necessary for them. As a result, it is concluded that GBA could be an effective alternative to teaching writing to students with different levels of language proficiency.

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APPENDIX 1

SAMPLE OF LESSON 1: TEACHING STAGE 1

E-mail No. 1

In the following e-mail the parts are not in order. Re-order these parts by providing the numbers in the blanks.

To: Choakchai/Company name

Subject: C346 FSB Breakdowns

Date: 08/06/2010 06.23 PM

Choakchai,

Thanks in advance. (a) _____

Please forward the breakdowns to support these prices, and provide Frame Assy details THB 30.510. in Excel format (preferably in PDF).

(b) _____

Referring to your mail dated May 7 providing information on breakdowns from Wisdom about the FSB, the subsequent review in Thailand identified different prices:

1 *****

2 *****

3 *****

(c) _____

Brandon Bucher

Complete version of e-mail no.1

Situation: a senior engineer of a car seat company in Europe & an engineer of branch office in Thailand.

To: Choakchai/ Company name

Subject: C346 FSB Breakdowns

Date:08/06/2008 06.23 PM

Choakchai,

Referring to your mail dated July 7 providing information on breakdowns from Wisdom about FSB, the subsequent review in Thailand identified different prices:

1. XXX
2. XXX
3. XXX

Please forward breakdowns to support these prices, and provide Frame Assy details THB 30.510. in Excel format (preferable in PDF).

Thanks in advance,

Brandon

Comprehension Questions

1. Why did Brandon write to Choakchai?
2. What was the problem?
3. What did Choakchai do on 7 July ?
4. What is the relationship between them?
5. Do you think Chokchai is senior, junior or approximately equal to Brandon?
6. What parts of the text indicate their relationship?

APPENDIX 2

SAMPLE OF LESSON 2: WORKSHEET FOR ANALYZING E-MAIL (TEACHING STAGE 2)

Worksheet no. 1 for analyzing e-mail no. 3

Writing context:

1. What is the text about?
2. What is the tone of the text? (Formal, Informal)
3. Who is the author of the text?
4. Who is the intended reader of the text?
5. What is the relationship between the author and reader?

Move Analysis:

6. How many moves does the sample consist of and what are the move details?
7. What are the steps in each move?
8. What are the linguistic features of the request step?
9. What are the grammatical points of each move ?

Tenses:

Modal:

voice:

10. What are verbs in each move?
11. What are the language choices used in terms of sociolinguistic knowledge (formality, informality)?
12. What are the writing tactics used in the sample?

APPENDIX 3

SAMPLE OF LESSON 3: WRITING STRATEGY LESSON (TEACHING STAGE 2)

Exercise 8: Read the request e-mails or working situations provided below (exercise A-B) and write or add reasons to make the requests stronger.

A. Email no.4

Situation: engineer manager of paint dept. of an automotive company in Japan & an engineer of purchasing department of the branch in Thailand

Instruction: Rewrite this request e-mail to the same reader and ask for the same action. Add one more reason to make the request stronger.

Dear Yatabae san,

Could you please decide ASAP on the estimate total cost for packaging additional information because the maker needs lead time. We are concerned that HCAT may not finish on time if we do not get started urgently. I would appreciate your urgent response.

Best Regards,

Nuchporn

Engineer (purchasing dept.)

B. Situation 1: You are a test engineer. You would like to request a special tester time for program debugging and proving-in your samples HIUY-2 from the supplier. You are going to write to the factory manager who you have known for about 2 years. HIUY-2 is your new code and also belongs to one of your key customer. Think of reasons or strategy you should explain to the factory manager to be sure that he will provide tester time for you because the tester is very busy.

APPENDIX 4

SAMPLE 4: ATTITUDE SURVEY QUESTIONS

Part I: Attitude on the teaching method

5 means strongly agree

4 means agree

3 means neutral

2 means disagree

1 means strongly disagree

Content	Level of attitude				
	5	4	3	2	1
1. The content is useful, as it can be used in the work of engineers in the future.					
2. Activities and exercises in each unit can improve my writing ability in each type of genre.					
3. Activities and exercises of each unit are suitable for my English background knowledge.					
4. There is a wide variety of activities and exercises.					
5. The teaching method of having students analyze samples of written texts and then asking students to practice writing in class, in pair, in groups, and individually are suitable.					
6. Studying through analyzing samples of genre before the independent writing stage helps me to write well.					
7. I can write because I understand and remember the genre analysis.					
8. Practicing thinking is useful because it helps the writer plan writing organization and its details appropriately.					
9. I like this teaching method because it is easy to understand and it helps me write better.					
10. I like the way that the teacher provides broad instruction because students are free to create the details of what they want to communicate.					
11. It is easy to understand how to write each different genre because the teaching method helps me to see the organization clearly, and this makes me write better.					

12. I think that I can write English better.					
13. I feel more confident in writing English.					
14. I feel confident in working as an engineer in the future.					

Part II: Suggestion on the teaching method



Assessing the Teaching and Learning Performance of English Freshmen Courses by Applying Data Envelopment Analysis and Management Matrix

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ABSTRACT

In a country like Taiwan, where Chinese is the official language, many students struggle to improve their English writing skills. The system of students' ratings of teachers at the end of each semester can provide valuable information concerning students' opinions. This paper selects 50 classes of freshmen following writing courses in a university of Taiwan from 2004 to 2006. We adopted the data envelopment analysis to identify the relative performance efficiencies of each class. This research proposed a management matrix of the selected classes' performance with 4 quadrants which could help them to know in what quadrant they are located. The results of this paper, which were expected to reveal that only a few classes are efficient, could help to provide some concrete and practical learning and teaching strategies for the classes with lower average scores.

Keywords: Data envelopment analysis (DEA), English writing, teaching and learning performance, proposed management matrix

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INTRODUCTION

Taiwan has a service-oriented and export-driven economy. Even though China has recently become Taiwan's largest import and export partner, the U.S. remains the second export partner (Ministry of Economic Affairs, 2010). Many Taiwanese continue to go to America for higher education

and develop relationships with American businesses. English remains an indispensable communication tool and a valuable skill for the students who expect to enter the job market.

In a country like Taiwan, where Chinese is the native language, students have difficulty in expressing themselves in English. Therefore, it is essential for students to improve their writing skill. The system of students' rating of teachers at the end of each semester can provide valuable information concerning students' opinions. Adequate indicators of mutual evaluation between teachers and students can help to enhance teaching efficiency and learning performance.

The paper applies the data envelopment analysis (DEA) to explore key indicators contributing to students' learning performances for English freshmen writing courses in a university of Taiwan. The results of the paper may allow teachers to know how much improvement they need to make in which performance indicator? A management matrix with 4 quadrants may help the educational policy-makers to design management measures and to encourage the evaluated units with lower efficiency to make progress little by little.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows: the literature review presents some academic studies related to the current work. The "materials and methods" section introduces the DEA method and the selected input and output indicators. The penultimate section entitled "results and discussion" analyzes and comments on the obtained numerical results from the empirical data.

The final section draws the conclusions and suggestions.

LITERATURE REVIEW

DEA is a reliable and robust quantitative evaluation method which has notably been used to assess the efficiency of higher education institutions (Ahn *et al.*, 1989; Glass *et al.*, 1998; Abbott & Doucouliagos, 2003; Johnes, 2005; Madden *et al.*, 1997; Colbert *et al.*, 2000) and the teaching performance of various courses (McGowan & Graham, 2009; Ismail, 2009). Lin (2009) developed an evaluation approach for measuring and ranking the efficiency of tutors in some higher education institutions (HEIs) in Taiwan. He proposed to use an IDEA (imprecise data envelopment analysis) model based on the BCC (Banker-Charnes-Cooper) model in order to determine the final ranking of the evaluated tutors.

Author *et al.* (2011) applied DEA to assess the performance of English courses in a university of Taiwan. They proposed an output oriented model and showed that some evaluated classes with higher actual values of inputs and outputs have lower efficiency because the relative efficiency of each evaluated class is measured by their distance from the efficiency frontier. This paper also demonstrates that the benchmarking characteristics of the DEA model can automatically segment all the evaluated classes into different levels based on the indicators fed into the performance evaluation mechanism.

Management matrix was first implemented in the aerospace industry during the late 1950s. Pred (1967) introduced

the concept of the behavioural matrix in connection with a theory of behavior and location. According to Davis and Lawrence (1977), a matrix organization could include various organizing principles such as function, product, and area. They stated that a successful matrix must develop through successive phases. Selby (1987) proposed to use Pred's behavioural matrix as a tool for the analysis of enterprises in rural areas.

Taylor *et al.* (2004) applied a matrix model to the field of education. They analyzed why there were very few non-credentialed teachers remained in teaching in the Los Angeles Unified School District (half of the new teachers left after their first year). They devised a four-cell matrix of teaching practice classification based on various works (Edwards, 2000; Canter & Canter, 1976; Coloroso, 1994). Jung (2005) analyzed and organized a variety of approaches found in use in teacher training into a four-cell matrix. Teachers can be trained to learn how to use information and communication technology (ICT) or teachers can be trained via ICT. The matrix is divided into four quadrants: ICT as a main content focus, ICT as a core delivery technology, ICT as a part of content or methods, ICT as a facilitating or networking technology.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

According to Samoilenko and Osei-Bryson (2008), DEA is an attractive tool, which can measure the relative efficiency of evaluated classes called decision making units (DMUs). The paper aims at knowing

how much improvement teachers need to make in what indicator by applying DEA model and a concept of management matrix. The analysis of the main performance indicators can indicate the evaluated classes' relative efficiencies. The proposed matrix is expected to help teachers to know in what quadrant they are located and to encourage the evaluated classes with lower efficiency to make progress little by little.

DEA Model and Charnes-Cooper-Rhodes (CCR) Model

DEA is a quantitative method which can receive multiple inputs and produce multiple outputs (Lee, 2009). Charnes *et al.* (1978) estimated efficiency frontier by the ratio of two linear combinations and measured the relative efficiency of the evaluated units called decision-making units (DMUs). This method is known as the "Charnes-Cooper-Rhodes (CCR) model" or "CCR model". The efficiency value of the CCR model corresponds to the overall technical efficiency of an evaluated unit. If the efficiency value equals 1, the evaluated unit is efficient; if the efficiency value is less than 1, the evaluated unit needs some improvement.

Choice of Evaluated Units

The study selected some freshmen who were following writing courses in the Department of English Language at the University of Taiwan from 2004 to 2006. A total of 50 classes were selected as the DMUs, which were labelled as D1 to D50.

Selection of Input and Output Indicators

The performance of the DMUs was interpreted by analyzing the input and the output indicators. The data were based on the average score of the student survey of teachers at the end of each semester for each class. Two inputs and two outputs were chosen for the evaluation model, and the variation of inputs had a significant influence on the outputs. The meaning of the 4 indicators, rated from 1 (very unsatisfied) to 5 (very satisfied) by students, is explained as follows:

- Input 1: Preparation of teaching contents: reflecting students' opinions concerning the preparation of teaching materials.
- Input 2: Teaching skills: indicating whether students think teachers' teaching methods and tools are suitable for them and whether they can assimilate the course.
- Output 1: Fair grading: showing whether students believe teachers are grading them fairly.
- Output 2: Students' learning performance: students give their impressions about the knowledge they have acquired after a semester of English writing training.

Correlation Analysis of Input and Output Indicators

The Pearson correlation coefficient test was used to analyze whether the principle of isotonicity of two inputs and two outputs was satisfied. The calculus result indicated

that the correlation coefficients (O1, I1), (O1, I2), (O2, I1), and (O2, I2) were 0.961, 0.939, 0.936, and 0.908 respectively. They are all above 0.9 with a statistical significant level of 1%. In general, there are three statistical significant levels, 1%, 5% and 10%. DEA method requests that the correlations between the inputs and the outputs should be positive. A Pearson correlation coefficient superior to 0.7 means the correlations between the inputs and outputs are highly correlated.

TABLE 1
Correlation coefficients between input and output items

Outputs \ Inputs	I1 Preparation of teaching contents	I2 Teaching skill
O1 (Fair grading)	0.961***	0.939***
O2 (Learning performance)	0.936***	0.908***

Note: *** denotes the statistical significant level at 1%.

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

Frontier Analyst 4.0 was used to calculate the evaluation data in this study. The results of numerical analysis are expected to show whether the existing teaching scale is efficient. An application of management matrix based on the DMUs' efficiencies obtained by DEA model can give indications about the teaching effectiveness of English writing courses in order to formulate some useful language teaching improvement suggestions.

Analysis of the Overall Teaching Efficiency and Performance Indicators

The relative overall teaching efficiency and other performance indicators of all the 50 DMUs are calculated under the output oriented CCR model of DEA. The empirical results are listed in Table 2, which is ranked by CCR score, that is, the relative overall teaching efficiency. According to the ranking of the CCR score, 50 DMUs were divided into two groups; the first 50% (the 25 DMUs with a better performance) are arranged on the left side of Table 2 and the others are on the right side. The DMUs which have the overall teaching efficiency equaling 1 are considered efficient and segmented into different groups according to their inputs or outputs values in order to build up efficient frontier curves. The efficient frontier curve analyzes how much effort and room for improvement is necessary for the inefficient DMUs' output performances to come close to the efficient frontier and to reduce the gap between the actual output performance and the target output performance.

The average overall teaching efficiency of all the 50 DMUs is 0.962. D6, D22, D37, D41 and D49 have the best performance with a value of 1 and form the efficient frontier curves. It was observed that on the left side of Table 2, the average of the 25 better DMUs is 0.982; on the right side, the average is 0.941.

In Table 2, the column "Room for improvement" indicates how much improvement is needed for the inefficient DMUs and for what indicators under the current inputs according to the output

oriented CCR model of DEA. Therefore, the values of inputs' room for improvement are always 0 (without additional inputs needed) or negative (need to reduce the inputs). For example, D1 (ranked 25) has the lowest overall teaching efficiency among the first half of all the DMUs, 0.965. There is still a little effort to make in fair grading and in students' self-recognition of learning performance. Teachers should clarify the grading criteria at the beginning of the semester; If students know what to prepare for the exams, their motivation will probably increase. Teachers should tell their students the type of questions they will ask for the coming exam. For example, in a course of English composition, teachers can tell their students that they have to know: (1) Figures of speech studied during the class, their definition and an example (20 points; 5 points per figure); (2) How to write a summary (20 points); (3) A list of irregular verbs studied during the class (10 points; 1 point per verb); (4) How to write a detailed outline (30 points); and (5) Vocabulary studied during the class (20 points; 2 points per word). Moreover, teachers should guide their students and offer help before the exams such as during the office hours. If students know the exact percentage of each exam and assignment, they will probably feel less stressed and confused (for example, 25% for the mid-term exam, 25% for the final, 25% for their assignments at home, and 25% for their attendance and attitude during the class). Finally, students also need to feel that their teachers are grading them fairly and that they deserve their grades,

even when they are lower. As a result, students will acquire sufficient knowledge to cover the course's important topics; thus, the value of O2 (students' self-recognition of learning performance) can be increased and students' learning motivation and performance can be enhanced at the same time.

Concerning the column I1 (room for improvement in the preparation of teaching contents), only D25 (ranked 6) and D3 (ranked 20) have the values of -6.3% and -3.9%, respectively. It indicates that the preparation of teaching materials and the course contents are too much and too complicated for students to assimilate. Hence, teachers should moderate the quantity of course contents in order to improve students' learning performances. Based on our personal teaching experiences, it seems that if teachers who usually teach senior students or graduate students are assigned to teach to freshmen, they tend to have difficulty to adapt to their level. That is, they will probably teach freshmen the way they teach more advanced students. As a result, freshmen can feel lost; some of them will even give up if they believe the course is too difficult.

As for the column I2 (room for improvement in the teaching skills), the classes D16, D2, D11, D21, D17, and D30, have the improvement values of -1.2%, -3.1%, -7.3%, -2.4%, -0.5%, and -0.9%, respectively. It means that the teachers of these DMUs should adjust their teaching skills in order to increase their relative overall teaching efficiency. For example,

sometimes, teachers' over-explanation does not help students better understand the course. Instead, it will probably make students feel bored and become less attentive.

"Refs" in Table 2 denotes the number of times the efficient DMUs are referred to by the inefficient DMUs. 5 DMUs have Refs values because they are efficient. For example, D37 is the DMU the most referred to; there are 42 inefficient DMUs referring to it. "Peers" denotes the number of efficient DMUs in the inefficient DMUs' reference set, that is, the number of times the inefficient DMUs are referring to other efficient DMUs. For example, the class D1 (ranked 25) refers 2 times to other DMUs, that is, there are two efficient DMUs in its reference set. In other words, D1's relative overall teaching efficiency and performance indicators are obtained based on these two efficient DMUs in its reference set. All the teachers of writing courses have more or less the same level of knowledge. The major difference in the learning performance probably comes from the atmosphere in the class and the relationship between teachers and students: they are fundamental and perhaps more crucial than the preparation of the course contents. If a student does not feel comfortable during the class, he/she will probably give a bad rating to his/her teacher, whether the teacher prepares his/her course seriously or is punctual (for example, some students in the class may say that a teacher is never on time, even if he/she is). Writing courses are very demanding for both teachers and students. If the atmosphere

TABLE 2
Overall teaching efficiency and room for improvement of DMUs under CCR model

DMU name	CCR score	Rank	Refs	Room for improvement (%)			DMU name	CCR score	Rank	Refs	Peers	Room for improvement (%)		
				O1	O2	I2						O1	O2	I2
D6	1.000	1	14	0	0	0	D17	0.963	26	0	1	3.8	6.4	0
D22	1.000	1	30	0	0	0	D30	0.963	26	0	1	3.8	4.1	0
D37	1.000	1	42	0	0	0	D15	0.961	28	0	3	4	4	0
D41	1.000	1	30	0	0	0	D44	0.953	29	0	3	4.9	4.9	0
D49	1.000	1	3	0	0	0	D47	0.953	29	0	3	5	5	0
D25	0.999	6	0	2	0.1	-6.3	D28	0.951	31	0	2	5.1	6.2	0
D29	0.997	7	0	3	0.4	0.4	D48	0.951	31	0	2	5.1	11.2	0
D45	0.995	8	0	3	0.5	0.5	D9	0.949	33	0	3	5.4	5.4	0
D38	0.987	9	0	3	1.3	1.3	D19	0.948	34	0	2	5.5	5.8	0
D16	0.985	10	0	2	1.5	1.5	D50	0.948	34	0	3	5.5	5.5	0
D12	0.984	11	0	2	1.6	4	D7	0.947	36	0	3	5.7	5.7	0
D24	0.983	12	0	3	1.7	1.7	D18	0.943	37	0	3	6.1	6.1	0
D5	0.980	13	0	3	2	2	D34	0.942	38	0	3	6.1	6.1	0
D31	0.978	14	0	3	2.2	2.2	D27	0.942	38	0	2	6.1	6.8	0
D10	0.978	14	0	3	2.2	2.2	D32	0.941	40	0	3	6.3	6.3	0
D2	0.973	16	0	2	2.8	2.8	D35	0.941	40	0	2	6.3	9.4	0
D20	0.971	17	0	3	3	3	D43	0.940	42	0	3	6.4	6.4	0
D42	0.971	17	0	2	4.9	3	D39	0.938	43	0	3	6.6	6.6	0
D11	0.969	19	0	2	3.2	3.2	D36	0.938	43	0	2	6.6	8.1	0
D46	0.968	20	0	3	3.3	3.3	D26	0.934	45	0	3	7.1	7.1	0
D3	0.968	20	0	2	3.3	3.3	D33	0.932	46	0	3	7.3	7.3	0
D21	0.967	22	0	2	3.4	3.4	D8	0.926	47	0	3	8	8	0
D4	0.967	22	0	2	3.4	9.3	D13	0.913	48	0	2	9.5	11.8	0
D40	0.966	24	0	3	3.5	3.5	D14	0.912	49	0	3	9.6	9.6	0
D1	0.965	25	0	2	3.6	5.6	D23	0.906	50	0	3	10.3	10.3	0
Average	0.982			1.92	2.25		Average	0.941				6.24	6.96	

Note: CCR score refers to the DMUS' relative overall teaching efficiency. "Refs" denotes the number of times the efficient DMUs are referred to by the inefficient DMUs. "Peers" denotes the number of efficient DMUs in the inefficient DMUs' reference set. I1 is the preparation of teaching contents; I2 is the teaching skills; O1 is the fair grading; O2 is the students' self-recognition of their learning performance.

in the class is good, students will try their best and work more seriously. However, if the teaching contents are too difficult for students to assimilate, they will probably lose their motivation to learn and give up.

Classification of DMUs

The relative overall teaching efficiency presented in the previous section is calculated under the CCR model, which is a scale invariant model. Scale invariant means the variance of one unit in inputs will result in the variance of one unit in outputs. However, Banker *et al.* (1984) expanded the concept of CCR model and changed DMUs to be variable returns to scale (VRS). That is, the variance of one unit in inputs will result in the variance of more or less than one unit in outputs. Therefore, they assumed that the overall technical efficiency (that is, the overall teaching efficiency in our study) could be divided into pure technical efficiency and scale efficiency, named “BCC score” and “Scale score” in Table 3. This particular method is called the “Banker-Charnes-Cooper model” or “BCC model”. As for the teaching performance issue in the current paper, the pure technical efficiency means whether teachers are using outdated or updated teaching methods and materials. Thus, teachers may have to reassess their methods. For example, they can enforce their computer skill, create a personal teaching website, and use multimedia during the class. When the DMUs’ scale efficiency is inferior to 1, it could probably be due to students having difficulty in assimilating or appreciating the teaching contents if the

method is considered to be too difficult.

In order to detail the origins of DMUs’ inefficiency, a calculation of the output oriented BCC model was calculated for all the 50 evaluated classes. According to their BCC and scale scores, these DMUs are firstly classified into efficient DMUs (BCC score = 1) and inefficient DMUs (BCC score < 1). Then, they were segmented again by each DMU’s scale score. At the university studied in this paper, teachers obtaining students’ rating lower than 3.5 points are considered as not qualified to teach the course and this must be changed in the following semesters. Moreover, teachers obtaining students’ rating higher than 4.0 points are generally considered as those with good teaching performances. Therefore, the 50 DMUs were divided into three groups according to their average values of evaluated indicators: high (average value > 4.0), medium (3.5 ≤ average value < 4.0), and low (average value < 3.5), as shown in Table 3.

In order to clarify the average characteristics of each grid, the average value of each indicator in the grid was calculated and the two indicators with lowest and highest average value were also determined; these were labelled as “min” and “max”, as displayed in Table 3. For example, “min: I2” means the average value of indicator I2 is the lowest; “max: O1” means the average value of indicator O1 is the highest. In addition, each grid was assigned a quadrant, as explained in Section 4.3 (Application of Management matrix on teaching performance improvement) and in Fig.1. The classification of DMUs under BCC model is shown in Table 3.

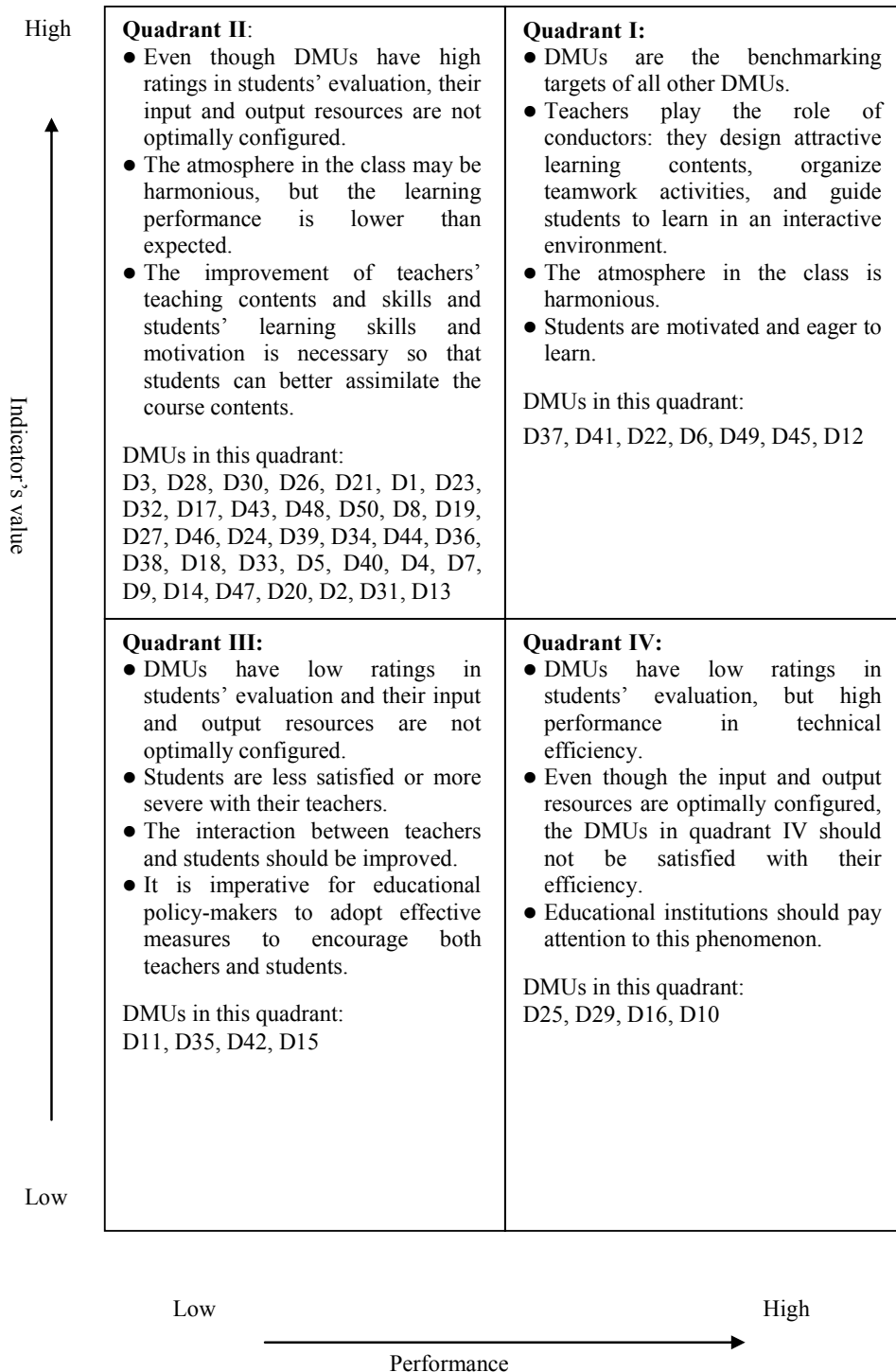


Fig.1: Management matrix of DMUs' performance

It was observed that D37 and D41 are located in the grid with the BCC score =1 and scale score = 1 and they belonged to the high group. Their lowest indicator is I2 (the teaching skills), while their highest indicator is O2 (the students' self-recognition of learning performance). In particular, D37 and D41 are located in quadrant I. From the viewpoint of efficiency, BCC score =1 means D37 and D41's ratio of linear combination of outputs divided by the linear combination of inputs equals 1. In other words, the ratio of teacher's fair grading and students' self-recognition of learning performance to teacher's preparation of teaching contents and teaching skills are

efficient. However, from the perception of students' satisfaction about the course, D37 and D41 belonged to the high group according to the classification of four indicators' average value; they obtained an average of 4.15 in O2 (the students' self-recognition of learning performance), but only of 3.85 in I2 (the teaching skills). This also means that D37 and D41 are efficient, and even though students think that the teaching skills can be improved, they are quite satisfied with the acquired knowledge.

Among all the grids, only the grid (BCC score=1, Scale score=1, High) has "max: O2". It also means that only the students in classes D37 and D41 felt more satisfied

TABLE 3
Classification of DMUs under BCC model

Category Group	Efficient DMUs (BCC score=1)		Inefficient DMUs (BCC score <1, Scale score <1)	
	Scale score =1	Scale score <1	BCC score >Scale score	BCC score <Scale score
High	D37, D41 min: I2 max: O2 Quadrant: I	D45, D12 min: I2 max: O1 Quadrant: I	D3, D28, D30, D26 min: I2 max: I1 Quadrant: II	D1, D23, D32, D17, D43, D48, D50, D8, D19, D27, D46, D24, D39, D34, D44, D36, D38 min: O2 max: I1 Quadrant: II
Medium	D22, D6, D49 min: I2 max: O1 Quadrant: I	D25 min: I2 max: I1 Quadrant: IV	D21 min: O2 max: O1 Quadrant: II	D18, D33, D5, D40, D4, D7, D9, D14, D47, D20, D2, D31, D13 min: I2, O2 max: I1 Quadrant: II
Low	- Quadrant: IV	D29, D16, D10 min: I2, O2 max: O1 Quadrant: IV	D11 min: O2 max: O1 Quadrant: III	D35, D42, D15 min: I2 max: O1 Quadrant: III

Note: "min" or "max" refers to the indicator with the lowest or highest actual value; "-" denotes that there is no DMU located in this area. I1 is the preparation of teaching contents; I2 is the teaching skills; O1 is the fair grading; O2 is the students' self-recognition of learning performance. Quadrant: I~IV are defined in Fig.1.

with their learning results. This implies that the other 48 DMUs are less satisfied about the acquired knowledge. Except for the grid of D37 and D41, all the other grids obtained their highest rating in preparation of teaching contents (max: I1) or in fair grading (max: O1). All the grids of efficient DMUs (BCC score=1) obtained their lowest rating in teaching skills (min: I2). This indicates that teachers need to improve their teaching skills in order to make the course contents easier to assimilate.

All the grids of inefficient DMUs (BCC score<1, Scale score <1) obtained their lowest rating in the teaching skills (min: I2) or in students' self-recognition of learning performance (min: O2). This means that students were less satisfied about the acquired knowledge. A total of 30 DMUs are located in the grids of (Inefficient DMUs, BCC score <Scale score, High or Medium groups). Their lowest ratings are all in O2 (students' self-recognition of learning performance), whereas their highest ratings are all in I1 (preparation of teaching contents). Relatively, a much bigger number of students believe that their teachers are working hard enough to prepare for their classes, and fewer students are satisfied with their learning performances. All the grids of the low group obtained their highest rating in fair grading (max: O1). This also means that they are less satisfied with their teacher's overall performance, but relatively more satisfied with teacher's grading criteria.

Application of the Management Matrix on Teaching Performance Improvement

This paper, inspired notably by Taylor *et al.* (2004), applied the original model of management matrix on teaching performance improvement and drew a matrix with 4 quadrants, as shown in Figure 1, according to our classification of DMUs under the BCC model detailed in Table 3. This proposed matrix can help DMUs to determine the quadrant they are located and to provide useful and practical information for educators and educational policy-makers who are responsible in designing teaching performance improvement measures.

The definition of the four quadrants is as follows:

Quadrant I:

- Efficient DMUs have BCC score=1, scale score=1, and belong to high or medium groups.
- Or efficient DMUs have BCC score=1, scale score<1, and belong to high group.

Quadrant II:

- Inefficient DMUs have BCC score<1, scale <1, and belong to high or medium groups.

Quadrant III:

- Inefficient DMUs have BCC score<1, scale <1, and belong to low group.

Quadrant IV:

- Efficient DMUs have BCC score=1, scale score=1, and belong to low group.
- Or efficient DMUs have BCC score=1, scale score<1, and belong to medium or low groups.

Suggestions for DMUs in each quadrant:

Quadrant I:

The DMUs are the most efficient. Educational policy-makers may establish a merit system to encourage teachers (i.e. best teacher award). As some students can not assimilate all the teaching contents (since scale score < 1), teachers should avoid increasing its level of difficulty. Teachers may try to teach advanced courses so that students can benefit from their good teaching methods. The successful teachers may also help teachers in the other quadrants, notably by giving them advice or by inviting them to attend their classes occasionally.

Quadrant II:

DMUs have high ratings in students' evaluation, but the learning performance is lower than expected. Teachers need to improve their teaching contents and skills. For example, they can attend conferences on teaching performance or design E-learning and computer-assisted language learning. At the university studied in this paper, teachers can apply for creative teaching projects for a period of 1 or 2 semesters. These projects are financed by the Ministry of Education. Teachers are encouraged to redesign their courses and to propose creative new ideas to teach one of their courses. They can reapply every year. As a result, teaching efficiency and students' motivation and learning should improve.

Quadrant III:

DMUs have low ratings in students' evaluation. Students are less satisfied or more severe with their teachers. Teachers in

this quadrant should be offered a chance to improve their ratings before being forced to teach other courses. They need to improve the teaching contents, their communication skills, and the atmosphere during the class (teamwork activities, interactive courses, role playing). Students who do not feel at ease during a class tend to give bad ratings to teachers, whatever the question asked.

Quadrant IV:

The DMUs are efficient but have low ratings in students' evaluation. This phenomenon can be explained by the fact that DEA estimates the efficiency frontier by the ratio of linear combination of inputs divided by the linear combination of outputs and measures the relative efficiency of each DMU (Author *et al.*, 2011). Teachers should not be satisfied with their efficiency. They need to improve their teaching and communication skills so that students can assimilate the course contents more easily. In addition, schools may provide teaching training as well.

In conclusion, the efficient DMUs in quadrant I need to maintain their performance level and may help teachers in the other quadrants by providing suggestions to the less efficient teachers. A fair, objective, and clearly defined merit system should be established to encourage DMUs in quadrant I. Meanwhile, the inefficient DMUs in quadrants II, III, and IV can emulate teachers in quadrant I and also make progress through the following suggested activities: teachers can apply creative teaching projects to redesign their courses; schools provide teaching training; learning

new teaching skills; attending conferences on teaching and learning performances; giving performance alert for low rating; e-learning and computer-assisted language learning; designing attractive learning contents; interactive courses; teamwork activities, etc.

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

The current work made use of DEA to explore two input indicators and two output indicators contributing to teaching performance at the university of Taiwan. The empirical results show that the average overall technical efficiency (the CCR score) of all the 50 DMUs is 0.962. D6, D22, D37, D41 and D49 have the best performance with a value of 1. These 5 efficient DMUs can serve as references for the other inefficient DMUs. The "Room for improvement" analysis indicates how much improvement is needed for the inefficient DMUs. For example, D23 (ranked 50) has the lowest overall technical efficiency of 0.906. This means there is still 10.3% improvement needed for fair grading and students' learning performances.

These results show that providing clear grading criteria at the beginning of the semester and guidance before the exams may increase students' motivation. Sometimes, too much effort in the preparation of teaching materials and course contents could confuse students and thus, have a negative impact on their learning performance. This is the case with D25 (ranked 6) and D3 (ranked 20). Some teachers who are used to teaching writing courses for senior students

or graduate students need to adapt to the level of freshmen. Moreover, if they over-explain the course, it will probably make students feel bored and less attentive.

Using the results obtained with DEA model, this work proposed an original management matrix of DMUs' performance with 4 quadrants, which could help DMUs to determine the quadrant they are located in and to provide information for educational policy-makers who design management measures. The DMUs in quadrant I are the most efficient. They may be rewarded for their efforts and good performances. They can help their teachers in the other quadrants such as by giving them advice or by inviting them to attend their class occasionally. The DMUs in quadrant II have high ratings in students' evaluation, but the learning performance is lower than expected. These teachers can improve their teaching contents and skills, notably by applying creative teaching projects. The DMUs in quadrant III have the lowest efficiency and ratings. However, before they are forced to teach other courses (in the case university, part-time teachers with ratings lower than 3 can be fired), they should be offered a chance to improve their teaching performance. Other than that, the atmosphere during the class could be greatly improved by enhancing the teaching and communication skills. Moreover, when the ratings are low, students are rarely satisfied with the degree of preparation for the teaching contents. The DMUs in quadrant IV are efficient but have low ratings in students' evaluation. This is due to the fact that DEA measures the

relative efficiency of each DMU. Teachers should not be satisfied with their efficiency and probably need teaching training. The results of the performance evaluation via the selected indicators can serve as a reference not only for educators, but also for the Ministry of Education to formulate educational policies.

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Theatre Performance for Oral Communicative Competence

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ABSTRACT

This paper reports the process and results of an experimental study that involves the use of theatrical performance as a constructive means of enhancing the communicative skills and confidence of a classroom of English language learners doing a course in Functional English. These learners come from a background where English is taught as a second language, and where language teaching is generally text based rather than focusing on the oral communicative skills. A whole class of under graduates (as the Target Group) were initiated by a core theatre team and dramatist into producing and presenting plays in English to an audience of their peers as well as to a general audience for over a period of two years. At the end of the project, their communicative competence was evaluated against a comparable peer group unexposed to the project. The results showed that the target group demonstrated much improved communicative abilities than the control peer group, thus strongly recommending a need to seriously (re)consider the use of theatre as an important technique of second language instruction.

Keywords: Awareness, competence, confidence, oral communication, pyramid performance, theatre

INTRODUCTION

Drama has always been a part of the syllabus for the teaching of English as a second language in India and elsewhere. Nonetheless, while it was the ‘text’ of the

plays that was used to ‘teach’ the language earlier, the present day attempts are to bring ‘alive’ the text of the play to the learners through a ‘performance’ which involves them. Drama is perhaps the one component, where proper student involvement can convert language learning from a chore to a pleasant experience. There is also, in theatre, the ‘personality’ boosting factors such as competence and confidence leading

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to the satisfaction of self-esteem through a compulsory exposure to the target language and the need to excel as an individual within a team for the benefit of the team. This is possible through the compulsions of a 'stage' and the rehearsals which are crucial for survival on the stage.

Since theatre is a reflection of real life, enough practice in developing presence of mind is possible through the medium of the theatre. The presence of mind is the essence of communication in real life, and hence, the relevance of theatre in language learning, especially when it comes to oral communication skills in non-native languages.

The study by Maley and Duff (1982) was perhaps the first ever pioneering work that has explored the scope of theatre in language studies. Drama can help the teachers achieve 'reality' of the target code in several ways. Students' inhibitions in handling the target language can be overcome as learning becomes an enjoyable experience, linked to their own experiences of life. Language is to be realized through real-life situations. Theatre brings alive the target language to the learners, since it is as near to real life as is possible through simulation. Furthermore, Wessels (1987) emphasizes that drama can create in students a need to learn the language by the use of 'creative tension' and by putting more responsibility on them. Besides, as Robinson (2008) states, "drama provides a cultural and language enrichment by revealing insights into the target culture and presenting language contexts that make items memorable by placing them in a

realistic social and physical context".

Chauhan (2004), in the study on 'Drama Techniques for Teaching English', observes that real communication involves ideas, emotions, feelings, appropriateness and adaptability. The conventional English class hardly gives the learners the opportunity to use language in this manner and to develop fluency in it. Thus, the main purpose of the language teaching course (i.e., developing skills in communication) is unfortunately neglected.

The entertainment function of play acting has also not gone unnoticed. Boudreault (2010), in the study 'The Benefits of Using Drama in the ESL/EFL Classroom', elaborates on the scope of drama in the classroom. He speaks of how effective drama is to capture the attention of the students in the ESL/EFL classroom.

IMPORTANCE OF THE RESEARCH

The research focused on the effects of theatre in non-native language learning through a comparative study on the relative oral communicative competence achieved by those exposed to theatre and those unexposed to it. Such a study can be beneficial to both language teachers and learners, especially in the context of English as a second language. The qualitative and quantitative rate of progress can lend itself to further study on group dynamics and development of 'confidence - in - personality' since learning of a globally prestigious language like English is invariably connected to the inhibitions of the learner in more ways than one. Such a comparative study may open

up a field of enquiry into the as yet, i.e. unexplored issues in language learning. It could lead to a further study on the process by which 'compulsory articulation' preceded by thinking about what to speak and how to speak may 'trigger off' oral competence in the non-native language through creative linguistic involvement in a group.

RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

- To improve the oral English communicative competence and confidence of university undergraduates through theatre performance.
- To find out the effects of theatre performance on the oral communicative competence and confidence of second language learners of English.

RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS

Theatre performance has a significant effect of developing oral communication skills and confidence.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The researchers used the method of comparative analysis by choosing two groups and investigating the progress of one group chosen for the study (target group) with that of another comparable group (the control group).

The research was a study on the comparative progress of the target group due to the impacts of the theatre experience in relation to the control group who did not have any participation in the theatre experience.

Both the groups are comparable since they are of the same age group and are undergraduate students on the same educational level, coming from more or less similar circumstances and doing the same course at two different colleges affiliated to the University of Calicut in Kerala, India.

The target group consisted of 38 students of II B.A. Functional English batch 2009-10 from Malabar Christian College, Calicut, India. The control group consisted of 24 students of II B.A. Functional English batch 2009-10 of JDT Islam College of Arts and Science, Calicut, India.

The methodology comprises two tiers. The first tier dealt with the planning and implementation of the theatre performance. The second was the research study on the comparative progress of the Target Group due to the impacts of the theatre performance in relation to the Control Group who did not have any participation in the theatre experience. Thus, it is a special study of the impacts of the theatre experience on the Target Group and the absence of impacts on the Control Group.

The Entry Test

The initial oral communicative competence and confidence of the target and control groups were assessed through the Entry Test, which was administered orally, facilitating interaction with each student. The assessment technique followed roughly the pattern of the IELTS.

The Exit Test

At the end of two years, an Exit Test was

administered to both the target and control groups (an oral interview) so as to assess the respective rate of improvement in their oral communicative skills and confidence on the whole. Both the groups were graded according to their performances during the interview. Care was taken to ensure that both the groups were tested as much as possible in the same manner under similar circumstances for both the Tests.

Grading

On the basis of the Entry and Exit Tests, both the target and the control groups were graded and grouped as lower, middle and higher in terms of their competence and confidence (see Table 1).

TABLE 1
The grading procedure

No.	Percentage of score	Grade	Level
1	80 and above	A+	Higher
2	75-80	A	
3	70-75	A-	
4	65-70	B+	Middle
5	60-65	B	
6	55-60	B-	
7	50-55	C+	Lower
8	45-50	C	
9	40-45	C-	

Pyramid Performance Structure (see Fig.1)

The research was operationalized through the activities of the Indo-Anglian Theatre, which started as a departmental initiative in Malabar Christian College, for improving

oral communication skills in English. A pyramid performance structure was envisaged to create and sustain the level of motivation among the students all through the period of the research.

The research made use of a strategy to motivate the target group for the theatre experience through the activities of the Theatre members and a dramatist in the college. This theatre group brought out a few productions as adaptations and translations of plays or their own dramatic creations in English. The necessary context and opportunities were then created to bring in all the students of the college to participate in an inter-department English Drama Contest as a part of the awareness campaign for the scope of theatre in ELT. This was also a strategy to get the target group ready for performing plays in English. The target group grouped themselves into different teams and presented plays in English with the guidance of the researchers and through the motivation of the theatre team. The opportunity was provided to all the students of the target group by organizing intra-class competitions.

Yet another context was created for the target group's involvement, by bringing in a team of students from the school, for performing plays in English, with the support of the members of the target group and guidance from the research team.

Thus, the pyramid structure was planned to motivate the target group for the theatre experience. The Core Team was positioned above the target group as role models, and the target group then became the role models

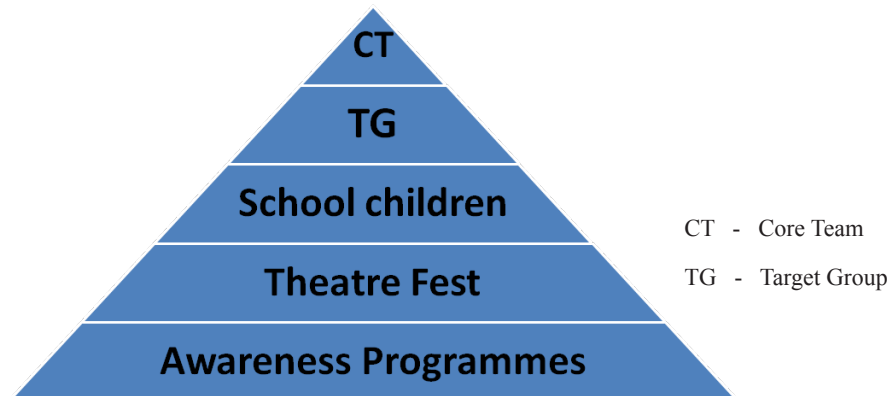


Fig.1: The Pyramid Structure

for the school teams positioned below in the pyramid structure. The target group members would gain directly from their own experiences and indirectly from the experiences of the Core Team as well as that of the school teams.

The three groups were brought together during the Indo-Anglian Theatre Fest and the Annual Inter-department English Drama Contest organized by the Indo-Anglian Theatre. Other programmes were also organized for the target group to present plays in English so that they could improve their oral communication skills and confidence.

The implementation of this pyramid structure of performance ensured the total involvement of the whole class of learners (target group) in the following set of activities:

- Formation of teams
- Selection and adaptation of plays
- Group reading of the selected plays
- Rehearsals and teamwork

- Improvisation
- Dialoguing and articulation in the target language
- Self-correction and peer group correction of pronunciation, tone, grammar, etc.
- Constant feedback from each other and from facilitators, the core team and the researchers on the progress during rehearsals
- Training in diction given by an applied linguist to the whole class
- Monitoring by facilitators (group leaders and teachers)
- Involvement in the planning, as well as execution and organization of the annual English drama contest
- On-the-spot feedback from the audience, faculty and judges after the performance (live on the stage) during the contest.

The above set of activities involving the whole class was managed more or less

by the students themselves within their own classroom during their Conversational English classes, free hours and holidays. There were only occasional chances for them to rehearse on stage. They prepared themselves for the stage performance from within the confined conditions of their conventional classroom, occasionally finding other free classrooms for more elaborated rehearsals. No extra facilities were given to them. They were made to realize that the whole process was for their own progress and confidence in oral communication in the English language. The entire process was productive, with the students taking up their roles enthusiastically, switching roles as and when the occasion demanded and rehearsing their dialogues to excel as individuals and as teams. They encountered problems of adjustment but overcame all this for the common cause of a 'team performance on stage' and the expectations of a resultant progress in their oral communicative skills. They realized the value and relevance of their theatre activities. The confidence they felt after each performance inspired some of them to take up even more challenging roles during the second year of the research study. There were other results as well. A few of them emerged as leaders of their respective teams, taking on the complete responsibility of the team and the performance.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The data collected were processed, compared and presented in tables. Table 2 presents the number of samples in the lower, middle and

higher categories as per grading in both the entry and exit tests.

TABLE 2

Grades obtained for the control and target groups

Grade	Control group		Target group	
	Entry	Exit	Entry	Exit
Higher	3	6	11	18
Middle	5	4	8	8
Lower	13	11	17	10
Total	21	21	36	36

Meanwhile, the comparison of the relative improvement achieved by the Control and Target Groups in the Exit Test are presented in Table 3. The study revealed that the progress achieved by the members of the target group was more in comparison to that of the control group. The Chi-square test revealed the significant difference in the improvement of the control group and the target group, since the p-value (0.0428) is less than 0.05. The difference in their growth showed the positive effects of the experiment on the target group.

Table 3

A comparison of the improvement of oral communicative skill between the control and target groups

Group	Improved	Not improved	Total
Control Group	76.19	23.81	100.00
Target Group	94.44	5.56	100.00
Total	87.72	12.28	100.00

Pearson Chi-square: 4.10245, df=1, p=.042829

The progress from lower competence into higher areas of competence is notably higher in the target group than in the control

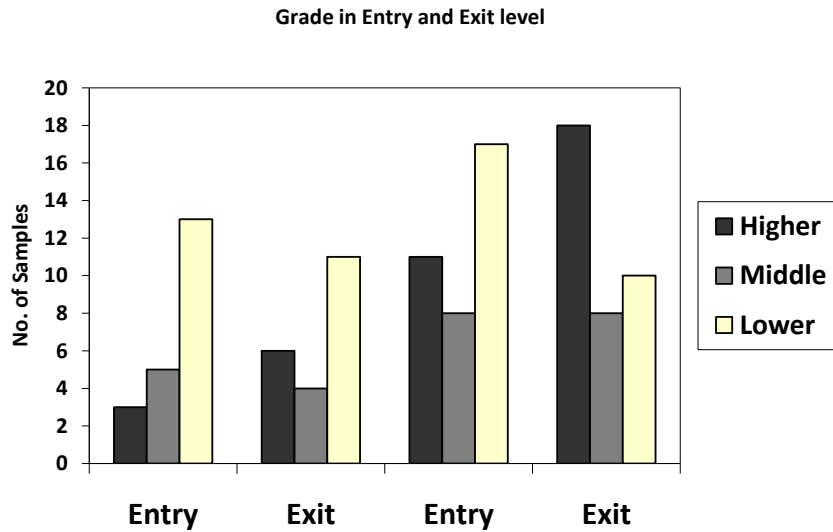


Fig.2: Grade in Entry and Exit Level

group. This strongly suggests that the participation in the theatre has motivated and resulted in a higher level of competence than earlier and that this movement is perceptibly higher in the target group.

Not only more people have moved into the higher level but they have also qualitatively enhanced their confidence and competence. Graphical representation of the relative progress achieved by the target group and the control group is presented in Fig.2.

This indicates that the skill and confidence of oral communication (in language learning) can definitely improve by the conscious attempt of the learners. It can improve when greater opportunities and exposure are given to the learners for self improvement. Team work, constant practice and an inbuilt desire to excel will definitely goad the learners to perform better. The

emphasis was more on ‘performance through dialogue’ and the language items were taken up more as tools to convey something rather than for the sake of ‘learning language’.

Thus, the findings of the research appear to support the hypothesis that theatre performance can improve the oral communicative skills of learners and that it has significant effects on their oral communication skills and confidence. Theatre and the related teamwork can qualitatively enhance the level of oral communicative competence through the ‘performance’ mode, and thereby, raising the ‘confidence’ level of the second language learners who get exposed to the process of second language interaction. The process enables the learners to develop their latent skill in the spoken mode through constant self monitoring and peer team monitoring.

This is achieved by making decisions on the spot, compelled by the exigencies necessary for social networking on the stage (or in the rehearsing classroom) involving a whole team for the organized communication of an idea, a message or a story expressed through the English language.

Penny Bernal (2007) reflects on the success of using drama in her English Language Development classrooms over the past ten years. She gives various steps for preparing a play as a means of promoting language learning and literacy, such as familiarizing students with language intonations through toning activities, practicing stage directions to prompt multicultural discussions, and accessing drama games to decrease inhibitions and increase concentration. She speaks of rehearsal time as a great opportunity for natural language use and teamwork to evolve. Students are encouraged to use their imagination to enhance their performance, and to even add or change lines if they wish.

Sally Ashton-Hay (2005), in her study on "Drama: Engaging All Learning Styles", states that drama does engage multidimensional learning styles including verbal-linguistic, interpersonal, intrapersonal, kinesthetic, spatial, and logical and often incorporates music, or the music of language. In addition, drama has the ability to enhance reflection in students and can be used to create powerful social learning environments where students develop improvisational speaking and emotional intelligence awareness skills. In fact, drama is an appealing teaching strategy

which promotes cooperation, collaboration, self-control, goal-oriented learning as well as emotional intelligence skills. Drama is easily adaptable to a variety of text studies as demonstrated. Shy students are encouraged to speak by taking on another role. Students develop confidence in speaking from using language rhythms, expression, intonation, pronunciation and choral work.

CONCLUSION

The positive findings accruing from this research justify the need for a solid pedagogic foundation for the credibility and legitimacy in the use of plays and dramatic performance as instruments of language learning and communication. The findings of the research point to the necessity of developing a suitable methodology to incorporate the theatre experience in the ELT curriculum. The findings show how effectively and easily students team up for a verbal performance (in English) and make genuine efforts to excel in the given task. The English class hours can become more meaningful and interactive for learners through such creative team work. The theatre experience in the classroom should be given as much weightage as is at present given to project work, seminar presentation, etc. in the context of language learning.

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Exploring Multilingual Practices in Billboard Advertisements in a Linguistic Landscape

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ABSTRACT

Studying linguistic landscape (LL) is a relatively new area of sociolinguistics that encompasses written language on public road signs, billboard advertisements and shop fronts. The term, LL, can be traced to the seminal work of Landry and Bourhis (1997). It is through the lens of LL that this study aims to examine the linguistic practices and code choices in billboard advertisements in the ‘cityscape’ of a capital city. Spolsky (2004) states the real language policy of a community is likely to be found in its practices than in management of the policy. With this in mind, this study examines official documents that articulate and prescribe linguistic and code choice policies for billboard advertisements and apply the policies to analyse selected billboards along a stretch of highway in a cityscape. Thus, the reality of the practice is what matters most. The prescribed language policies provide a sense of the ideal that a society could strive for in nationhood practices; but the reality of practice reveals the choice and use. The results of these practices point to language accommodations made within a linguistically heterogeneous society. The LL is evidently a negotiation site of the reality and the ideal in language contact management affected by different forces that are politically and socially motivated.

Keywords: Billboard advertisements, linguistic landscape, language policy, linguistic practices, language contact

INTRODUCTION

The study of linguistic landscape (LL) is a comparatively new area of sociolinguistic work, and in the last decade or so, LLs have captured the attention of many researchers. The focus of LL research has mainly been on written language in the public space

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rather than how language is communicated in the spoken mode. Backhaus (2006), in his review, states that ever since the seminal paper on LL by Landry and Bourhis in 1997, research into this field of study has been enjoying growing interest. Among the studies done were those by Scollon and Scollon (2003) who developed 'geosemiotics' – an overall approach to the study of language on signs; Reh (2004) proposed a model to describe and analyze multilingual written texts through her study done in Lira Town, while Ben-Rafael, Shohamy, Amara and Trumper-Hect (2004) conducted a large-scale study of language on signs in Israelite cities.

In the Asian region, Backhaus (2006) researched on multilingual signs in Tokyo, giving special attention to the difference between the official and non-official multilingual signs, while Huebner (2006) examined the LLs of 15 Bangkok neighbourhoods in terms of language contact, language mixing and language dominance. Most of the LL studies looked at shop signs, shop fronts, street names, public signs, and also place names. However, LL research that focuses on billboard advertising in relation to language policy is still a novel research direction. This study is conceptualized to explore a LL focused on billboard advertising in relation to specific language policies of a country.

The concept of linguistic landscape is defined by Landry and Bourhis (1997, p. 25) as one that shows language use in a range of entities such as that of public road signs, advertising billboards, street

names, place names, commercial shop signs, and public signs on government buildings, which in combination constitutes a linguistically defined landscape of a given place. LL, therefore, refers to "the visibility and salience of languages on public and commercial signs" (Landry & Bourhis, 1997, p. 23).

Dailey *et al.* (2005), however, elaborate that LL should consist of more than signs outside and inside shops and businesses. LLs should also be comprised of other aspects such as advertisements that one receives at home, the languages heard on television, the languages that one hears when strolling in the neighbourhood, and also when the teacher speak to her pupils in her classroom. On the other hand, Shohamy and Waksman (2009) further widen the LL scope by incorporating all possible 'discourses' that materialize in public space to give meaning. According to them, LL is not only assembled by language, it is also constructed by other modalities such as what is seen, what is heard, what is spoken, and what is thought.

An LL territory, according to Landry and Bourhis (1997), can serve two basic functions; namely, informal and symbolic. An informal function provides information on the linguistic characteristics and geographical boundaries of a particular linguistic group, and also provides accessibility of a particular language to provide for communication in that territory. The symbolic function, on the other hand, involves perception of members of a language group which embodies values and

status of their own languages vis-a-vis other languages (Gorter & Bourhis, 2008). In this study, both functions are explored, but greater emphasis is given to the informative aspects of billboard signs rather than the symbolic.

The growing interest in LL as a field of study gives added value to research on multilingualism, which previously appeared to have a bias on analyzing aspects of speech, such as pronunciation and accent, determining how language varieties are articulated and signified within communities (Ball, 2010). LL work extends on perspectives into multilingualism through the study of written/ visual forms to provide contextual information in the sociolinguistic environment (Gorter & Shohamy, 2009; Backhaus, 2007; Gorter, 2006; Lawrence, 2012). In addition, LL studies, in accordance to Gee (2007) and Burmark (2003) would be able to assist us in understanding how languages are developed and practiced by a community in a linguistically heterogeneous environment if apposite methodologies are utilized.

Language policies and practices in a community are yet another context that LL is able to accommodate. LL aids in the comprehension of how language policies are played out by the authorities (a top-down process) and how they are actually implemented by the community (a bottom up process). Spolsky (2004) emphasizes that the real language policy is likely to be found in its practices than in the management of the policy. In support, Cenoz and Gorter (2006, p. 68) say that there is the presence of

an overt and covert policy in informing the practices in the linguistic landscape. While there are official policies that guide the setting up of street names and other signs, there is impact that operates bottom-up from the signs and posters that form impressions on how the policy is negotiated. In this way, there could then be an unofficial policy that could have far ranging influence on the linguistic landscape.

This study also examines official documents that articulate and prescribe linguistic and code choice policies for billboard advertisements and actual language practice in billboard advertisements around the survey area to assess the tension between policies implemented by the authorities and that of the community in language practices.

OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY

Generally, this study aims to examine the linguistic practices and code choices in billboard advertisements of a selected cityscape through the lens of LL. It also focuses on the overt language practice in relation to a stated language policy for billboard advertising. Specifically, the study aims to investigate the relationship between language practice in billboard advertising and language policy in Malaysia and how linguistic choices are coded on billboard signs in a specific cityscape.

BACKGROUND

In order to understand the language operations in a LL, it is important to take cognizance of some social and political factors that help shape the LL under study. To

begin with, the status of a national language has to be appreciated. The site for the study is Malaysia, where the Malay language, Bahasa Malaysia (BM), according to the Malaysian Constitution, is the country's national and official language. An excerpt from the Constitution of Malaysia [Article 152(1)] (amendments up to 1 January 2006) that defines the use of the national language and the use of other languages could be found in Appendix A.

Living in a multicultural country, Malaysians, however, are free to communicate in whichever languages that they feel comfortable with especially for social purposes. Aside from the vernacular languages and dialects (Tamil, Mandarin Chinese, Iban, etc.), English is also widely used as the country's second or third language. Meanwhile, selected vernacular languages are taught in schools, and English is widely used in colleges and universities, after the school years where it is also learnt as a subject. This heterogeneity in language use is transferred to other spheres and spaces of life, such as in the media and businesses.

As far as English is concerned, it is stated officially in the Constitution that the English language is permitted to be used in some official situations such as in courts and parliament, BM is the language in government official functions and is the medium of instruction in national schools. The media (newspaper and radio), however, is allowed to operate in many languages such as that of Tamil and Mandarin Chinese, and the computer channels global information using many more international languages.

The medium of billboard advertisements is governed by local council by-laws that state that BM must be used in public signboards (including billboards) and road names. While this is the official policy, it has not been totally adhered, as a quick survey would reveal the inconsistencies between policy and practice. Therefore, the situation warrants an in-depth study to examine the discrepancies between the language policy and actual language practices. In addition, a petite selective description of LL (restricted to billboard advertising) will attest to the vibrancy of language contact, or the lack of it, situated in a geopolitical ecology.

METHODOLOGICAL ISSUES

In this study, there are a number of methodological issues that need to be explained. They fall into three main aspects. One pertains to document analysis of language policy statements in relation to billboard signs and the other deals with the signs themselves, in terms of location and the choice of linguistic codes in the signs. Finally, the third deals with the use of an analysis framework to account for the choices in linguistic codes associated with the signs.

Language Policy for Billboard Advertising

The Constitution of Malaysia, Article 152(1) and the National Language Act 1963 provides the base for other government organizations, institutions and authorities to design their own language policy for specific operations. The language policy for advertisements in Malaysia that presents

detailed regulations can be extracted from the Verification Procedures of National Language in Advertising (A relevant excerpt is given in Appendix B).

These regulations provide specific details on the use of BM purportedly in support of the language as the national language. From the policy documents, it could be seen that though the regulations give allowance to the use of foreign language(s), the use of the national language (BM) is very much emphasized and prioritized.

Determining the Survey Item/Site and Analysis Framework

Data collection has to be located within a LL survey site. Backhaus (2007) recommends two fundamental points be taken into consideration in order to obtain a sound data collection procedure; these include determination of the survey items and also the geographical limits of the survey area. Thus, the survey item has to be restricted. In this study, LL is restricted to advertising billboards. The geographical limitation was confined to one district. Only billboard advertisements along the PLUS (*Projek Lebuh raya Utara Selatan/ North-South Highway Project*) highway, specifically the stretch from the Kuala Lumpur International Airport (KLIA) toll booth to KLIA (Kuala Lumpur International Airport) and back (KLIA toll – KLIA – KLIA toll) is considered. The stretch is about 11.3 km one way and is situated in the district of Sepang in the state of Selangor. This restriction is rationalized on the premise that this stretch of highway

showcases a high level of language contact through billboard advertising commissioned by various agencies to give salient messages to the public. A total number of 62 billboard advertisements along the selected survey route were identified to form the sample for the study. This survey area was also chosen, as it is the ‘entrance and exit route’ to Malaysia for both local citizens and foreigners. Hence, the billboard advertisements along the highway were relevant LL artifacts to be explored as they would be representative of the advertising language culture that characterized a particular linguistic cityscape.

Billboard advertisements are considered as signs in LL, applying Backhaus’ (2006, p. 55) definition which says, “A sign was considered to be any piece of written text within a spatially definable frame”. The signs were gathered and categorized according to the following criteria:

- Whether the signs are government or private signs
- Number of languages used on the signs
- Presence of translations on the signs
- Language(s) used on the signs

Analysis Framework

To analyse the signs, a composite framework by Backhaus (2006) was adopted. It includes Reh’s (2004) taxonomy of types of multilingual information arrangement, as well as Spolsky and Cooper’s (1991) framework on language use for LL.

Reh’s taxonomy lays out four types of multilingual information arrangement

for interpretation. The information may be: 1) *duplicating* – for this criterion, all information is presented in more than one language; 2) *fragmentary* – for this criterion, the full information is only given in one language, however, some selected parts have been translated into an additional language(s); 3) *overlapping* – for this criterion, the object is categorized as overlapping only if parts of its information is repeated in at least one more language, while other parts of the text remain in only one language; 4) *complementary* – for this criterion, two or more languages in the signs express completely different contents, while knowledge of the languages involved is needed to comprehend the whole message.

Spolsky and Cooper (1991) formulated three conditions for the use of languages in the LL in their study on language signs in Jerusalem; (1) write signs in a language you know, (2) prefer writing signs in the language(s) that intended readers are assumed to read, and (3) prefer writing signs in your own language or in a language with which you wish to be identified. The conditions are related to the assumptions made by the sign writer.

Backhaus's composite approach to data analysis was adopted and applied to this study. In his study, Backhaus demonstrated the different characteristics of official and non-official multilingual signs. These differences are captured in terms of the languages contained in the signs, their arrangement on a sign (where he also explained the presence of translation), power and solidarity as well as the distribution of languages used on the signs.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Using information on language policy and that gathered through the analysis framework, the findings and discussion section is organized into various subsections, as follows:

Government-sponsored versus Privately-sponsored Signs

In line with Landry and Bourhis' (1997) and Backhaus' (2006) works, the signs were divided into government-sponsored signs (GSS) and privately-sponsored signs (PSS). They explained that GSS are public signs that are used by national, regional, or municipal governments, while PSS include commercial signs. Billboard advertisements put up by organizations that are government-linked companies (GLCs) are counted as GSS. GLCs are defined as companies that have a primary commercial objective and in which the Malaysian Government has a direct controlling stake (www.khazanah.com.my). In this study, 79.03% (49/62) of the billboard advertisements were found to be PSS. This is expected as commercial advertising is likely to be dominated by private companies rather than by government agencies in a market driven economy.

Monolingual versus Multilingual Signs

Table 1 below shows the distribution of monolingual and multilingual billboard advertisements for both GSS and PSS. It clearly shows that multilingual signs dominate the selected LL with 75.5% being multilingual for PSS and 61.5% for GSS (see Table 1). It could be said

that since the selected survey area is the entrance and exit route to Malaysia, the billboard advertisements are catering both for foreigners or tourists who visit Malaysia and local road users.

TABLE 1
Monolingual vs Multilingual Signs

Type of sign	GSS	%	PSS	%
Monolingual	5	38.5	12	24.5
Multilingual	8	61.5	37	75.5
Total	13	100	49	100

The distribution of languages on 62 billboards in the database of this study was also calculated to reveal the frequency of the languages used on the billboards. From the data collected, it was found that in most billboards, the dominant language used is English (87%), followed by BM (74.1%) and other languages; Chinese (6.5%), French (3.25) and Japanese (1.6%) (see Table 2). As for the policy, the National Language in Advertisements Confirmation Procedure (Tatacara Pengasahan Bahasa Dalam Iklan) states that;

The advertisements must abide by the related Act and regulations such as the Advertisement by-law (Federal Territory) 1982 stated in the Local Council Act 1976 as follows:

An advertisement has to be in BM on its own or together with other language(s) (PU (A) 364/85).

Clearly the data refute the intended practice. Rather, what appears is a somewhat

balanced use of English and BM, with an inclusion of a smattering of other foreign languages.

TABLE 2
Distribution of Languages contained on the billboards (N=62)

Language	Signs	%
BM	46	74.1
English	54	87.0
Chinese	4	6.5
French	2	3.2
Japanese	1	1.6
Counted signs	62	100

Presence of Translation

In analyzing multilingual signs, translations cannot be ignored as part of the realities in a LL. According to mutual relationships of the languages, whether or not they constitute a translation of each other is a point for consideration (Backhaus, 2006). Translation can be categorized as those containing mutual translation - partially or in total and those that do not contain mutual translation. Table 3 shows the information arrangement of translations in the GSS and PSS.

TABLE 3
Information Arrangement, GSS vs PSS

Information arrangement	GSS	%	PSS	%
Containing mutual translation	6	75	17	46
Not containing mutual translation	2	25	20	54

The GSS clearly shows a preference for mutual translation. This finding is similar to Backhaus's (2006) findings on information arrangement in his study on multilingual signs in Tokyo. In this study,

most of the mutual translation for the government multilingual signs is from BM to English, as shown in figures below. As for the multilingual PSS, there were a few billboards with translations from Chinese to BM, as shown in the example below.

Billboards 1 and 2 below display information arrangement that shows duplicating – where information is presented in both languages; BM and English (Billboard 1) and Chinese and BM (Billboard 2). According to Reh (2004), duplicating in multilingual billboard writing is when the same text is presented in more than one language. This, according to Reh, clearly signals the presence of multilingualism in the language use of a society. She further adds that multilingualism has other impacts; that of moulding an identity founded on the linguistic and also the cultural practices of a community.

In the sign discussed (Billboard 2), the national identity relates to the statehood of China as the service provider and the use of BM and English is illustrative of the recognition of a national language policy and that of the ‘equality’ of a significant dominant international language (English).

Table 3 also shows the existence of information arrangement that does not contain mutual translation. In the data collected, 2 multilingual GSS and 20 multilingual PSS do not contain mutual translations. Most of the billboard advertisements display complementary use which illustrates the use of two or more languages to express completely different contents, but both play complementing roles. According to Reh, knowledge of the languages involved is required in comprehending the whole message and this implies an existence of multilingual efficient readers at the base



Billboard 1: Malaysian Airlines Advertisement



Billboard 2: Shenzhen Airlines Advertisement

level. In a country like Malaysia, citizens are linguistically diverse and they could be basal efficient readers of languages exposed to them during formal schooling. Billboard 3 below is an example of a GSS that does not contain mutual translation. The information contains two languages, in order of appearance: BM followed by English. The information in English ‘Selangor has more...’ is complementing the information in BM promoting Selangor as a holiday destination. This complementary role of languages obviously has pragmatic functions. It appeals to internationalism of language use, as tourists must be attracted through a known language. At the same time, there is a need to satisfy national language aspirations.

Linguistic Code Preference

The code preference of the GSS and PSS is analyzed using Spolsky and Cooper’s framework. It embodies three underlying assumptions that accompany the conditions

of language choice on signs imposed by the sign writer, as stated earlier.

From the data in Table 4, the PSS appears to prefer using of English and other languages (54.8%), with a breakdown of English (49.3%) and other languages (5.5%). The GSS obviously promotes the use of the national language more though surprisingly it did not take up a large percentage (56.3%). This would mean the GSS is seen to resort noticeably to the use of other languages usually for complementary purposes. This finding supports Backhaus’ (2006) study of multilingual signs in Tokyo, where he highlighted that the use of other languages is more prominent than that of the Japanese language, the national language.

TABLE 4
Code preference among GSS and PSS (N=62)

Code Preference	GSS	%	PSS	%
BM	9	56.3	33	45.2
English	5	31.2	36	49.3
Other languages	2	12.5	4	5.5
Total	13	100	73	100



Billboard 3: Advertisement from Selangor Tourism (a GSS)

The languages in the signs underscored Spolsky and Cooper's assumptions of language use among sign writers. The first two assumptions; 'write signs in a language you know' and 'prefer writing signs in the language(s) that intended readers are assumed to read' were self-evident in the use of languages for the PSS. In contrast, the GSS preferred using BM, which was aligned to the third assumption, 'prefer to write signs in your own language or in a language with which you wish to be identified'.

The main drive for this assumption is evidently political and sociocultural. According to Backhaus (2006), language choice in GSS is likely motivated by power relations, whereas the PSS is more likely to use foreign languages in expressing solidarity. From the analysis, there appears to be an apparent conflict of interest, but this conflict, if it does exist, is tolerated as authorities show democratization towards the enterprise. Nonetheless, the power play in language choice is in place. Backhaus (2006, p. 62) takes note that language choice has its constraints; official signs inevitably are more governed by regulations put in place by governing authorities while non-official signs can be more liberal. In other words, sign writers are in a position to take greater charge of which language to use on these signs to show their preferences. This language preference then becomes his 'policy' and if continuously effected on a regular basis can be perpetuated as an unwritten rule leading to a form of established socio-cultural practice in a community. Such practices thus eventuate

and accentuate as features of a linguistic landscape.

In the case of the Malaysian LL with reference to billboards, the power play is moderate as the choice of the dominant languages is not skewed. This means that generally there is a balance in the use of languages which affirms a peaceful coexistence between languages used in a multilingual country.

CONCLUSION

This study has illustrated the perspectives on LL conditions in a cityscape. It explored the linguistic practices and code choices of billboard advertisements in a selected cityscape. It also discussed the relationship between language practice and stated language policy for billboard advertising through data analysis in terms of distribution of language, presence of translation, as well as code preference in the GSS and PSS.

There appeared to be a difference between the prescribed language policy and the actual language(s) used on the billboard advertisements. The Advertisement by-law (Federal Territory) 1982 regulates that 'an advertisement has to be in BM on its own or together with other language(s)' and priority and emphasis must be given to wordings or placing of the letters of the alphabet in BM. According to this policy, any advertisement that does not abide by the policy would not be allowed to be displayed. However, as seen in the findings of this study, the overt practice shows the contrary; the national language, BM, is not used in all billboard advertisements as prescribed and they

continue to be displayed. This leads to some noteworthy inferences. One is the tolerance of 'deviant' language practices by authorities. In other words, the official stand taken in the use of languages for billboard signage is moderated as the authorities seem to be rather accommodating even when BM is not used in some signage. Secondly, there exists a perceived need in using a language that connects best to the public and that language needs not be the national language. Thirdly, the findings support Spolsky's contention that language management of a language policy is best illustrated through public display of actual language use. The findings make a clear public statement of the extent actual language approximate official language policy statement. Finally, it can be concluded that societal needs and attitudes are flourishing forces that determine language use, and this speaks volumes on how languages are maintained. Languages thrive in a vibrant linguistic landscape which serves to inform, perpetuate, and at the same dispel restrictive notions on language use. Thus, LLs are constantly shaped and reshaped through the ebb and flow of socio and geopolitical forces operating in a dynamic society.

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APPENDIX A

An excerpt from the Constitution of Malaysia (Article 152(1) (amendments up to 1 January 2006))

*The national language shall be the Malay language and shall be in such script as Parliament may by law provided that **(a)** no person shall be prohibited or prevented from using (otherwise than for official purposes), or from teaching or learning, any other language; and **(b)** nothing in this clause shall prejudice the right of the Federal Government or of any State Government to preserve and sustain the use and study of the language of any other community in the Federation.*

<http://confinder.richmond.edu/admin/docs/malaysia.pdf>

APPENDIX B

An Excerpt from the Verification Procedures of National Language in Advertising (Malaysia)

6.0 ADVERTISEMENTS

6.12 The advertisements must abide by the related Act and regulations such as the Advertisement by-law (Federal Territory) 1982 stated in the Local Council Act 1976 as follows:

1. An advertisement has to be in BM on its own or together with other language(s)(PU (A) 364/85).
2. The wordings or letters in BM have to be given priority in terms of colour and have to be placed in a clearer position than wordings or letters or writings in other language(s) and their size must not be bigger than the ones in BM (PU (A) 364/85).
3. Any advertisement that does not abide to paragraphs (1) and (2) cannot be displayed or caused to be displayed or is allowed to be displayed by anyone (PU (A) 187/82).
4. Regardless of the allotment in paragraph (3), if the name of any firm, association or company registered under the Business Registration Act 1956, Company Act 1965 or Organization Act 1966 consists of words that are or inclusive of language(s) which are not BM, translation to BM is not needed (PU (A) 187/82).
5. *Regardless of the allotment in paragraph (4), the Mayor may ask for the business's, company's or association's details to abide to the allotment in paragraphs (1) and (2) (PU (A) 364/85).*

<http://appw05.dbp.gov.my/dokumen/tatacarapengesanan.pdf>

Usefulness of the English Language Teaching Textbook Evaluation Checklist

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ABSTRACT

Textbook evaluation checklists are instruments that help teachers or programme developers evaluate teaching materials before or after using them. This paper presents one of the phases of a project that involved the survey of a group of evaluators' (n=82) views on the usefulness of a newly developed checklist. The questionnaire used was a modified version of an instrument developed to evaluate the usefulness of a writing scale (Nimehchisalem, 2010). Based on the results, the checklist indicates high to very high levels of usefulness. The findings are expected to be very helpful for researchers who may intend to test similar instruments.

Keywords: Textbook evaluation checklist, instrument development, checklist evaluation

INTRODUCTION

Material evaluation checklists are useful instruments that can help teachers who wish to evaluate teaching-learning materials before or after using them. Material evaluation often takes place impressionistically based on evaluators'

intuitive judgment. Checklists, however, help evaluators who lack the experience for an impressionistic evaluation of the material. They are also helpful when evaluators need to work in teams to evaluate materials. The explicit criteria in a checklist enable the evaluator to come up with more objective judgments on the suitability of the material.

Teachers or programme developers often need to evaluate textbooks for the two major reasons of selection and adaptation (Sheldon, 1988). At times, textbooks are evaluated for selection purposes. To choose the most appropriate

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book for a language programme, one needs to consider a number of books with the needs and specific features of the target students in mind. A textbook may also be evaluated to shed light on its areas of weakness. Once they have been detected, these areas can be improved to increase the effectiveness of the textbook.

One may evaluate textbooks implicitly or explicitly. Implicit evaluation is a common practice among material evaluators. In this type of evaluation, a teacher takes a quick look at the material and impressionistically decides on its suitability. It may be acceptable to evaluate textbooks impressionistically when the teacher has enough experience, but it may be hard to rely on novice teachers' judgements about the suitability of a textbook for a given language programme. In such situations, checklists are used. The explicit criteria in these instruments aid the teachers to carry out a thorough evaluation of the textbook. In addition, checklists are also useful when a panel of experts are involved in evaluating a textbook. It may be hard to reach an agreement in the team evaluation of textbooks. Using checklists can aid the evaluators in such cases to standardize their evaluation and make it more systematic.

Despite their importance, most ELT material evaluation checklists are developed with no proof on their validity or reliability. Some of the checklists commonly used in material evaluation have not been tested for practicality. They are very long that it takes a long time to evaluate language teaching

materials using them. They have items that make it very hard to evaluate materials manually. For example, Skierso's (1991) checklist is a well-established instrument, but it is too long and uneconomical. Additionally, the Skierso checklist also has items that are very hard to rate. For example, there are a few items on the distribution and recycling of the new vocabulary items. It is not practical to analyze such patterns without using software like Wordsmith (Scott, 2004) or Retrotex-E (Mukundan, 2011). In order to provide language teachers and researchers with a valid, reliable and practical instrument to evaluate textbooks, the ELT Textbook Evaluation Checklist was developed using both qualitative and quantitative methods. The next section briefly reviews the development procedure of this instrument.

ELT Textbook Evaluation Checklist

The checklist was first designed based on the review of the available instruments for ELT material evaluation (Mukundan & Ahour, 2010; Mukundan, Hajimohammadi, & Nimehchisalem, 2011). Qualitative and quantitative methods were used to refine the checklist. The qualitative phase comprised a focus group study in which the clarity and inclusiveness of the instrument were refined (Mukundan, Nimehchisalem, & Hajimohammadi, 2011). In the quantitative phase, ELT experts' views were surveyed on the weightage of each domain, and some items were removed based on the results of factor analysis (Mukundan & Nimehchisalem, 2012). Next, the checklist

was operationalized. A five-point Likert style scale was assigned and an interpretation guide was added to it. Appendix A shows the checklist.

Evaluation of Textbook Evaluation Checklists

Textbooks have long been an inseparable part of most language classrooms. It is imperative to evaluate the suitability of these books before, while or after their use. However, it is equally important to evaluate the instruments that are used for evaluating the textbooks. Checklists should be rigorously tested before they are presented as well-established references that can be trusted. Scholars warn about a number of pitfalls that should be avoided in developing their instruments. Tomlinson (2003), for example, warns against the following common mistakes in developing textbook evaluation checklists:

1. mixing evaluation and analysis questions,
2. including two or multiple questions in a single item,
3. developing long, vague, and unanswerable items,
4. asking dogmatic questions, and
5. using items that may be interpreted in a different way by different evaluators.

A review of the available checklists in the literature shows that checklist developers commonly make these mistakes. Mukundan and Ahour (2010) mention examples of checklists which are defective in reference

to the five points mentioned here. They mention an example of multiple questions from Garinger (2002), 'Is the textbook part of a series, and if so would using the entire series be appropriate?' Such items should be avoided in checklists since they will confuse the evaluator and affect the validity and reliability of the evaluation results.

In order to test the usefulness of our checklist, we needed a more systematic framework. For this purpose, we found Bachman and Palmer's (1996) notion of test usefulness suitable. The checklist was, therefore, evaluated using an adaptation of the concept of test usefulness by Bachman and Palmer (1996), to be discussed in the next section.

Usefulness

The concept of usefulness is adapted from Bachman and Palmer (1996). They point out reliability, construct validity, authenticity, interactiveness, impact and practicality as the complementary qualities of any useful test. Out of these, authenticity and interactiveness are more relevant to test tasks. For this reason, only four of the aforementioned qualities in this study were considered, each of which is discussed briefly in this section.

Reliability means consistency of scores, or "scoring validity" (Weir, 2005, p. 22). When a checklist is reliable, it helps different raters to assign almost the same scores for the same textbook. When a checklist helps different evaluators rate the same textbook similarly, it has high inter-rater reliability. In addition, if the items of a checklist indicate

a high degree of consistency, it has internal reliability. Within the scope of this study, reliability means the consistency among the domains of the developed checklist. When developing instruments, reliability can be maximized if the items are clearly stated, and if the ambiguous items are reworded or deleted. Additionally, reliability often rises as the number of its items and/or dimensions increase (Brown & Bailey, 1984; Weir, 2005). Another way to increase reliability is by getting more two or more evaluators to rate the same textbook and considering the average score in the final decision.

Validity means measuring what one claims to be measuring (Cronbach, 1971). Validity may be judgemental or empirical (Richards & Schmidt, 2002). Judgemental validity relies on theory rather than observation. It includes face, content (also context; Weir, 2005), and construct validity. If the checklist appears to measure what it claims to measure, based on the subjective judgement of an observer, it has face validity. If it adequately and sufficiently measures what it sets out to measure, it has content validity. Finally, if it reflects the essential aspects of the theory on which it is based, it has construct validity. Empirical validity, on the other hand, relies on comparing the test with one or more criterion measures and includes criterion-related and consequential validity. If a checklist has criterion-related validity, it indicates high and significant correlations with an established external criterion measure. Finally, if a checklist has consequential validity, the interpretations made by it result in fair and positive social consequences. That is, the users and

stakeholder of a checklist are satisfied with it, it is consequentially valid. In this study, consequential validity is referred to as impact, discussed below.

As the next quality of a useful checklist, impact overlaps with the notion of consequential validity discussed above. A useful checklist should have positive influence on its users and stakeholders. A test can have either micro level or macro level impact on its stakeholders (Bachman & Palmer, 1996). At a micro level, a checklist can influence teachers who can use it to diagnose problematic areas in their teaching material and make adjustments in their future instructions. If a checklist is used in this way, it can have desirable impact (or positive washback effect) on the instruction. On the other hand, a useful can have a positive effect at a macro level by making programme developers aware of the suitability of the materials they have developed. According to this useful information, they can adjust the syllabi to the target learners' needs.

Bachman and Palmer (1996) define practicality as "the relationship between the resources that will be required in the design, development and use of the test and the resources that will be available for these activities" (p. 36). These resources include: (1) teachers and administrators (or, human resources), (2) equipment and materials, and (3) time (Bachman & Palmer, 1996). Instrument developers should remember that the issue of practicality overrides all the previously mentioned qualities. That is, they should not be so obsessed with the reliability and validity of their instruments that they

forget how it will work in real testing situations. If the prospective stakeholders' limitations and resources are not considered, they may refuse to use the checklist even if it is the most valid and reliable instrument available and will prefer a second best checklist that they find practical.

RESEARCH OBJECTIVE

In the light of the four test qualities discussed above, this paper aimed at investigating a number of English language teachers' views on the usefulness of the developed checklist. The teachers were surveyed on the reliability, relevance, impact, and practicality of the checklist. The following research questions were postulated to address this objective.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The following research questions were posed to address the aforementioned objective:

1. To what extent do the respondents regard the ELT Textbook Evaluation Checklist as a reliable instrument?
2. To what extent do the respondents regard the ELT Textbook Evaluation Checklist as a valid instrument?
3. To what extent do the respondents regard the English Language Teaching (ELT) Textbook Evaluation Checklist useful in reference to its impact and practicality?
4. How can the English Language Teaching (ELT) Textbook Evaluation Checklist be improved?

In order to provide answers to the first three questions, the survey method was used whereas the qualitative method was used to address the final research question.

MATERIALS AND METHOD

Previous attempts were made to improve the reliability and validity of the checklist through qualitative (Mukundan *et al.*, 2011; Mukundan *et al.*, 2011) and quantitative (Mukundan & Nimehchisalem, 2012) methods. This research was an attempt to explore the usefulness of the checklist with the help of a questionnaire. The survey method was used to conduct this study.

Respondents

The respondents comprised of 82 male and female Vietnamese English language teachers with a bachelor degree in Teaching English as a Second Language. They had a minimum of two years of teaching experience. The respondents were given the questionnaire right after they had used the checklist to evaluate two textbooks.

Instrument

The instrument that was used for collecting data was a modified version of a questionnaire called the Argumentative writing Scale Evaluation Questionnaire (Nimehchisalem, 2010). The modified version of the instrument is called the 'ELT Textbook Evaluation Checklist Evaluation Questionnaire'. The only demographic information elicited from the respondents was their years of teaching experience

to make the instrument as economical as possible. The questionnaire is a five-point Likert style instrument, where a value of 1 signifies ‘strongly disagree’; 2 ‘disagree’; 3 ‘not sure’; 4 ‘agree’; and 5 ‘strongly agree’. The questionnaire consists of 13 items, followed by a final open-ended question. Appendix B presents the instrument of the study.

The questionnaire was primarily developed based on Bachman and Palmer’s (1996, pp. 19-40) definition of test usefulness, which includes reliability, construct validity, impact and practicality. Slight modifications were made to the original questionnaire to make it fit to

evaluate the usefulness of a textbook evaluation checklist. The modifications included changing words like ‘writing scale’ and ‘students’ written works’ to ‘checklist’ and ‘textbook’ respectively in order to make it relevant for checklist evaluation. In addition, three reverse items were added to the questionnaire to ensure the honesty of the respondents. Table 1 summarizes each item in the questionnaire, along with the dimension of usefulness that it addresses.

As the table shows, items 1-4, and 13 are related to the impact and practicality of the checklist. Meanwhile, reliability is addressed by items 6-11, whereas items 5, 6, 9, and 12 deal with validity. Overall,

TABLE 1
Components of test usefulness covered in the questionnaire

	Item	Component
1	I found it easy to work with the checklist.	Impact, practicality
2	It is tiring to evaluate textbooks using the checklist.	Impact, practicality
3	I will use this checklist to evaluate the textbooks that I use in my own classes.	Impact, practicality
4	I recommend using this checklist to my colleagues.	Impact, practicality
5	The checklist fully covers the aspects of textbook evaluation construct.	Validity
6	I find my personal judgment of the textbook in line with the score assigned by the checklist.	Reliability, Validity
7	The checklist helped me draw a clear line between the books that seemed to be of different qualities.	Reliability
8	All the terms in the checklist are clear and easy to understand.	Reliability
9	Some items are vague.	Reliability, Validity
10	Overall, I find the checklist a reliable instrument.	Reliability
11	The scoring guide is clear.	Reliability
12	There are certain important dimensions in textbook evaluation that are missing in the checklist.	Validity
13	Overall, I am satisfied with this checklist.	Impact, practicality
14	What changes do you think can be made on the checklist to improve it?	All

a positive response to all the items in the questionnaire would imply the respondents' satisfaction of the checklist, excluding items 2, 9, and 12 that are reverse items. Based on Cronbach's Alpha test of reliability, an acceptable coefficient .76 was recorded for the instrument.

Research Procedure

The respondents were first asked to evaluate two English language textbooks using the ELT Textbook Evaluation Checklist. After they had evaluated the textbooks, they rated the checklist itself using the English Language Teaching Textbook Evaluation Checklist Evaluation Questionnaire (Appendix B).

Data Analysis

The questionnaires were collected. The reverse items were checked to see if the respondents had been honest in answering the questions. The questionnaires in which the reverse items had been marked similar to the other items were disregarded. As a result, 82 questionnaires were selected to be coded for data entry. SPSS Version 16 was used to analyze the data. Descriptive statistical procedures, which included frequency, means, and standard deviation, were followed. The values of the reverse items were transformed; for example, an item marked as '5' was recoded as '1' and vice versa before analysis.

The scores of each domain (impact and practicality, items 1-4, 13; validity, items 5, 6, 9, and 12; reliability, items 6-11) were added, and their percentages were computed.

The percentages were then categorized into five levels based on Guilford's (1950) Rule of Thumb to facilitate the interpretation of the respondents' ratings. Following this rule, a value of >20% is regarded as 'Negligible', 20-40% as 'Low', 40-70% as 'Moderate', 70-90% as 'High', and 90% as 'Very high' levels of the teachers' satisfaction with the checklist.

RESULTS

This study aimed at surveying a group of teachers' views on the usefulness of a recently developed checklist. For this purpose, a number of research questions were posed. The research questions covered the components of checklist usefulness. This section presents and discusses the results of the survey with a focus on each question subsequently. The results have been presented as means (*M*) and standard deviations (*SD*).

Impact and Practicality

The first research question concerned the impact and practicality of the checklist. These qualities were evaluated through five items including, 'I found it easy to work with the checklist' (item 1); 'It is tiring to evaluate textbooks using the checklist' (item 2); 'I will use this checklist to evaluate the textbooks that I use in my own classes' (item 3); 'I recommend using this checklist to my colleagues' (item 4); and 'Overall, I am satisfied with this checklist' (item 13). Table 2 summarizes the descriptive statistics results of the teachers' responses to the aforementioned items:

TABLE 2
Descriptive statistics results of impact and practicality items

	Item1	Item2 (reversed)	Item3	Item4	Item13
Mean (upon 5)	3.9390	3.8659	3.9756	4.0000	4.2561
Std. Deviation	.89370	.73303	.71966	.73703	.62482
strongly disagree (%)	2.4	00	00	00	00
disagree (%)	6.1	00	1.2	4.9	1.2
unsure (%)	9.8	34.1	23.2	12.2	6.1
agree (%)	58.5	45.1	52.4	61.0	58.5
strongly agree (%)	23.2	20.7	23.2	22.0	34.1

Items 1, 2, 3, 4 and 13 (in table 2) were rated at $M=3.9$, $SD=.89$; $M=3.9$, $SD=.73$; $M=4$, $SD=.72$; $M=4$, $SD=.74$; and $M=4.3$, $SD=.62$, respectively. According to these results, a majority of the teachers (on average about 55%) ‘agreed’ on the practicality and impact of the checklist. The item that obtained the lowest level of satisfaction was the second item. Regarding this item, one in three teachers felt ‘unsure’ whether using the checklist was tiring or not. The rest (65.8%) believed that it was not tiring to work with the instrument. The most promising feedback was achieved from item 13, which dealt with the respondents’ overall satisfaction of the instrument. As shown by the results, over 92% of the teachers ‘agreed’ or ‘strongly agreed’ that overall they were satisfied with the checklist.

Based on Guilford’s (1950) Rule of Thumb, the teachers’ ratings were transformed into the five satisfaction categories of ‘Negligible’, ‘Low’, ‘Moderate’, ‘High’, and ‘Very high’. Table 3 presents the teachers’ satisfaction with the impacts and practicality of the checklist:

As it can be observed, about three in four teachers (73.2%) were ‘highly’ satisfied with the developed instrument. The rest were either ‘moderately’ (9.8%) or ‘very highly’ (17.1%) satisfied with it. These findings are promising and provide proof for high consequential validity of the ELT Textbook Evaluation Checklist.

TABLE 3
Teachers’ satisfaction levels in reference to impact and practicality of the checklist

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Moderate	8	9.8	9.8
High	60	73.2	82.9
Very high	14	17.1	100.0

Validity

The second research question dealt with the validity of the checklist. The items focusing on the validity of the checklist comprised, ‘The checklist fully covers the aspects of textbook evaluation construct’ (item 5); ‘I find my personal judgment of the textbook in line with the score assigned by the checklist’ (item 6); ‘Some items are vague’ (item 9);

and ‘There are certain important dimensions in textbook evaluation that are missing in the checklist’ (item 12). As mentioned before, items 9 and 12 were reverse items and therefore had to be reversed before the analysis. Table 4 presents the means and standard deviations of the ratings assigned for these items.

As revealed by the results in table 4, items 5, 6, 9, and 12 respectively achieved means and standard deviations of $M=4.1$, $SD=.64$; $M=3.9$, $SD=.67$; $M=3.8$, $SD=.73$; and $M=3.7$, $SD=.71$. Overall, majority of the teachers (on average, 54.9%) ‘agreed’ on the validity of the instrument. The item that achieved the highest percentage concerned the inclusiveness and construct validity of the instrument, that is, it fully covers the construct of textbook evaluation.

Additionally, as in the case of the previous research question, the results were transformed into five satisfaction categories based on Guilford’s (1950) Rule of Thumb. Table 5 presents the teachers’ satisfaction with the checklist in relation to its validity.

As it can be seen in Table 5, a majority of the teachers (73.2%) were ‘highly’ satisfied with the validity of the checklist.

A few (13.4%) were ‘moderately’ satisfied while some (13.4%) were ‘very highly’ satisfied with its validity. However, none of the teachers indicated low levels of satisfaction in relation to the validity of the checklist. These results are in line with the findings of the previous research question (that concerned the practicality and impacts of the checklist). Exactly the same percentage of the respondents (73,2%) rated both domains as highly satisfactory, while the remaining proportion indicated either moderate or very high levels of satisfaction. The findings, therefore, provide further proof for the validity of the ELT Textbook Evaluation Checklist.

TABLE 5
Teachers’ satisfaction levels in reference to validity of the checklist

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Moderate	11	13.4	13.4
High	60	73.2	86.6
Very high	11	13.4	100.0

TABLE 4
Descriptive statistics results of validity items

	Item5	Item6	Item9 (reversed)	Item12 (reversed)
Mean (upon 5)	4.1341	3.8902	3.7927	3.7195
Std. Deviation	.64334	.66678	.73262	.70753
strongly disagree (%)	00	00	00	00
disagree (%)	1.2	1.2	4.9	4.9
unsure (%)	11.0	24.4	24.4	42.7
agree (%)	61.0	58.5	57.3	42.7
strongly agree (%)	26.8	15.9	13.4	14.6

Reliability

The third research question focused on the reliability of the checklist. The items investigating the teachers' views towards the reliability of the instrument were, 'I find my personal judgment of the textbook in line with the score assigned by the checklist' (item 6); 'The checklist helped me draw a clear line between the books that seemed to be of different qualities' (item 7); 'All the terms in the checklist are clear and easy to understand' (item 8); 'Some items are vague' (item 9); 'Overall, I find the checklist a reliable instrument' (item 10); and 'The scoring guide is clear' (item 11). As mentioned previously, item 9 was a reverse item and therefore reversed before the analysis. Table 6 presents the means and standard deviations of the ratings that the respondents assigned for these items.

According to the results in table 6, items 6 to 11 achieved means and standard deviations of $M=3.9$, $SD=.67$; $M=4.1$, $SD=.63$; $M=3.9$, $SD=.89$; $M=3.8$, $SD=.73$; $M=4.2$, $SD=.61$; and $M=3.8$, $SD=.67$, respectively. Like practicality and validity, most of the respondents (on average,

54.7%) 'agreed' that the instrument was reliable. The item that achieved the highest percentage was item 7 which focused on the clarity of the checklist items. About one in four respondents believed that the checklist aided them to draw a line between the suitable and unsuitable textbooks.

Moreover, transformation of the results into five satisfaction categories demonstrated the respondents' level of satisfaction with the checklist in reference to its reliability. Table 7 summarizes these results.

TABLE 7
Teachers' satisfaction levels in reference to reliability of the checklist

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Moderate	9	11.0	11.0
High	61	74.4	85.4
Very high	12	14.6	100.0

As depicted in Table 7, about three in four teachers (74.4%) were 'highly' satisfied with the reliability of the checklist. The remaining few were either 'moderately' (11%) or 'very highly' (14.6%) satisfied with the reliability of the checklist. This

TABLE 6
Descriptive statistics results of reliability items

	Item6	Item7	Item8	Item9 (reversed)	Item10	Item11
Mean (upon 5)	3.8902	4.1037	3.9146	3.7927	4.2195	3.8049
Std. Deviation	.66678	.63215	.89168	.73262	.60908	.67475
strongly disagree (%)	00	00	00	00	00	00
disagree (%)	1.2	1.2	4.9	4.9	00	1.2
unsure (%)	24.4	11.0	29.3	24.4	9.8	30.5
agree (%)	58.5	63.4	35.4	57.3	58.5	54.9
strongly agree (%)	15.9	24.4	30.5	13.4	31.7	13.4

meant that none of the teachers indicated low levels of satisfaction in relation to the reliability of the instrument. These results confirm the findings of both previous research questions, providing proof for high reliability of the ELT Textbook Evaluation Checklist. Table 8 presents a summary of the results for each component of checklist usefulness.

Table 8 illustrates that the means reported for each component were equal to or more than 4. This suggests that, on average, the teachers 'agreed' that the checklist has 'impact and practicality', 'validity', and 'reliability'. Furthermore, the respondents' overall satisfaction of the checklist in reference to its usefulness is presented in Table 9.

Overall, most of the teachers (78%) considered the checklist as a 'highly' useful instrument for evaluating the suitability of English language teaching textbooks. Some (12.2%) indicated that its usefulness was 'very high', while a minority (9.8%) regarded its usefulness as just 'moderate'.

As it is evident from the findings presented so far, the teachers had a positive attitude towards the checklist, but still there were a few of them who regarded it to be moderately useful. The open-ended question

at the end of the questionnaire gave a chance for these respondents to provide useful feedback for the developers to further refine the checklist. The next section presents the results of this open-ended question.

TABLE 9
Teachers' perceptions towards the usefulness of the checklist

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Moderate	8	9.8	9.8
High	64	78.0	87.8
Very high	10	12.2	100.0

Qualitative Findings

This section presents the findings of the final research question. The teachers were asked whether they had any recommendations for further improvement of the checklist. As it was expected, only a few of the respondents (about 10%) responded to the open-ended question at the end of the questionnaire.

There was a comment on the order of the evaluative criteria in the checklist. One of the teachers recommended moving the items on language skills to the beginning of the checklist. The order in which the domains of an instrument appear can indicate their importance. This teacher believes that

TABLE 8
Descriptive statistics results for the checklist usefulness (n=82)

	Impact and Practicality categories	Validity categories	Reliability categories	Total
Mean (upon 5)	4.0732	4.0000	4.0366	4.0244
Std. Deviation	.51593	.52116	.50784	.47077
Minimum	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00
Maximum	5.00	5.00	5.00	5.00

language skills are very important and that they should be emphasized over other criteria. Our previous findings, however, showed that almost all the evaluative criteria in the checklist have an equal level of importance (Mukundan & Nimehchisalem, 2012). This comment was, therefore, overlooked.

There were quite a number of comments on adding certain components of language teaching to the checklist. One of the respondents mentioned that the notion of style should be considered in language textbook evaluation. Similarly, another respondent pointed out the formal and informal varieties of language. One of the respondents pointed out the importance of various skills, including problem-solving, note-taking, reporting, summarizing, and the like. In addition, another respondent recommended adding an item on creativity, like ‘Do the tasks stimulate students’ creativity and imagination?’ There was also a comment on adding another item to the listening section which would focus on the presentation of the various English accents in the listening section. A respondent suggested adding a qualitative part to the checklist. Finally, there was a comment on the flexibility of the checklist. As one of the teachers recommended, “The checklist should be more flexible and allow the teachers to skip some sections that may not be relevant to their teaching context”. There are textbook evaluation checklists that allow for disregarding certain items that may turn out irrelevant to particular situations. Skierso (1991) did so by adding

a column called ‘not applicable’ to the front of each item. If the evaluator finds the items irrelevant to his/her present context, he/she may just ignore it.

In addition to the comments for moving or adding more items, there were also recommendations on rewording some of the items. As one of the respondents suggested, items like ‘It is compatible to students’ background knowledge and level’ could be reworded as ‘It is compatible to the background knowledge and level of your students’. The respondent explained that this would urge the evaluators to examine the textbook in reference to their present setting. In this way, the checklist would encourage the evaluator to focus on her/his own learners. Another respondent considered the first item in the checklist; that is, ‘The textbook matched the specifications of the syllabus’ too broad and, therefore, a bit vague. Two of the respondents assumed that the items had to be worded more simply to make it easier to comprehend them.

DISCUSSION

Based on the results of the quantitative data analysis, it was concluded that the respondents regarded the checklist as a useful instrument. The findings thus provide some evidence on the impact and practicality, validity, as well as reliability of the checklist. However, before the checklist could be used confidently by researchers and language teachers as a valid and reliable instrument further research seemed necessary on a panel of experts evaluation of its validity and practicality.

The recommendations made by some of the respondents in response to the final research question would help the researchers make the checklist more comprehensive and precise. This would increase the validity and reliability of the instrument. The idea of making the checklist more flexible, for example, sounded very important. Indeed, the researchers considered adding a line to the instructions to allow the evaluator to ignore some of the items. This would, however, make the checklist complicated like Skierso's checklist. When an instrument is too complicated, it is not practical. What the present researchers assumed more important, therefore, was the practicality and economy of the checklist. As mentioned before, there was a suggestion for adding a qualitative part to the checklist. Open-ended questions would definitely result in richer and more in-depth evaluations of textbooks. Novice evaluators would, however, find it hard to work with them as it is quite difficult to interpret the responses to qualitative checklists. Such comments were, therefore, ignored since it would affect the practicality of the checklist.

There were recommendations for adding skills like problem-solving, note-taking, reporting, and the like. This comment alone would add a minimum of four items to the

checklist. Not to mention that adding such evaluative criteria to the checklist would result in unfair evaluations of elementary level textbooks that rarely emphasize such skills. This argument sounds true for the comment on adding an item on the presentation of the various English accents. Such an item sounds more appropriate for advanced level textbooks. Indeed, in particular occasions, certain English accents may be preferred to others considering the learners' needs. It would be, therefore, unfair to rate a textbook that presents various accents higher than one that does not.

Apart from the issue of practicality, adding any new item to the instrument would lengthen the checklist and reduce its economy. The longer the checklist, the more costly its use and administration will be. Also, it usually takes a considerable amount of time to evaluate textbooks using long checklists. Mukundan and Ahour (2010), in their extensive review of textbook evaluation checklists, compared the number of tokens (that is, the total number of words) in each checklist. Table 10 shows the number of running words in the three shortest and the three longest checklists reviewed by Mukundan and Ahour (2010).

The number of running words in our checklist was 361; that is, about 3 times

TABLE 10
Running words in some textbook evaluation checklists

Shortest checklists		Longest checklists	
Checklist	Running words	Checklist	Running words
Tucker (1978)	113	Rivers (1981)	1981
Ur (1996)	126	Litz (2005)	2534
Byrd <i>et al.</i> (2001)	163	Skierso (1991)	4553

longer than the shortest (i.e., Tucker, 1978), and yet, more than 12 times shorter than the longest checklist (that is, Skierso, 1991). The ELT Textbook Evaluation Checklist, therefore, can be regarded as one of the most economical checklists.

CONCLUSION

The objective of this research was to survey a group of English language teachers' views on the usefulness of a newly developed textbook evaluation instrument called the ELT Textbook Evaluation Checklist. As indicated by the results, the respondents generally agreed that the checklist is a useful instrument. Furthermore, the respondents also made comments on how the checklist could be improved. Some of these comments were implemented in the checklist. It is expected that the instrument can help language teachers and researchers in evaluating the suitability of English language teaching textbooks.

In this study, a questionnaire was used to evaluate the usefulness of the developed checklist. Researchers and instrument developers can adapt this questionnaire to elicit experts' feedback on similar instruments. The questionnaire is based on Bachman's and Palmers' concept of test usefulness, and therefore, has a sound theoretical foundation. The unique feature of this questionnaire is its economy. It only has 13 items. Additionally, its reverse items help the researcher eliminate the questionnaires that have not been honestly attended to. A final merit of this instrument is the open-

ended question at the end which helps the researcher to find out an in-depth account of what some evaluators' real judgment.

One of the main limitations of this study is that it only considers the views and perceptions of a group of English language teachers. Another study that focuses on a panel of experts' evaluation of the checklist can provide more precise and reliable account of its usefulness. Further research is also required to test the concurrent validity of the checklist in reference to well-established instruments in the area. Furthermore, the economy of the instrument can be compared with that of other similar instruments by having the same teachers use different checklists for evaluating the same textbook.

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APPENDIX A

ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING TEXTBOOK EVALUATION CHECKLIST

Evaluator:

Teaching experience: (years)

INSTRUCTIONS

Read the items in the checklist and in the column opposite the items indicate the level to which they agree with each statement by marking 0 to 4:

0 = NEVER TRUE

1 = RARELY TRUE

2 = SOMETIMES TRUE

3 = OFTEN TRUE

4 = ALWAYS TRUE

I. General attributes	
A. The book in relation to syllabus and curriculum	
1. It matches to the specifications of the syllabus.	① ① ② ③ ④
B. Methodology	
2. The activities can be exploited fully and can embrace the various methodologies in ELT.	① ① ② ③ ④
3. Activities can work well with methodologies in ELT.	① ① ② ③ ④
C. Suitability to learners	
4. It is compatible to background knowledge and level of students.	① ① ② ③ ④
5. It is compatible to the socio-economic context.	① ① ② ③ ④
6. It is culturally accessible to the learners.	① ① ② ③ ④
7. It is compatible to the needs of the learners.	① ① ② ③ ④
D. Physical and utilitarian attributes	
8. Its layout is attractive.	① ① ② ③ ④
9. It indicates efficient use of text and visuals.	① ① ② ③ ④
10. It is durable.	① ① ② ③ ④
11. It is cost-effective.	① ① ② ③ ④
12. Its size is appropriate.	① ① ② ③ ④
13. The printing quality is high.	① ① ② ③ ④

E. Efficient outlay of supplementary materials					
14. The book is supported efficiently by essentials like audio-materials.	①	①	②	③	④
15. There is a teacher's guide to aid the teacher.	①	①	②	③	④
II. Learning-teaching content					
A. General					
16. Tasks move from simple to complex.	①	①	②	③	④
17. Task objectives are achievable.	①	①	②	③	④
18. Cultural sensitivities have been considered.	①	①	②	③	④
19. The language in the textbook is natural and real.	①	①	②	③	④
20. The situations created in the dialogues sound natural and real.	①	①	②	③	④
21. The material is up-to-date.	①	①	②	③	④
22. It covers a variety of topics from different fields.	①	①	②	③	④
23. The book contains fun elements.	①	①	②	③	④
B. Listening					
24. The book has appropriate listening tasks with well-defined goals.	①	①	②	③	④
25. Instructions are clear.	①	①	②	③	④
26. Tasks are efficiently graded according to complexity.	①	①	②	③	④
27. Tasks are authentic or close to real language situations.	①	①	②	③	④
C. Speaking					
28. Activities are developed to initiate meaningful communication.	①	①	②	③	④
29. Activities are balanced between individual response, pair work and group work.	①	①	②	③	④
30. Activities motivate students to talk.	①	①	②	③	④
D. Reading					
31. Texts are graded.	①	①	②	③	④
32. Length is appropriate.	①	①	②	③	④
33. Texts are interesting.	①	①	②	③	④
E. Writing					
34. Tasks have achievable goals and take into consideration learner capabilities.	①	①	②	③	④
35. Models are provided for different genres.	①	①	②	③	④
36. Tasks are interesting.	①	①	②	③	④

<p>F. Vocabulary</p> <p>37. The load (number of new words in each lesson) is appropriate to the level.</p> <p>38. There is a good distribution (simple to complex) of vocabulary load across chapters and the whole book.</p> <p>39. Words are efficiently repeated and recycled across the book.</p> <p>40. Words are contextualized.</p>	<p>① ① ② ③ ④</p> <p>① ① ② ③ ④</p> <p>① ① ② ③ ④</p> <p>① ① ② ③ ④</p>
<p>G. Grammar</p> <p>41. The spread of grammar is achievable.</p> <p>42. The grammar is contextualized.</p> <p>43. Examples are interesting.</p> <p>44. Grammar is introduced explicitly.</p> <p>45. Grammar is reworked implicitly throughout the book.</p>	<p>① ① ② ③ ④</p> <p>① ① ② ③ ④</p> <p>① ① ② ③ ④</p> <p>① ① ② ③ ④</p> <p>① ① ② ③ ④</p>
<p>H. Pronunciation</p> <p>46. It is contextualized.</p> <p>47. It is easy to learn.</p>	<p>① ① ② ③ ④</p> <p>① ① ② ③ ④</p>
<p>I. Exercises</p> <p>48. They have clear instructions.</p> <p>49. They are adequate.</p> <p>50. They help students who are under/over-achievers.</p>	<p>① ① ② ③ ④</p> <p>① ① ② ③ ④</p> <p>① ① ② ③ ④</p>

APPENDIX B

ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING TEXTBOOK EVALUATION CHECKLIST EVALUATION QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire has been developed to evaluate the English Language Teaching Textbook Evaluation Checklist based on your judgment of its quality. As an evaluator who used the checklist, you are kindly requested to mark the spaces in front of the statements below that best describe your evaluation of the checklist according to the key provided below:

1. Strongly disagree
2. Disagree
3. Neither agree nor disagree
4. Agree
5. Strongly agree

You are also requested to provide answers for question 14.

Item	1	2	3	4	5	Comments
1. I found it easy to work with the checklist.						
2. It is tiring to evaluate textbooks using the checklist.						
3. I will use this checklist to evaluate the textbooks that I use in my own classes.						
4. I recommend using this checklist to my colleagues.						
5. The checklist fully covers the aspects of textbook evaluation construct.						
6. I find my personal judgment of the textbook in line with the score assigned by the checklist.						
7. The checklist helped me draw a clear line between the books that seemed to be of different qualities.						
8. All the terms in the checklist are clear and easy to understand.						
9. Some items are vague.						
10. Overall, I find the checklist a reliable instrument.						
11. The items have been arranged according to their importance OR have been weighted.						
12. There are certain important dimensions in textbook evaluation that are missing in the checklist.						
13. Overall, I am satisfied with this checklist.						
14. What changes do you think can be made on the checklist to improve it?						
Total: /65						

Thank you very much for your cooperation.



Genre Analysis of the Literature Review Section in Hospitality and Management Research Articles

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ABSTRACT

Writing an effective literature review is not an easy task for novice writers of research articles, who are oftentimes unaware of the exact functions and purpose of this section; they are often unsuccessful in establishing the necessary connection between what has already been reviewed and the proposed research. This paper discusses the rhetorical patterns of the literature review (LR) section of Hospitality and Management (HM) research articles (RAs) from the perspective of genre analysis using the move structures as posited by Swales (2004). Twenty literature reviews from research articles in the Hospitality and Management discipline were analyzed to determine the move structure of the LR section. A moves analysis was carried out to identify the main moves and steps in the LR section. The analysis indicates that the LR sections display cyclical move patterns that show the presence of the 3 moves and their respective steps as postulated in Swales (2004) revised CARS model, but with some variations. The findings show that the LR section has Move 1 as an obligatory step and that HM RA writers favour making general statements about current situations as a beginning strategy. The findings further show that Move 2 Step 1B, 'Adding to what is known', is prevalent in the LR section because the writers will go on to contribute to the existing field of research by adding other research findings that are deemed necessary. Another outcome is that only Move 3-Step 1 is prevalent while the other 6 steps are either not found at all or are present in only a few of the samples.

Keywords: Writing, literature review, research articles, genre analysis

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INTRODUCTION

The genre analysis approach has been used as a framework for analyzing non-

literary texts in diverse scholarly domains such as linguistics, rhetoric, and English for Specific Purposes (ESP), to name a few. Furthermore, genre analysis has been used as a tool for developing educational practices, specifically in the area of writing (Hyon, 1995). Hyon (1995) states that genre theory has developed in three considerably different schools of thought, namely, the North American New Rhetoric studies (e.g. Miller, 1984; Berkenkotter and Huckin, 1993), Australian Systemic Functional Linguistics (Martin, 1992; Halliday & Hassan, 1985) and English for Specific Purposes (e.g. Swales, 1990, Bhatia, 1993; Dudley-Evans, 1994).

Swales' (1981b, 1990, 2004) formalistic approach to genre was both influenced by Hymes' linguistic approach to 'natural' speech events and Millers' rhetorical approach, which focused on 'formal' speech events. Swales expanded the area of genre studies by paying attention to written scientific discourse. As a formalist, his attention is focused on the physical attributes and properties of a genre. He argues that many of the guidelines on teaching students to write in the academic, professional and scientific fields are much too general to be effective for the reason that they do not take the specific genre, audience and context into consideration (Swales, 1981b, 1990, and 2004). Hence, Swales defines genre as a "recognizable communicative event characterized by a set of communicative purpose(s) identified and mutually understood by members of the professional or academic community

in which it regularly occurs". Swales (1990) contends that these communicative events and purpose(s), for which the text was initially written, shape the genre and give it an internal structure; that is to say, they determine the choice of linguistic styles as well as that of the text structure. Furthermore, the knowledge of the internal structure of the genre is acquired by specialist members of a specific professional or academic community from their extensive experience and arduous training within that specialist community (Swales, 1990). Accordingly, Swales developed a framework for analyzing the written genres of research articles' (RA) introductions based on those approaches. The fundamental nature of Swales' (2004) framework, which is called Create a Research Space (CARS) model and is used for introductions in RAs, was adopted and adapted from his earlier models.

Writing the literature review (LRs) is invariably a laborious task, inasmuch as the first and foremost priority is to understand the functions and features of a literature review (Paltridge, 2002), or employ similarities that are either multifaceted (Krathwohl and Smith, 2005) or that have a tendency to be culturally-specific to users of English as a first language (Kamler and Thomson, 2006). Only recently has the discussion of LRs in thesis or thesis-related documents begun to appear (Kwan, 2006). Hart (1998, 2001) defines the LR as both an argumentation for a student's research and as part of the practice whereby he/she learns about his/her topic as well as the field (Kwan, 2006). Bruce (1994) carried out a study of how

students understood the notion of LR and discovered that, in general, it was conceived to be both a product (a written report of LR) and a process (reading and learning) through which one gains an understanding of the topic as well as insights into research facilitation. According to Yang and Zequan (2003), there are also cases whereby the literature reviews are written as historical narratives, devoid of critical comments from the authors. The literature review should 'make critical compilations of studies done previously', 'make a critical valuation of the literature that was studied' (Kramer *et al.*, 1995) and 'progress by having a critical attitude'. In order to successfully carry out a critical analysis, researchers pay significant attention to the importance of writing an argument in a literature review, which should 'put forward arguments and counter-arguments' (Cryer, 1996), 'present a clear argument' (Hitchcock 1996), and present 'reference to studies that support the current argument,' (Locke *et al.*, 1997).

In spite of the number of studies that have been carried out, research on the LRs in RAs remains underexplored (Kwan, 2006). This is the first study for the LR sections in RAs in Hospitality and Management (HM) using Swales' 2004 CARS model, which, as of yet, has not come to the foreground of public knowledge. Previous studies have used Swales' 1990 model. This study is novel in that it applies the 2004 model to an unexplored area in HM RAs LR sections. Therefore, this paper will focus on and explore the terrain of the LR sections in HM RAs. An important aim of this paper

is to describe the genre of RAs in HM through their rhetorical strategies in order to provide a detailed analysis. This paper will reveal the rhetorical strategies employed in writing the literature review section as well as describe how, and in which ways, its practices and textualization remain distinctive, with the primary aim being to contribute to the rhetorical understanding of this text as a distinctive genre. Since introductions in RAs and LRs share similar rhetorical purposes, it is possible that the two part-genres display similar rhetorical structures and propositional contents. As such, the researchers have argued for the use of the CARS model (Swales, 2004) to examine the moves of the LRs in HM RAs.

SWALES REVISED CARS MODEL (2004)

The main conceptual framework for this paper is developed from Swales' (2004) CARS Model concept of moves (See Fig.1). In this paper, the rhetorical structures or features refers to the organization of ideas in a specific text or a part thereof, along with the textual features of the text based on an analysis of the semantic or communicative components of the text. Coulthard and Brazil (1979) suggest that there are two important characteristics of a unit analysis to consider in discourse analytic studies, i.e. '...what position or purpose it has in the organization of other larger units and what its own internal structure is' (p.7). In this paper, the semantic unit of a text in the data analysis is called a Move. A Move may consist of one or more consequent

features called Steps. Therefore, the internal structure of a particular Move is made up of different types of Steps together with their position, their communicative functions and their sequence. Hence, using Swales revised CARS Model (2004) as shown in Fig.1, the analysis of the schematic structures of the LR section identified in this paper can provide a useful reference for students and novice writers of HM RAs on how to organize and develop arguments in their LRs.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

This study is based on genre analysis, with the samples studied being 20 RAs from the Journal of Hospitality and Management published between the years 2004 - 2006.

The history of this journal provides a necessary backdrop to this study by yielding insights of the writing conventions that explicate the social interactions within the HM discourse community.

The International Journal of Hospitality and Management discusses the main trends and developments in various disciplines as they relate to the hospitality industry. The variety of topics covered by the journal includes the following: human resources management; consumer behaviour and marketing; business forecasting and applied economics; operational management; financial management; planning and design; information processing; education and training; technological developments; national and international legislation. The

Move 1	Establishing a territory (citation required) via Topic generalizations of increasing specificity
Move 2	Establishing a niche (citations possible) via Step 1A: Indicating a gap or Step 1B: Adding to what is known Step 2 : Presenting positive justifications (optional)
Move 3	Presenting the present work (citations possible) via Step 1 : (obligatory) Announcing present research descriptively and/or purposively (obligatory) Step 2*: (optional) Presenting research questions or hypotheses Step 3 : (optional) Definitional clarifications Step 4 : (optional) Summarizing methods Step 5 : (PISF**) Announcing principal outcomes Step 6 : (PISF) Stating the value of the present research Step 7 : (PISF) Outlining the structure of the paper

*Steps 2-4 are not only optional but less fixed in their order of occurrence than the others

**PISF: Probable in some fields, but unlikely in others

Fig.1: Swales' Revised CARS model (Swales, 2004, p. 230, 232)

journal also comprises research papers, up-to-date evaluations and analyses of business practice within the industry.

The journal's publishing company is Elsevier, a global scientific publishing company with its headquarters in Amsterdam. Elsevier depends on effective peer review processes to maintain not only the quality and validity of individual articles, but also the total reliability of the journals that they publish. The journal is an established refereed journal in the field of management, is easily accessible and is published 4 times a year. Each published journal consists of about 18 reviewed articles. In this paper, articles were randomly selected from the journal but with demarcations of the literature review sections clearly stated. Swales (1990) notes that shorter and longer introductions may have differing characteristic features; hence the corpora was compiled to include texts of various lengths in order to ensure that generalizations were made on the basis of texts of varying lengths. The main criteria used in the identification of the sources of the texts were reputation, representativity and accessibility (Nwogu, 1990).

1. Reputation. The journals must be highly regarded by members of the professional community as an indication of their representativity of the field.
2. Representativity. This is the second criteria for selecting sources for the data, i.e., texts must be a reliable sample of authentic discourse of the three disciplinary communities in terms of variety (Motta-Roth, 1995). Sources

must present reliable variation so that generalizations can be made about the entire genre of LR sections without the risk of drawing generalizations about a specific style adopted by one given journal.

3. Accessibility. Accessibility refers to the ease with which texts in the corpus can be achieved, not to the amount of knowledge which the researcher has about the content of discourse in the texts that are analysed (De Mello, 2011, p.108-109).

Therefore, the sources and the texts were carefully chosen to ensure that a typical sample of the exact regularity of the language used by members of the academic profession was obtained (De Mello & Rafik-Galea, 2009, p.31). The size of the corpus is based on Sankoff's (1972) stipulation of 20 being the minimum sample that is representative of the whole in studies of complex speech communities (Stubbs, 1987, p. 223). Ozturk (2007) had a corpus of 10 research articles taken from the Journal of Second Language Writing for his study on the textual organization of RA introductions in applied linguistics. Another study on RA introductions in ESP that shows a contrast between Brazilian Portuguese and English that was carried out by Hirano (2009) made use of 20 RAs as her corpus. Thus, the 20 articles in the corpus for this paper are considered large enough to allow the purpose of a convincing degree of reliability in the presence of recurrent patterns in the structure of the literature review section of

the journal. It was also necessary to present an unbiased, objective and representative sample by extracting articles from different issues rather than the same ones (Simons, 1978).

This paper followed closely the genre analysis method for analyzing the LR section of the HM RAs, as it offers “an understanding and copious description of academic and professional texts” besides being a powerful device for determining form-function relationships (Bhatia, 1993, p. 11). The notion of move that was used was developed by the Swales (2004) model which is shown in Fig.1. The model in Fig.1 was used as the instrument to identify the moves and sub-moves within the literature review section of the HM RAs.

The corpus of 20 RAs from the HM discipline was first analysed to determine

the move structure of the LR section and the constituting elements within these moves. Then, the entire structure of the RAs and the detailed structure of the various sections within these RAs were analysed. As mentioned earlier, the shortage of unambiguous rules for decisions on move boundaries calls for partiality of judgment. As such, decisions in this study regarding the classification of moves were based on Swales (2004) observation that a “move in genre analysis is a discoursal or rhetorical unit that performs a coherent communicative function in a written or spoken discourse. Although it has sometimes been aligned with a grammatical unit such as a sentence, utterance or paragraph, it is better seen as flexible in terms of its linguistic realization. At one extreme, it can be realized by a clause, at the other, by several sentences. It

TABLE 1
Coding Scheme for the LR sections based on Swales's (2004) revised CARS model

Move Step	HMLR RAs
Introduction	
Move 1: Establishing a territory <i>Topic generalization of increasing specificity</i>	M1
Move 2: Establishing a niche (citations possible) <i>Step 1A Indicating a gap</i> or <i>Step 1B : Adding to what is known</i> <i>Step 2 : Presenting positive justification</i>	M2 M2 S1A M2 S1B M2 S2
Move 3: Presenting the present work (citations possible) <i>Step 1: Announcing present research descriptively and/or purposively</i> <i>Step 2: Presenting RQs and hypothesis</i> <i>Step 3: Definitional clarifications</i> <i>Step 4: Summarizing methods</i> <i>Step 5: Announcing principal outcomes</i> <i>Step 6: Stating the value of the present research</i> <i>Step 7: Outlining the structure of the paper</i>	M3 M3 S1 M3 S2 M3 S3 M3 S4 M3 S5 M3 S6 M3 S7

is a functional not a formal unit” (p. 228-229). Such decisions, therefore, were made based on the root of linguistic evidence and understanding of a text. Subsequently, the LR section of the RAs were first copied and pasted onto separate files to provide a sub corpus containing the LR to be analysed. The moves were identified and then labeled at the beginning of each sentence. The coding system and abbreviations used in the analysis and the discussion of the analysis are as follows:

CODING SCHEME FOR LITERATURE REVIEW SECTIONS

The coding scheme used for the LR sections is Swales’s (2004) revised CARS model as shown in table 1.

A sample of an LR section which illustrates how the move analysis was conducted on the HM Literature Review RAs using the coding scheme is provided in Appendix A.

The analysis of the HMLR 1 consists of 1365 words in 37 sentences within 10 paragraphs. The following move structure was identified: M1 – M2s 1A – M1 – M3s4. The occurrences of individual moves in the LR sections were noted to regulate if a particular move occurred regularly to be considered obligatory. As mentioned earlier for the introduction section, to be obligatory, it was arbitrarily set that the cut-off frequency of 60% was the probable measure of move stability for any move proposed in the study (Kanoksilapatham, 2007). For a move to be accepted as a conventional or obligatory move, it must

take place in 60% of the corpus of the HM RA LR sections. If the frequency of the move appears in less than 60% of the corpus, the move is considered optional.

In the HM LR1 example (See Appendix A), the following move structure was identified: M1 – M2s1A – M1 – M3s4. This move shall be elucidated below.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

The following analysis and discussion involves the rhetorical structure of the move analysis in the LR sections of HM RAs.

Table 2 shows the occurrence of moves in the RA LR sections of the HM journal articles. The strokes/slash (/) shows the frequency of the moves found in each of the 20 samples in the corpus. The sample of the corpus studied are coded HM LR 1 to 20 using Swales’s (2004) revised CARS model. Based on Table 2, S1A denotes Step 1A. Indicating a gap, S1B denotes Step 1B. Adding to what is known, S2 denotes Step 2 presenting positive justification and S1-S7 denotes Step 1 – Step 7 presenting the present work (citations possible) .

Fig.2 shows the total number of moves in the LR section of HM RAs based on the presence of moves found in Table 2. A more elaborate explanation of each of the moves present in the HM RA LR section is discussed below.

Move 1: Establishing a territory via topic generalizations

Table 2 and Fig.2 show that Move 1 in the LR section is found in all 20 of the RAs (100%). Move 1, ‘establishing a territory,’

TABLE 2
Presence of Moves in the LR Section of HM articles

LITERATURE REVIEW (LR)											
SAMPLE	MOVE 1	MOVE 2			MOVE 3						
		S1A	S1B	S2	S1	S2	S3	S4	S5	S6	S7
HM LR1	//					//					
HM LR2	//////	/		/	/	/	//			//	
HM LR3	/										
HM LR4	////	/			/	/	/			//	
HM LR5	//	/				/		/		/	
HM LR6	//	/			/			/		/	
HM LR7	//					/				/	
HM LR8	////	/			/			/		/	
HM LR9	/				/	/					
HM LR10	/	/								//	
HM LR11	//	//		/	/	/					
HM LR12	///	/			/	/				//	
HM LR13	/	/			/			/			
HM LR14	/					/				/	
HM LR15	/	/			/						
HM LR16	/					/				/	
HM LR17	/	/			/	//				/	
HM LR18	///	/				///					
HM LR19	///				/	/		/		/	
HM LR20	/	/			/						
TOTAL											
No.of articles	20	13	0	2	12	13	3	5	0	12	0
Occurrences	42	14	0	2	12	17	3	5	0	16	0
%	100%	65%	0%	10%	60%	65	15	25	0%	60%	0%

Source: De Mello and Rafik-Galea (2009)

contextualizes a research study being presented within the scope of its relevant literature. The excerpts below clearly show that, as the discussion progresses, the level of specificity increases. Due to the fact that a high number of LR sections of the HM RAs contain Move 1, this move is considered obligatory. Excerpts with the presence of Move 1 are shown below, with (R) being

used to represent citations.

Excerpt 1(HMLR 1)

“...The TPB (R) is a cognitive model of human behavior; ... According to (R), the principal predictor of behavior is intention. ...” (Cheng, Lam and Hsu, 2005,p.477)

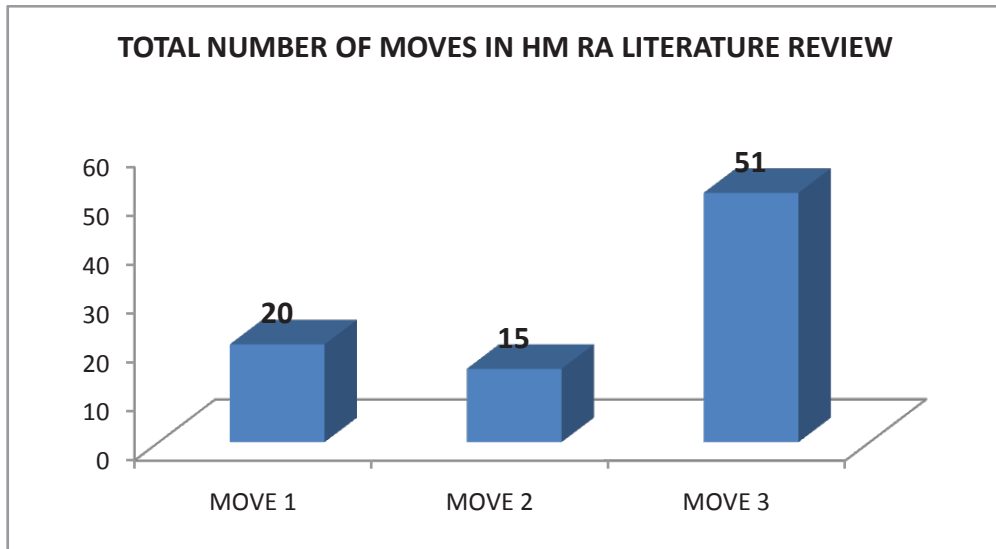


Fig.2: The total number of moves in LR sections of HM RAs

Excerpt 2(HMLR 2)

“... According to (R), “Purchasing products and services account for more than 60% of the ...” (Kothari, Hu and Roehl, 2005,p. 369)

Move 2: Establishing a niche (citations possible) via Step 1A (Indicating a Gap)

In accordance with Swales (2004), Move 2 in RAs constitutes the author’s attempt to establish a niche for his or her own work. This move is realised in a series of evaluative statements made about the state of art related in Move 1. Most evaluations related in the move tend to be negative and are thus signaled by adversative discourse markers such as ‘however’, ‘nevertheless’, ‘yet’, ‘but’, ‘despite’ and ‘even though’. In our corpus, Move 2 is present in 13 out of the 20 (65%) LR sections of the HM articles. So the frequency of Move 2: Step 1A is an

obligatory move since its occurrence is more than the 60% of the cut off mark.

The semantic features employed to identify gap-indicating follow what has been exemplified in most studies and include the following items;

- Scarcity or paucity of research, realized in such expressions as ‘little empirical research’ and ‘few studies’;
- Scarcity or paucity of knowledge, realized in such expressions as ‘little is known’ and ‘not much is known’
- Needs for actions, realized in such expressions as ‘there is a need’, ‘research into X is valuable’ or ‘it is worthwhile to ...’

These can be seen in the following excerpts.

Excerpt 6 (HMLR 5)

“... Despite the literature, there is still much confusion about what is and what is not PBL. In the 1960s, the McMaster Medical School introduced a learning environment that was a combination of small groups, cooperative, self-directed, interdependent, self-assessed PBL. Since then, this approach has been called PBL...” (Kivela, 2005, pp.437-464)

Excerpt 7(HMLR 6)

“... Even though the impact of culture on consumers’ decision-making processes has been extensively studied, the impact of national culture on travelers’ information search behavior has not been given much attention by tourism researchers. Only a few studies examined the impact of national culture on travelers’ external information search behavior...” (Gursoy & Umbreit, 2004,pp.55-70)

Move 2: Step 1B (Adding to What is Known)

None of the 20 LR sections of the HM articles contain this move. Move 2 step 1B is not needed at all for the LR section of HM RAs.

Step 2: Presenting positive justifications (optional)

Only 2 LR sections of the HM articles out of the 20 (10%) contain this move. This move is said to be optional since it has not met the cut-off mark of 60% and is therefore not a must for the writers of HM RAs to include in their writing. These are shown in the excerpts below.

Excerpt 11(HMLR 12)

“... Similarly, with hospitality acquisition announcements outside investors and market makers rarely know if good or poor prospects exist for the combined firms, but managers in acquiring firms may have this information. In the case that hospitality managers perceive poor prospects for their firms, the managers and other informed traders can use their private information to sell their firms’ shares on their personal account and this trading can lessen the market value of their firms for outside investors and adversely affect market makers in the stock...” (Oak & Andrew, 2006, pp.570-585)

Excerpt 12 (HMLR 14)

“... However, although these findings concern management accountants in general, some evidence that this shift in job content relates to on-property controllers can be found in published articles

by qualified accountants who subsequently became CEO's. Crescenzi and Kocher (1984), Pipkin (1989), Runk and Loretta (1989), Hamilton-Harding (1990) and Ross (1990) give their predictions on the likely job content of the 21st century management accountant..." (Gibson, 2004, pp. 485-503)

Move 3: Introducing the Present Work

Step 1: Announcing present research descriptively and/or purposively.

Based on the study, 11 out of the 20 (55%) samples carry statements announcing the targets of investigation by relating the aims of investigation, research questions to answer, or hypotheses to test. However, its frequency does not meet the cut off mark of 60% and is therefore only an optional move and not obligatory for the LR section of the HM RAs. Excerpts from the HM RA LR are shown below.

Excerpt 13(HM LR 1)

" ... In this study, the three customer complaining behaviors of voice, negative word-of-mouth communication, and exit were analyzed ..." (Cheng, Lam and Hsu, 2005, p.477)

Excerpt 14 (HMLR 8)

" ... In this study we will apply this approach to the performance of

slot machines within a casino..."
(Lucas, et al, 2004,p. 103)

Move 3 Step 2: Presenting research questions or hypotheses (optional)

The writers may move on to the present research by stating the research objectives and describing the steps taken in the research being reported. They may also formulate a hypothesis to signal that a new attempt is being made to investigate an issue or a problem in the research. The aim or goal of a study in the HM LR corpora can be formulated as research questions or hypotheses as illustrated by the excerpts below.

Excerpt 18(HMLR 8)

" ... The following hypothesis (H1) and sub-hypotheses (H1a, H1b, and H1c) were developed. There are significant positive relationships between past behavior and behavioral intentions of engaging in voice (H1a), negative word-of-mouth communication (H1b), and exit (H1c). All resulting hypotheses are stated in the null form, where B represents the beta or derived regression coefficient for each independent variable. For example, if theory suggested a positive relationship between a predictor variable and the criterion variable, the null hypothesis would test the following condition: $B_{\text{predictor}} \leq 0$" (Lucas, et al., 2004, p.103)

Excerpt 19(HMLR9)

“ ... Relating to the primary objective of this research, then, which is to test empirically how positive and negative feedback affects managers’ self-efficacy using a field study, the corresponding hypotheses are... ” (Reynolds, 2006, p.54)

Move 3 Step 3: Definitional clarifications (optional)

Although optional, this move was found in 5 out of the 20 samples (25%) of the HMLR section. The main aim of this move is to provide further definitions and clarifications as to the importance of the study. The findings show that writers of HMLRAs need not mention Move 3 Step 3 in the LR section. Excerpts with Move 3 Step 3 are shown below.

Excerpt 21 (HMLR 13)

“ ... This study discusses best practices hotels use in survey design, including intent, clarity, scaling, and validity, as well as the methodological issues of timing, question order, and sample size... ” (Su, 2004, p.397)

Excerpt 22(HMLR 19)

“ ... According to NRA’s 1998 quick-service operator survey, four types of rewards such as pay raises, promotions, bonuses, and

profit sharing had positive impacts on lowering turnover rates (Ebbin, 1999)... ” (Cho, et al., 2006,p.262)

Move 3 Step 4: Summarising methods

Elaboration of the research design or methodological considerations was also observed in some of the instances of Move 3. In HMLR, this move only occurs in 3 out of the 20 samples (15%). Interestingly, this shows that the use of this step would most likely be optional. Writers of the HMLRAs are not obligated to include this step in the literature review. Excerpts from the RAs that have Move 3 Step 4 are shown in the excerpts below.

Excerpt 24 (HMLR 13)

“ ... This study adopts content analysis by utilizing comparison and recording of GCCs based on Gilbert–Hornell GCC checklist criterion, in order to examine the guest comment card design and policy in Taiwan’s international tourist hotels... ” (Su, 2004,p.398)

Excerpt 25(HMLR 19)

“ ... This study also employed turnover rate to investigate whether HRM practices took effect in the hotel and restaurant industries... ” (Cho et al., 2006, p.262).

Move 3 Step 5: Announcing principal outcomes (PISF)

The realization of Move 3- Step 5 was not found in any of the 20 HM LR sections of the research article. This finding suggests that, particularly in the HM corpus, announcing principal outcomes does not occur in the LR section. HM authors need not announce principal outcomes in the LR section. Move 3 Step 5 is most likely to appear in the results section of an RA.

Move 3 Step 6: Stating the present research (PISF)

This step goes beyond the objective results produced by the study, highlighting the contribution of the knowledge gained from the particular study (e.g. breaks new ground),

Move 3 Step 6 is not an obligatory move for the LR section. It occurs in only 30% of the corpus. Excerpts from the RAs are shown below.

Excerpt 27 (HMLR 2)

Therefore, this study was conducted to assist the hotel companies to decipher the need to put technology to work for them. In doing so, the authors investigated their purchasing process and examined the need for the hotels to work more closely with their vendors to streamline the supply chain and improve the bottom line ...” (Kothari, Hu & Roehl, 2005, p. 370)

Excerpt 28 (HMLR 5)

“ ... the embedded-PBL methodology gave students the opportunity to learn about “Introduction to Food Production” (IFP) and “Food and Beverage Operations Project” (F&B Ops) by confronting problem narratives...” (Gursoy & Umbreit, 2004, pp.55-70)

Move 3 Step 7: Outlining the structure of the paper (PISF)

The final step outlined in Swales’ (2004) Revised Model, Move 3-Step 7, was found in only 2 (10%) of the HM LR sections and is thus not an obligatory move. According to Swales (2004), this step is only likely to be used in fields that do not use a fixed Introduction-Method-Results-Discussion structure, such as economics and computer science. Excerpts from the RAs are shown below.

Excerpt 29 (HMLR 2)

“ ... Therefore, this study was conducted to assist the hotel companies to decipher the need to put technology to work for them. In doing so, the authors investigated their purchasing process and examined the need for the hotels to work more closely with their vendors to streamline the supply chain and improve the bottom line ...” (Kothari, Hu and Roehl, 2005, p. 369)

Excerpt 30 (HMLR 13)

“... This study discusses best practices hotels use in survey design, including intent, clarity, scaling, and validity, as well as the methodological issues of timing, question order, and sample size ...”
(Su, 2004, p.398)

FREQUENTLY OBSERVED PATTERNS AND ORDER OF MOVES IN HM LR SECTION

The discussion below involves the move patterns and move structure of the RA literature review sections in the HM journals. Fig.3 shows the predictable move patterns in the HM RAs literature review section and Table 3 displays the move structure.

Move 1	Establishing a territory (citation required) via Topic generalizations of increasing specificity	
Move 2	Establishing a niche (citations possible)	1 (5%)
Move 3	Presenting the present work (citations possible)	

Move 1	Establishing a territory (citation required) via Topic generalizations of increasing specificity	
Move 2	Establishing a niche (citations possible)	2 (10%)
Move 2	Establishing a niche (citations possible)	

Move 1	Establishing a territory (citation required) via Topic generalizations of increasing specificity	
Move 3	Presenting the present work (citations possible)	
Move 2	Establishing a niche (citations possible)	2 (10%)

Move 1	Establishing a territory (citation required) via Topic generalizations of increasing specificity	
Move 3	Presenting the present work (citations possible)	
Move 3	Presenting the present work (citations possible)	8 (40%)

Move 1	Establishing a territory (citation required) via Topic generalizations of increasing specificity	2 (10%)

Fig.3: Predictable Move Patterns in HM LR sections

The most frequently observed pattern with the largest number of moves in the 20 HM RAs LR sections was *Move 1* - *Move 3* - *Move 3*. This means that the HM RA LR section begins with *Move 1*, Establishing a territory (citation required) via topic generalizations of increasing specificity, followed by *Move 3*, Presenting the present work and finally *Move 3*, Presenting the present work again. This pattern was found in 8 (40%) of the analysed HM RA LR section samples. This is followed by the pattern *Move 1* (Establishing a territory (citation required) via topic generalizations of increasing specificity) - *Move 2* (Establishing a niche (citations

possible) - *Move 2* (Establishing a niche (citations possible) respectively in 2 (10 %) out of the 20 analysed samples. The pattern involving *Move 1* (Establishing a territory (citation required) via topic generalizations of increasing specificity) - 3 (Presenting the present work) - 2 (Establishing a niche (citations possible) was also found in 2 (10%) out of the 20 analysed samples. The pattern involving only *Move 1* (Establishing a territory (citation required) was found in 2 (10%) of the analysed samples. This finding highlights that, in writing the literature review, the writing pattern based on the 20 analysed samples of HM RAs do not adhere to Swales' (2004) model of the *Move 1*-2-3

TABLE 3
Move Structure in HM RA LR section

RESEARCH ARTICLE	MOVES															NUMBER OF MOVE UNITS
	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	
HM LR 1	1	3			1	2										6
HM LR 2	1	2					2				2					7
HM LR 3	1															1
HM LR 4	1	2	3	1	3	2										6
HM LR 5	1	2	3	1	2	3										6
HM LR 6	1	2	3													3
HM LR 7	1	2	3													3
HM LR 8	1	2	3	2	3											5
HM LR 9	1	2	3													3
HM LR 10	1	3	2	3												4
HM LR 11	1	2	3	2												4
HM LR 12	1	2	3	2	3	2	3	2								8
HM LR 13	1	3	2	3	2	3										6
HM LR 14	1	2														2
HM LR 15	1	2														2
HM LR 16	1	2	3	2	3											5
HM LR 17	1	3	2	3												4
HM LR 18	3	2	3	2	3	2	3									7
HM LR 19	1	2	3	2	3	2	3									7
HM LR 20	1	2	1	2	3											5

structure. This signifies that the LR section of the HM RAs can be written following other move patterns, as shown in Table 3.

Table 3 shows the move structure found in the HM RA LR sections. The numbers next to the article number are the move numbers in their order of occurrence followed by the number of move units in the HM RA corpus.

The findings in table 3 show that the pattern of moves can follow regularly in that one or more moves can reappear in a text in a pattern, instead of the linear structure which is Move1, followed by Move 2, Move 3 and so on. The patterns or move cycles found in the LR section of HM RAs (See Table 3) denotes that the LR section can begin with a Move 3, for example, and continue with Move 2, then back again to Move 3 and Move 2. These move cycles signify that there is no distinct linear structure that needs to be followed when writing the LR section for HM RAs (Hopkins and Dudley-Evans, 1988). Consequently, the move cycles found in the LR sections of HM RAs are in line with the move cycles suggested by Hopkins and Dudley-Evans (1998) in the discussion section of dissertations. They posit that move cycles contain groups that 'arise from the text' and that defines the 'transactional, interactional and rational functions of language in a way as to reflect the writer's frequently shifting 'foregrounding' of these different features. Hopkins and Dudley-Evans's (1998) move cycles are also advanced from Swales's (1981) four-move structure and Dudley-Evans's (1994) move cycles to analyse the discussion section of

dissertations. Thus, the findings show that the HM RA LR section also conform to Swales' (2004) Revised Model (Fig.1).

CONCLUSION

The generic structure analysis of the study is based on Swales' 3 move model (2004). The findings indicate that Swales (2004) move structure effectively explained the rhetorical pattern of the LR section of the studies analysed in this discussion. The HM RA LR section supports the general framework posited by Swales (2004). Move 2 Step 1B, which was 'Adding to what is known', was prevalent in the LR sections. The reason for this is that in the LR sections the writers will go on to contribute to the existing field of research by adding other research findings deemed necessary. Another step used in realizing Move 3 is step 2. Move 3 Step 7, or 'Outlining the structure of the paper', appears in 2 of the LR sections.

As for the cyclical patterning of the Moves in the samples, it was found that Move 1 and Move 2 are consistent with Swales (2004, p. 230), particularly in longer literature reviews. The iteration of these moves indicates that the study being presented is complex, reflecting accumulated efforts in investigating what has been done on the topic and identifying niches that remain unaccounted for (Kanoksilapatham, 2007). At the level of steps, Move 2-Step 1A, or 'indicating a gap', occurs more often than Step 1B, 'adding to what is known' and Step 2, 'providing positive justifications', in the LR sections of the HM RA. This clearly indicates that 'indicating a gap' is a preferred

Move 1	Establishing a territory (citation required) via Topic generalizations of increasing specificity
Move 2	Establishing a niche (citations possible) via Step 1A: Indicating a gap or Step 1B: Adding to what is known
Move 3	Presenting the present work (citations possible) via Step 1 : (obligatory) Announcing present research descriptively and/or purposively (obligatory) Step 2: (optional) Presenting research questions or hypotheses (more for LR sections) Step 5 : (optional) Announcing principal outcomes (for introduction section) Step 6 : (optional) Stating the value of the present research

Fig.4: Proposed Model for HM RA LR section expanded from Swales (2004) Revised CARS (De Mello, 2011).

strategy in establishing a niche in the LR section. Another outcome worth mentioning is that of Move 3, which has seven steps in Swales' 2004 model; however, in the HM RA LR section, only Move 3-Step 1 is prevalent, while the other steps, such as Step 2, Step 3, Step 4, Step 5, Step 6 and Step 7 are either not found at all or are present in only a few of the samples. Congruent with Swales' 2004 model, the order of steps found is less fixed. Fig.4 represents the proposed model delineating only and all of the steps found in the LR section of the HM RAs based on their frequency of occurrence.

This study's analysis shows that the move structure in the LR section of the HM RA is realized in the model outlined in (Fig.4) above (De Mello, 2011). The model above shows that it is in accordance with the model constructed by Swales (2004) but with some variations. The model provides a clearer conceptual framework for this study (De Mello, 2011). The analysis carried out confirms the claim that genre

analysis discovers correlations between form and meaning and also contributes to a better understanding of how information is structured in a text (Lakic, 2000). In the HM RAs LR section, it was found that not all the steps in Move 3 are obligatory; therefore, the following can be reasonably ascertained based on the findings: the researcher has not included Move 3 Steps 3, 4 and 7 from the new proposed model above (Fig.4). The other moves are either obligatory or optional for the LR section of the HM RAs. Finally, the proposed model may prove beneficial to teachers by assisting them in teaching students to utilise these writing conventions in writing the LR section for HM RAs.

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APPENDIX A

A SAMPLE OF HM RA LR SECTION ILLUSTRATING MOVE-STEP BREAKS AS IDENTIFIED IN HM RA LR 1

(Sample taken from “Cheng, S., Lam, T., & Hsu, C. H. C. (2005). Testing the sufficiency of the theory of planned behavior: a case of customer dissatisfaction responses in restaurants. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 24(4), 475-492.)

“ ... 2.1. *The theory of planned behavior*

M1 The TPB (Ajzen, 1985) is a cognitive model of human behavior, in which the central focus is the prediction and understanding of clearly defined behaviors. According to Ajzen, the principal predictor of behavior is intention. People tend to act in accordance with their intention to engage in a behavior. Intention can be regarded as a motivation to engage in a particular behavior and represents an individual's expectancies about his/her behavior in a given setting. Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) operationalized intention as the likelihood to act. Intention is influenced by attitude, subjective norm, and perception of control over the behavior. Attitude toward a particular act represents a person's overall positive and negative beliefs and evaluations of the behavior. In turn, attitude is derived from salient behavioral beliefs of particular outcomes and evaluation of those outcomes. Subjective norm is an individual's perception of general social pressures from important others to perform or not to perform a given behavior. It, in turn, is determined by an individual's normative beliefs and his/her motivation to comply with his/her referents. Lastly, perceived behavioral control represents an individual's perception of whether the performance of the behavior is under one's control; “control” reflects whether the behavior is, on the one hand, easily executed (control beliefs) and whether, on the other, the required resources, opportunities, and specialized skills are available (perceived control) (Conner *et al.*, 1999).

2.2. *Customer complaining behavior*

The actions that customers take in response to dissatisfaction are usually referred to as customers' complaining behavior (Singh, 1988). It is regarded as a behavioral outcome of a

perceived discrepancy between one's expectations for a product and the actual performance of the product (Hunt, 1991; Oliver and Swan, 1989). Customer complaining behavior (CCB) is generally considered as a set of multiple responses, some or all of which are triggered by perceived dissatisfaction with a purchase episode (Rogers *et al.*, 1992; Singh, 1988). These responses may be non-behavioral or behavioral, involving any and all actions intended as an expression of dissatisfaction (Rogers *et al.*, 1992; Singh, 1988). Customer complaining behavior can take the form of no action, exit, voice (Hirschman, 1970), or negative word-of-mouth communication (Day, 1984). These responses have been viewed by many researchers as a combination of negative responses stemming from dissatisfaction (Scaglione, 1988). **M3S1** In this study, the three customer complaining behaviors of voice, negative word-of-mouth communication, and exit were analyzed.

2.3. Direct effect of past behavior on behavioral intention

Eagly and Chaiken (1993) and Ouellette and Wood (1998) suggested that the best predictor of behavioral intention is the frequency of a past behavior. A possible reason that past behavior can predict future behavioral intention is the assumption of value consistency imposed by individual customers (Cialdini, 1988). Given a general preference for consistency and an individual's systematic striving for it, one would expect a high level of consistency between past and future behaviors. Leone *et al.* (1999) demonstrated that the inclusion of past behavior in the TPB could help explain a substantial portion of additional variance in behavioral intention. Ouellette and Wood (1998) also state that past experience and behavior can explain more of the variance in behavioral intention than can attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control individually. Other studies empirically tested the direct effects of past behavior on the behavioral intention. For example, Verplanken *et al.* (1998) have shown that the prediction of intention in car use as a travel mode was significantly improved by the addition of previous experience of car use (Verplanken *et al.*, 1998). Therefore, it was hypothesized in the study that past behavior would have a direct effect on customers' behavioral intention to engage in dissatisfaction responses. That is, the frequency of past behavior significantly predicts behavioral intention. **M3S2** The following hypothesis (H1) and sub-hypotheses (H1a, H1b, and H1c) were developed.

- H1. There are significant positive relationships between past behavior and behavioral intentions of engaging in voice (H1a), negative word-of-mouth communication (H1b), and exit (H1c).

2.4. Mediating effect of the TPB variables on the relationships between past behavior and behavioral intentions

M1 According to the learning theory (Howard, 1977), behavior is a function of prior learning. As such, experiences gained from past complaint behaviors provide dissatisfied customers with information on consumer rights and complaint channels, which could help consolidate their behavioral and normative beliefs, help them evaluate behavioral outcome, and manipulate the perceived behavioral control of various dissatisfaction responses. Consequently, past experiences will serve as a yardstick for an individual's behavioral intention. Ajzen (1988) claimed that frequent performance of a behavior leads to the formation of a habit, and that that habit can increase a person's perceived control of a particular behavior. Ajzen also suggested that the effect of past behavior on behavioral intention is mediated by the variables included in the TPB (i.e., attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control). Supportive results were reported in the study by Albarracin *et al.* (2001) in which past behavior was found to relate significantly with attitude and subjective norm based on the Theory of Reasoned Action. **M3S2** Therefore, it was hypothesized in this study that the influence of past behavior on behavioral intentions of engaging in dissatisfaction responses are mediated by attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control. The following hypotheses (H2, H3, H4) and sub-hypotheses (H2a, H2b, H2c; H3a, H3b, H3c; H4a, H4b, H4c) were developed:

- H2. Attitude mediates the effect of past behavior on behavioral intentions of engaging in voice (H2a), negative word-of-mouth communication (H2b), and exit (H2c).
- H3. Subjective norm mediates the effect of past behavior on behavioral intentions of engaging in voice (H3a), negative word-of-mouth communication (H3b), and exit (H3c).
- H4. Perceived behavioral control mediates the effect of past behavior on behavioral intentions of engaging in voice (H4a), negative word-of-mouth communication (H4b), and exit (H4c).

In summary, the hypotheses of the study are illustrated in Fig. 1. ...” (Cheng, Lam & Hsu; 2005, pp.475-492).

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Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities

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Revised: February 2013

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Pertanika began publication in 1978 as the Journal of Tropical Agricultural Science (JTAS).

In 1992, a decision was made to streamline *Pertanika* into **3 journals**. i.e.,

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