



Pertanika Journal of
SOCIAL SCIENCES
& HUMANITIES

JSSH

VOL. 17(1) MAR. 2009

A scientific journal published by Universiti Putra Malaysia Press

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 Journal of Tropical Agricultural Science began publication in 1978. 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, Pertanika 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).

JSSH is published in **English** and it is open to authors around the world regardless of the nationality. It is currently published two times a year i.e. in **March** and **September**.

Goal of Pertanika

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

Quality

We aim for excellence, sustained by a responsible and professional approach to journal publishing. Submissions are guaranteed to receive a decision within 12 weeks. The elapsed time from submission to publication for the articles averages 5-6 months. JSSH is an international award-winning journal indexed in SCOPUS (Elsevier) and EBSCO.

Future vision

We are continuously improving access to our journal archives, content, and research services. We have the drive to realise exciting new horizons that will benefit not only the academic community, but society itself. We also have views on the future of our journals. The emergence of the online medium as the predominant vehicle for the 'consumption' and distribution of much academic research will be the ultimate instrument in the dissemination of the research news to our scientists and readers.

Aims and scope

Pertanika Journal of Social Sciences & Humanities aims to provide a forum for high quality research related to social sciences and humanities research. Areas relevant to the scope of the journal include: Accounting, Agricultural & Resource Economics, Anthropology, Communication, Community And Peace Studies, Design and architecture, Disaster and crisis management, Economics, Education, Extension education, Finance, Gerontology, Hospitality and tourism, Human Ecology, Human ecology, Human resource development, Language studies (education, applied linguistics, acquisition, pedagogy), Language literature (literary & cultural studies), Management, Marketing, Psychology, Safety and environment, Social and behavioural sciences, Sociology, Sustainable development, and Ethnic relations.

Editorial Statement

Pertanika is the official journal of Universiti Putra Malaysia. The abbreviation for Pertanika Journal of Social Sciences & Humanities is Pertanika J. Soc. Sci. Hum.

Editor-in-Chief

Ahmad Zubaidi Baharumshah (Professor Dr.)
Econometrics, macroeconomics & international economics, Universiti Putra Malaysia, Malaysia

Editorial Board

Mohamed Abdel-Ghany (Professor Emeritus Dr.) <i>Family economics and management</i> The University of Alabama, USA	Stephen J. Thoma (Professor Dr.) <i>Educational psychology</i> The University of Alabama, USA
Elias @ Ilias Salleh (Professor Dato' Dr. Ar.) <i>Sustainable tropical design, Thermal comfort</i> Universiti Putra Malaysia, Malaysia	Abul Mansur M. Masih (Professor Dr.) <i>Finance and economics</i> King Fahd University of Petroleum and Minerals, Saudi Arabia
Gong-Soog Hong (Professor Dr.) <i>Consumer and family sciences</i> The Ohio State University, USA	Samsinar Md. Sidin (Professor Dr.) <i>Marketing, Consumer behaviour</i> Universiti Putra Malaysia, Malaysia
Aminah Ahmad (Professor Dr.) <i>Gender and development</i> Universiti Putra Malaysia, Malaysia	Deanna L. Sharpe (A/ Professor Dr.) <i>Consumer and family economics, Personal finance</i> The University of Missouri, Columbia, USA
Turiman Suandi (Professor Dr.) <i>Youth development and volunteerism</i> Universiti Putra Malaysia, Malaysia	Shameem Rafik-Galea (A/ Professor Dr.) <i>Linguistics, Applied linguistics, Language & communication</i> Universiti Putra Malaysia, Malaysia
Mohd Shahwahid Hj. Othman (Professor Dr.) <i>Forestry economics, natural resource economics</i> Universiti Putra Malaysia, Malaysia	Nurizan Yahaya (Professor Dr.) <i>Housing in development and resource management</i> Universiti Putra Malaysia, Malaysia
Muzafar Shah Habibullah (Professor Dr.) <i>Monetary economics, banking</i> Universiti Putra Malaysia, Malaysia	

Executive Editor

Nayan Deep S. Kanwal (Dr.)
Environmental issues- landscape plant modelling applications
Research Management Centre (RMC), Universiti Putra Malaysia, Malaysia

International Advisory Board

Lehman B. Fletcher (Professor Emeritus Dr.) Iowa State University, USA	Royal D. Colle (Professor Emeritus Dr.) Cornell University, USA
Max R. Langham (Professor Emeritus Dr.) University of Florida, USA	Mohamed Abdel-Ghany (Professor Dr.) The University of Alabama, USA
Phillip Jones (Professor Dr.) Welsh School of Architecture, Cardiff University, U.K.	Mohamed Ariff, CMA (Professor Dr.) Deakin University, Australia
Peter W. Martin (Professor Dr.) University of East London, U.K.	Graham Thurgood (Professor Dr.) California State University, Chico, USA
Kent Matthews (Professor Dr.) Cardiff Business School, U.K.	Irene CL Ng (Professor Dr.) University of Exeter, U.K.
Gary N. McLean (Professor Emeritus Dr.) Texas A&M University, USA	Rance P.L. Lee (Professor Dr.) The Chinese University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong
John R. Schermerhorn, Jr. (Professor Dr.) Ohio University, USA	Mark P. Orbe (Professor Dr.) Western Michigan University, USA

Editorial Office

Pertanika, Research Management Centre (RMC), 4th Floor, Administration Building
Universiti Putra Malaysia, 43400 Serdang, Selangor, Malaysia
Tel: +603 8946 6192, 8946 6185 • Fax: +603 8947 2075
E-mail: ndeeeps@admin.upm.edu.my

Publisher

The UPM Press
Universiti Putra Malaysia
43400 UPM, Serdang, Selangor, Malaysia
Tel: +603 8946 8855, 8946 8854 • Fax: +603 8941 6172
penerbit@putra.upm.edu.my
URL : <http://pnerbit.upm.edu.my>

Pertanika Journal of Social Sciences & Humanities

Vol. 17(1) Mar. 2009

Contents

Differential Determinants of Birth Spacing Since Marriage to First Live Birth in Rural Bangladesh <i>Md. Shahidul Islam</i>	1
Factors Affecting the Decision Making in Off Farm Employment Among Paddy Farmers in Kemasin Semerak <i>Norsida Man</i>	7
Self-Construal and Exposure to American Entertainment and News Programs Among Malaysian Youths <i>Ezhar Tamam, Lars Willnat and Mohd Nizam Osman</i>	17
Punishing Forest Offenders: Out of Court or by the Court? <i>Rusli Mohd and Miskon Simin</i>	25
Local and Foreign Tourists' Image of Highland Tourism Destinations in Peninsular Malaysia <i>Azlizam Aziz and Nurul Amirah Zainol</i>	33

Differential Determinants of Birth Spacing Since Marriage to First Live Birth in Rural Bangladesh

Md. Shahidul Islam

*Sociology Discipline Khulna University,
Khulna 9208 Bangladesh
E-mail: shahidku2003@yahoo.com*

ABSTRACT

This paper focuses on birth spacing, i.e. since marriage to first live birth in the rural areas of Bangladesh. The objective of this study was to examine the socio-economic factors which influenced the birth spacing among women since their marriage to their first live birth. The analysis was based on the primary data collected from women through a structured questionnaire. Different socio-demographic and economic factors which determined birth spacing had been identified in the analysis. A multivariate quantitative analysis was applied for this study. The findings indicated that both the socio-demographic and economic factors played, to some extent, a significant and important role in determining the birth spacing since marriage to first live birth. In particular, the women's level of education played the most important role, and this was followed by the respondents' age at marriage, quality of care at the clinic, respondents' present age, mass media exposure, age gap between spouses, respondents' age at familiarity with contraceptives and family's income. All these factors explained 13.5 percent of the variation in birth spacing since marriage to first live birth.

Keywords: Birth spacing, marriage, first live birth, Total Fertility Rate (TFR), Statistical Packages for Social Sciences (SPSS), Bangladesh

INTRODUCTION

In Bangladesh, mortality was found to decline earlier than fertility. In more specific, mortality started to reduce since 1950s, while fertility remained high till 1970s. Due to the gap between the declining mortality and the high fertility in Bangladesh, the population started to grow in an accelerated pace, particularly since 1950s in which this was high at all time (2.5%) in the 1960s and 1970s. In 1960s, the TFR (Total Fertility Rate) was 7 children per woman and this was estimated to be 3.4 in 1993-94. However, the total fertility rate remained almost stable at 3.3 in 1996-97 and 1999-2000. Over the last 25 years, there has been a decline of 48 % in the TFR, i.e. a decline of about 1.9 % per year (BBS, 2001).

Despite such achievements, the present TFR is far above the replacement level, and the problem pertaining to the rocketing population still remains as the number one problem in the country (Datta and Radheshyam, 2000). The estimated 65% growth in the population during 2000-2025 could be attributed to the current young age structure of the population. If this level of fertility continued to grow for a long time, the process of attaining the replacement level would be delayed further and the momentum would produce a much larger population (Hossain *et al.*, 2003).

The high fertility in Bangladesh is one of the effects of interrelated social and economic conditions characterized by labour intensive technology, low productivity, patriarchy, preference

for son, low female status, male dominance, the value of children for labour and security, as well as old age insecurity. Meanwhile, other factors which have been indicated as barriers to the immediate adoption of fertility regulation in Bangladesh include early female age at marriage, high infant mortality, the inadequacy and inefficiency of the health and family planning service, as well as physical isolation of the bulk of the rural residents (Alam *et al.*, 2005).

Population experts (Hossain *et al.*, 2003) suggested that future growth would be determined by three components, namely population momentum, unwanted fertility and big family size. Among the three components, population momentum was stated as the predominant factor as more than 80% of the expected 85 million people would be added to the country's population by the middle of the 21st century due to this factor alone (BBS, 2001). Therefore, minimizing the population is now a major challenge in limiting the growth in the population in the future. Moreover, with over 40% of the population below the age of 15 years, reproductive year would definitely be continued in the near future (BDHS, 2004). The options for minimizing the impacts of the population momentum are generally focused on increasing the average age at marriage and child bearing, as well as in the delay of births, especially the first birth and this can then be extended to birth intervals (Hossain *et al.*, 2003).

Age at marriage is considered as an exposure to the risk of becoming pregnant and the actual initiation of process of child bearing. In Bangladesh, the mean age at marriage is 14.8 years, while 68 percent of the women marry before they reach 18. In the rural areas, the mean age at marriage is lower than the national level. Therefore, the national TFR was found to be 3.0; this figure was 3.2 in the rural areas and 2.5 per 1000 women in the urban areas (BDHS, 2004). On the contrary, the figure was lower than that of both the rural and national levels. Due to the above reasons, the rural women contributed to a higher number of births and this led to the continuous high TFR level in Bangladesh (Islam, 2002). In order to reduce the national TFR, it is thus necessary to reduce the number of births contributed by the rural women. The most important way to reduce the TFR is to increase the age at marriage (Anon, 2005). However, as age at marriage is considered to be determined by complex social values, norms and other deep rooted socio-cultural and socio-economic factors, it requires

time (Anon, 2006). Among other alternatives, birth spacing is the most important option (Hossain and Islam, 2004). If first birth interval can be controlled by family planning programmes, the subsequent birth interval may also be controlled (Akhter *et al.*, 1996). As the socio-cultural and socio-economic context of the rural Bangladesh is complex, it is necessary to understand the socio-demographic and economic factors which determine the birth interval since marriage to the first live birth among the women in the rural areas of Bangladesh.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

This study is of the cross-sectional survey type. For this, a structured interview schedule was prepared to collect the required information and data. Data were collected through face-to-face interviews. The collected data were analyzed using the Statistical Packages for Social Sciences (SPSS).

Two villages, namely Chakbalu and Talpatila of Manda Thana in the district of Naogaon, were purposively selected for this study. A list, which was taken from the Union's voter list, was prepared for the respondents. Taking an idea from the exiting voter list, the researcher divided the villages by different paras (i.e. small unit of village) and samples were drawn randomly. To meet the requirement of the research objectives, women who had given at least one live birth were selected. The total sample size was 500. However, no sample-determining formula was applied in deciding on the size of the sample.

Interview schedule was developed and used for the data collection. The interview schedule was pre-tested on 30 women in the selected areas. This procedure was undertaken to ascertain the flow or sequence of the questions, the suitability of the language used, and the comprehensiveness of the issues to address the objectives of the study. The interview schedule was then finalized both in Bengali and English language for data collection.

The data was collected through the face-to-face interviews from the field using the interview schedule. It involved 4 trained field investigators (young women) who were specially assisted by two local school teachers so as to identify the women to be interviewed.

Hypotheses of the Study

It was postulated that:

H1: The higher the respondents' level of education, the bigger the birth gap from marriage to the first live birth.

- H1: The higher the respondents' age, the bigger the birth gap from marriage to the first live birth.
- H3: The higher the respondents' age at marriage, the bigger the birth gap from marriage to the first live birth.
- H4: The higher the quality of care, the bigger the birth gap from marriage to the first live birth.
- H5: The more the mass media exposure, the bigger the birth gap from marriage to the first live birth.

SPECIFICATION OF THE MULTIVARIATE STATISTICAL MODEL FOR THE STUDY

The dependent variable of the study was the birth gap since marriage to the first live birth. The independent variables were the respondents' socio-economic status which included their education, income, family type and size; cultural variables such as religion and the desired number of children; patriarchal attitude; programmatic variables such as the quality of care, the distance from home to clinic, and the mass media exposure, as well as demographic variables like the age at present, the age difference/gap between spouses, age at marriage, age at familiarity with contraceptives and the age at the first live birth.

The Ordinary Least Square regression analysis technique was used for the multivariate analysis to examine the net effect of the independent variables on the dependent variable.

For the unstandardized beta coefficients, the following multiple regression equation was used in this regression model:

$$\hat{X}_{10} = a + b_1x_1 + b_2x_2 + b_3x_3 + b_4x_4 + b_5x_5 + b_6x_6 + b_7x_7 + b_8x_8 + b_9x_9$$

Here, a= constant, b= slope /b coefficient, $x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, x_5, x_6, x_7, x_8$ and x_9 = Independent Varietals, \hat{X}_{10} = (Predicted) Dependent Variable.

For the standardized beta coefficients, the following multiple regression formula was used in this regression model:

$$\hat{Z}_{10} = B_1Z_1 + B_2Z_2 + B_3Z_3 + B_4Z_4 + B_5Z_5 + B_6Z_6 + B_7Z_7 + B_8Z_8 + B_9Z_9$$

Here, a is dropped as it is always zero, B=beta weights/coefficient, $Z_1, Z_2, Z_3, Z_4, Z_5, Z_6, Z_7, Z_8$ and Z_9 = Standard Score of Independent Variables, \hat{Z}_{10} = (Predicted) Dependent Variable.

MULTIVARIATE ANALYSIS OF BIRTH GAP SINCE MARRIAGE TO THE FIRST LIVE BIRTH

The Stepwise Method was used in the multivariate regression analysis to determine the explanatory variables of the birth gap since marriage to the first live birth. At first, the interval level variables, which seemed important and included in the bivariate analysis (correlation matrix was computed at the time of data analysis) in explaining the birth gap since marriage to first live birth, were entered in the regression equation. The results showed that most of the variables, which had been found to have a statistically significant relationship with the dependent variable at the bivariate level, lost their significance. When the stepwise forward method was applied, the computer serially picked up the variables which showed the most significant results by itself.

For the standardized beta coefficients, the following multiple regression formula was used in this regression model:

$$\hat{Z}_{10} = B_1Z_1 + B_2Z_2 + B_3Z_3 + B_4Z_4 + B_5Z_5 + B_6Z_6 + B_7Z_7 + B_8Z_8 + B_9Z_9$$

Here, a is dropped as it is always zero, B=beta weights/coefficient, Z_1 = Standard score of Respondents' Level of Education, Z_2 = Standard score of Family Income, Z_3 = Standard score of Respondents' Present Age, Z_4 = Standard score of Age Gap between Spouses, Z_5 = Standard score of Respondents' Age at Marriage, Z_6 = Standard score of Quality of Care Inside the Clinic, Z_7 = Standard score of Distance from Respondents' Home to Clinic, Z_8 = Standard score of Mass Media Exposure, Z_9 = Standard score of Respondent's Age at Familiarity with Contraceptives. \hat{Z}_{10} = (Predicted) Standard score of the Birth Gap since Marriage to First Live Birth.

Table 1 presents the constant, un-standardized regression coefficients, the standard error of the un-standardized regression coefficients, standardized regression coefficients, significant level, and the R-Square change (proportion of variance explained by each of the independent variables in the dependent variable in the model).

FINDINGS

From the regression analysis, it was found that all the independent variables explained 13.5 percent variance of the dependent variable. The un-standardized beta coefficient 0.032, for the independent variable respondents' level of

TABLE 1
Regression analysis of birth spacing since marriage to first live birth

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	R Square Change	Percentage Explained
	B	Std. Error	Beta				
(Constant)	.636	.516		1.231	.220		
Respondents' Level of Education	.032	.015	.160	2.082	.039	.048	0.355
Family Income	.000	.000	.007	.100	.921	.001	0.007
Respondents' Present Age	.056	.017	.255	3.176	.002	.017	0.126
Age gap between Spouses	.009	.019	.035	.490	.625	.004	0.030
Respondents' Age at Marriage	-.076	.030	-.249	-2.545	.012	.027	0.200
Quality of Care at the Clinic	.192	.086	.188	2.246	.026	.022	0.163
Distance from Respondents' Home to Clinic	.001	.040	.002	.021	.983	.000	0.000
Mass Media Exposure	.013	.008	.119	1.646	.102	.013	0.100
Respondent's Age at Familiarity with Contraceptives	.020	.023	.080	.850	.397	.004	0.030
Multiple R = 0.368, R-square = 0.135, Adjusted R- Square = 0.091, Standard Error = 0.742							

A dependent variable: Birth gap from marriage to the first live birth
Source: Filed Survey, 2006.

education, suggested that for each unit change in the independent variable, it would change 0.032 in the dependent variable, controlling the effect of other variables as independent variables. A standardized beta coefficient suggested the relative position of an independent variable as the standardized beta was standardised by a standard deviation using z score. The standardized beta 0.160 for the respondents' level of education suggested that this was the fifth highest predictor among all the independent variables given in Table 1.

Table 1 indicates that the respondents' level of education was the most important variable among all the variables in determining the time spent since marriage to first live birth. Individually, this variable explained 35.5 percent variance of the dependent variable. The result is consistent with the hypothesis postulating that the higher the respondents' level of education, the bigger the birth gap from marriage to the first live birth.

The second most important variable was the respondents' age at marriage. This variable explained 20% of the variance of the dependent variable. However, the dependent variable and this variable were adversely related to each other;

the fact which was not consistent to the proposed hypothesis, i.e. the higher the respondents' age at marriage, the bigger the birth gap from marriage to the first live birth.

The third most important variable was the quality of care rendered at the clinic; this consists of three components - the availability of contraceptive method at the clinic, the availability of service provider in the clinic and the friendly behaviour of service provider. These are among all the independent variables which explained 16.30 percent of the variance of the dependent variable. This result was adversely related with the dependent variable and not consistent with the tested hypothesis, i.e. the higher the quality level, the bigger the birth gap since marriage to the first live birth.

The fourth most important variable was the respondents' age at present/time of study. Among all the independent variables, this variable explained about 12.6 percent of the variance of the dependent variable. This result was found to be consistent with the proposed hypothesis, i.e. the higher the respondents' age, the bigger the birth gap since marriage to the first live birth.

The fifth most important independent variable was the mass media exposure, which explained 10.00 percent of the variance of the dependent variable. This was also consistent with the proposed hypothesis which stated that the higher the mass media exposure, the bigger the birth gap from marriage to the first live birth. Among others, the age gap between spouses, the respondents' age at familiarity with contraceptives and the family income explained about 3.00%, 3.00% and 0.7% variance of the dependent variables, respectively.

However, in this regression model, the distance from respondents' homes to the clinic was not found, as explained by the independent variable.

CONCLUSIONS

This study delineated some important indicators from a number of independent variables. The variables found as important in the bi-variate analysis were not equally important in the multi-variate analysis and vice-versa. In the bi-variate analysis, the distance from the respondents' homes to the clinic was found to have a weak relationship with the dependent variable, but this variable was indicated to have no explanatory power in the multi-variate analysis. Furthermore, the amount of money spent on per visit to the clinic was found to be moderately related to the dependent variable, but this variable was indicated as having no explanatory power in the multi-variate analysis.

The respondents' level of education was the seventh significant variable in the bi-variate analysis, whereas this was found to be the most significant variable in the multi-variate analysis. This might be due to the fact that in the bi-variate level, the relationship was observed by one dependent and one independent variable without controlling the effect of the other variables. In the multivariate level, the effect of the other variables was controlled. In the multi-variate analysis, the respondents' age at marriage was indicated as the second most important determinant of the independent variable as the determinant of the birth gap from marriage to the first live birth in the rural Bangladesh; this was followed by the quality of care, the respondents' age at present, exposure by mass media, the age gap between spouses, the respondents' age at familiarity with contraceptives and the family income. All these variables explained only 13.5 percent of the factors influencing the birth gap from marriage to the first live birth. Thus, the multivariate model was a weak model to determine the time spent since marriage to first live birth. However, it is important

to highlight that conclusions could not be drawn from such a micro level analysis.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings of the study, it could be stated that the factors affecting the birth gap since marriage to the first live birth are rather complex in nature. Therefore, the followings measures are recommended:

Due to the traditional norms and values, the people in the rural areas, especially the women are not open to new ideas. Education is the most important means to open a person's mind to something new. Nevertheless, the level of education is usually very poor in the rural areas, as compared to that of the urban areas, though there is Government policy for a universal primary education for all. The data showed that the enrolments for primary schools in 2004 were 83.0% and 86.9% respectively, for male and female in the rural areas (BDHS, 2004). Therefore, there should be effective programmatic measures to ensure a 100 percent enrolment in the primary schools, along with its continuity up to at least the secondary level.

The respondents' age at familiarity with contraception is a determining factor for the birth gap from marriage to the first live birth. The lower the age at familiarity with contraception, the bigger the birth gap. Therefore, measures to create awareness towards family planning, particularly contraceptives should be carried out before marriage using Family Welfare Visitors and exposure by Mass Media.

REFERENCES

- AKHTER, H.H., RAHMAN, M.H. and AHMED, S. (1996). Reproductive Health Issues and Implementation Strategies in Bangladesh, Dhaka, Bangladesh, BIRPERHT.
- ALAM, N., GINNEKEN, J.V. and BOSCH, A. (2005). Decreases in Male and Female Mortality and Missing Women in Bangladesh. ICDDR, B. Centre for Health and Population Research, Dhaka, Bangladesh.
- ANON. (2006). Community views on child marriage: findings of participatory assessments in selected regions in Bangladesh and Ethiopia. International Planned Parenthood Federation (IPPF)/South Asia Regional Office, London.
- ANON. (2005). Marriage, inheritance and family laws in Bangladesh: Towards a common family code

- (pp. 23-32). Women for Women, UNESCO, Dhaka.
- BANGLADESH BUREAU OF STATISTICS (BBS). (2001). Ministry of Planning, Government of Bangladesh, Dhaka, Bangladesh, pp. 15-85.
- Bangladesh Demographic and Health Survey (BDHS). (2004). National Institute of Population Research and Training (NIPORT), Bangladesh and Macro International, USA.
- DATA, A.K. and RADHESHYAM, B. (2002). Improvement in female survival: A quiet revolution in Bangladesh. *Asia Pacific Population Journal*, 15, 19-40.
- HOSSAIN, K.M. and ISLAM, S. (2004). Differential Determinants of breastfeeding in birth spacing: The socio-demographic and Economic Correlation. *Social Science Review*, 21(2), 177-189. University of Dhaka, Dhaka, Bangladesh.
- HOSSAIN, M. NURUN NABI, A.K.M. and ISLAM, I. (2003). *Bangladesh Development Agenda and Vision 2020: Rhetoric or Reality*. Dhaka, Bangladesh: University Press limited.
- ISLAM, S. (2002). Population policy of Bangladesh: An overview of some important issues and priorities. *Khulna University Studies*, Khulna University, Khulna, Bangladesh, 4(2), 805-808.

Factors Affecting the Decision Making in Off Farm Employment Among Paddy Farmers in Kemasin Semerak

Norsida Man

*Department of Agribusiness and Information System, Faculty of Agriculture,
Universiti Putra Malaysia, 43400 UPM, Serdang, Selangor, Malaysia*

ABSTRACT

Poverty is one of the most serious problems confronting paddy farmers worldwide, and Malaysia is not an exception. Off farm employment is an alternative strategy and it has a potential to improve the income and well-being of the paddy farmers. This study assessed the off-farm employment decision among 250 paddy farmers in Kemasin Semerak granary area. In specific, the study attempted to determine the relationship between the determinants of the off-farm and the off-farm participation decision. It was also undertaken to describe the characteristics of respondents and their status in the off-farm employment. Furthermore, it examined the income level of the farm households from the paddy farming and the off-farm employments as well as showed the effects of the off-farm employment to the paddy farmers, using the descriptive analysis and logit regression methods. The variables which were found to influence the likelihood of the paddy farmers to be engaged in the off-farm employment included the farmers' age and gender, the number of dependants, as well as other income and farming types. From the study, it was evident that the farm size and education were not significant factors as no significant association was observed between them and the off-farm participation.

Keywords: Off-farm employment, paddy farmers, logit model, participation decision

INTRODUCTION

Established in 1982, Kemasin Semerak is among the second five granary areas with the aim to accelerate 'in-situ' rural development with integration through flood control, irrigation and drainage system and increase farm productivity. Under the Projek Kemasin Semerak (PERKASA) administration, the width of the area is about 68,350 hectare, and this includes Bachok Territory, Pasir Puteh Territory and certain parts of Kota Bharu Territory. From this total, only 24,000 hectares of the agricultural land involved about 30,195 farmers in various agricultural sectors.

The term "paddy" means rice cultivated in low land with irrigation. Rice farming in Malaysia can be regarded as one of the origins of the irrigated

rice production systems commonly observed in Asia. Paddy is produced mainly by small holders, with an average farm size of about 1.06 hectares. There are approximately 296,000 paddy farmers; out of this, 116,000 are full-time farmers who are depending on paddy cultivation for their livelihood. Sixty five percent of the paddy farmers have farms of less than one hectare, while only four percent of them possess more than three hectares. According to the Malaysian Agricultural Research and Development Institute (MARDI), the total planted area is about 670,000 ha, with 386,000 ha within the eight granary areas, about 218,000 ha outside the granary area and about 70,000 ha representing upland/ hill paddy, especially in Sabah and Sarawak. The average

yield for the country is about 3.5 t/ha, with the average of 4.2 t/ha in the granary areas and 3.2t/ha outside.

According to the study conducted by the World Bank study in the early 1988, Malaysia is an inefficient producer of rice. This could be proven from the producers' price which was two times higher than imported rice. It was estimated that 74 percent of the paddy producer's monthly income came from the income support measures, which suggested that the Malaysian paddy sub-sector is both non-viable and non-sustainable. The government's support for R&D, production and marketing in the form of credit facilities, fertilizer subsidies, irrigation investment, guaranteed minimum price, income support programmed, subsidized retail price as well as research and extension support (training and advisory) to the tune of billions of dollars for the past fifty years, have been a fiscal drain to the nation. Despite the massive fiscal outlays for this constituency, the production of rice is still chronically inefficient. Continued decline in the cultivated areas, negligible gains in productivity, continued increase in the cost of production and decreasing profitability have caused the rice production in Malaysia to become a sunset industry.

Rice cultivation in Malaysia is closely associated with the rural population and traditional farmers. In this sub-sector, labour is characterized by aging farmers and low levels of education. Poverty and dependency are significant in this sub-sector and most would be living below the absolute poverty line without the government support. All these lead to the sub-optimal allocation of resources at the national level. The situation is further aggravated by the high cost of material inputs, which causes the investment in paddy cultivation to become not attractive whenever the open market price of paddy is considered. Although the government has invested heavily in the rice sector for economic reasons, the profit margins have sharply declined at the farm level. Labour, farm power, fertilizer and agro-chemicals demanded about 90% of the total yield. The share of the labour component alone was about 45% (Jayawardane, 1996).

The Third Malaysia Plan (1976) identified the incidence of poverty as high as 88% among the rice farmers and this was due to the small size of holdings, prevalence of tenancy, lack of drainage and irrigation facilities and low yields. The production of rice in some parts of Malaysia

is facing a host of physical and operational constraints such as the shortage of land and water resources, escalating prices of agricultural inputs, shortages in labour, low efficiency in water use, low adoption of technology, uneconomic land holdings, high post-harvesting losses, and inadequate infrastructural facilities (Marooka *et al.*, 1991). The available literature explains that the agricultural sector only has a very limited capacity to absorb the existing supply of rural labour and has failed to satisfy even the minimum subsistence requirements of a large proportion of the rural population (Jayasuriya and Shand, 1985).

Given the prevalence of surplus labour in the rural areas, due to mechanization and the high land scarcity, improving the off-farm employment opportunities will be an important way to increase the rural household incomes, particularly in the granary areas. In specific, if farmers are engaged in the rural-based non-farming activities (such as manufacturing and trading), they are likely to intensify the production efforts and increase agricultural productivity to provide the resources necessary for the investment in the rural-based non-agricultural activities. Thus, off-farm employment is thought to have a negative impact on the farm income at the household level. However, since there is a surplus labour (or farming is not able to absorb the idle family labour), the off-farm employment may not have a negative impact on farming activities. In the case of the surplus labour, the off-farm employment may not be able to compete with farming activities for labour, thus creates the need to examine the off-farm employment participation among paddy farmers.

Off-farm activities, which are defined as the participation of individuals in remunerative work away from a "home plot" of land, have been seen to perform an increasingly important role in sustainable development and poverty reduction especially in the rural areas (FAO, 1998). The economy of the off-farm employment has become the interest of various governments, non-governmental organizations (NGOs), international agencies and development practitioners, because of its growing commonness in many developing countries. In fact, it has been considered as an alternative source of income for the agricultural sector and an essential way to increase the overall rural economic activity and employment in many developing countries.

As economic development progresses, the traditional image of the farm household has been shifted into more diverse activities other than agriculture. Many evidences provide that rural household income share, from the non-farm activities, has been substantially growing. Several previous studies found that the income from the non-farming activities in the rural areas accounted for 40% in the average of the total income in the Latin American countries (Reardon *et al.*, 2002). A similar trend was also observed in the sub-Saharan Africa, whereby the non-farming income contributed from 30% to 42% of the total household income. However, lower shares were indicated for Asian countries, but they were still significant i.e. around 29% to 32%, respectively (Davis, 2004). The considerable shares of the non-farming income are mainly influenced by the expansion of the off-farm employment in the rural areas. Moreover, many studies have found that the majority of the farming households are engaged in the off-farm employment.

Off-farm activities have also helped to reduce the income uncertainty in the rural areas. Diversification of employment helps to gain smooth income by spreading risk across several activities (Gordon, 1999). By reducing income uncertainty, farm households have opportunities to invest in more advanced agricultural technologies. The adoption of a better technology is expected to be highly profitable and will encourage the transformation from traditional to modern agriculture sector. It can not be denied that off-farm employment is crucial to the rural poor. Not only income from the off-farm activities represents a significant share of the total income of the rural households, the off-farm jobs also absorb an increasing proportion of the rural labour among the rural poor. Participating in the off-farm activities offers a diversification strategy for the households and the off-farm incomes provide a source of liquidity in the areas where there is credit constraint.

The off-farm employment is gaining attention particularly as a strategy for supplementing the farmers' income, and it has been widely recognized that the off-farm work plays a very important role in augmenting small farmers' income in developing countries. For example, the income from the off-farm activities contributed to more than three times the annual net income from paddy for the paddy households in Malaysia in 1979 (Taylor, 1981).

Shand and Chew (1983) conducted their research in Kelantan, Malaysia, and illustrated the significance of the off-farm employment for the farm households. A large majority of the farmers in Kemubu are relying heavily on the off-farm employment to supplement their income in order to achieve an even modest standard of living.

In MADA, Corner (1981) observed that there was a need for the expansion of the off-farm employment as an anti-poverty strategy. This is particularly due to the fact that it would be difficult to raise the income from farming among the majority of the small paddy farmers to above the current poverty level, without substantially and probably inefficient government subsidies. Similarly, it was unlikely that the gap between the income levels of the farmers in the small farms and those on the larger farms and in the non-farming sector could be bridged purely by an agricultural strategy.

Alias and Ismail (1995) conducted a research in the North-west of Selangor (IADP) to examine the off-farm labour decision of the farmers and found that the factors influencing their decision to seek for the off-farm employment were the human capital variables of ages and education levels, which were indicated to have the highest impact on the off-farm labour participation. Shand (1986) conducted a study at the KADA area to examine the important factors affecting both the farm and off-farm allocation of labour and found that underemployment of households' labour in paddy farming existed and that the surplus labour could be tapped by creating more employment through intensification of the farming and off-farming work.

The objectives of this study were to assess the off-farm employment decision among 250 paddy farmers at Kemasin Semerak granary area. In specific, the study was undertaken to determine the relationship between the determinants of the off-farm and the off-farm participation decision. It was also carried out to describe the characteristics of the respondents and their status in the off-farm employment. Furthermore, it attempted to examine the income level of the farm households from the paddy farming and the off-farm employment, as well as study the effect of the off farm employment on the paddy farmers.

Paddy farmers are facing a host of problems such as unstable yields (due to flood, lack of good irrigation etc.), low farm income (due to unstable yields), and price control (*Fig. 1*). Nevertheless,

they have more time due to mechanized farming so there is an opportunity for them to diversify their sources of income by engaging in the off farm employment so as to increase their income. This, in turn, will lead to the improvement in their standard of living; nevertheless, there are also other factors which determine their participation in the off farm employment, such as their age, level of education, number of dependents, other income, as well as the size and of their farms.

category questions. A dichotomous choice question offers just two answer choices, i.e. yes or no, and the multiple category questions have more than two choices of answer. The collected data were analyzed using the statistical package for social science (SPSS) software for the descriptive analysis and logit regression.

In this study, the descriptive analysis was used to describe the characteristics of the variables, in terms of the frequencies and the percentage of distribution of the survey, which aided in making comparison among the variables. Meanwhile, the logit model was used to estimate the decision rule for farmers' off-farm work participation; a binary choice model based on the method of maximum likelihood was specified. Each observation was treated as a single draw from a Bernoulli distribution (Greene, 2000). The dependent variable was set as a 0 – 1 dummy, taking the value 1 for the farm household members who participated in the off-farm work and 0 for the members who did not. The predicted value of the dependent variable could be interpreted as the probability of participating in the off farm work, given the values of the independent variables.

The logit model to estimate the participation in the off-farm work may be written as:

$$Y_i^* = \beta X_i + u_i, u_i \sim N[0, 1], i = 1, \dots, n$$

$$Y_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } Y_i^* > 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

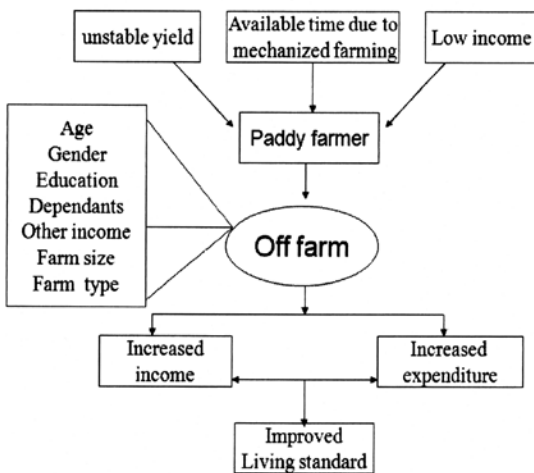


Fig. 1: Host of problems facing by paddy farmers

METHODOLOGY

Surveys were conducted to examine the off farm employment decision-making among the paddy farmers in granary area of Kemasin Semerak. Two hundred and fifty paddy farmers were selected for this study, and they were selected using the stratified random sampling (a sampling procedure in which the population is separated into categories prior to the selection of elements. The strata is also collectively exhaustive and no population element can be excluded. Then, random is applied within each stratum. Sampling equal numbers from strata varying widely in size has been used to equate the statistical power of tests of differences between strata. The structured questionnaire was design to gather the necessary information and data on the off-farm employment participation decision among the paddy farmers. The questionnaire consisted of structured questions and was divided into two types, dichotomous choice and multiple

The Dependent Variable: On- and Off-Farm Participation

Since it analyzed the individual participation in off-farm work, this study used dummy variable, which indicated two possibilities of individual participation between the off-farm and on-farm work.

The participation in the off-farm work in this study is defined as the individuals' participation in secondary or additional job away from own plot of land. This job firstly includes primary activities in the non-agricultural sector. In addition, it also includes secondary activities in both agricultural (e.g. a rice farmer who owns land or a wage worker, and has a secondary job in fish farming either privately owned or wage job) and non-agricultural sector (e.g. a rice farmer who owns land or a wage worker, and has a secondary job in transportation or retailer; a farm household member who owns a barber shop or vendors).

The participation in the on-farm work in this study is defined as the individuals' participation in the agricultural sector as the main job only, with no secondary or additional job at all. For instance, a rice farmer with owned land or wage rice farmer, owner of animal husbandry or workers in fish farming, etc. It is important to note here that all of them did not participate in any other kinds of employment.

Independent Variables: Determinants of the Off-farm Participation

Based on the empirical studies mentioned in Chapter 2, independent variables in this study were the determinants of the participation in the off-farm work. In total, there were four groups of independent variables analyzed in this study:

Individual characteristics: Three variables were used as individual characteristics in this study; they are as follows:

Gender: This dummy variable represented the gender segregation between the male and female among household members. The variable predicted parameter was expected to have a negative sign to indicate that the females were less likely to participate in the off-farm work.

Age: This factor was used to capture the life-cycle effect to participate in the off-farm work. The variable predicted parameter was expected to have a negative sign to indicate that after certain ages, the increasing "tendency" to participate in off-farm work would also decline.

Level of education: This variable represented the human capital endowment. It was expected that the increase in the individual years of schooling would increase the tendency to engage in the off-farm work.

Family characteristics: The variables used to represent the family characteristics include:

Dependents Size is the number of individuals living in a household. It was expected that a larger dependent size would increase the tendency to participate in the off-farm work. Having more people living in a household also meant that more burden and reason to the actively working individuals, and this would increase the likelihood to participate in the off-farm work.

Other incomes are defined as all other non-labour incomes including pension, insurance benefits, transfer, remittances, bonus, etc. Individuals with higher other revenue were expected to be less

likely to participate in the off farm work since they already possessed the certainty from passive sources of income.

Farm characteristics are variables which indicate the endowment of a farm household. These include:

Farm size is the size of any farm land owned by the households in hectares. Besides capital, this variable shows land ownership which reflects asset holding related to poverty. It was assumed that small farm size was related to poor farm household, and vice versa. Thus, the participation in the off-farm work was expected to be less likely favoured by individuals with larger farm size owned.

Land market is related to whether or not landless household rented in land or had shared crops. Individuals who come from this household were expected to increase the motivation in the off-farm participation due to deficiency in the income from farm waged works in other farms or small percentage of shares on cultivated land.

Farm types indicate the most valuable crops or livestock which a farm household produced for either market or home-consumption.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The empirical results and discussion are presented in two sub-sections. In the first sub-section, a descriptive analysis was used to describe the basic features of the data in this study. In particular, it described the respondents' profile and their perception towards off-farm employment. Meanwhile, the second sub-section looks into the logit analysis to determine the factors which influence paddy farmers to participate in the off-farm employment.

The Results of the Descriptive Analysis

Table 1 presents the socio-economic profile of the respondents. Zero point four percent of the respondents were less than 25 years old, 31.2% were between 25-50 years, and 65.2% were between 51-75 years, while 3.2% were above 75 years. Seventy six point four percent of the respondents are males, while female contributed to only 23.6%. Twenty four percent of the respondents did not have any formal education, 30.4% of the respondents had a primary education, and 33.2% had secondary education, while 12.4% had tertiary education. Ninety four point four percent

TABLE 1
The respondents' demographic profile

Characteristics	Number	Percentage	Characteristics	Number	Percentage
Age (year)			Paddy income		
<25	1	0.4	<3000	154	61.6
25-50	78	31.2	3000-6000	58	23.2
50-75	168	65.2	>6000	38	15.2
>75	8	3.2			
Gender			Off-farm participation		
Male	191	76.4	Yes	136	54.4
Female	59	23.6	No	114	45.6
Level of education			Off-farm income		
No education	60	24.0	<2000	75	55.2
Primary education	76	30.4	2000-3000	37	27.2
Secondary education	83	33.2	>3000	24	17.6
Tertiary education	31	12.4			
Farm size			Total income		
0.5-1.0ha	236	94.4	<4000	90	36.0
1.1-2.0ha	10	4.0	4000-6000	53	21.2
2.1-3.0ha	4	1.6	>6000	107	42.8
Dependents size			Change in income after off farm work		
< 3	60	25.2	Increase	126	92.6
3-6	125	50.0	Same	10	7.4
> 6	62	24.8	Decrease	0	0.0

Notes: Off-farm participation, off-farm income and changes in income after participating in the off-farm activities are only attributed to those who participated in the off-farm employment. This involved 136 out of 250 respondents.

TABLE 2
Results from the Logit Analysis

Variable	B	S.E	WALD	SIG.	EXP(B)
AGECAT1	-2.394	0.857	7.801	0.005*	0.091
AGECAT2	-0.459	0.726	0.400	0.527	0.632
EDUCAT1	19.008	6966.838	0.000	0.998	2E+008
EDUCAT2	0.225	0.737	0.094	0.760	1.253
EDUCAT3	0.237	0.746	0.101	0.751	0.789
GENDER	-1.674	0.742	5.085	0.024*	5.335
DEPCAT1	4.582	1.894	5.851	0.016*	0.010
DEPCAT2	5.411	1.844	8.608	0.003*	0.004
DEPCAT3	5.655	2.041	7.680	0.006*	0.003
TOICAT1	-0.916	0.593	2.389	0.122	0.400
TOICAT2	-35.638	14184.170	0.000	0.998	0.000
TOICAT3	-20.858	12770.401	0.000	0.998	0.000
FSCAT1	-1.323	1.200	1.216	0.270	0.266
FSCAT2	-1.345	1.249	1.160	0.282	0.260
FTCAT1	6.015	1.191	25.516	0.000*	409.404
FTCAT2	2.017	1.261	2.556	0.110	7.515
CONSTANT	1.288	2.332	0.305	0.561	3.627

-2log likelihood=129.111

Percentage of correct prediction=89.2

* Significant at level 0.05

of the respondents have small size farms, 4.0% of the respondents have medium size farms and 1.6% has large farm.

Twenty five point two percent of the respondents had less than three dependents, 50.0% of the respondents had between three to six dependents and 24.8% had more than dependents. Fifty four point four percent of the respondents used to participate in off-farm employment, while 45.6% of the respondents did not participate in any kinds of off-farm employment.

Sixty one point six percent of the respondents in the area had low income, 23.2% had middle income and 15.2% had high income from paddy farming. Fifty five point two percent of the respondents who participated in the off-farm employment in the area had low income, 27.2% had middle income and 17.6% had high income from the off-farm employment. From the total income, 36.0% of the respondents in the area were identified to have low income, 21.2% had middle income and 42.8% had high income

from all the sources of their income. Ninety two point six percent of the respondents in the area have experienced increase in the income after engaging in the off-farm employment, 7.4% indicated that their income remained the same and none of them experienced a decrease in their income.

The Logit Analysis

A logistic regression model was used to predict the probability factors which determined the paddy farmers' participation in the off-farm activities. As indicated earlier, the dependent variable was the participation in the off-farm employment; for this, those participating were assigned the value of one, while zero was assigned if the respondent were not participating. Further details of the categories of the variables are given in Table 3.

The independent variables were the individual characteristics (age, level of education and gender), family characteristics (the number of dependents and other income sources), and farm characteristics (size, type and land holding).

TABLE 3
Variables and their definitions

Variables	Their Definitions
AGECAT1	Respondents that are less than twenty five years
AGECAT2	Respondents that are within twenty five to fifty years
AGECAT3	Respondents that are within fifty to seventy five years
AGECAT4	Respondents that are above seventy five years
EDUCAT1	Respondents that have no formal education
EDUCAT2	Respondents that have primary education
EDUCAT3	Respondents that have secondary education
EDUCAT4	Respondents that have tertiary education
GENDER	
DEPCAT1	Respondents that have less than three dependents
DEPCAT2	Respondents that have three to six dependents
DEPCAT3	Respondents that have above six dependents
TOICAT1	Respondents that have less than RM1000 as other income
TOICAT2	Respondents that have between RM1000 and RM2000 as other income
TOICAT3	Respondents that have more than RM2000 as other income
FSCAT1	Respondents that have 0.5-1.0ha of land
FSCAT2	Respondents that have 1.1-2.0ha of land
FSCAT3	Respondents that have 2.1-3.0ha of land
FTCAT1	Respondents that have their own farm
FTCAT2	Respondents that have rent the farm
FTCAT3	Respondents that have both rent an own the farm

Table 2 illustrates the results gathered from the logit analysis. The interpretation of the negative coefficient of age was that the individual participation declined as age increased. In other words, the probability of the participation in the off-farm work increased at younger age, but this was found to decrease as individuals got older. From the table, only AGE CAT1 (age category of less than 25 years) showed a significant relationship with 0.091 expected likelihood of participation in the off-farm employment increased with age.

The positive coefficient of education indicated that individuals who had had more years of schooling had a higher probability to participate in the off-farm work. One additional year of formal education was found to increase the likelihood of the individuals to participate in off-farm activities. However, looking at the above table, education did not show any significance to the off farm employment in this area, indicating that the farmers' participation in the off farm employment had nothing to do with them being educated or not. On the contrary, gender showed significant effects on the participation in the off-farm employment, whereby males had 5.335 more likelihood to participate than the females.

The number of dependent family members also imposed a significant relationship with the off-farm employment and the positive coefficient indicated that as the total number of dependents increased, there would be more likelihood for the farmer to participate in the off-farm activities to supplement their income. DEPCAT1 (category of the farmers with less than 3 dependent family members) showed a significant relationship, with 0.010 expected likelihood of participation as the number of dependents increased. DEPCAT2 (category of the respondents with 3-6 people as dependents) also showed a significant impact with 0.004 expected likelihood of participation, and DEPCAT3 (category of the respondents with more than 6 dependents) indicated a significant relationship with 0.003 expected likelihood of participation.

The negative coefficient of TOICAT (total other income) indicated that as other income sources such as pension remittance and gift from children increased, there would be less likelihood to participate in the off-farm employment. In this case, the total other income sources did not show any significant effect on the farmers' participation in the off farm work.

The negative coefficient of FSCAT (farm size category) implied that as the size of the farm increased, there was less likelihood for the respondents to participate in the off-farm employment. However, based on the data presented in Table 1, the size of farms did not show any significance on the farmers' participation in the off-farm employment. On the contrary, FTCAT1 (farm type category 1) showed a significant relationship with the off-farm employment, i.e. with 409.404 likelihood of farmers' participation.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The study assessed the off-farm employment decision among the paddy farmers in Kemasin Semarak granary area. In particular, the study attempted to determine the relationship between the determinants of the off-farm and the off-farm participation decision. It was also undertaken to describe the characteristics of respondents and their status in the off-farm employment.

The results gathered in the present study showed that the majority of the respondents were males and married. In general, most of them were between 51-75 years old and had more than primary school education. The variables which were found to influence the likelihood of the paddy farmers to engage in the off-farm employment were their age, gender, and the number of dependants, other income sources and the types of farm. It is evident from this study, that both farm size and education were not significant factors affecting the farmers' decision towards off-farm participation, and this was proven by the insignificant association observed between the two variables and the participation in the off farm activities.

From the study, it could be observed that the paddy farmers held a positive perception towards the off-farm employment; those who participated agreed that involving in the off-farm employment had improved their standard of living by deriving benefits of generating more income. The findings also showed that combining both the on-farm and off-farm activities was found to enable the farmers to generate more income for their households as compared to those who were solely dependent on the farm income.

The trend to the bimodal farm size distribution will likely continue in the granary areas, since it is the middle age cohort of farmers who are most

likely to work off farm. Meanwhile, the oldest farmers cohort will not engage themselves in the off-farm employment. Therefore, there is a need for the government to formulate a policy to increase the availability of the off-farm jobs in the vicinity of farmers. It is equally important that the land ownership system be reviewed to enable farmers to own their own lands. Women should also be encouraged to participate in farming activities. Furthermore, NGOs should be encouraged to create more income-generating activities, particularly for those living in the rural areas.

REFERENCES

- ALIAS RADAM and ISMAIL ABD. LATIFF (1995). Off farm labor decisions by farmers in northwest Selangor Integrated Agricultural Development Project (IADP) in Malaysia. *Bangladesh Journal of Agricultural Economics*, 18(2), 51-61.
- CORNER, L. (1981). The impact of rural outmigration: Labour supply and cultivation techniques in a double cropped padi area, west Malaysia. Ph.D thesis, Macquarie University, Sydney.
- DAVIS, JR. R. (2004). *The Rural Non-Farm Economy, Livelihoods and their Diversification: Issues and Options*. Chatham, UK: Natural Resource Institute.
- FAO. (1998). *Rural Non-Farm Income in Developing Countries*. The State of Food and Agriculture. 1998.
- GORDON, A. (1999). *Non-Farm Rural Livelihoods*. Chatham, UK: Natural Resources.
- GREENE, W.H. (2000). *Econometric Analysis*. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall International, Inc.
- JAYASURIYA, S.K and SHAND, R.T. (1985). Technical change and labour absorption in Asian agriculture: Some recent trends. *World Development*, 14(3), 415-428.
- JAYAWARDANE, S.N. (1996). Socio-economic constraints and future prospects for crop diversification in minor irrigation schemes. Workshop on crop diversification, Colombo, Sri Lanka.
- MAROOKA, Y., OHNISHI, A. and YASUNOBU, K. (1991). Reciprocal form of family farm and group farming: A perspective of kelompok tani in Malaysia and Indonesia. *Japanese Journal of Farm Management*, 69,13-29.
- REARDON, T., KOSTAS, G.S., and WINTERS, P. (2002). *Promoting Farm/Non- Farm Linkages for Rural Development: Case Studies from Africa and Latin America*. Rome: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations.
- SHAND, R.T. and CHEW, T.A. (1983). *Off-farm employment in the Kemubu Project in Kelantan, Malaysia*.
- TAYLOR, D. C. (1981). *The economics of Malaysian paddy production and irrigation*. Bangkok: The Agricultural Development Council.

Self-Construal and Exposure to American Entertainment and News Programs Among Malaysian Youths

Ezhar Tamam^{1*}, Lars Willnat² and Mohd Nizam Osman¹

¹*Department of Communication, Faculty of Modern Languages and Communication, Universiti Putra Malaysia, 43400 UPM, Serdang, Selangor, Malaysia*

²*Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana, U.S.A.*

*E-mail: ezhar@fbmk.upm.edu.my

ABSTRACT

This study examined self-construal (self-independence/self-interdependence) of Malaysian youths, and its relationship with the exposure to American entertainment and news programs. A total of 401 Malay, Chinese and Indian youths participated in the survey by completing the self-administered questionnaires. The results revealed that the respondents exhibited fairly balanced levels of self-interdependence and self-independence. The Malay respondents showed somewhat a higher level of self-interdependence than that of the Chinese and Indians. The respondents who described self primarily in independent, rather than interdependent term, were more likely to have a higher level of exposure to American movies and music. Nevertheless, no significant difference was observed in the exposure to American news programs. The findings supported the contention on the role of self-construal in explaining the variation in the consumption of American movies and music among the youth in a non-western country.

Keywords: Self-construal, media exposure, U.S. media programs, Malaysian youth

INTRODUCTION

Why do some non-American audience in non-western countries consume more American media programs than others? Although there have been immense amount and variety of scholarships on the topic of media use, literature on the influence of self-construal on exposure to U.S. entertainment and news programs among non-American audience in collectivistic societies such as Malaysia is still lacking.

Media scholars are in agreement that the context of audience does play a role in the motivation of media use and the resulting pattern of exposure. Individuals use the media for many different purposes and receive many gratifications from this use. The use and gratification sought are assumed to be related to how audience see and define themselves—their identity (Kim *et*

al., 2001). In this sense, self-construal should provide additional theoretical explanation for the variation in the pattern of media use, including its use across the culture. While culture does affect individual communication behaviour, at the individual level, self-construal is more useful and appropriate in analyzing cultural influence on an individual's communication behaviour (Kim *et al.*, 2001). Despite the growth in the literature on the use of media and an increasing globalization of the American media programs, none of the past media use and exposure studies have investigated the relationship between self-construal with exposure to American entertainment and news programs among the non-American audience. Assuming that the U.S. media programs are culturally inappropriate in the non-western cultures and that the inflow of the American

media programs is seen as a form of cultural imperialism (e.g. Shigeru, 1998; Park, 2005) as well as given the gap in the literature on the influence of self-construal on media use, it is worthwhile to examine whether self-construal is in any way related to the exposure to American entertainment and news programs among the non-western audience. The present analysis was carried out in the case of the Malaysian audience. The findings of the study would provide an insight into the role of self-construal in predicting the media use behaviour in the context of trans-cultural impact of media systems.

Television Programming

The dominance of the United States in the international trade, specifically in supplying the American entertainment and news programs has so far been well-documented and this is accordingly applicable to the issues of cultural imperialism and the negative effects of exposure to foreign (western) media programs, particularly the entertainment programs which have been raised in many Third World countries. Despite the concerns, the popularity of the imported media programs, especially from the U.S. in the non western countries, is not diminishing (Shigeru, 1998; Park, 2005).

In Malaysia, television is the main source of news and entertainment (Media Guide, 2006). With the growth of the media and entertainment industry in the country, the availability of and accessibility to the U.S. imported media programs is not a problem. In fact, the trend of high percentage of imported programs, mainly from the United States in Malaysian televisions, has been the case since early seventies (Mohd Yusof Hussain, 2006). The continuous popularity of the western media programs, particularly from the U.S. among Malaysian audience, is understandable, given the lack of quality local entertainment programs in the country.

The Impacts of Trans-Cultural Television Programming

The issue of trans-cultural impact of the media system is important. In the case of Malaysia, the government has set a broadcasting policy which targets at a certain minimum percentage of the local contents in the media programs. While the government has established guidelines for media organizations to follow, in practice much improvement still needs to be made. In more

specific, the American programs still dominate the Malaysian television programming. Most of the western movies promote the lifestyle, values, morals and belief system which are truly foreign; the news programs are based on the western conception of truth, freedom and democracy, which may not resonate with the Malaysian cultural values, and their music videos are based on the changing western taste devoid of the spiritual values (Mohd Yusof Hussain, 2006). Logically, those who are concerned with or fearful of the negative influence of western programs would refrain themselves and their family members from such programs. Some, on the contrary, view the exposure to western programs as a source of learning about foreign cultures and help broaden audience's outlook and world view (Shigeru, 1998; Park, 2005).

Exposure to mass media is an important subject worth examining because of the role mass media play in the society. Emmers-Sommer and Allen (1999), based on their meta-analysis of the media effect studies, reaffirmed the claim that mass media are a significant source of learning and could influence the attitude and behaviour of individuals. In the trans-cultural media systems, Park (2005), for instance, found that the perception of the foreign culture was more strongly affected by media use. Meanwhile, many studies on mass media effects have found that media do have an influence on audience's knowledge, attitude, and behaviour; the impact is dependent on the amount and the type of media the audience are exposed to (Frey Meyer, 2006).

Studies which specifically examine the impacts of foreign media programs, particularly the entertainment and news programs from the U.S. on the non-Western audience are not many, and the findings are mixed. Elasmir and Hunter (1997) pointed out that there were reports of negative impacts of exposure to western media programs on the values and identities of the non-Western audience; others observed that the exposure to the western programs broadened the perspective and promoted learning about the foreign culture.

Taking note of the inconsistency in the findings of past studies in relation to the impacts of exposure to foreign (western) programs on non-Western audience and culture, the present study was not focusing on the media effect or the inconsistent media effect findings. Instead, the present study addressed a different issue

and attempted to fill in the gap in the literature, especially to clarify a possible association of self-construal with the exposure to the western entertainment and news programs among the non-western audience from the use and gratification as well as social identity perspectives. In the age of increasing foreign programming availability in the Malaysian mass media system, and the concern over the negative influence of these programs, it is very pertinent to uncover the correlates of the exposure to western programs. The interest here is on the role of self-construal, although many other factors, such as age and gender, have been observed to correlate with the exposure to the media programs in several past studies (Elasmar and Hunter, 1997; Emmers-Sommer and Allen, 1999; Park, 2005).

Self-Construal Influence

Kim *et al.* (2001) argued that one way to understand the influence of culture on an individual's communication behaviour was to determine the way the individual conceives himself/herself, that is, his or her self-construal. On the contrary, Markus and Kitayama (1994) argued that self-construal influenced cognition, emotion and motivation of individuals. Generally, self-construal has been defined in terms of perceived interconnectedness and distance from other people, and concerned on self over others. Independent self-construal and interdependent self-construal are the two dimensions of self-construal which have been widely studied and discussed in the literature. The central difference between independent-self and interdependent-self lies in a person's belief of how his or her self is related to others and the society. Although people possess both independent and interdependent self-identity, one generally predominates over the other. Gudykunst *et al.* (1996) found that self-construal was related to the values of individualism and collectivism, and self-construal was found to be a better predictor of specific behaviour choices than the cultural-level notion of individualism/collectivism. They further noted that independent self-construal is used predominantly by people of individualistic culture, while the interdependent self-construal is largely used by those of collectivistic culture. In the case of Malaysia, Bochner (1994) reported that Malaysians' self-construal was more interdependent rather than more independent. This resonates with the claim that Malaysia is a

collectivistic society (e.g. Tamam, Hassan and Yadi, 1997). Nevertheless, Malaysia is not a homogenous collectivistic society. Malaysia comprises of a multiethnic and multicultural society. While it is expected that Malaysians define their selves more in interdependent term, it is not clear if there is significant variation across the ethnic groups.

Self-construal has been identified as a predictor of communication behaviour. Past studies have found that it is related to communication orientation and behaviour such as verbal promotion (Wittenbaum, 2000), conversational constraints (Oetzel, 1998), and preferences consumption through the process of self-expression (Aaker and Schmitt, 2001), to mention a few. However, the relationship of self-construal with media use has not been examined. Oskam and Hudson (1999) pointed out that some scholars had proposed that subscription to and the use of media was related to individuals' identity with their communities and neighbours. This resonates well with the social identity view. In this sense, it is probable to anticipate that self-construal correlates with media use. The normative imperative of the independent self-construal is to achieve independence and self-actualization. Those with highly developed independent self-construal would see themselves as separate from others. Thus, their media use behaviour would not be much subjected to what is approved and disapproved in the society and culture. In contrast, the normative imperative of the interdependent self-construal is to maintain connected and harmony with significant others. It is important to note that people with interdependent self are concerned with others' feelings and evaluation. For individuals who maintain a collectivistic view of self, identity is acquired from their group. Allegiance to their group identity and cultural values is of supreme importance. In a sense, people with highly developed interdependent self-construal would control and restrict emotional expression and communication behaviour, including the media programs they consume. In short, individuals with different orientations of self-construal should exhibit different media consumption pattern.

The Objectives of the Study

Drawing on the above discussions, the objectives of the present study were to test the following hypotheses:

- H1: Malaysian youth described their self-construal more in interdependent rather than independent term.
- H2: Malaysian youth, who described themselves primarily in independent-self rather than primarily in interdependent-self, are more likely to have greater exposure to U.S. movies.
- H3: Malaysian youth, who described themselves primarily in independent-self rather than primarily in interdependent-self, are more likely to have greater exposure to U.S. music.
- H4: Malaysian youth, who described themselves primarily in independent-self rather than primarily in interdependent-self, are more likely to have greater exposure to U.S. news.

METHODS

Samples

A total of 401 students completed the survey on a voluntary basis. For this purpose, a convenience sampling technique was used in getting the respondents for the study. The sample consisted of slightly more females (51%) than males, and a fairly representative distribution of ethnicity (49% Malays, 32% Chinese, and 13% Indians, the three major ethnic groups in Peninsular Malaysia) and religions (51% Islam, 13% Christian, 11% Hindu, and 22% Buddhist). Meanwhile, the average age of respondents was 21.4 years ($SD = 2.6$).

Instrument

Copies of self-administered questionnaire were distributed to undergraduate and graduate students who had enrolled themselves in for the communication and business classes at three large public universities in Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia. The questionnaire was originally written in English and then translated into Bahasa Malaysia by native speakers. The questionnaire took between ten to fifteen minutes to be completed.

Independent/ interdependent self-construal. Self-construal was measured using a series of 26 statements adapted from Gudykunst *et al.* (1996). The first subscale, which measures an independent self-construal, includes 13 items which ask respondents on how much they agree with statements, such as "I should decide my future on my own," "I try not to depend on others," or "I enjoy being unique and different from others." Meanwhile, the second subscale,

which measures an interdependent self-construal, also consists of 13 items which ask respondents to indicate their agreement with statements, such as "I respect decisions made by my group," "I stick with my group even through difficulties," or "I will sacrifice my self-interest for the benefit of my group." All the items were assessed on a seven-point scale (1 = "strongly disagree" to 7 = "strongly agree") and added into the two separate self-construal scales. Higher scores mean greater tendencies towards the type of self-construal measured. In this study, both the independent self-construal (Cronbach's alpha = .68, $M = 5.2$, $SD = .73$) and the interdependent self-construal scales (Cronbach's alpha = .79, $M = 5.2$, $SD = .63$) achieved an acceptable level of reliability.

Exposure to U.S. media program. The exposure to three different media programs was also measured. Firstly, the exposure to U.S. television series/movies and theatre films; second, listening to U.S. music, and third, watching CNN news. The measurement of the exposure to U.S. series/movies/films was done by asking the respondents, (1) to indicate on a four-point scale how regularly (1 = "never" to 4 = "regularly") they watched any of the nine popular television shows (CSI, Medical Investigation, Apprentice, Desperate Housewives, Fear Factor, Survivor, Amazing Race, Lost, Prison Break), and (2) whether they saw any of the 12 movies which were shown in the Malaysian cinemas at the time of this study (The Da Vinci Code, X-Men: The Last Stand, Pirates of the Caribbean 2, The Omen, Cars, The Fast and the Furious: Tokyo Drift, Superman Returns, Just My Luck, Scary Movie 4, Over the Hedge, The Lake House, The American Haunting). The extent of exposure to U.S. series/movies/films was determined by calculating the mean score of the nine questions. Once again, a higher mean score indicates a greater exposure.

Exposure to U.S. music was measured using this question: Considering the time spent each day listening to music, how much of the music you listened to is American music? (1=most of the music listened to are U.S. music, 2=some of the music are U.S. music, 3= do not listen to American music). Similarly, in order to account for the exposure to U.S. news, the respondents were asked to indicate on a four-point scale (1 = "never" to 4 = "regularly") how regularly they watched "CNN" and "major news from the United States." A higher score on the one-item exposure to U.S. music scale and one-item exposure to U.S.

news scale indicated a greater exposure to U.S. music and news.

Analysis Procedure

Prior to the actual data analysis, data exploratory analysis was done to check for any data entry error and normality in distribution. Paired t-tests were used to test all the four hypotheses. All the four hypotheses tested were the comparison of the group means. The level of significance used to accept or reject the hypotheses was 0.05.

RESULTS

The first hypothesis (H1) of the study predicted that Malaysian youth described themselves more in interdependent-self rather than independent-self. *Fig. 1* summarizes the mean scores on the independent self-construal and interdependent self-construal of the respondents. No significant difference was observed in the mean scores between the independent self-construal ($M=5.15$, $SD= .773$) and interdependent self-construal ($M=5.16$, $SD= .667$) ($t= .053$, $n= 401$, $\rho = .957$). The result clearly shows that the respondents exhibited fairly balanced levels of the interdependent-self and independent-self. In addition, an extra analysis was performed to determine if the mean scores on the two construal of self were significantly different across the ethnic groups. The comparatively analysis showed that Malays

($M=5.28$) scored higher in the interdependent-self as compared to that of the Indians and Chinese ($M=5.09$, $SD=.669$; $M=4.99$, $SD=.767$ respectively). Meanwhile, the Malays' score was significantly higher than the other two ($F=6.826$, $df=2$, $n=398$, $\rho =.001$). Nevertheless, no significant differences in the independent-self scores were observed between the Malays, Chinese and Indians ($F= .498$, $df=2$, $n=398$, $\rho =.608$).

Fig. 2 presents the results on the hypothesized difference between the respondents who described themselves primarily in the interdependent-self or primarily in the independent-self with regard to the exposure to the American media programs. As expected, the respondents who described themselves as more towards independent rather than interdependent were found to watch more U.S. movies than those who described themselves as more interdependent than independent, as indicated by the mean scores of 2.56 ($SD=.641$) for the more independent-self samples and 2.43 ($SD=.621$) for the interdependent-self samples ($t= -1.866$, $\rho = .031$). A similar pattern of findings was also observed for the test to determine the difference between the two samples on the exposure to the U.S. music. Based on the findings, those who described themselves as primarily in the independent rather than interdependent term were found to listen more to U.S. music than those who described themselves more in the interdependent than independent term, as shown

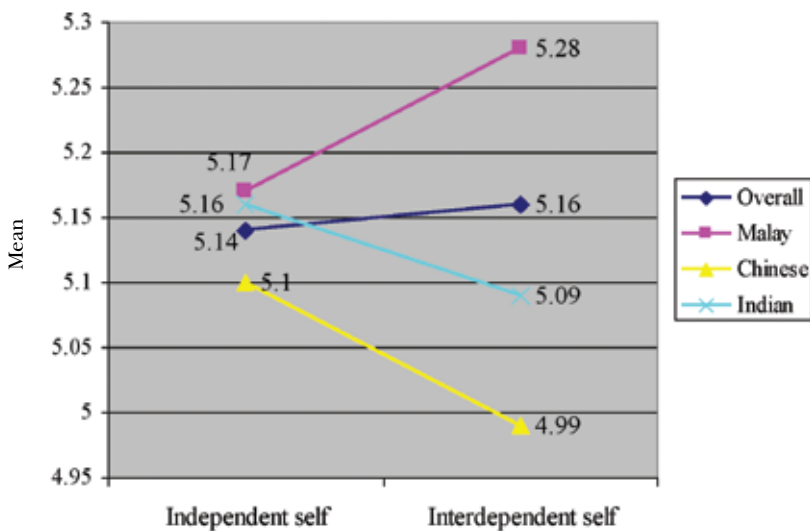


Fig. 1: Independent self and Interdependent self scores by ethnic

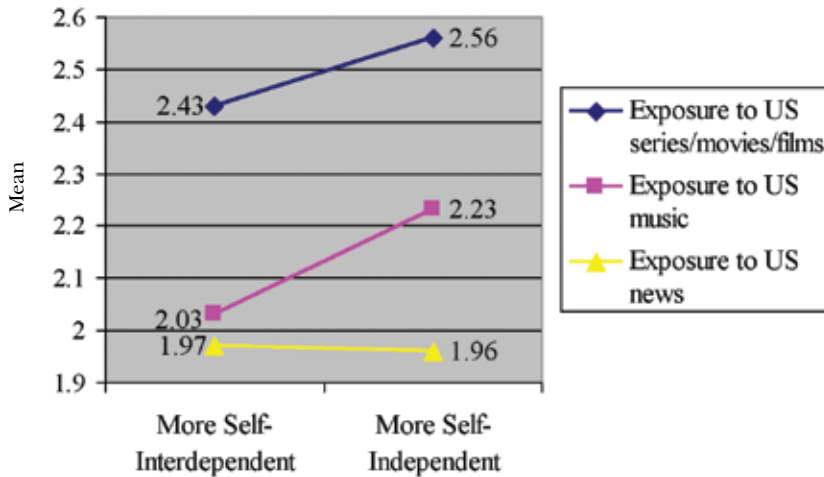


Fig. 2: Exposure to American media programs by self-construal

by the mean scores of 2.23 ($SD=.595$) for the more self-independent-self samples and 2.03 ($SD=.609$) for the interdependent-self samples ($t=-3.394$, $p=.031$). Therefore, H2 and H3 are supported. However, the study failed to find any support for H4. Both the more independent-self and more interdependent-self groups did not differ in the mean score on the exposure to the American news in the U.S. news media.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

This study investigated the relationship between self-construal with exposure to U.S. entertainment and the news programs among university students in Malaysia. Malaysia is categorized as a collectivistic country, and in a collectivistic society, the assumption is interdependent self-construal is dominant over independent self-construal. The study first predicted that Malaysian youth described themselves more in the interdependent-self rather than independent-self term. On the contrary to the expectation, the data of the present study showed inconsistencies with the prediction. Therefore, H1 is not supported. Both self-construal types are fairly visible among all the samples. The findings also implied that the characteristics of the independent self-construal are getting more visible among the Malaysian youth. This could be attributed to modernization and the progress which have been taking place in the society. The general perception is that as people modernize, they tend to be more materialistic and individualistic. This finding resonates with

Tamam, Hassan and Yadi's (1997) finding which states that individualistic values are getting more and more visible in the Malaysian society. Based on Tamam, Hassan and Yadi's (1997) findings and the findings of the present study, it seems that the Malaysian youth are no longer defining their construal of self more in the interdependent than independent terms. Hence, by implication, claiming or stereotyping Malaysians, primarily as a collectivistic society, is most likely no longer accurate. The finding challenges prior simplistic notion that Malaysia seems to be a culture that ranks high on the collectivistic values.

The finding also suggests that the two dimensions of self-construal are not related. This is supported by the results gathered from the additional analysis using the bivariate Pearson correlation procedure, which show that both interdependent self-construal and independent self-construal are independent dimensions of self-construal ($r=.078$, $p=.577$).

The finding of the present study which is not in line with the assumption that interdependent-self is more predominant in a collectivistic culture could also be interpreted as self-construal is not related with individual-collectivism. This is in line with Park and Levine's (1999) conclusion that their research did not provide any conclusive link between culture and self-construal.

Thus, a question was raised, i.e. whether the Malays, Chinese and Indians differ in the level of interdependent and independent self-construal. The finding suggests that the Malays seem to describe themselves more in the interdependent

terms as compared to that of the Chinese and Indians; the result suggests that the Malays are more collectivistic than that of the Chinese and Indians.

The central question of the present analysis is whether self-construal could be used to explain the variation in the exposure to the American entertainment and news programs among Malaysian youth. The study predicted that the respondents who described themselves primarily in independent rather than interdependent terms were more likely to have a greater exposure to U.S. movies and music, H2 and H3, respectively. These two hypotheses were supported. People who described self-construal more in interdependent rather than independent term seemed to be less exposed to the American movies and music. The logical explanation for this was that the values imparted in the American entertainment programs would have an unhealthy effect on the traditional and local culture and values. The exposure to the American cultural values could be seen as a threat to their socio-cultural identity and values. Therefore, as the present analysis showed that individuals with a dominant interdependent self-construal were more likely to demonstrate allegiance and conformity to social and cultural demand via their behaviour including the media use behaviour by limiting or restraining exposure to western media programs. The result is paralleled with Adker and Schmitt's (2001) finding which states that the differences in self-construal affect the preference consumption through the process of self-expression.

However, the present study failed to find support for the hypothesized difference in the exposure to U.S. news between the individuals who identified themselves primarily in interdependent rather than primarily in independent term. Nonetheless, the reason for this is not clear. Similarly, the study also failed to observe a significant difference, and this was probably because there was not much variation in the exposure to U.S. news among the respondents in the first place. However, this is merely a methodological explanation. Another possible explanation is that, unlike listening to the music or watching the movies which promotes the American life-style clearly and directly, watching western-based news programs is not construed as bad and culturally inappropriate. The general perception is that entertainment, particularly western-originated, is bad. However, as for the

news, news is informative, and listening or watching news is educational and it increases one's general knowledge.

Overall, the findings support the contention that the differences in consumption of American movies and music among the youth in Malaysia were because of the differences in how the youth viewed their self-construal. The consumption of American movies and music seemed to be higher among the youth who described themselves as primarily in independent rather than interdependent term.

The findings of this study are, of course, limited by the fact that data were collected from a non-representative student sample. While the study acknowledges that such a sample cannot be representative of the general youth population, the findings could still be generalized to the youth population in general, because the media use process is thought to be generic, that is the media use process should be similar, be it among students or non-student youth populations.

Finally, measures of media exposure traditionally have been problematic. The present study employed close-ended questions to measure the exposure to U.S. movies, music and news. In this sense, the findings on the relationship of self-construal with exposure to American entertainment and news are not conclusive. The study needs to be replicated using different measures, such as using open-ended questions which ask respondents to report the actual time they spend in a week for consuming U.S. music, movies and news programs, as well as the different segments of the society, to see if the present findings hold true.

REFERENCES

- AAKER, J. and SCHMITT, B. (2001). Culture-dependent: assimilation and differentiation of the self. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 32(5), 561-576.
- BOCHNER, S. (1994). Cross-cultural differences in self-construal: A test of Hofstede's individualism/collectivism distinction. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 25, 273-283.
- ELASMAR, M.G. and HUNTER, J.E. (1997). The impact of foreign TV on a domestic audience: A meta-analysis. In B. R. Burleson (Ed.), *Communication Yearbook 20*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- EMMERS-SOMMER, T. and ALLEN, M. (1999). Surveying the effect of media effect: A meta-analytic summary of the media effect research in

- Human Communication Research. *Human Communication Research*, 25(4), 478-497.
- FREYMEYER, R.H. (2006). Length of residence and media use. *The Social Science Journal*, 43, 227-238.
- GUDYKUNST, W.B., MATSUMOTO, Y., TING-TOOMEY, S., NISHIDA, T., KIM, K. and HEYMAN, S. (1996). The influence of cultural individualism-collectivism, self-construals, and individual values on communication style across culture. *Human Communication Research*, 22, 510-543.
- KIM, M.S., KIM, H.J., AUNE, K.S., HUNTER, J.E. and KIM, J. S. (2001). The effect of culture and self-construals on predisposition toward verbal communication. *Human Communication Research*, 27(3), 382-408.
- MARKUS, H.R. and KITAYAMA, S. (1994). A collective fear of the collective: Implications for selves and theories of selves. *Personality and Social Psychological Bulletin*, 20, 568-579.
- MEDIA GUIDE. (2006). *Malaysia Media and Advertising Guide Book*. Kuala Lumpur: Perception Media.
- MOHD YUSOF HUSSAIN. (2006). Living with global Television in Peninsular Malaysia. In Mohd Yusof Hussain (Ed.), *Media and Muslim Society* (pp. 235-242). Selangor: Research Center, International Islamic University Malaysia.
- OETZEL, J.G. (1998). Culturally homogenous and heterogeneous groups: Exploring communication process through individualism-collectivism and self-construal. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 22(2), 135-161.
- OSKAM, J. B. and HUDSON, J. C. (1999). Media preference and believability among rural respondents for news and advertising information. *The Social Science Journal*, 36(2), 285-298
- PARK, S. (2005). The impact of media use and cultural exposure on the mutual perception of Koreans and Japanese. *Asian Journal of Communication*, 15(2), 173-187.
- PARK, H.S. and LEVINE, T.R. (1999). The theory of reasoned action and self-construal: Evidence from three countries. *Communication Monographs*, 66, 199-128.
- SHIGERU, H. (1998). Japanese television as a window on other culture. *Japanese Psychological Research*, 40(4), 21-233.
- TAMAM, E., HASSAN, M.S., and YADI, M. (1997). Intracultural interpersonal conflict-handling styles Malay middle-level executives. *Malaysian Management Review*, 32(3), 55-61.
- WITTENBAUM, G. M. (2000). Relationships between self-construal and verbal promotion. *Communication Research*, 27(6), 704-722.

Punishing Forest Offenders: Out of Court or by the Court?

Rusli Mohd^{1*} and Miskon Simin²

¹*Faculty of Forestry, Universiti Putra Malaysia, 43400 UPM, Serdang, Selangor, Malaysia*

²*Sabah Forestry Department, Sandakan, Sabah, Malaysia*

**E-mail: rusli@forr.upm.edu.my*

ABSTRACT

This study compared the extent of compounded and court cases and the penalties charged for the two categories of offences. Data on 119 offences, of which 73% were compounded cases covering the period 1998 to 2002, were analysed. It was found that the mean penalty charged per offence was higher for compounded cases (RM37,180) than court cases (RM26,988). The mean penalties for illegal logging, evasion of royalty and encroachment compounded cases were RM91, 690, RM27, 932 and RM147, 000, respectively. Meanwhile, the corresponding values for the court cases were RM39, 500, RM12 668 and RM47, 760, respectively. Further analysis revealed that there was no significant difference in the mean penalties between the three types of offences for the court cases. However, there were significant differences in mean penalties for the the compounded cases. In addition, the regression model developed showed that for every unit increase in the cubic meter of illegal logging, there was a corresponding increase in the penalty by RM4692.39 for the courts cases and RM3151.17 for the compounded cases. The results suggested that, in terms of deterrence, the courts are the better means for punishing forest offenders.

Keywords: Forest offenders, illegal logging, court cases, penalty

INTRODUCTION

Forest offences are any activities which contravene the provisions of the forestry law of the state and they are a hindrance to sustainable forest management. The forest law prohibits many activities relating to the taking of forest produce, however, the major ones are felling outside concession boundaries, removing more timber than stipulated in concession contracts, felling in protected areas, cutting protected tree species, encroachment into forests for cultivation and evasion of royalty. Forest offences are parts of a wider spectrum of illegal forestry practices, which cover not only forest offences but the entire market chain, from illegal transport to industrial processing and trade operations, all the way down the line to markets.

Globally, the World Bank has estimated that illegal forestry practices cost the legal forest industry more than US\$10 billion per year and deprive governments of about US\$5 billions in revenue (World Bank, 2005). In addition, the problems of illegal forestry activities are not confined solely to the tropics. In the US, illegal logging on public lands is estimated to cost more than US\$1 billion per annum (Humphreys, 2006).

Forest offences, particularly illegal logging, are not new issues in the local forestry scene. The problem was particularly critical in the early 1990s at the time when the economy of the country was recovering from economic recessions. Logging activities accelerated to take opportunities of the buoyant demands for timber in overseas markets. In order to address the issue of illegal

Received: 7 July 2008

Accepted: 30 December 2008

*Corresponding Author

logging, the Federal government amended the National Forestry Act in 1993 to incorporate higher penalties for such activities. Studies have shown that illegal logging cases have since been declining, but they still haunt the forestry authority (Rusli and Amat Ramsa, 2003).

Tackling illegal logging activities is one of the priorities of the State Forestry Department, which is the focus of the study. In addition to incorporating higher penalties in the amendments of the State forest law, the authority also established the Monitoring, Control, Evaluation and Enforcement (MCEE), Special Investigation Team, Illegal Logging Task Force and Mobile Crack Unit (Miskon, 2003). The establishment of these machineries has brought positive results in the detection of illegal logging and related activities throughout the state (Dilimin, 2003, Personal communication).

Punishment for Forest Offenders

The Forest Enactment 1968 is the legal base for forest law enforcement in the State. The Enactment essentially contains provisions on establishment and excision of forest estate, its management, collection of revenue, as well as enforcement and penalties. The amendments made thus far provide for, among other matters, higher penalties for all offences, particularly illegal logging. Among the main offences prohibited by the law include illegal felling [S. 20(2) and S. 23(2)], evasion of royalty [S. 30(1) and S. 30A(1)], encroachment [S. 20(1) and S. 23(1)], illegal possession [S. 30(1)], illegal removal [S.23(1)] and cheating in the taking of forest produce [S.30(1) (a) to (f)]. The rationale for introducing higher penalties is to curb the occurrence of these offences.

Depending on the nature and seriousness of the offence, the Forestry Authority has either offered the offences to be compounded or brought the offenders to courts for trial. Compounding of forest offences is only an option and this is handled by the the Authority, particularly for offences which are committed for the first time [S. 35(2)]. However, the offender can also be brought to court for committing a serious offence even for the first time. This is particularly so for offences like illegal logging and forest encroachment involving a large forest area or a large quantity of logs (Dilimin, personal communication). The courts, on the other hand, can impose fines or jail sentence or both on those found guilty committing forest offences.

According to the Enactment, forest offences can be compounded with any amount which is less than the maximum fine for that particular offence and it has to be paid within a specified time [S.35 (1)]. For offences involving illegal taking or removing forest produce, those who commit them may be asked to pay, in addition to compounds, a sum not exceeding ten times the royalty, premium and cess; a sum not exceeding ten times the value of the produce; the costs of repairing any damage in respect of the offence committed, and any other charges payable to the state authority. Therefore, theoretically, the amount of fines is influenced by volume of logs illegally removed, their prices, rate of royalty, rate of premium, amount of damage done to the forest.

The maximum penalty for illegally taking and removing forest produce is quite punitive. The offence is liable to be punished with fines to a maximum of RM500,000 and be sent for imprisonment for a maximum period of twenty years or both. In addition, the offender can be asked to pay compensations, which is a sum not exceeding ten times the royalty, premium and cess, and a sum not exceeding ten times the value of the produce.

Past Research on Forest Offences

No previous research has been carried out to look at the roles of courts in punishing forest offenders. Several research have been done, however, to understand some factors affecting the occurrences and severity of punishments for forest offenders. The predictors which have been investigated include forestry factors, such as the size of forest area, number of enforcement officers and price of logs (Rusli, 1999; Rusli and Faridah, 2003). In addition to these, some macro-economic factors, such as rate of unemployment, per capita GNP and rate of inflation have also been analysed (Rusli, 2001, unpublished). The results of these research works revealed that the price of logs had a significant negative correlation with forest offences, particularly illegal logging. It means that the incidence of forest offences is higher when the economy slides down and, vice versa. Further analysis indicated that the price of logs, belonging to the heavy hardwood and medium hardwood species, were better predictors of illegal logging in permanent reserved forests. It was also found out that certain macro-economic factors, such as the rate of unemployment, had a positive correlation with illegal logging as well as other

forest offenders. Once again, this suggests that forest crimes are committed in times of economic recession.

Some other research have also looked at the impacts of some factors influencing the severity of punishment for forest offenders, particularly the impacts of volume and the price of logs, as well as the roles of the forestry authority. One particular study by Rusli and Nik Suraya (2004) found that all the three factors mentioned earlier significantly explain the variations in the amount of fines. The study showed that the amount of punishment increased with the increases in volume and price of illegal logs, and varied between different State Forestry Directors. Therefore, this suggests that the severity of punishment commensurate with severity of offences committed.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

This study used records on forest offences covering the period from 1998 to 2002 kept at the State Forestry Authority. These records are compiled by the relevant divisions based on the reports submitted by District Forest Officers. Details which are recorded for each of the offences include the investigation officer, nature and location of offences, equipment seized, volumes of logs involved, mode of settlement (compounding or court decisions), as well as fines imposed and logs auction value.

The records on forest offenders also contain explanatory notes on the decisions made for not pursuing further certain offences. In most cases, no further actions were taken on the offences because of the lack of evidence. Explanations are also given on the status of the stolen logs. It was observed that most stolen logs were auctioned out. However, in instances when there were no interested buyers, the logs were destroyed.

The data were subjected to both descriptive and inferential analytical techniques. The descriptive technique was used to analyse data on fines imposed in order to understand the severity of punishment relative to what are provided for by the law. In particular, the Weighted Least Squares (WLS) Regression Model was used to determine the effects of log volumes and the mode of settlement on the amount of fines. This technique was also used to overcome the problem of heteroscedasticity of the scatter diagram found in the Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) regression model. The use of OLS technique for the data would give less accurate results (Gujarati, 2003).

The WLS regression model is of the following format:

$$F_1 = \alpha + \beta_1 V_1 + \beta_2 D_Type + \varepsilon_1$$

Where:

F_1 = Total amount of fine imposed (Ringgit Malaysia)

V_1 = Volume of illegal logs (m^3)

D = Dummy variable for mode of settlement (1=court; 0=compound)

α β are parameters, ε is random error in the zero mean

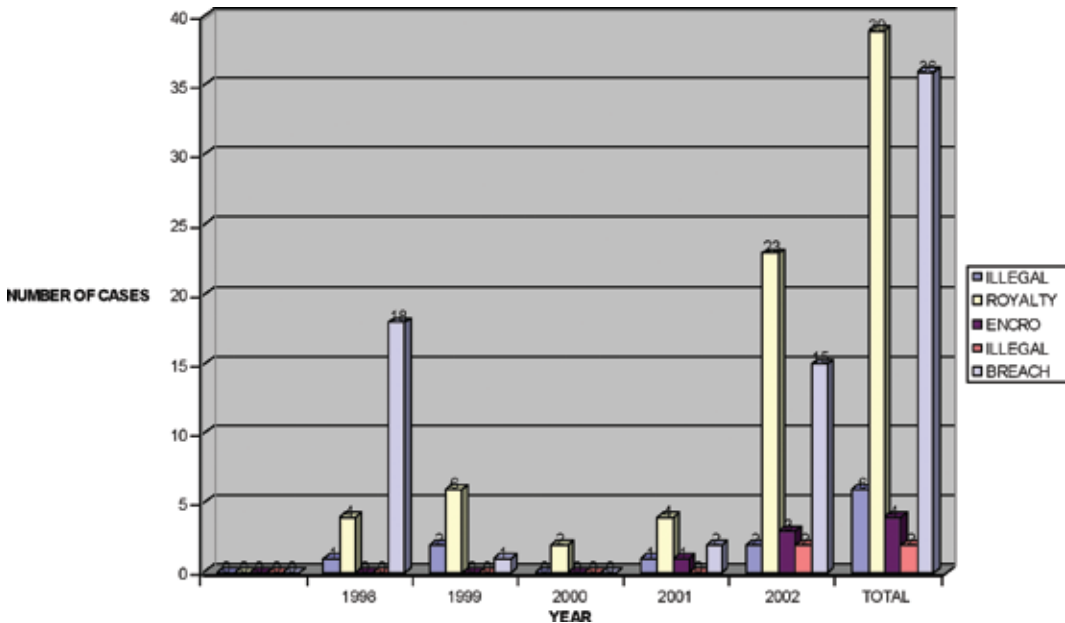
The model suggests that the amount of fines, or the compounds in the case of compounded cases, is a function of the volume of logs illegally removed and the mode of settlement, namely by court ($D=1$) or by forestry authority ($D=0$). The amount of fine was hypothesized to increase with volume of logs, both for the compounded and court cases. However, the marginal increase in fine was expected to be higher for the court cases as compared to the compounded cases. This hypothesis was made with the understanding that courts should be more deterrent than the forestry authority in handling forest offenders.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

The Occurrence of Forest Offences

Fig. 1 shows the occurrence of various categories of forest offences for the period of 1998 – 2002. The highest incidence was recorded in 2002, while the lowest was in 2000. The increase in the number of recorded offences after 2000 could be attributed to the stepping up of the efforts in the detection of illegal activities since the establishment of the MCEE unit (Miskon, 2003).

Evasion of royalty and breach of license conditions seemed to occur most frequently among the various categories of offence. These two types make up more than 86 percent of the total number of offence. The results showed that most offences were committed by licensed timber operators and not by those without license, for example, the local community. The greater tendency of license holders than non-license holders to commit forest offences could be due to their belief that (through their experience) the expected punishment for such offences is not punitive (Rusli, 1998).



ILLEGAL = Illegal Logging
 ROYALTY = Evasion of Royalty
 ENCRO = Encroachment into Forest Areas
 ILLEGAL = Illegal Removal of Timber
 BREACH = Breach of License Conditions

Fig. 1: Occurrence of various forest offences, 1998-2002

The Comparison of Fines for Forest Offences

Table 1 shows the breakdown of cases by mode of settlement (court or compounded) while Table 2 presents the comparison on the mean amount of fines by types of offences.

Information presented in Tables 1 and 2 suggest that the courts do not punish the offenders more severely than the Forestry Department. The

average fine for court cases, committed for the five-year period, is approximately RM27,000 while that for the Department is about RM37,180. Likewise, the mean fines for the three types of offences for court cases are lower than the compounded cases.

The findings are not quite as expected because the courts are hoped to punish more

TABLE 1
 Breakdown of the court and compounded cases and their fines, 1998 - 2002

Year	Court cases		Compounded cases		Average Fine (Court)	Average Fine (Cpd)
	No	Amount of Fines	No	Amount of Fines		
1998	6	67660.00	23	262748.70	11276.66	11423.85
1999	6	13600.00	9	220114.63	2266.66	24457.18
2000	6	18500.00	2	3000.00	3083.33	1500.00
2001	10	330860.00	8	521226.00	33086.00	65153.25
2002	4	433000.00	45	2227577.52	108250.00	49501.72
TOTAL	32	863620.00	87	3234666.85	26988.12	37180.07

TABLE 2
Comparison of the mean amount of fines for three types of forest offences, 1998-2002

Case Type	Type of offences		
	Illegal logging	Evasion of Royalty	Encroachment
Court	39500.00	12668.00	47760.00
Compounded	91690.00	27932.00	147000.00

severely than the forestry authority for every case brought to them. In addition to imposing fines, the courts are empowered to pass jail sentences to those found guilty of committing forest offences. Presumably realising that fact, the authority took even first-time offenders to courts and did not offer them any compounds.

Further analysis showed that there was no significant difference in the mean fines, between the three categories of offences, as handled by the court ($F=1.075$, $p=0.35$). However, unlike the court, there were significant differences in the mean fines for the compounded forest offences as handled by the Authority ($F=5.64$, $p=0.00$). These findings suggest that, whether intentional or otherwise, the court does not seem to look at the severity of the offences as measured by the maximum legally prescribed penalty when giving out their punishment. In other words, the decision to punish an offence, with a certain amount of fines, is not influenced by the maximum penalty of that particular offence. As stipulated in the law, the maximum fine for illegal logging is more severe than forest encroachment than for evasion of royalty.

Factors Influencing/Determining the Amount of Fines

Table 3 shows the results from the regression analysis on the effects of illegal log volume and the mode of settlement on the amount of fines.

TABLE 3
Results of the WLS regression analysis

Variable	Constant	Volume	Settlement Mode**	F value
Value of coefficients	124.88	3026.29*	1541.22*	25.17

$R^2 = 0.326$;

* Significant at 0.05 level of confidence

** Differences in fines imposed by court and amount of compounding by forestry authority

As can be seen, both variables significantly affect the amount of fines. The WLS regression model developed indicates that for every unit increase in the volume of log illegally removed, there will be a corresponding increase in fine by RM4692.39 for the court cases. However, the corresponding increase in fine for the compounded cases is lower by RM1541.22. This means that the court punishes more severely than the Department for every cubic meter of stolen logs.

The findings appear to suggest that the court's decisions on the amount of fines are guided more by the volume of stolen logs rather than by the maximum penalty as prescribed in the law. Consequently, the severity of offences seems to be measured by the volume of illegal logs.

One of the main objectives of punishment is to hurt offenders so that they will not commit the same offence and that the society is protected from the impacts of their wrongdoings. In the case of forest offenders, the goal of punishment should be to deter the occurrence of such offences so that the forests are protected and the society will continue to enjoy the benefits from the forests. The impacts of illegal forestry activities, as highlighted earlier, can be very costly to the government and the industry and for these reasons, such activities must be checked. Those who commit illegal forestry activities should be appropriately punished, by either the court system

or the forestry authority. However, should the forestry authority compound offenders or bring them to court for sentencing?

The results on the comparison of punishment between the two modes of punishment show that the average fines for compounded offences are greater than the court cases by about RM10, 000 per case. It appears, therefore, compounding forest offences is justified if the basis for doing it is to generate income to the forestry authority and the government. There is even better justification for compounding if the income generated could be invested for forest development activities, particularly to rehabilitate the areas left degraded by illegal forestry activities, specifically illegal logging and encroachment.

The results of the regression analysis show that the court system penalizes more severely than the forestry authority for every cubic meter of log illegally taken out from the forest by a factor of about 1.5:1.0. In other words, the court system ensures greater severity of punishment for forest similar offences than the Authority. The goal of deterrence, therefore, is better achieved through the court system than through compounding. Moreover, greater deterrence can even be created if the court system imposes penalties other than fines on those found guilty of committing illegal forestry activities. One of these penalties should definitely be jail sentences, no matter how short these may be.

CONCLUSIONS

Illegal forestry activities can seriously harm the government and forest industry and such activities have to be closely monitored for the future benefits of the society as a whole. One of the strategies which can be used to handle illegal forestry activities is to punish the offenders severely so as to deter them from repeating the offences in the future. The forestry authority in this country has taken the right step in that direction by amending the forest law and incorporating higher penalties for forest offenders. However, enacting the law is one step and implementing it is another one. There must be greater commitment to see that those committing the offences are punished to the tune, as prescribed by the law.

The results presented earlier show that it is not enough to compound forest offenders if the goal is to create deterrence among future offenders. Compounding forest offenders appears to be justified if the goal is to generate income

from these forest offenders. The court system, however, punishes forest offenders according to the severity of the offences, as measured by the volume of logs illegally taken out. Therefore, if all the evidences are available, those committing forest offences should be brought to courts for trial, because the court system is more likely to prevent forest offences being repeated in the future by similar or other offenders.

Earlier analysis did not consider any costs which have to be expended, either in the process of compounding or in taking cases to the court system. The analysis only compared the fines (or revenue) through compounding and the court system. As such, the true costs and benefits of the two modes of handling forest offences have not been obtained and compared. The costs and benefits of jail sentencing will also need to be investigated. Therefore, it is recommended that further research be carried out to determine all the costs associated with compounding and the court system of handling forest offences.

REFERENCES

- DILIMIN, W. (2003). *Personal Communication*.
- GUJARATI, D. N. (2003). *Basic Econometrics* (4th Edition). West Point, USA: US Military Academy.
- HUMPHREYS, D. (2006). *Logjam: Deforestation and the Crisis of Global Governance*. London: Earthscan Publications.
- MISKON SIMIN. (2003). Analysis of forest offences in Sabah. Master in Tropical Forest Resource Management Project Report, Faculty of Forestry, Universiti Putra Malaysia.
- RUSLI MOHD. (1998). Higher penalties for forest offenses: Will it work? Paper presented at the National Workshop on *Forestry economics and policy: Towards achieving sustainable forest management*. Organised by Forest Policy and Economics Group, Faculty of Forestry, Universiti Putra Malaysia, 10-12 November, Serdang, Selangor.
- RUSLI MOHD. (1999). Factors influencing the occurrence of forest offences in a Peninsular Malaysia state. *Pertanika Journal Social Sciences and Humanities*, 7(2), 91-96.
- RUSLI MOHD and AMAT RAMSA YAMAN. (2001). *Overview of Forest Law Enforcement in Peninsular Malaysia*. Country Report. WWF and World Bank.
- RUSLI MOHD. (2001). *Forest Offences in Four Selected States of Peninsular Malaysia*. Sabbatical Report to Universiti Putra Malaysia. Unpublished.

- RUSLI MOHD and NIK SURYANA NIK MAT. (2004). Some factors influencing the amount of fines for forest offenses. In Siti Zaiton M. S. *et al.* (Eds.), *Prosiding Seminar Kebangsaan Sains Teknologi & Sains Sosial*, (Jilid 1, pp. 276-280). Published by Printco Marketing, Kuantan, Pahang.
- RUSLI MOHD and FARIDAH ABDUL WAHAB. (2004). Effects of logs price on illegal logging in permanent reserved forest. In Norhayati M.T. *et al.* (Eds.), *Proceedings of KUSTEM 3rd Annual Seminar on Sustainability Science and Management* (pp. 570-573), 4–5 May, Kuala Terengganu. Published by Kolej Universiti Sains dan Teknologi Malaysia.
- WORLD BANK. (2005). Governments commit to actions on forest law enforcement and governance in Europe and North Asia. Press Release, 25 November 2005.

Local and Foreign Tourists' Image of Highland Tourism Destinations in Peninsular Malaysia

Azlizam Aziz* and Nurul Amirah Zainol

*Department of Forest Management, Faculty of Forestry,
Universiti Putra Malaysia, 43400 UPM, Serdang, Selangor, Malaysia*

**E-mail: azizazli@msu.edu*

ABSTRACT

This study was conducted with the purpose of identifying and comparing the images of highland destinations in Malaysia, held by both local and foreign tourists. Data from 897 respondents, comprising of both local and foreign tourists who had visited the three highlands (Cameron Highlands, Fraser's Hill and Genting Highlands), were collected using a stratified random sampling technique through a questionnaire survey. Forty-one destination attributes were included in the factors, which were analysed and compared between the local and foreign tourists, using the Independent-sample T-test. Based on the results, six image factors were identified for the highland destinations, and these were labelled as "accessibility and services", "local attractions and facilities", "general mood and vacation atmosphere", "leisure and recreational activities", "natural surroundings", as well as "nature and family-oriented." The present study also found significant difference in the images held by the local and foreign tourists for the factors on "accessibility and services", "local attractions and facilities", "leisure and recreational activities", as well as "natural surroundings." The findings suggested that the local tourists had a higher perceived image than the foreigners towards the highland destinations in Peninsular Malaysia. The findings of the study also provided theoretical and practical implications for the tourism authorities of Malaysia, particularly in enhancing the development of the tourism industry for the highland destinations.

Keywords: Destination image, foreign tourists, highland, tourism

INTRODUCTION

Besides making a major contribution to economy, the tourism industry also causes social impacts on the countries around the world including Malaysia. Many tourism destinations are competing against each other to attract as many visitors as possible to come to their places. It has become a great competitive industry due to the existence of a large number and a variety of travel destination choices, information and communication technologies (e.g. internet) as well as advanced transportation systems (Pikkemaat, 2004; Weiermair, 2001).

Therefore, the destination image held by the tourists or visitors plays a crucial role in understanding travellers' behaviour and designing better marketing strategies (Echtner and Ritchie, 2003). The image of a destination is generally defined as the sum of beliefs, impressions, ideas or perceptions which people hold of a particular place (Crompton, 1979). Investigating the differences in the image held by both local and foreign tourists is crucial since they may affect the promotional activities designed by the tourism marketers. One of the efforts by the Ministry of

Tourism Malaysia to promote the uniqueness of Malaysia and increase the number of tourists visiting the destinations in the country was Visit Malaysia Year 2007.

Highland tourism destinations in Malaysia, such as Cameron Highland, Fraser's Hill and Genting Highland, are competing among themselves in attracting as many visitors as they could from both local and international places. These tourist destinations are not only competing among themselves, but also with other tourism places like the wilderness, beach, historical sites and cities. A study by Rosmalina (2005) revealed that most of the respondents chose beaches (35.2%), followed by the wilderness areas (25.4%) and highlands (15.7%), as their main choices for holiday destinations. This implied that highlands are still behind other tourism destinations in terms of tourists' choice of holiday destinations. Although studies on the image of destinations have been undertaken for the past 30 years, there is still a lack in the research which critically focuses on the highlands. The most popular destinations of interests were countries, states and cities (Pike, 2002). In addition, there are very few studies which focus on comparing of the respondents from the different origins (Gallarza, Gil and Calderon, 2002).

Hence, this study was conducted at selected highland destinations in Malaysia to get answers to the following questions; "What images do tourists hold of the highland destinations?" and "Are these images perceived differently by the local and foreign tourists?" Following this introduction, the paper presents a literature review which includes the conceptual framework that underlies the research. This is followed by an elaboration on the methodology of the study, with a particular emphasis on image comparison. Finally, the results of the study are discussed, along with the conclusions and implications related to the theoretical and practical contributions. Finally, limitations of the study as well as some suggestions for future research are presented.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The Image of Tourism Destinations

People travel to various places; they consume numerous products during their holiday, and they evaluate, recall and tell others about their experiences (Prebensen, 2007). Individuals' views or images of a particular place or a specific

product are unique, as they are constructed from their own memories, associations and imagination of the places or products (Jenkins and McArthur, 1996). In analyzing the tourists' images or perceptions of certain places, some researchers have focussed on the components of the images and how people structure their knowledge of destinations (e.g. Echtner and Ritchie, 1991; Mayo, 1975; Prebensen, 2005). In more specific, the majority of these studies have focussed on the functional characteristics which are directly observable, such as prices and climate.

Other researchers (e.g. Echtner and Ritchie, 1991) focussed more on and discussed the psychological characteristics, such as the atmosphere or the romantic aspect of the setting. Another approach used in discussing the tourists' perceptions of destinations was analyzing the customers' images in terms of the dimensions, i.e. "common or unique" (Echtner and Ritchie, 1991). In addition, Murphy (1997) employed the dichotomy of attribute versus the holistic imagery on another dimension, and the common versus unique dimension on another dimension, when the tourism characteristics of the place image was analysed.

Gartner (1993) showed that most studies on images in relation to tourism had employed a list of attributes to measure the cognitive components of the destination image, which was rather not surprising since most buying behaviour processes are normally started with searching for information and getting knowledge about a particular product or a place. For instance, Keller (1998) performed a similar way of categorizing image formation. Keller distinguished the attributes, benefits and attitudes in dealing with the descriptive features which characterize a product or service, while benefits are about the personal values and meaning attached to the attribute, and attitudes deal with the overall evaluation which consequently serves as a basis for actions and behaviours.

Previous Studies on the Image of Destinations

Images tourists hold of certain tourism destinations have been of interest of numerous researchers. It should be noted, however, that despite the extensive research on the destination image in the travel and tourism industry (e.g. Baloglu and Mangaloglu, 2001; Chen and Tsai, 2006; Pike and Ryan, 2004), studies focusing on comparing

between the images held by local and foreign tourists are still very limited. For instance, Bonn, Joseph and Dai (2005) examined the differences in the image perceptions between international and U.S. domestic travellers visiting Florida, based on the country of origin. In their study, the image of Florida was measured using 10 destination environmental attributes, consisting of functional and psychological characteristics, as well as a Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) to compare these images, as perceived by both international and domestic tourists. These environmental attributes were further categorized into two different dimensions – destination atmospherics and destination service. The authors reported significant differences in the perception of Florida, as a tourist destination, between domestic and international travellers. It was concluded that the visitors' perception and expectation about a destination varied, depending on their country of origin.

In another study, Grosspietsch (2006) investigated the differences between the perceived and projected images of Rwanda in the perspectives of the visitors and international tour operators. The study measured the images using 15 attributes such as safety, spectacular landscape, mountain gorilla tour, cultural attractiveness, etc. It was found that both the visitors and international tour operators held different images of Rwanda, as the findings revealed significant differences on several attributes indicated above. For instance, tour operators provided a much more negative and gloomy picture as compared to the visitors who perceived it as a destination with a more positive image. Grosspietsch pointed out further that the result was rather surprising because when the international tour operators did not hold a positive perception of a destination themselves, they would not be good sale representatives for the place.

An earlier study conducted by Richardson and Crompton (1988) explored the differences in the images held by French and English Canadians towards USA and Canada. A structured survey, consisting of 10 attributes on a 4-point Comparative scale and a MANOVA, was conducted to compare the images of these destinations. The results of the study indicated that the French and English Canadians held different images toward the USA and Canada. This result is consistent with other studies which revealed that the images were varying across different tourists' origins.

The Measurement of Tourist Destination Image

Since the past 30 years, the methodologies used for measuring the image of destinations have been diversely developed. Most of them consist of either structured (quantitative) approach or less frequently, an unstructured (qualitative) approach (Grosspietsch, 2006; Pike, 2002). In the structured methodology, various common image attributes are specified and incorporated into a standardised instrument, usually a set of semantic differential or Likert type scales. A product (or destination) is rated by the respondents on each of the attributes included in the measurement and based on which, an 'image profile' is derived from these ratings (Ferber, 1974). However, the drawback of this structured method is that the scale items could not be used to measure the unique aspects of the destination.

The rarely used alternatives to structured approaches are rather unstructured or the qualitative methods of measurement (such as focus groups or open-ended questions), with content analysis and various sorting techniques which employ free form descriptions, to capture the more holistic component image and unique aspects (Ryan and Cave, 2005). In the present study, the structured methodology (scale items) was used since it had commonly been employed in various studies on destination image. Furthermore, it is easy to be administered, coded and analysed, using the sophisticated statistical techniques (Marks, 1976).

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

There is a wide agreement among various authors on the research on the image of a tourism destination conducted by Hunt in 1971 (cited in Driscoll, Lawson and Niven, 1994; Echtner and Ritchie, 1991; Fakeye and Crompton, 1991; Gallarza, Gil and Calderon, 2002; Reilly, 1990). By this time onwards, the concept of a destination image has commanded tourism researchers' attention for over 30 years. Among others, Echtner and Ritchie (1991, 1993, and 2003) contributed greatly to the conceptualization of tourism destination image, by acknowledging the existence of three axes which supported the image of any destination (the functional/psychological, the common/unique, and the holistic/attribute axes). The framework for the destination image, using the attribute-functional and holistic-psychological continuums (as noted by Echtner and Ritchie), is presented in *Fig. 1*.

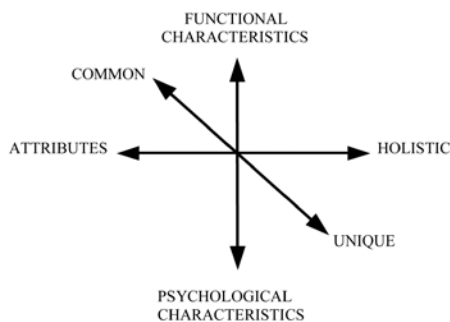


Fig. 1: The conceptual framework of destination image (Echtner and Ritchie, 2003)

This framework suggests that the measurement of image involves methodologies to capture the perceptions of individual functional attributes (e.g. low prices, cool climate) and psychological attributes (e.g. safe place, friendly local people). The functional holistic images are based on psychical or measurable characteristics, such as a mental picture of the psychical characteristics (mountainous, villages). The psychological holistic images concern about feelings towards the overall impressions of the atmosphere or mood of a particular destination. Based on this conceptual framework, destination image is defined as not only the perception of individual destination attributes, but also the holistic impression made by the destination. As stated by Martineau (1958), an image consists of functional characteristics (tangible aspects/ directly observable) and psychological characteristics (intangible aspects/ indirectly observable), and both these components play a critical role in the determining the image. Moreover, as illustrated in Fig. 1, images of destinations can range from those based on the 'common' functional and psychological traits to those, which are based on more 'unique' features, events, feelings or auras (Echtner and Ritchie, 2003). This conceptualization of image, developed by Echtner and Ritchie, was adapted in the present study to measure the tourists' images of the highland destinations. However, the present study did not take into account the 'unique' characteristics of the destination image since the structured method (Likert scale) used had excluded these characteristics. Moreover, the list of destination attributes was based on the 'common' functional and psychological characteristics in terms of their importance or

belief, which were held by the tourists who came to visit these destinations. Other studies which had also adapted this concept were conducted by Baloglu and Mangalolu (2001) and Grosspietsch (2006).

METHODOLOGY

Study Area

The study was carried out at the three highland destinations in Malaysia – Cameron Highlands, Fraser's Hill and Genting Highlands. These areas were chosen in this study because they are among the most popular tourist destinations in Peninsular Malaysia, which are also among the earliest hill resorts developed in the country.

Research Instrument

A set of questionnaire was prepared and this was done in two versions, English language and Malay, so as to cater for both local and foreign respondents. The respondents were asked to rate the importance of 41 destination attributes using a 5-point Likert-type scale, ranging from 1 (extremely not important) to 5 (extremely important), in order to measure the image of these highland destinations. The attributes for the image measurement were adapted from the previous studies by Baloglu and Mangalolu (2001), Beerli and Martin (2004), Ibrahim and Gill (2005), Pike and Ryan (2004), Sonmez and Sirakaya (2002), with specific destination characteristics. Demographic variables (which include gender, marital status, age, education level, occupation and monthly income) were used to provide additional information of the respondents.

Pilot Test

Prior to the survey, pre-testing of the questionnaire was conducted to determine whether the variables are reliable (i.e. the length of time required by respondents in completing the questionnaires is sufficient, and the language used is suitable and acceptable to the respondents, etc.). In the pre-test, 20 randomly selected residents in Selangor, comprising both Malaysians and non-Malaysians who had been to one of these highlands and were therefore quite familiar with the highland areas, were requested to complete the questionnaire. Based on the pre-test, the questionnaire was then revised and finalized accordingly. The Cronbach's reliability coefficients were also calculated to

examine the stability of a set of items used to measure a variable (Ary, Jacobs and Razavich, 1996). The results of the Cronbach's alpha ($\alpha=.949$) suggested that these items were reliable because of their coefficient value, which was larger than .7 (George and Mallery, 2001). Thus, the content validity of the questionnaire was deemed to be adequate.

Data Collection

The survey was conducted over a period of two months, i.e. from 1st November to 30th December, 2007. The questionnaire was personally administered to the respondents and one survey point was chosen to cover the main focal point of tourists at each highland destination. The study used a stratified random sampling technique. The stratification variable was based on day, i.e. working days (Monday to Thursday) and public holidays (Friday to Sunday). Working days and public holidays were further stratified into two separate time sessions, namely morning session (9.00 a.m. – 12.00 noon) and afternoon session (12.00 p.m. – 7.00 p.m.). The initial sample consisted of 1200 tourists of whom 303 did not complete all the questionnaires. For each study site, 400 forms were distributed to the tourists and out of a total of 1200, only 897 completed questionnaires (with 74.8% response rate) were analysed for the study. Overall, there were 350 questionnaires gathered in Cameron Highlands, 235 in Fraser's Hill and 312 in Genting Highlands, respectively.

Data Analysis

The data analysis was conducted in two stages: Factor Analysis followed by Independent-Samples *t*-test. First, an exploratory Factor Analysis using the principal component method, with the varimax rotation was conducted on destination image, to examine their dimensionalities. On the basis of the Factor Analysis results, the comparison of the images held by both local and foreign tourists was carried out using an Independent-sample *t*-test. These statistical analyses were conducted using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) software.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The Socio-Demographic Profile of the Respondents

Female respondents formed the majority (57.2%) of the study sample and over half (55.2%) of the total respondents were single. The average age of

the respondents who came to visit the highlands was 30 years old. Most of the respondents were degree holders, which contributed about 58.8% of the total number. The respondents were found to earn an average monthly income of RM1765.77. In more specific, the local tourists represented 94% of all the respondents, and the foreign tourists represented only 6%. These foreign tourists came from various countries, particularly Singapore, Indonesia, Thailand, Brunei, Korea, China, India, Saudi Arabia, New Zealand, U.K, U.S, Canada and Australia. A more detailed description of the respondents is given in Table 1.

The Identification of Images for the Highland Destinations

An Exploratory Factor Analysis was undertaken to identify the underlying factors for the image of these highland destinations. Based on the results, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value was found to be .95, exceeding the recommended value of .6 (Kaiser, 1970; 1974) and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (Bartlett, 1954) was indicated as .000. A significance of the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin test, measuring the adequacy of sampling, provided ample evidence that the sample used for the study was adequate. The reliability of each factor was obtained using the calculation of the Cronbach's alpha coefficient. The Cronbach's alpha coefficients ranged from .746 to .900, which was found to be relatively high. All the six factors were above the cut-off criterion of 0.7 recommended by Nunnally (1978).

According to Kaiser's rule of selection (eigenvalues larger to 1), a total of six factors were extracted, which accounted to 54.73% of the total variance. This finding provided evidence to construct the validity of the scale (Churchill, 1979) even though the value was quite low. The result was also almost consistent with the other findings gathered in the previous studies, whereby the average total variance accounted was 59% (e.g. Beerli and Martin, 2004; Chen and Tsai, 2006; Ibrahim and Gill, 2005; Leisen, 2001; Pike and Ryan, 2004; Sonmez and Sirakaya, 2002). The factors were labelled as follows: 1) accessibility and services; 2) local attractions and facilities; 3) general mood and vacation atmosphere; 4) leisure and recreational activities; 5) natural surroundings; and 6) nature and family-oriented. The results of the factor analysis are presented in Table 2.

TABLE 1
Respondents' socio-demographic profile

Demographic	Local Tourists (N=844)	Foreign Tourists (N=53)	Total (N=897)
Gender (%)			
Male	43.0	39.6	42.8
Female	57.0	60.4	57.2
Marital status (%)			
Single	54.5	66.0	55.7
Married	45.5	34.0	44.8
Age (years)	29.6	27.7	29
Education (%)			
Without formal education	4.0	0.0	0.3
Primary school	1.5	3.8	1.7
Secondary school	37.6	34.0	37.3
Degree holders	58.9	56.6	58.8
Other	0.2	5.7	0.6
Occupation (%)			
Professional	20.5	30.2	21.1
Executive	7.9	1.9	7.6
Middle management	5.7	0.0	5.4
Sales/marketing	3.4	0.0	3.2
Clerical/service	10.7	3.8	10.3
Skilled/technical	8.8	1.9	8.4
Self-employed	3.4	5.7	3.6
Student	31.8	47.2	32.7
Retired	0.6	0.0	0.6
Housewife	2.6	5.7	2.8
Others	2.7	3.8	2.8
Income (RM)	1696.29	1908.51	1765.77

Note: Some percentages are not equal to 100% due to some missing values

TABLE 2
Factor analysis of the image for the highland destinations

Factor	Factor loading	Mean ^a	Eigenvalue	% Variance explained	Cronbach's alpha
<i>Factor 1: Accessibility and Services</i>					
Good highway and roads	.718	4.38	13.881	33.857	.900
Easy to access	.657	4.28			
Hygienic restaurant	.648	4.47			
Public transportation	.642	4.17			
Safe place	.611	4.53			
Health service	.572	4.16			
Inexpensive service/good	.524	4.14			
Suitable accommodation	.517	4.42			
Clean nature environment	.514	4.56			
Vary accommodation	.512	4.27			

TABLE 2 *Cont.*

Low travel cost	.504	4.12			
Signage and indicator	.468	4.34			
Friendly local people	.422	4.01			
Protected nature reserve	.419	4.39			
Grand mean		4.30			
<i>Factor 2: Local Attractions and Facilities</i>					
Agriculture-based product	.760	3.52	2.628	6.409	.854
Local art and handicraft	.716	3.60			
Plantation	.713	3.79			
Local cultural activity	.696	3.56			
Tourist information	.502	3.94			
Near to home	.465	3.28			
Variety of local cuisine	.453	3.95			
Parking area and space	.452	4.12			
Grand mean		3.72			
<i>Factor 3: General Mood and Vacation Atmosphere</i>					
Pleasant	.810	4.46	1.805	4.401	.828
Relaxing	.774	4.47			
Exciting	.765	4.46			
Pollution free	.560	4.39			
Not overcrowded	.523	4.01			
Place of good reputation	.405	4.25			
Grand mean		4.34			
<i>Factor 4: Leisure and Recreational Activities</i>					
A lot of recreational activities	.718	3.95	1.565	3.817	.785
Adventurous activities	.681	3.66			
A lot of shopping centres	.642	3.67			
Sport and gaming facilities	.552	3.56			
Many tourist attractions	.411	4.23			
Grand mean		3.81			
<i>Factor 5: Natural Surroundings</i>					
Beautiful scenery	.739	4.53	1.454	3.546	.759
Fascinating atmosphere	.680	4.47			
Variety of flora and fauna	.540	4.23			
Beautiful building	.507	3.94			
Cool climate	.449	4.16			
Grand mean		4.27			
<i>Factor 6: Nature and Family-oriented</i>					
Beautiful mountain	.585	4.14	1.107	2.701	.746
Family-oriented	.482	4.20			
Good nature trails	.481	3.96			
Grand mean		4.10			

Note: KMO (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin) measure of sampling adequacy = 0.95. *On a scale ranging from 1=extremely not important to 5=extremely important.

The first factor, i.e. "Accessibility and Services" ($\alpha = .900$), explained most of the variance (33.86%) in the model and it contained 14 items. The second factor, "Local Attractions and Facilities" ($\alpha = .854$), explained an additional 6.41% of the variance and this contained 8 items. Moreover, "General Mood and Vacation Atmosphere" ($\alpha = .828$), which was the third factor, included 6 items explaining on additional 4.40% of the variance. The fourth factor, "Leisure and Recreational Activities" ($\alpha = .785$), explained another 3.82% of the variance and it contained 5 items. The fifth factor, "Natural Surroundings" ($\alpha = .759$), also contained 5 items and explained about 3.55% of the variance. Finally, the sixth factor, i.e. "Nature and Family-oriented" ($\alpha = .746$), contained only three items and explained 2.70% of the variance. Even the factor loading for the last factor was relatively low and contained very heterogeneous items; a careful evaluation of the mean values for each item (grand mean = 4.10) and the Cronbach's alpha coefficient (.746) was relatively high. Thus, it was decided that this factor was relevant and should not be discarded (Sonmez and Sirakaya, 2002). Similarly, as shown in Table 2 above, only loadings above .3 (as recommended by Tabachnick and Fidell, 1996) were displayed and all 41 variables were found to be loaded above .3; therefore, none of the variables was eliminated from the analysis.

The Comparison between the Perceptions of the Images Held by the Local and Foreign Tourists

An Independent-samples *t*-test was employed to investigate the differences in the perceptions

of the images held by the local and foreign tourists. For an easy comparison, the results of the Independent-sample *t*-test are illustrated in Table 3. There was a statistically significant difference detected for four out of the six image factors, which included "accessibility and services" ($t=1.996$, $p=.046$), "local attractions and facilities" ($t=2.028$, $p=.043$), "leisure and recreational activities" ($t=2.578$, $p=.010$), and "natural surroundings" ($t=4.27$, $p=.021$). Nevertheless, only two factors, i.e. "general mood and vacation atmosphere" ($t=.814$, $p=.416$) and "nature and family-oriented" ($t=1.054$, $p=.292$) were found to have no difference in terms of the perceptions held between the local and foreign tourists.

Based on the mean value presented in Table 4, "accessibility and services" was rated as of higher importance mostly by the local tourists ($M=4.31$) as compared to the foreign tourists ($M=4.16$). This finding seems to be consistent with the ones by Bonn, Joseph and Dai (2005) who reported that the "service factor" was significantly different between the domestic and international tourists visiting Florida. As noted by Bonn et al. (2005), the "service factor" (including "signage", "value for dollar" and "ground transportation") was perceived lower by the international tourists because the "signage" for instance, in most Florida destinations, was generally written in only one language, i.e. English. As a result, this might be an area of contention by international tourists based on the perceived inadequacy as it is related to the international standards. The present study suggested that the perception of the foreign tourists as lower than the local tourists for the

TABLE 3
T-test results for the comparison of image between local and foreign tourists' perceptions

Image factor	F	t	df	Sig.	Mean difference
1. Accessibility and Services	.849	1.996	895	.046*	.1569
2. Local Attractions and Facilities	.015	2.028	895	.043*	.2095
3. General Mood and Vacation Atmosphere	.173	0.814	895	.416	.0698
4. Leisure and Recreational Activities	1.625	2.578	895	.010*	.2659
5. Natural Surroundings	.578	2.318	895	.021*	.1931
6. Nature and Family-oriented	1.366	1.054	895	.292	.1102

*Significant difference at .05

factor on “accessibility and service” supported by Bonn *et al.* (2005). This might be due to the fact that Malaysia is a developing country, which means, it does not have a high standard of services as compare to those developed countries. Thus, the foreign tourists did not perceive highly on the accessibility and services provided at the highland destinations in Malaysia, including the highway/ roads, signage, public transportation, ease of access, accommodation and restaurants.

Further investigation into the factor on “local attractions and facilities” indicated a significant difference in the image held by the local and foreign tourists. Based on the mean value presented in Table 4, a higher mean score for this factor was given by the local tourists (i.e. M=3.25) as compared to the foreign tourists (M=3.05). This indicated that the local tourists believed that local attractions and facilities as more important for their vacation when travelling

to the highlands, as compared to the foreign tourists. The factor on “local attractions and facilities” was also perceived as more important by the local tourists because the attributes such as ‘agriculture products’, ‘plantation’, ‘local cultural activities’, and ‘local art and handicrafts’ were rated by the local people. Thus, the local tourists would definitely believe and give support on their own local products. These facts could explain the reason why the local tourists held a higher perception on “local attractions and facilities” than the foreign tourists.

Another factor which was found to have a significant difference was “leisure and recreational activities.” As depicted in Table 4, a higher mean score for the factor on “leisure and recreational activities” was again rated by the local tourists (M=3.83) as compared to the foreign tourists (M=3.56). This finding suggests that the foreign tourists’ perception toward the highland

TABLE 4
Descriptive statistics for image assessment factors

Image assessment factors	Mean	SD	N
Accessibility and Services			
Local	4.35	.556	844
Foreign	4.20	.537	53
Total	4.30	.547	897
Local Attractions and Facilities			
Local	3.89	.731	844
Foreign	3.65	.707	53
Total	3.72	.719	897
General Mood and Vacation Atmosphere			
Local	4.39	.607	844
Foreign	4.30	.577	53
Total	4.34	.592	897
Leisure and Recreational Activities			
Local	3.93	.724	844
Foreign	3.69	.796	53
Total	3.81	.760	897
Natural Surroundings			
Local	4.38	.587	844
Foreign	4.16	.600	53
Total	4.27	.594	897
Nature and Family-oriented			
Local	4.13	.744	844
Foreign	3.07	.629	53
Total	4.10	.687	897

destinations in Malaysia was lower than the locals when judging this factor. Even a place such as Genting Highlands, with more than 30 outdoor and indoor choices of activities (recreation-based or adventurous), was given a rather low perception by the foreign tourists. Among the reasons stated for the low perception was that the outdoor and indoor activities provided at Genting Highlands, such as 'roller coaster', 'snow house', 'sky diving simulator' and 'cable car riding' were not that much different from those found in their home countries. Moreover, these activities were found much earlier in the countries like Singapore, Brunei, U.S, U.K and China than Malaysia. Thus, the foreign tourists, particularly from these countries, did not have a high perception on "leisure and recreational activities" at the highland destinations in Malaysia.

The final factor, which also has a significant difference in term of image taken into account in this study, was "natural surroundings." With reference to the facts presented in Table 4, the mean score for the factor on "natural surroundings" was rated higher by local tourists ($M=4.28$) than foreign tourists ($M=4.09$). For many decades, Fraser's Hill and Cameron Highlands have been well-known for their beautiful scenery, fascinating atmosphere, cool climate, beautiful buildings, and varieties of flora and fauna; nevertheless, the perception of the foreign tourists towards these places was still lower than the local tourists. Based on the researcher's own observation, Malaysia has been criticised and labelled as a non-environmental friendly country by other developed nations because of its extensive forest destruction and illegal logging activities (Leong, 2005), and this seemed to affect the foreign tourists' perception on the factor "natural surroundings" at the highland destinations in Malaysia.

CONCLUSIONS

This study offers findings which can explain the differences in the image held for the highland destinations in Malaysia, as perceived by the local and foreign tourists. The findings of the current research suggest that there is statistically significant difference in the images held between local and foreign tourists. These differences were found in the factors on "accessibility and services", "local attractions and facilities", "leisure and recreational activities", and "natural

surroundings." Only two factors, namely, "general mood and vacation atmosphere" and "nature and family-oriented" showed no difference. Past research also suggested that visual imagery and experiences had been interpreted differently by the tourists, depending on their country of origin (Bonn *et al.*, 2005; Gallarza *et al.*, 2002; Thurot and Thurot, 1983). Despite the effective and efficient information technologies such as the internet, which serve to decrease worldwide cultural distances, tourists still have different perceptions on these destinations, and this is very much affected by their geographic regions (Bonn *et al.*, 2005). This finding strongly suggests that understanding the foreign tourists' perceptions towards the country is important since they will contribute to the economic benefits through currency exchange.

From the theoretical point of view, this study has several implications which can be added to the growing body of literature on image research. Although many researchers have investigated on the destination images for the past 30 years, limited studies have been carried out on studying the image of highland destinations. Therefore, this study is considered as making a new contribution in terms of a better understanding of the destination image, with a specific reference to the highland tourism industry in the country. The analysis of this study yielded some very important insights into the perception on the images between the local and foreign tourists, since very few studies have compared these types of respondents. Moreover, the conceptual framework applied in this study was proven as an appropriate framework for research on image; this has also been confirmed by other studies which had chosen the concept underlying the image.

In addition, the findings of this study have a number of important implications, particularly for the practitioners in tourism industry, government and non-governmental organizations, as well as other market players in the industry. The practitioners of the highland destinations in Malaysia, particularly Malaysia's highland tourism offices such as Fraser's Hill Development Corporation (FHDC), should take necessary actions to improve the image of the highland. Based on the results generated in this study, the foreign tourists found to have a low perception toward the image of the highland destinations in Malaysia as compared to the local

tourists. In more specific, the local tourists placed more importance on the factor "accessibility and services" than the foreign tourists. Therefore, managers of these highland destinations should do the necessary actions to improve the current services and accessibilities provided at the highlands in the effort to change and increase the perception of the foreign tourists, and thus further heighten their interest in visiting these places in the future. The management responsible for these highland destinations need to allocate a suitable budget to be used to improve the road conditions, accommodations, restaurants and signage, especially during the peak seasons, since the services at many destinations are usually decline because of the bigger number of tourists visiting these places at that time.

Furthermore, managers also need to emphasize on the factor "local attractions and facilities" because it has been perceived very low by the foreign tourists compared to the locals. In addition, those people involved in the development of the highland tourist destinations have to contribute more in term of their creativity to produce a variety of unique products which could attract the foreign tourists. The foreign tourists who travel to other countries for the purpose of tourism normally wish to see something unique which can not found in their home countries such as the local culture and cuisine of the visited country. Thus, the local people, together with the highland managers, must not take this important factor for granted as this will affect the foreign tourists' perception towards Malaysia.

The "leisure and recreational activities" is another factor which was found to have a significant difference between the local and foreign tourists. It is important to highlight that the perception from the foreign tourists was much lower than the local tourists. Although the leisure and recreational activities have been promoted in the mass media (e.g. television, newspaper, and internet) as well as by word-of-mouth, the foreign tourists still do not hold the same perception as the local tourists. Thus, the managers and marketers alike should design and implement a new plan to introduce new recreational activities such as the traditional games of the different races in Malaysia. For example, the highlands could introduce games like 'congkak', 'wayang kulit' or 'gasing' besides other common modern games which were introduced by other countries. This approach may

probably attract more foreign tourists to visit the highland destinations in the country.

Another factor which was indicated to have a significantly difference between the local and foreign tourists is the "natural surrounding." The impact of the extensive infrastructure development at the highlands has affected and declined the attraction of the surrounding places, and decreased the foreign tourists' perception as well. Thus, any future infrastructure development should be properly planned and implemented to avoid its negative impacts to the highlands, such as the one which currently occurred in Cameron Highlands. Illegal logging activities must be seriously investigated and taken necessary actions against to ensure a well preservation of the natural surroundings.

Apart from above suggestions, such a new approach is not sufficient if these ideas are not implemented effectively. Therefore, marketers of these destinations should stress on carrying out promotional campaigns of highlands in Malaysia to foreigners. For example, they can hold an extensive promotion such as "Malaysia's Week" in other countries (e.g. U.K, U.S, German, Japan, Saudi Arabia, etc.) to promote Malaysia in the eyes of the world. Apart from this, marketers could also use many attractions available at the highland destinations such as the beautiful mountains, the diversity of flora and fauna, relaxing atmosphere, safe places to visit as well as other aspects in promoting them. Hence, these suggestions are hoped to assist both managers and marketers of the highland destinations in Malaysia to gain a better understanding of the different perceptions hold by the local and foreign tourists, and thus implement more strategic marketing decisions.

Finally, a number of important limitations need to be considered in this study. First, the survey carried out in this study was conducted over a period of two months, which permitted only tourists who had travelled during the months of November and December, 2007 (i.e. peak season) to be included. Based on which, the respondents' views were taken only from those of a particular groups of tourists, which could not be used to represent a year round's tourism. Hence, it is recommended that future research incorporate a survey which will also include the midyear period because seasonality may influence tourists' responses. Second, a better instrument specifically to measure the image of the highland

destinations needs to be developed in order to explain more variance in the construct, and the unique aspects of these highlands (specifically in Malaysia) should be taken into consideration in any future research.

REFERENCES

- ARY, D., JACOBS, L.C. and RAZAVICH, A. (1996). *Introduction to Research in Education*. New York: Harcourt Brace Collage Publisher.
- BALOGLU, S. and MANGALOGLU, M. (2001). Tourism destination images of Turkey, Egypt, Greece, and Italy, as perceived by US-based tour operator and travel agents. *Tourism Management*, 22, 1-9.
- BARTLETT, M.S. (1954). A note on the multiplying factors for various chi-square approximations. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society*, 16, 296-298.
- BEERLI, A. and MARTIN, J. D. (2004). Factors influencing destination image. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 31(3), 657-681.
- BONN, M.A., JOSEPH, S.M. and DAI, M. (2005). International versus domestic visitors: an examination of destination image perceptions. *Journal of Travel Research*, 43, 294-301.
- CHEN, C.F. and TSAI, D.C. (2006). How destination image and evaluative factors affect behavioural intentions? *Tourism management*, 24, 1-8.
- CHURCHILL, JR. G. A. (1979). A paradigm for developing better measures of marketing constructs. *J. Mark Res.*, 16, 64-73.
- CROMPTON, J.L. (1979). An assessment of the image of Mexico as a vacation destination and the influence of geographical location upon that image. *Journal of Travel Research*, 17(4), 18-23.
- DRISCOLL, A., LAWSON, R. and NIVEN, B. (1994). Measuring tourist destination perceptions. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 21, 499-511.
- ECHTNER, C. M. and RITCHIE, J. R. (1991). The meaning and measurement of destination image. *The Journal of Tourism Studies*, 2(2), 2-12.
- ECHTNER, C.M. and RITCHIE, J.R.B. (1993). The measurement of destination image and empirical assessment. *Journal of Travel Research*, 31(4), 3-13.
- ECHTNER, C.M. and RITCHIE, J.R.B. (2003). The meaning and measurement of destination image. *The Journal of Tourism Studies*, 14(1), 37-48.
- FAKEYE, P.C. and CROMPTON, J.L. (1991). Image differences between prospective, first-time and repeat visitors to the Lower Rio Grande Valley. *Journal of Travel Research*, 30(2), 10-16.
- FEBER, R. (1974). *Handbook of Marketing Research*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- GALLARZA, M.G., GIL, I.S. and CALDERON, H.G. (2002). Destination image: towards a conceptual framework. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 29(1), 56-78.
- GARTNER, W. C. (1993). Image formation process. In M. Uysal and D.R. Fesenmaier (Eds.), *Communication and channel systems in tourism marketing* (pp. 191-215). New York: Haworth Press.
- GEORGE, D. and MALLERY, P. (2001). *SPSS for Windows Step by Step: A Simple Guide and Reference, 10.0 Update*. Third Edition. USA: Allyn and Bacon. (Chapter 18/Reliability Analysis, pp. 217).
- GROSSPIETSCH, M. (2006). Perceived and projected images of Rwanda: visitor and international tour operator's perspectives. *Tourism Management*, 27, 225-234.
- IBRAHIM, E.E. and GILL, J. (2005). A positioning strategy for a tourist destination, based on analysis of customers' perceptions and satisfaction. *Marketing Intelligence and Planning*, 23(2), 172-188.
- JENKINS, O. H. and McARTHUR, S. (1996). Marketing protected areas. *Australian Parks and Recreation*, 32(4), 10-15.
- KAISER, H. (1970). A second generation, Little Jiffy. *Psychometrika*, 35, 401-415.
- KAISER, H. (1974). An index of factorial simplicity. *Psychometrika*, 39, 31-36.
- KELLER, K. (1998). *Strategic Brand Management: Building, Measuring, and Managing Brand Equity Long Term*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- LEISEN, B. (2001). Image segmentation: the case of a tourism destination. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 15(1), 49-66.
- LEONG, P.C. (2005). *Environmental attitudes and willingness to pay for highland conservation: the case of Fraser's Hill, Malaysia*. Unpublished Master's Thesis, Universiti Putra Malaysia, Selangor.
- MARKS, R. B. (1976). Operationalizing the concept of store image. *Journal of Retailing*, 52, 37-46.
- MARTINEAU, P. (1958). The personality of the retail store. *Journal of Retailing*, 52, 37-46.

- MAYO, E. (1975). Tourism and the national parks: a psychographic and attitudinal survey. *Journal of Travel Research*, 14, 14-18.
- MURPHY, P.E. (Ed.) (1997). *Quality Management in Urban Tourism* (pp. 1-8). London: John Wiley.
- NUNNALLY, J.C. (1978). *Psychometric Theory*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- PIKE, S. (2002). Destination image analysis: a review of 142 papers from 1973 to 2000. *Tourism Management*, 23(5), 541-549.
- PIKE, S. and RYAN, C. (2004). Destination positioning analysis through a comparison of cognitive, affective and conative perceptions. *Journal of Travel Research*, 42, 333-342.
- PIKKEMAAT, B. (2004). The measurement of destination image: the case of Austria. *Tourism Management*, 4(1), 87-102.
- PREBENSEN, N.K. (2005). Country as a destination: Norwegian tourists' perceptions and motivation. *Journal of Hospitality and Leisure Marketing*, 12, 63-85.
- PREBENSEN, N.K. (2007). Exploring tourists' images of a distant destination. *Tourism Management*, 28, 747-756.
- REILLY, M.D. (1990). Free elicitation of descriptive adjectives for tourism assessment. *Journal of Travel Research*, 28(4), 21-26.
- RICHARDSON, S. L. and CROMPTON, J. L. (1988). Cultural variations in perceptions of vacation attributes. *Tourism Management*, 128-136.
- ROSMALINA, A. R. (2005). *Segmentations of ecotourists in Pahang National Park based on travel and motivation attributes*. Unpublished master dissertation, Universiti Putra Malaysia, Malaysia.
- RYAN, C. and CAVE, J. (2005). Structuring destination image: A qualitative approach. *Journal of Travel Research*, 44, 143-150.
- SONMEZ, S. and SIRAKAYA, E. (2002). A distorted destination image? The case of Turkey. *Journal of Travel Research*, 41, 185-196.
- TABACHNICK, B.G. and FIDELL, L.S. (1996). *Using Multivariate Statistics* (3rd edition). New York: HarperCollins.
- THUROT, J. and THUROT, G. (1983). The ideology of class and tourism confronting the discourse of advertising. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 10, 173-189.
- WEIERMAIR, K. (2001). The growth of tourism enterprises. *Tourism Review*, 56(3/4), 17-25.

Pertanika

Our goal is to bring high quality research to the widest possible audience

Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities

INSTRUCTIONS TO AUTHORS

(Manuscript Preparation & Submission Guidelines)

Revised January 2009

*We aim for excellence, sustained by a responsible and professional approach to journal publishing.
We value and support our authors in the research community.*

Please read the guidelines and follow these instructions carefully; doing so will ensure that the publication of your manuscript is as rapid and efficient as possible. The Editorial Board reserves the right to return manuscripts that are not prepared in accordance with these guidelines.

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 Journal of Tropical Agricultural Science began publication in 1978. 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, Pertanika 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).

JSSH is published in **English** and it is open to authors around the world regardless of the nationality. It is currently published two times a year i.e. in **March** and **September**.

Goal of Pertanika

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

Quality

We aim for excellence, sustained by a responsible and professional approach to journal publishing. JSSH is an international award winning journal indexed in SCOPUS (Elsevier) and EBSCO.

Future vision

We are continuously improving access to our journal archives, content, and research services. We have the drive to realise exciting new horizons that will benefit not only the academic community, but society itself.

We also have views on the future of our journals. The emergence of the online medium as the predominant vehicle for the 'consumption' and distribution of much academic research will be the ultimate instrument in the dissemination of the research news to our scientists and readers.

Aims and scope

Pertanika Journal of Social Sciences & Humanities aims to provide a forum for high quality research related to social sciences and humanities research. Areas relevant to the scope of the journal include: Accounting, Agricultural & resource economics, Anthropology, Communication, Community and peace studies, Design and architecture, Disaster and crisis management, Economics, Education, Extension

education, Finance, Gerontology, Hospitality and tourism, Human ecology, Human resource development, Language studies (*education, applied linguistics, acquisition, pedagogy*), Language literature (*literary & cultural studies*), Management, Marketing, Psychology, Safety and environment, Social and behavioural sciences, Sociology, Sustainable development, and Ethnic relations.

Editorial Statement

Pertanika is the official journal of Universiti Putra Malaysia. The abbreviation for Pertanika Journal of Social Sciences & Humanities is *Pertanika J. Soc. Sci. Hum.*

Guidelines for Authors

Publication policies

Pertanika policy prohibits an author from submitting the same manuscript for concurrent consideration by two or more publications. It prohibits as well publication of any manuscript that has already been published either in whole or substantial part elsewhere.

Editorial process

Authors are notified on receipt of a manuscript and upon the editorial decision regarding publication.

Manuscript review: Manuscripts deemed suitable for publication are sent to the Editorial Advisory Board members and/or other reviewers. We encourage authors to suggest the names of possible reviewers. Notification of the editorial decision is usually provided within to eight to ten weeks from the receipt of manuscript. Publication of solicited manuscripts is not guaranteed. In most cases, manuscripts are accepted conditionally, pending an author's revision of the material.

Author approval: Authors are responsible for all statements in articles, including changes made by editors. The liaison author must be available for consultation with an editor of *The Journal* to answer questions during the editorial process and to approve the edited copy. Authors receive edited typescript (not galley proofs) for final approval. Changes **cannot** be made to the copy after the edited version has been approved.

Please direct all inquiries, manuscripts, and related correspondence to:

The Executive Editor
Pertanika Journals
Research Management Centre (RMC)
4th Floor, Administration Building
Universiti Putra Malaysia
43400 UPM, Serdang, Selangor
Malaysia
Phone: + (603) 8946 6192
Fax: + (603) 8947 2075
ndeeps@admin.upm.edu.my

or visit our website at <http://rmc.upm.edu.my/pertanika> for further information.

Manuscript preparation

Pertanika accepts submission of mainly four types of manuscripts. Each manuscript is classified as **regular** or **original** articles, **short communications**, **reviews**, and proposals for **special issues**. Articles must be in **English** and they must be competently written and argued in clear and concise grammatical English. Acceptable English usage and syntax are expected. Do not use slang, jargon, or obscure abbreviations or phrasing. Metric measurement is preferred; equivalent English measurement may be included in parentheses. Always provide the complete form of an acronym/abbreviation the first time it is presented in the text. Contributors are strongly recommended to have the manuscript checked by a colleague with ample experience in writing English manuscripts or an English language editor.

Linguistically hopeless manuscripts will be rejected straightaway (e.g., when the language is so poor that one cannot be sure of what the authors really mean). This process, taken by authors before submission, will greatly facilitate reviewing, and thus publication if the content is acceptable.

The instructions for authors must be followed. Manuscripts not adhering to the instructions will be returned for revision without review. Authors should prepare manuscripts according to the guidelines of Pertanika.

1. Regular article

Definition: Full-length original empirical investigations, consisting of introduction, materials and methods, results and discussion, conclusions. Original work must provide references and an explanation on research findings that contain new and significant findings.

Size: Should not exceed 5000 words or 8-10 printed pages (excluding the abstract, references, tables and/or figures). One printed page is roughly equivalent to 3 type-written pages.

2. Short communications

Definition: Significant new information to readers of the Journal in a short but complete form. It is suitable for the publication of technical advance, bioinformatics or insightful findings of plant and animal development and function.

Size: Should not exceed 2000 words or 4 printed pages, is intended for rapid publication. They are not intended for publishing preliminary results or to be a reduced version of Regular Papers or Rapid Papers.

3. Review article

Definition: Critical evaluation of materials about current research that had already been published by organizing, integrating, and evaluating previously published materials. Re-analyses as meta-analysis and systemic reviews are encouraged. Review articles should aim to provide systemic overviews, evaluations and interpretations of research in a given field.

Size: Should not exceed 4000 words or 7-8 printed pages.

4. Special issues

Definition: Usually papers from research presented at a conference, seminar, congress or a symposium.

Size: Should not exceed 5000 words or 8-10 printed pages.

5. Others

Definition: Brief reports, case studies, comments, Letters to the Editor, and replies on previously published articles may be considered.

Size: Should not exceed 2000 words or up to 4 printed pages.

With few exceptions, original manuscripts should not exceed the recommended length of 6 printed pages (about 18 typed pages, double-spaced and in 12-point font, tables and figures included). Printing is expensive, and, for the Journal, postage doubles when an issue exceeds 80 pages. You can understand then that there is little room for flexibility.

Long articles reduce the Journal's possibility to accept other high-quality contributions because of its 80-page restriction. We would like to publish as many good studies as possible, not only a few lengthy ones. (And, who reads overly long articles anyway?) Therefore, in our competition, short and concise manuscripts have a definite advantage.

Format

The paper should be formatted in one column format with the figures at the end. A maximum of eight keywords should be indicated below the abstract to describe the contents of the manuscript. Leave a blank line between each paragraph and between each entry in the list of bibliographic references. Tables should preferably be placed in the same electronic file as the text. Authors should consult a recent issue of the Journal for table layout.

There is no need to spend time formatting your article so that the printout is visually attractive (e.g. by making headings bold or creating a page layout with figures), as most formatting instructions will be removed upon processing.

Manuscripts should be typewritten, typed on one side of the ISO A4 paper with at least 4cm margins and double spacing throughout. Every page of the manuscript, including the title page, references, tables, etc. should be numbered. However, no reference should be made to page numbers in the text; if necessary, one may refer to sections. Underline words that should be in italics, and do not underline any other words.

Authors are advised to use Times New Roman 12-point font. Be especially careful when you are inserting special characters, as those inserted in different fonts may be replaced by different characters when converted to PDF files. It is well known that 'µ' will be replaced by other characters when fonts such as 'Symbol' or 'Mincho' are used.

We recommend that authors prepare the text as a **Microsoft Word** file.

1. Manuscripts in general should be organised in the following order:
 - **Page 1: Running title.** (Not to exceed 60 characters, counting letters and spaces). This page should **only** contain your running title/ full title of your paper. In addition, the **Subject areas** most relevant to the study must be indicated on this page. Select one or two subject areas (refer to the *Scope Form*).
A list of number of **black and white / colour figures and tables** should also be indicated on this page. Figures submitted in color will be printed in colour. See "5. *Figures & Photographs*" for details.
 - **Page 2: Author(s) and Corresponding author information.** This page should **repeat** the title of your paper with name(s) of all the authors, institutions and corresponding author's name, institution and full address (Street address, telephone number (including extension), hand phone number, fax number and e-mail address) for editorial correspondence.
Authors' addresses. Multiple authors with different addresses must indicate their respective addresses separately by superscript numbers:
George Swan¹ and Nayan Kanwal²
¹Department of Management, University of Nebraska-Lincoln, Lincoln, USA
²Research Management Centre, Universiti Putra Malaysia, Serdang, Malaysia.
 - **Page 3:** This page should **repeat** the title of your paper with only the **Abstract** (the abstract should be less than 250 words for a Regular Paper and up to 100 words for a Short Communication). **Keywords** must also be provided on this page (Not more than eight keywords in alphabetical order).
 - **Page 4 and subsequent pages:** This page should begin with the **Introduction** of your article and the rest of your paper should follow from page 5 onwards.

Abbreviations. Define alphabetically, other than abbreviations that can be used without definition. Words or phrases that are abbreviated in the introduction and following text should be written out in full the first time that they appear in the text, with each abbreviated form in parenthesis. Include the common name or scientific name, or both, of animal and plant materials.

Footnotes. Current addresses of authors if different from heading.

2. **Text.** Regular Papers should be prepared with the headings **Introduction, Materials and Methods, Results and Discussion, Conclusions** in this order. Short Communications should be prepared according to "8. *Short Communications.*" below.
3. **Tables.** All tables should be prepared in a form consistent with recent issues of *Pertanika* and should be numbered consecutively with Arabic numerals. Explanatory material should be given in the table legends and footnotes. Each table should be prepared on a separate page. (Note that when a manuscript is accepted for publication, tables must be submitted as data - .doc,

.rtf, Excel or PowerPoint file- because tables submitted as image data cannot be edited for publication.)

4. **Equations and Formulae.** These must be set up clearly and should be typed triple spaced. Numbers identifying equations should be in square brackets and placed on the right margin of the text.
5. **Figures & Photographs.** Submit an original figure or photograph. Line drawings must be clear, with high black and white contrast. Each figure or photograph should be prepared on a separate sheet and numbered consecutively with Arabic numerals. Appropriate sized numbers, letters and symbols should be used, no smaller than 2 mm in size after reduction to single column width (85 mm), 1.5-column width (120 mm) or full 2-column width (175 mm). Failure to comply with these specifications will require new figures and delay in publication. For electronic figures, create your figures using applications that are capable of preparing high resolution TIFF files acceptable for publication. In general, we require **300 dpi or higher resolution for coloured and half-tone artwork** and **1200 dpi or higher for line drawings**. For review, you may attach low-resolution figures, which are still clear enough for reviewing, to keep the file of the manuscript under 5 MB. Illustrations may be produced at extra cost in colour at the discretion of the Publisher; the author could be charged Malaysian Ringgit 50 for each colour page.

6. **References.** Literature citations in the text should be made by name(s) of author(s) and year. For references with more than two authors, the name of the first author followed by 'et al.' should be used.

Swan and Kanwal (2007) reported that ...

The results have been interpreted (Kanwal et al. 2009).

- References should be listed in alphabetical order, by the authors' last names. For the same author, or for the same set of authors, references should be arranged chronologically. If there is more than one publication in the same year for the same author(s), the letters 'a', 'b', etc., should be added to the year.
- When the authors are more than 11, list 5 authors and then et al.
- Do not use indentations in typing References. Use one line of space to separate each reference. For example:
 - Mellers, B. A. (2006a). Choice and the relative pleasure of consequences. *Psychological Bulletin*, 126, 910-924.
 - Mellers, B. A. (2006b). Treatment for sexually abused children and adolescents. *American Psychologist*, 55, 1040-1049.
 - Hawe, P. (2005). Capturing the meaning of "community" in community intervention evaluation: Some contributions from community psychology. *Health Promotion International*, 9, 199-210.
 - Braconier, H. and Ekholm, K. (2006). Swedish multinationals and competition from high and low wage location. *Review of International Economics*, 8, 448-461.
- In case of citing an author(s) who has published more than one paper in the same year, the papers should be distinguished by addition of a small letter as shown above, e.g. Mellers (2006a); Mellers (2006b).
- Unpublished data and personal communications should not be cited as literature citations, but given in the text in parentheses. 'In press' articles that have been accepted for publication may be cited in References. Include in the citation the journal in which the 'in press' article will appear and the publication date, if a date is available.

7. **Examples of other reference citations:**

Monographs: Kalimapour, Y.R. (2004). *Images of the U.S. Around the World: A Multicultural Perspective*. Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.

Chapter in Book: Bjork, R. A. (2007). Retrieval inhibition as an adaptive mechanism in human memory. In H. L. Roediger III & F. I. M. Craik (Eds.), *Varieties of memory & consciousness* (pp. 309-330). Hull: Hull University Press.

- **Proceedings:** Amir Awang. (2006). Counseling, human resources development and counseling services. In Sulaiman M. Yassin, Yahya Mat Hassan, Kamariah Abu Bakar, Esah Munji and Sabariah Mohd. Rashid (Eds.), *Proceedings of Asia Pacific Conference on Human Development* (p. 243-246). Serdang: Universiti Putra Malaysia.
8. **Short Communications** should include **Introduction, Materials and Methods, Results and Discussion, Conclusions** in this order. Headings should only be inserted for Materials and Methods. The abstract should be up to 100 words, as stated above. Short Communications must be 5 printed pages or less, including all references, figures and tables. References should be less than 30. A 5 page paper is usually approximately 3000 words plus four figures or tables (if each figure or table is less than 1/4 page).

*Authors should state the total number of words (including the Abstract) in the cover letter. Manuscripts that do not fulfill these criteria will be rejected as Short Communications without review.

STYLE OF THE MANUSCRIPT

Manuscripts should follow the style of the latest version of the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association (APA). The journal uses British spelling and authors should therefore follow the latest edition of the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary.

SUBMISSION OF MANUSCRIPTS

All articles submitted to the journal **must comply** with these instructions. Failure to do so will result in return of the manuscript and possible delay in publication.

The **four copies** of your original manuscript, four sets of photographic figures, as well as a CD with the **electronic copy in MS Word** (including text and figures) together with a **cover letter, declaration form, referral form A, scope form** need to be enclosed. They are available from the Pertanika's home page at <http://rmc.upm.edu.my/pertanika> or from the Executive Editor's office upon request.

Please do **not** submit manuscripts directly to the editor-in-chief or to the UPM Press. All manuscripts must be **submitted through the executive editor's office** to be properly acknowledged and rapidly processed:

Dr. Nayan KANWAL
Executive Editor
Research Management Centre (RMC)
4th Floor, Administration Building
Universiti Putra Malaysia
43400 UPM, Serdang, Selangor, Malaysia
email: ndeeps@admin.upm.edu.my;
tel: + 603-8946 6192
fax: + 603 8947 2075

Authors should retain copies of submitted manuscripts and correspondence, as materials can not be returned.

Cover letter

All submissions must be accompanied by a cover letter detailing what you are submitting. Papers are accepted for publication in the journal on the understanding that the article is original and the content has not been published or submitted for publication elsewhere. This must be stated in the cover letter.

The cover letter must also contain an acknowledgement that all authors have contributed significantly, and that all authors are in agreement with the content of the manuscript.

The cover letter of the paper should contain (i) the title; (ii) the full names of the authors; (iii) the addresses of the institutions at which the work was carried out together with (iv) the full postal and email address, plus facsimile and telephone numbers of the author to whom correspondence about the manuscript should be sent. The present address of any author, if different from that where the work was carried out, should be supplied in a footnote.

As articles are double-blind reviewed, material that might identify authorship of the paper should be placed on a cover sheet.

Note When your manuscript is received at Pertanika, it is considered to be in its final form. Therefore, you need to check your manuscript carefully before submitting it to the executive editor (see also **English language editing** below).

Electronic copy

Preparation of manuscripts on a CD or DVD is preferable and articles should be prepared using MS Word. File name(s), the title of your article and authors of the article must be indicated on the CD. The CD must always be accompanied by four hard-copies of the article, and the content of the two must be identical. The CD text must be the same as that of the final refereed, revised manuscript. CDs formatted for IBM PC compatibles are preferred, as those formatted for Apple Macintosh are not acceptable. Please do not send ASCII files, as relevant data may be lost. Leave a blank line between each paragraph and between each entry in the list of bibliographic references. Tables should be placed in the same electronic file as the text. Authors should consult a recent issue of the Journal for table layout.

Peer review

In the peer-review process, three referees independently evaluate the scientific quality of the submitted manuscripts. The Journal uses a double-blind peer-review system. Authors are encouraged to indicate in **referral form A** the names of three potential reviewers, but the editors will make the final choice. The editors are not, however, bound by these suggestions.

Manuscripts should be written so that they are intelligible to the professional reader who is not a specialist in the particular field. They should be written in a clear, concise, direct style. Where contributions are judged as acceptable for publication on the basis of content, the Editor or the Publisher reserves the right to modify the typescripts to eliminate ambiguity and repetition and improve communication between author and reader. If extensive alterations are required, the manuscript will be returned to the author for revision.

The editorial review process

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

1. The executive editor and the editorial board examine the paper to determine whether it is appropriate for the journal and should be reviewed. If not appropriate, the manuscript is rejected outright and the author is informed.
2. The executive editor sends the article-identifying information having been removed, to three reviewers. Typically, one of these is from the Journal's editorial board. Others are specialists in the subject matter represented by the article. The executive editor asks them to complete the review in three weeks and encloses two forms: (a) referral form B and (b) reviewer's comment form along with reviewer's guidelines. Comments to authors are about the appropriateness and adequacy of the theoretical or conceptual framework, literature review, method, results and discussion, and conclusions. Reviewers often include suggestions for strengthening of the manuscript. Comments to the editor are in the nature of the significance of the work and its potential contribution to the literature.
3. The executive editor, in consultation with the editor-in-chief, examines the reviews and decides whether to reject the manuscript, invite the author(s) to revise and resubmit the manuscript, or seek additional reviews. Final acceptance or rejection rests with the Editorial Board, who reserves the right to refuse any material for publication. In rare instances, the manuscript

Pertanika

Our goal is to bring high quality research to the widest possible audience

**Pertanika
is Indexed in
Scopus &
EBSCO**

Pertanika is an international peer-reviewed leading journal in Malaysia which began publication in 1978. The journal publishes in three different areas — Journal of Tropical Agricultural Science (JTAS); Journal of Science and Technology (JST); and Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities (JSSH).

JTAS is devoted to the publication of original papers that serves as a forum for practical approaches to improving quality in issues pertaining to tropical agricultural research or related fields of study. It is published twice a year in **February** and **August**.

JST caters for science and engineering research or related fields of study. It is published twice a year in **January** and **July**.

JSSH deals in research or theories in social sciences and humanities research with a focus on emerging issues pertaining to the social and behavioural sciences as well as the humanities, particularly in the Asia Pacific region. It is published twice a year in **March** and **September**.



Call for Papers

Pertanika invites you to explore frontiers from all fields of science and technology to social sciences and humanities. You may contribute your scientific work for publishing in UPM's hallmark journals either as a *regular article*, *short communications*, or a *review article* in our forthcoming issues. Papers submitted to this journal must contain original results and must not be submitted elsewhere while being evaluated for the Pertanika Journals.

Submissions in English should be accompanied by an abstract not exceeding 300 words. Your manuscript should be no more than 6,000 words or 10-12 printed pages, including notes and abstract. Submissions should conform to the Pertanika style, which is available at www.rmc.upm.edu.my/pertanika or by mail or email upon request.

Papers should be double-spaced 12 point type (Times New Roman fonts preferred). The first page should include the title of the article but no author information. Page 2 should repeat the title of the article together with the names and contact information of the corresponding author as well as all the other authors. Page 3 should contain the abstract only. Page 4 and subsequent pages to have the text - Acknowledgments - References - Tables - Legends to figures - Figures, etc.

Questions regarding submissions should only be directed to the Executive Editor, Pertanika Journals.

Remember, *Pertanika is the resource to support you in strengthening research and research management capacity.*



**An Award Winning
International-Malaysian Journal**

FEB. 2008

Why should you publish in Pertanika Journals?

Benefits to Authors

PROFILE: our journals are circulated in large numbers all over Malaysia, and beyond, in Southeast Asia. Recently, we have widened our circulation to other overseas countries as well. We will ensure that your work reaches the widest possible audience in print and online, through our wide publicity campaigns held frequently, and through our constantly developing electronic initiatives through e-pertanika and Pertanika Online.

QUALITY: Our double-blind peer refereeing procedures are fair and open, and we aim to help authors develop and improve their work. Pertanika JTAS is now over 30 years old; this accumulated knowledge has resulted in Pertanika JTAS being indexed by Scopus (Elsevier).

AUTHOR SERVICES: we provide a rapid response service to all our authors, with dedicated support staff for each journal, and a point of contact throughout the refereeing and production processes. Our aim is to ensure that the production process is as smooth as possible, is borne out by the high number of authors who publish with us again and again.

LAG TIME & REJECTION RATE: the elapsed time from submission to publication for the articles in Pertanika averages 6-8 months. A decision of acceptance of a manuscript is reached in 1 to 3 months (average 7 weeks).

Our Journals have a 30% rejection rate of its submitted manuscripts, many of the papers fail on account of their substandard presentation and language (frustrating the peer reviewers).



Mail your submissions to:

The Executive Editor
Pertanika Journals
Research Management Centre (RMC)
Publication Division
4th Floor, Administration Building
Universiti Putra Malaysia
43400 UPM, Serdang, Selangor, Malaysia

Tel: +603-8946 6192
ndeeps@admin.upm.edu.my
www.rmc.upm.edu.my/pertanika

Pertanika Journal of Social Sciences & Humanities
Vol. 17(1) Mar. 2009

Contents

Differential Determinants of Birth Spacing Since Marriage to First Live Birth in Rural Bangladesh <i>Md. Shahidul Islam</i>	1
Factors Affecting the Decision Making in Off Farm Employment Among Paddy Farmers in Kemasin Semarak <i>Norsida Man</i>	7
Self-Construal and Exposure to American Entertainment and News Programs Among Malaysian Youths <i>Ezhar Tamam, Lars Willnat and Mohd Nizam Osman</i>	17
Punishing Forest Offenders: Out of Court or by the Court? <i>Rusli Mohd and Miskon Simin</i>	25
Local and Foreign Tourists' Image of Highland Tourism Destinations in Peninsular Malaysia <i>Azlizam Aziz and Nurul Amirah Zainol</i>	33



Research Management Centre (RMC)

4th Floor, Administration Building
Universiti Putra Malaysia
43400 UPM Serdang
Selangor Darul Ehsan
Malaysia

<http://www.rmc.upm.edu.my>
E-mail : pertanika@rmc.upm.edu.my
Tel : +603 8946 6185/ 6192
Fax : +603 8947 2075

UPM Press

Universiti Putra Malaysia
43400 UPM Serdang
Selangor Darul Ehsan
Malaysia

<http://penerbit.upm.edu.my>
E-mail : penerbit@putra.upm.edu.my
Tel : +603 8946 8855/8854
Fax : +603 8941 6172

ISSN 0128-7702



9 770128 770062