

Pertanika Journal of

# SOCIAL SCIENCES & HUMANITIES

VOL. 25 (2) JUN. 2017



A scientific journal published by Universiti Putra Malaysia Press

#### Journal of Social Sciences & Humanities

#### **About the Journal**

#### Overview

Pertanika Journal of Social Sciences & Humanities (JSSH) is the official journal of Universiti Putra Malaysia published by UPM Press. It is an open-access online scientific journal which is free of charge. It publishes the scientific outputs. It neither accepts nor commissions third party content.

Recognized internationally as the leading peer-reviewed interdisciplinary journal devoted to the publication of original papers, it serves as a forum for practical approaches to improving quality in issues pertaining to social and behavioural sciences as well as the humanities.

JSSH is a **quarterly** (*March, June, September* and *December*) periodical that considers for publication original articles as per its scope. The journal publishes in **English** and it is open to authors around the world regardless of the nationality.

The Journal is available world-wide.

#### Aims and scope

Pertanika Journal of Social Sciences & Humanities 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.

Areas relevant to the scope of the journal include Social Sciences—Accounting, anthropology, Archaeology and history, Architecture and habitat, Consumer and family economics, Economics, Education, Finance, Geography, Law, Management studies, Media and communication studies, Political sciences and public policy, Population studies, Psychology, Sociology, Technology management, Tourism; Humanities—Arts and culture, Dance, Historical and civilisation studies, Language and Linguistics, Literature, Music, Philosophy, Religious studies, Sports.

#### History

Pertanika was founded in 1978. A decision was made in 1992 to streamline Pertanika into three journals as Journal of Tropical Agricultural Science, Journal of Science & Technology, and **Journal of Social Sciences & Humanities** to meet the need for specialised journals in areas of study aligned with the interdisciplinary strengths of the university.

After almost 25 years, as an interdisciplinary Journal of Social Sciences & Humanities, the revamped journal focuses on research in social and behavioural sciences as well as the humanities, particularly in the Asia Pacific region.

#### 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 14 weeks. The elapsed time from submission to publication for the articles averages 5-6 months.

#### Abstracting and indexing of Pertanika

Pertanika is almost **40** years old; this accumulated knowledge has resulted in Pertanika JSSH being abstracted and indexed in **SCOPUS** (Elsevier), Thomson (ISI) **Web of Science™ Core Collection** Emerging Sources Citation Index (ESCI). Web of Knowledge [BIOSIS & CAB Abstracts], **EBSCO** and EBSCOhost, **DOAJ**, **Google Scholar**, **TIB**, **MyCite**, **ISC**, **Cabell's Directories** & Journal Guide.

#### **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.

#### Citing journal articles

The abbreviation for Pertanika Journal of Social Sciences & Humanities is Pertanika J. Soc. Sci. Hum.

#### **Publication policy**

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. It also does not permit publication of manuscript that has been published in full in Proceedings.

#### **Code of Ethics**

The Pertanika Journals and Universiti Putra Malaysia takes seriously the responsibility of all of its journal publications to reflect the highest in publication ethics. Thus all journals and journal editors are expected to abide by the Journal's codes of ethics. Refer to Pertanika's **Code of Ethics** for full details, or visit the Journal's web link at <a href="http://www.pertanika.upm.edu.my/code">http://www.pertanika.upm.edu.my/code</a> of <a href="https://www.pertanika.upm.edu.my/code">ethics.php</a>

#### International Standard Serial Number (ISSN)

An ISSN is an 8-digit code used to identify periodicals such as journals of all kinds and on all media–print and electronic. All Pertanika journals have ISSN as well as an e-ISSN.

Journal of Social Sciences & Humanities: ISSN 0128-7702 (Print); ISSN 2231-8534 (Online).

#### Lag time

A decision on acceptance or rejection of a manuscript is reached in 3 to 4 months (average 14 weeks). The elapsed time from submission to publication for the articles averages 5-6 months.

#### **Authorship**

Authors are not permitted to add or remove any names from the authorship provided at the time of initial submission without the consent of the Journal's Chief Executive Editor.

#### Manuscript preparation

Refer to Pertanika's INSTRUCTIONS TO AUTHORS at the back of this journal.

Most scientific papers are prepared according to a format called IMRAD. The term represents the first letters of the words Introduction, Materials and Methods, Results, And, Discussion. IMRAD is simply a more 'defined' version of the "IBC" [Introduction, Body, Conclusion] format used for all academic writing. IMRAD indicates a pattern or format rather than a complete list of headings or components of research papers; the missing parts of a paper are: *Title, Authors, Keywords, Abstract, Conclusions*, and *References*. Additionally, some papers include Acknowledgments and Appendices.

The Introduction explains the scope and objective of the study in the light of current knowledge on the subject; the Materials and Methods describes how the study was conducted; the Results section reports what was found in the study; and the Discussion section explains meaning and significance of the results and provides suggestions for future directions of research. The manuscript must be prepared according to the Journal's INSTRUCTIONS TO AUTHORS.

#### **Editorial process**

Authors are notified with an acknowledgement containing a *Manuscript ID* on receipt of a manuscript, and upon the editorial decision regarding publication.

Pertanika follows a **double-blind peer-review** process. Manuscripts deemed suitable for publication are usually sent to reviewers. Authors are encouraged to suggest names of at least three potential reviewers at the time of submission of their manuscript to Pertanika, but the editors will make the final choice. The editors are not, however, bound by these suggestions.

Notification of the editorial decision is usually provided within ten to fourteen 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.

As articles are double-blind reviewed, material that might identify authorship of the paper should be placed only on page 2 as described in the first-4 page format in Pertanika's **INSTRUCTIONS TO AUTHORS** given at the back of this journal.

#### The Journal's peer-review

In the peer-review process, three referees independently evaluate the scientific quality of the submitted manuscripts.

Peer reviewers are experts chosen by journal editors to provide written assessment of the **strengths** and **weaknesses** of written research, with the aim of improving the reporting of research and identifying the most appropriate and highest quality material for the journal.

#### Operating and review process

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

- The Journal's chief 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.
- The chief 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 chief executive editor asks them to complete the review in three weeks.
  - 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 chief 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 Edito-in-Chief, who reserves the right to refuse any material for publication. In rare instances, the manuscript is accepted with almost no revision. Almost without exception, reviewers' comments (to the author) are forwarded to the author. If a revision is indicated, the editor provides guidelines for attending to the reviewers' suggestions and perhaps additional advice about revising the manuscript.
- 4. The authors decide whether and how to address the reviewers' comments and criticisms and the editor's concerns. The authors return a revised version of the paper to the chief executive editor along with specific information describing how they have answered' the concerns of the reviewers and the editor, usually in a tabular form. The author(s) may also submit a rebuttal if there is a need especially when the author disagrees with certain comments provided by reviewer(s).

- The chief executive editor sends the revised paper out for re-review. Typically, at least one of the original reviewers will be asked to examine the article.
- 6. When the reviewers have completed their work, the chief executive editor in consultation with the editorial board and the editor-in-chief examine their comments and decide whether the paper is ready to be published, needs another round of revisions, or should be rejected.
- 7. If the decision is to accept, an acceptance letter is sent to all the author(s), the paper is sent to the Press. The article should appear in print in approximately three months.

The Publisher ensures that the paper adheres to the correct style (in-text citations, the reference list, and tables are typical areas of concern, clarity, and grammar). The authors are asked to respond to any minor queries by the Publisher. Following these corrections, page proofs are mailed to the corresponding authors for their final approval. At this point, **only essential changes are accepted**. Finally, the article appears in the pages of the Journal and is posted on-line.



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Office of the Deputy Vice Chancellor (R&I) 1st Floor, IDEA Tower II **UPM-MTDC Technology Centre** Universiti Putra Malaysia 43400 Serdang, Selangor Malaysia. Gen Eng.: +603 8947 1622 | 1616

E-mail: executive\_editor.pertanika@upm.my URL: www.journals-jd.upm.edu.my

#### **PUBLISHER**

Kamariah Mohd Saidin

Universiti Putra Malaysia 43400 UPM, Serdang, Selangor, Malaysia.

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#### **Foreword**

Welcome to the **Second Issue 2017** of the Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities (JSSH)!

JSSH is an open-access journal for the Social Sciences and Humanities that is published by Universiti Putra Malaysia Press. It is independently owned and managed by the university and run on a non-profit basis for the world-wide social sciences community.

This issue contains **32** articles, of which **one** is a review article, **29** are regular research articles and **two** are special issue papers. The authors of these articles come from different countries, namely, **Australia**, **Bangladesh**, **Brunei Darussalam**, **India**, **Indonesia**, **Iran**, **Kazakhstan**, **Malaysia**, **Nepal**, **New Zealand**, **Nigeria**, the **Sultanate of Oman**, **Thailand** and the **USA**.

The review article in this issue discusses the need for teachers to recognise, realise and differentiate the individual learning modes of students (*Minder Kaur*).

The regular research papers cover a wide range of topics. The first article is an investigation into hard news texts in two major newspapers in Malaysia, The New Straits Times and Berita Harian (Alkaff, S. and McLellan, J.). The next article discusses the relationship between the components of organisational justice and the dimensions of job satisfaction of physical education teachers (Firoozi, M., Kazemi, A. and Sayadi, N.). This issue also contains: a study on the antecedents of employees' e-training participation in a Malaysian private company (Tan, Y. Y. and Mohd Rasdi, R.); a study on Bhabha's parody of the master-slave relationship in J. M. Coetzee's Foe (Alireza Farahbakhsh and Mohammad Chohan); a study on confirmatory factor analysis of the Malaysian version of the recreational exercise motivation measure (Kueh, C. Y., Kuan, C., Morris, T. and Naing, N. N.); a study that discusses constitutional recognition and legal protection for local religions in Indonesia (Moh, Fadli); a study that focusses on critical thinking in the language classroom from the point of teacher beliefs and methods (Burns, S. L., Tuzlukova, V. and Al Busaidi, S.); a study on determinants of willingness to pay for Hepatitis B vaccination among Malaysians (Yogambigai, R.); a study on employees' retention strategy on the Quality Work of Life (QWL) dimension of private commercial banks in Bangladesh (Rahman, M. M., Abdul, M., Ali, N. A. 1, Uddin, M. J. and Rahman, M. S.); and an exploratory study on student engagement in writing using the Flipped Classroom Approach (Norazmi, D., Dwee, C. Y., Suzilla, J. and Nurzarina, A. S.).

This issue also includes a case study that explores undergraduates' perception of whiteboard and PowerPoint lecture style presentations (*Yee, V. C. L., Sim, K. N., Ng, Y. J., Low, L. M.* and *Chong, S. T.*); a study of Chinese students in Vellore, India, regarding their extraversion-introversion tendencies and their relationship with ESL proficiency (*Zafar, S., Khan, Z. A.* and *Meenakshi, K.*); a study on fundamentals and country-specific determinants with evidence from the United States and Malaysia (*Catherine S F Ho* and

Lena Booth); a study on brand personality congruence (Sudipta Kumar Jana and Jyoti Ranjan Das); an empirical study of future human rights advocates in Malaysia covering their scope and application (Rohaida Nordin and Abdul Rahman Abdullah); a study that discusses the implementation of ethical codes at the workplace (Kamri, N. A., Basir S. A. and Ramlan, S. F.); an initial study in the exploration of Malaysia's POTA 2015 in preventing crime (Saroja Dhanapal and Johan Shamsuddin Sabaruddin); a study on restructuring the revised two-factor study process questionnaire (R-SPQ-2F) in the context of pre-service teachers in Malaysia (Goh, P. S. C., Wong, K. T. and Mahizer, H.); and a study on Russian writers with bi-mental thinking and the formation of readers' multicultural competence (Orazbayeva, N. and Nurgali, K.).

This issue also contains a study on Self Help Groups for woman empowerment (Mathur, P. and Agarwal, P.); a study that discusses social determinants of linear growth among children under the age of five years in Nepal (Kattel, S., McNeil, N. and Tongkumchum, P.); a study on structure of conjunctive relations in the translation of Animal Farm from English to Hausa (Muhammad Sulaiman Abdullahi and Kulwindr Kaur Gurdial Singh); a study on Practices of Information and Communication Technology among tertiary students to promote Higher-Order Thinking skills (Ganapathy, M., Manjet Kaur and Kaur, S.); a study that focusses on higher education students regarding their risk management and characteristics on life skills (Thanomwan, P., Keow Ngang, T., Prakittiya, T. and Sermpong, P.); a study that assesses the marketability of UKM Chemistry students from the perspective of industrial training (Abd Karim, N. H., Nor, F. M., Arsad, N., Hassan, N. H., Baharum, A., Khalid, R., Anuar, F. H., Abu Bakar, M. and Othaman, R.); a study on the morphosyntax of causative construction in Sudanese Arabic (Taha, M., Sultan, F.M. and Yasin, S.M.); a study on the role of self-confidence as mediator between interpersonal and self-management skills and motivation to learn (Ibrahim, H. I. and Jaafar, A. H.); a study on the perceptions and the practices of folk medicine among youth in Pakistan (Samina, R., Adeela, R. and Nurazzura, M. D.); and an empirical study on personal characteristics that influence the conciliatory style of tax auditors (Zarifah Syahirah Nordin, Izlawanie Muhammad, Kalsom Abd. Wahab and Nor Asiah Yaakub).

I conclude this issue with two special issue papers presented at the INCEIF Islamic Finance Conference (FIFC) 2016. The first is on the impact of staff efficiency on impaired financing of Islamic banks in MENA countries (*Alias M. Nor, Nor Hayati Ahmad* and *Mohd A. Ahmad*) and the second is on the relationship between participation bank performance and its determinants (*Ali Nasserinia, Mohamed Ariff* and *Cheng Fan-Fah*).

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

I would also like to express my gratitude to all contributors, namely, the authors,

reviewers and editors, who have made this issue possible. Last but not least, the editorial assistance of the journal division staff is fully appreciated.

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

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#### Review Article

## To Recognise, Realise and Differentiate the Learning Needs of Students

#### Minder Kaur

Department of English Language and Communication, Faculty of Social Sciences and Liberal Arts, UCSI Heights, 56000 Cheras, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

#### **ABSTRACT**

In Malaysia not only are our classrooms often large but they also have a diverse, heterogeneous groups of students. Teachers nowadays face the greatest challenge in meeting the different learning needs of a diverse group of students. Thus, teachers need to recognise and realise the individual learning mode of all their students and to motivate them so as to maximise the learning progress and the achievements of these students. The learning preferences of learners are based on multiple intelligences. Students come with different abilities, skills and characteristics. Furthermore, students respond positively when learning is meaningful, personalised and relevant; thus, knowing what type of learners they are and the way they prefer to learn would greatly aid teachers in the classroom. Therefore, we need to diversify the curriculum to fit the needs of 21st century learners so as to enhance the teaching and learning process.

*Keywords:* Differentiated instruction, differentiating in content, differentiating in process, differentiating in product, language styles, learning profile, Multiple Intelligences, SISC+

#### INTRODUCTION

The purpose of the Malaysian education system is to develop students' potential and

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E-mail address: minder@ucsiuniversity.edu.my \* Corresponding author

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equip them with 21st-century skills and give them opportunities that would prepare them for the challenges of this century knowing that they will be competing in the future with the best of the world. The Ministry of Education Malaysia remains committed to fulfilling the potential needs of students in the Malaysian education system and to providing better access to quality education for every student.

In October 2011, the Ministry of Education launched a comprehensive review of the education system in Malaysia in line with the new National Education Blueprint. This decision was made in the context of raising the international education standards, which are the Government's aspiration and policy of preparing Malaysia's children for the needs of the 21st century (Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013-2025, 2012, p.E-1).

In line with the Education Blueprint 2012 and to meet the challenges of the 21st century, the curriculum has been designed to fulfil the goals of the education system to develop young Malaysians who are knowledgeable, able to think critically and creatively, and have good communication skills, thus, producing life-long learners.

The efforts of teachers to respond to different learners in the classroom is of vital importance in the context of the education system and policy. In order to create the best learning experience possible, a teacher needs to vary or recreate his or her teaching in order to reach out to the individual student. In our often large classrooms we have a diverse, heterogeneous group of students. Teachers nowadays face the greatest challenge in meeting the different learning needs of these students. In addition, most teachers do not understand their students' potential and abilities. In the English language classroom, teachers

need to recognise that students range from the highly motivated to the disinterested, varying in skills acquisition and in the ways they prefer to learn.

#### What is Differentiation

Differentiated instruction is a model of teaching that requires teachers to have flexible approaches in their instruction. This means adjusting the curriculum and instruction to fit the needs of the learners, instead of the learners being expected to modify themselves for the curriculum (National Center on Accessing the General Curriculum Effective Classroom Practices Report, as cited in Hall, 2002).

Educators must realise that learners are different in many ways. Students vary in culture, socioeconomic status, language, gender, motivation, ability/disability, personal interests and more, and teachers must be aware of this diversity of factors.

According to Tomlinson, differentiating instruction is to create multiple paths so that students of different abilities, interest or learning needs experience equally appropriate ways to absorb, use, develop and present concepts as a part of their daily learning process. However, she also added that differentiation is required when students cannot learn the way we teach, hence we must teach them the way they learn. Differentiation simply means teaching students differently according to their needs and their preferred learning style. Teachers need to make sure that they use a

variety of teaching approaches capable of accommodating the different abilities and learning preferences of students.

#### **OBJECTIVES**

Our classrooms are filled with students who have different needs, come from different educational backgrounds and have different attention spans and interests, language abilities and cultural backgrounds. In other words, our students are multi-levelled. Thus, the general objective of this paper is to help teachers identify the learning styles of learners through multiple intelligences and their learning needs. Learning styles are concerned with differences in the process of learning, whereas multiple intelligences centre on the content and products of learning. Integrating learning styles and multiple intelligences can help learners learn in many ways (Silver, Strong & Perini, 1997). The teacher needs to respond to variance among students based on their learning profiles, readiness and interests. Teachers may not aware of the importance of designing and implementing differentiated lesson plans in enhancing the learning and teaching process of learners in the 21st century.

This paper also shows the different components of differentiation, giving teachers an idea how to plan and design tasks and implement lessons based on students' needs and abilities. It also emphasises awareness among teachers about differentiated plans and tasks. In this paper, some practical suggestions are given to teachers on how to integrate and apply learning styles and multiple intelligences in the classroom

## AN OVERVIEW OF DIFFERENTIATION

Students are not the same. One size does not fit all. They do not learn or perform in the same way. Knowing what type of learners they are and how they prefer to learn will help teachers to help learners improve how they learn.

The concept of multiple intelligences highlights the many strengths of learners. Differentiation stems from beliefs about differences among learners, how they learn, learning preferences and individual interests (Anderson, 2007). Students respond positively when learning is meaningful, personalised and relevant to their everyday life situation. The elements differentiated below will take into consideration the student's readiness, interest or learning profile. It is vital for teachers to differentiate the four classroom elements as described below to maximise successful learning.

Content – what the student needs to learn or how the student will get access to the information within the necessary time:

Process – different approaches to activities in which the student engages in order to make sense of or master the content;

Products – demonstrating their learning product or culminating projects that ask the student to rehearse, apply, and extend what he or she has learnt; and Learning environment – the way the classroom works and feels. (Tomlinson, 2000)

#### **Differentiating in Content**

When teachers differentiate content, they may adapt what they want students to learn or how students access knowledge, understanding and skills (Anderson, 2007). A teacher makes adjustments to the learning materials or aligns the tasks or projects to cater for different levels of proficiency among students in a classroom. For example, reading materials could be at various readability levels or ideas can be presented through both auditory and visual means. Meeting with small groups to re-teach an idea or skill for struggling learners could be carried out. Teachers can differentiate the content by preparing vocabulary lists at readiness levels of students or either reduce or simplify the content or the link content to students' interests.

#### **Differentiating in Process**

Differentiating by process refers to how a student comes to understand and assimilate facts, concepts and skills (Anderson, 2007). A teacher thinks of effective ways/approaches/activities suitable to an individual or a small group of students to ensure all students get a chance to learn. Some students prefer

to read on a topic, listen to a topic or acquire knowledge by manipulating objects associated with the content. Many teachers use areas of Multiple Intelligences to provide learning opportunities. Some examples of differentiating the process or activities include using tiered activities through which, all learners work with the same important areas of understanding and skills, but proceed with different levels of support or complexity. Interest centres that encourage students to explore further class topic of particular interest to them, can be provided. Process can be differentiated by providing hands-on support for students who need it or by varying the length of time a learner needs to complete a task. Anchor activities can also be provided for advanced students to pursue a topic in greater depth. During this process of differentiation, flexible grouping is allowed, where mixed ability groups, interest groups or ability groups are formed.

#### **Differentiating in Products**

When educators differentiate by product or performance, they are affording students various ways of demonstrating what they have learnt from the lesson or unit (Anderson, 2007). Here students with different abilities show or demonstrate what they have learnt. Examples of differentiating products include creating or designing their own assignments, creating a puppet show or a greeting card or role-play. The learners can talk or write journals about what they have learnt. They can also use visual aids, posters

or create songs to demonstrate their learning products. Mind maps or i-think maps can be used to differentiate the learning process. During this process, the learners are allowed to work alone or in small groups on their learning products.

#### **Learning Environment**

Differentiating through the environment is important as it creates the conditions for optimal learning to take place. The learning environment includes the physical layout of the classroom, areas for quiet individual work as well as areas for group work. Students are aware of the classroom rules and know routines and procedures when carrying out activities (Tomlinson, 2003).

Teachers should employ classroom management techniques that support a safe and supportive learning environment in which students are allowed to carry out collaborative activities. The classroom should be quiet without any distraction. There should be certain guidelines for independent work. Teachers must be aware that some learners do better sitting quietly while others need to move around to learn (Tomlinson, 1999).

When teaches are busy with some students and cannot help those who need help immediately, certain routines need to be developed, for example "parking lots" can be implemented where students can post their questions on a board or show their "traffic lights" to get help from teachers

or to express their level of understanding. Red posts indicate that learners do not understand, yellow that they are in a state of confusion and green that they understand the teaching process.

## IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Key principles of differentiation should be adhered to in a differentiated classroom (Tomlinson, 2001b). The tasks should be of equal interest and relevant for all students. Opportunities given to learners must be challenging and extended to all students to cater for varied interests and learning styles. Differentiation allows for flexible grouping with a variety of peers. In order to develop the students' individual capacity and potential, activities for differentiation require meaningful, powerful and engaging work.

Differentiation provides several learning options, or different paths to learning, which help students take in information and make sense of concepts and skills. Through differentiation, appropriate levels of challenge are provided for all students, including those who lag behind, those who are advanced and those right in the middle. Teachers do not develop a separate lesson plan for each level of students in a classroom or "water down" the curriculum for some students. The significance of differentiated teaching techniques is to maximise each student's growth and success and assist in the learning process.

#### My Reflections on Differentiated Instruction as an SISC+

The Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013-2025 created a new position in the Ministry of Education Malaysia which is the School Improvement Specialist Coach Plus (SISC+). The role and responsibilities of an SISC+ are prescribed in the District Transformation Programme Guide Book and includes observing only, co-teaching with teachers in class and providing feedback to them on the ways to improve the teaching and learning process. I am an SISC+ and my role is as coach and mentor for 24 schools in the Petaling District Education Office in Selangor. My new role as an SISC+ officer allows me to visit different schools and enhance the teaching and learning of English. In my observations, I have noticed that some students, especially low-proficiency learners are not interested and not motivated to learn English. My assumptions were that they did not understand the content and were not given the opportunity to develop their potential according to their learning styles.

With a typical traditional teaching and learning approach what do you think can happen if all students are given the same task/project with the same expectations for a fixed period of time (say over three weeks)? Low achievers would take a longer period to finish their tasks whereas middle-level achievers would take two weeks to complete their tasks and high achievers would take only one week to complete the same task. This scenario was evident in some of the schools. I then suggested to the

teachers to plan their lessons and vary their approach and activities to meet the needs of all students so that all the students would be able to achieve their tasks based on their learning styles (Multiple Intelligences) and ability levels.

## The concept of Differentiated Instruction in the Malaysian Context

This concept of differentiation has not been emphasised until recently in line with the Malaysian Education Blueprint 2013-2025 to introduce 21st century teaching and learning. Even though, it is not a new concept it has not been widely implemented in Malaysian classrooms because teachers do not have knowledge of differentiation. Furthermore, this concept is not favourably practised by teachers in Malaysian classrooms due to the fact the teachers need to make a lot of preparations to cater for a heterogeneous group of students. This is also enhanced by the fact that teachers do not really understand the concept of differentiation due to lack of exposure towards differentiated instruction. Hopefully, there will be changes in the mindset and attitudes of educators to facilitate integration of this concept in their teaching practices to create an effective teaching and learning environment.

#### **CONCLUSION**

Differentiated learning is student-centred learning. Consequently, it necessarily follows that although essential curriculum goals may be similar for all students, methodologies employed in a classroom must be varied to suit the individual needs of all children; learning must be differentiated to be effective. According to Tomlinson, "The model of differentiation is very multifaceted, but it can be boiled down to three students' needs which call for differentiating instruction: student readiness, student interest, and student learning profile" (2000).

Low-proficiency as well as high-proficiency students are given the opportunity to take increasing responsibility for their own growth. Teaching students to share responsibility allows a teacher to work with different groups or individuals for parts of the class time and prepares students for life-long education. Differentiation is fluid. Differentiation ensures every student has the opportunity to learn to their fullest. Students may learn the essential skills and content which remain steady through various approaches, thus taking different roads to the same destination (Tomlinson, 1999).

I hope this article will be able to transform Malaysian teachers' attitude and teaching practices in the classroom, particularly when dealing with large heterogenous groups of students. There will be effective learning and maximum progress in learning if teachers recognise and realise the individual needs of all learners and their preferred modes of learning. Teachers need to participate in ongoing collaboration with students. Furthermore, students respond positively when learning is meaningful, personalised and relevant. They are motivated to learn new things when they are connected to their

varied interests and when the instruction is developmentally appropriate. Educators need to differentiate because students as learners are different and one size does not fit all, just like our clothes and shoes.

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## "Same News, Different Stances"? A Comparative Media Discourse Investigation of Hard News Texts in the *New Straits Times* and *Berita Harian*

Alkaff, S.\* and McLellan, J.

Universiti Brunei Darussalam, JalanTungku Link, Gadong BE 1410, Brunei Darussalam

#### **ABSTRACT**

This paper investigates news media texts in the Malay- and English-language print media in Malaysia. We analyse 'hard news' reports covering the same story in Malay and English from the *New Straits Times (NST)* and *Berita Harian (BH)*. Kaplan's early studies on contrastive rhetoric (1966, 1987, 1988) suggest that cross-language differences in paragraph organisation may reflect differences in thinking or at least differences in writing conventions that are learnt in a culture. Thus, this study hopes to investigate to what extent this applies to Malay and English media texts. Using a modified CDA framework, a 'product' approach is applied in order to establish the degree of parallelism between the Malay and English media texts reporting the same story, and the degree of translation equivalence. A 'process' approach based on interviews is also used in order to discover the policies and processes involved in the construction of print media texts in both languages. The findings reveal that although there are commonalities in terms of structure and stance between the hard news texts found in both papers, there is some evidence of different stances adopted by the editors and journalists of the *NST* and the *BH* in terms of their inclusion of detail and their level of involvement or detachment in reporting crime and accident stories.

Keywords: Critical discourse analysis, media discourse, cross-comparative analysis

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E-mail addresses: sharifah.alkaff@ubd.edu.bn (Alkaff, S.), james.mclellan@ubd.edu.bn (McLellan, J.) \* Corresponding author INTRODUCTION

In this paper, we compare texts from two Malaysian newspapers, the English-language *New Straits Times* (henceforth, *NST*) and the Malay-language *Berita Harian* (henceforth, *BH*). The comparative focus is on 'hard news' texts: reports of current events that are considered newsworthy.

We chose to focus on 'hard news' as this genre is often associated with objective reporting of factual events that would allow for a more valid cross-cultural and cross-linguistic comparison to take place. The main objectives of this study are:

- to investigate whether any translation occurs in the process of preparing news reports;
- to investigate the hypothesis that Malay texts tend to be longer and less direct than equivalent English texts, as explained by Asmah Omar (1992);
- to investigate which aspects and actors are given prominence e.g. through topicalisation and whether there are differences in prominence and topicalisation between the English and Malay texts, using a modified Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) framework, including Huckin's (2002) notions of salience and foregrounding;
- to explore aspects of discourse transfer: whether, for example, Malay media reports reflect the canonical structure of English media reports, as reported by Manning (2011) or whether they display structures that are distinct and that reflect canonical Malay discourse patterns.

In order to achieve a measure of triangulation, we also present findings

from semi-structured interviews conducted with journalists and editors of the two newspapers. These interviews offer insight into the processes involved in the production of print media texts in English and Malay including editorial decisions about what to include and what to leave out of the Malay and English texts.

This study is significant as Hallin and Mancini (2004, p.1) state that with regard to cross-cultural and cross-linguistic comparative analysis, "such a research tradition remains essentially in its infancy." Previous studies on media discourse have primarily focussed on media texts in English only. Studies that utilise a cross-linguistic comparative approach to media texts are relatively few in number.

#### **Related Previous Studies**

Thomson et al. (2008, p.212) suggests that it is about time that "our gaze" should be cast "more widely to consider the situation in the news reporting discourses of other languages and cultures." Among the few studies that employed a comparative analysis of news stories are Knox and Patpong (2008) in Thailand, Wang (1993) in China and Scollon et al. (1998) in Hong Kong. The results show that the same news stories in English and the other languages studied were reported quite differently by the newspapers analysed. The authors suggest that the differences in languages may provide different resources for making meaning and that these meanings are developed by newspapers 'to reflect their audience, political alignment, institutional values, economic imperatives, institutional story-telling traditions and news-gathering practices' (Knox & Patpong, 2008, p.198).

In the case of Malaysia, it is rather surprising that despite the diverse cultural and linguistic landscape of the country, there are relatively few studies that focus on a comparative analysis of stories published in the various languages of Malaysia by the nation's newspapers. Among these are Idid and Chang's (2012) study which examines news coverage of issues during the 2008 Malaysian general elections by the English, Malay and Chinese press. Lee and Hasim (2009), on the other hand, focus on how national and provincial newspapers published in several languages framed news coverage of Datuk Yong Teck Lee, a politician from Sabah in Malaysian Borneo. Another study by Shaari et al. (2006), analyses how two controversial issues regarding Muslim converts, one from the Malaysian Chinese community and another from the Malaysian Indian community, were treated in newspapers of various languages in Malaysia. All three studies find that the amount of coverage and how an issue was framed were linked to the interests of the particular ethnic community or whether the main actor involved belonged to that community. These findings indicate clearly that the different newspapers cater for specific communities. As stated by Shaari et al., Malaysian newspapers generally cater for readers of the same racial group by providing extensive coverage of news events deemed important to their respective communities. They also state that "the racial orientation of the newspapers" has persisted from the colonial era in Malaysia, when many newspapers were established to cater for different ethnic groups, with the exception of English language newspapers, whose readership transcended racial groupings but was concentrated among more affluent English speaking urban readers (p.191).

The studies cited above focussed on textual analysis and use only content analysis as a research method. There seem to be a paucity of comparative studies on media discourse that adopt a CDA approach in the Malaysian context similar to our earlier research, which investigates parallel hard news reports in Malay and English language newspapers in Brunei Darussalam (Alkaff et al., 2016). Among the main findings of our previous study is that hard news reports in both languages in the newspapers analysed are similar, as both use the deductive inverted triangle structure of English news texts. This topicalised the most important aspects in the first paragraph, followed by details in descending order of importance (Faure, 2001; Manning, 2011). However, the Malay news texts are longer when reporting royalty-related news, thus indicating that the Malay journalists and editors feel a stronger obligation to produce verbatim accounts of speeches made in Malay by the Brunei monarch while their English counterparts are able to select and topicalise what they feel to be the salient issues. In crime/accident and local news

stories the Malay news reports include more details as well as more photographs with the stated aim of selling more of their product.

As CDA requires us to go beyond the text to investigate processes surrounding the production of texts, this study also incorporated an analysis of texts with qualitative data obtained from interviews with editors and journalists. Thus, this study is novel in two ways: first, it is one of a few studies on media discourse in Malaysia that utilises a cross-comparative approach using CDA as a framework; and second, unlike other studies in the area, a mixed-methods approach is adopted, in which textual analysis is carried out together with data gathered from interviews with the media practitioners.

#### **About the Newspapers**

The *NST* is regarded as the country's oldest newspaper still in print. It was first established as *The Straits Times* in 1845. In 1974, it was renamed *New Straits Times*. The newspaper is printed by the NST Press (henceforth, NSTP), a Malaysian conglomerate of publishing companies. It has a readership of about 224,000 (http://www.nstp.com.my/new-straits-times). *BH*, also published by NSTP, was established in 1957. The readership figure is approximately 1,225,000 (http://www.nstp.com.my/berita-harian). NSTP is owned by *Media Prima*, a leading media group in the country with strong links to the ruling *Barisan* 

Nasional government, which is made up of a coalition of race-based political parties. This fact is perhaps reflected in the nature of Malaysian newspapers, which, as shown by the researchers cited above, seem to cater to different races based primarily on the language of the newspapers.

#### RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The approach and methodology adopted for this study are both quantitative and qualitative. Parallel sets of hard news reports covering the same events were compiled from issues of the NST and BH between 22 June and 4 July, 2014. Thus, the sampling was purposive. A total of 14 parallel texts appearing in both newspapers over these days were included in the corpus. All of these texts were written by Malaysian journalists; none were from overseas press agencies. From these 14 texts we selected two dealing with political events, two dealing with crimes or accidents and two which reported Malaysian local events. Most of the local hard news reports in Malaysian newspapers fall within these three categories. The parallel texts were then placed side-by-side to enable comparison of length and depth of coverage of the news reports (see Appendix A for the full parallel texts). This approach also enabled us to investigate what ideas or issues were being foregrounded or given prominence in the texts. The main way this is achieved in texts is through topicalisation, which is defined by Huckin (2002, p.8) as "the positioning

of a sentence element at the beginning of a sentence so as to give prominence" or at the beginning of a main clause. Huckin also states that topicalisation is a form of sentence level foregrounding which occurs when certain pieces of information appear as grammatical subjects of the sentence. What the writer chooses to put in the topic position creates a perspective that influences the readers' perceptions. He and other CDA researchers (Fairclough, 1995; van Leeuwen, 2003) state that framing, foregrounding and back grounding are closely related concepts as they refer to the perspective from which the writer wants to present the content of the text and what viewpoints the writer aims to emphasise or de-emphasise.

A quantitative approach to textual products is also used to establish the degree of parallelism between Malay and English media texts reporting the same story: counting the number of words and comparing what is topicalised or foregrounded in the Malay and English texts. This enables us to uncover which information is included in the Malay but not in the English version and vice versa. It also enables investigation of the hypothesis that Malay texts tend to be longer, more explicit and more complex than equivalent English texts. On the qualitative side, semistructured interviews were conducted with journalists and editors of both newspapers. The Group Editors of BH and the NST as well as eight journalists from the sister newspapers were interviewed, five from *BH* and three from the *NST*. The *NST* interviews were conducted in English while the *BH* interviews were conducted in both Malay and English. All the interview data were audio-recorded and then transcribed. The interview questions posed are included in Appendix B. A meeting was also held with the Group Managing Editor of NSTP, in which additional information about the policies of both papers was obtained.

This mixed-methods approach facilitated comparisons between the English and Malay textual products and the processes of text production. It also allowed for validation of the journalists' and editors' stated views through the application of a modified CDA with specific focus on topicalisation and topic prominence. This novel approach has only rarely been applied to news media texts in bilingual and multilingual contexts such as Malaysia; previous research into Malaysian news media reports has tended to focus on texts in one language only, rather than adopting a comparative methodology.

#### **FINDINGS**

The analysis of the Malay and English texts shows that the *NST* political reports are substantially longer than those in the *BH*. The crime and accident stories, on the other hand, are somewhat longer in the *BH* as are the local reports. Overall, the *BH* reports include more photographs than those in the *NST* (see Table 1 below):

Table 1
Number of words and number of photographs in six hard new reports

Report	No. of words NST (English)	No. of photos NST	No. of words BH (Malay)	No. of photos BH
Political Report 1 (Texts 1A & 1B)	669	1	425	1
Political Report 2 (Texts 2A & 2B)	882	2	305	1
Crime / Accident Report 1 (Texts 3A & 3B)	203	0	298	2
Crime / Accident Report 2 (Texts 4A & 4B)	230	1	410	1
Local Report 1 (Texts 5A & 5B)	193	0	285	1
Local Report 2 (Texts 6A & 6B)	312	0	342	1
Average word length	377		344	

The difference in length of the political reports is due to the fact that the NST texts includes more detailed information, even to the extent of including material only tenuously connected to the original report headline, but linked through the principal actor, in this case the Malaysian Prime Minister, Datuk Seri Najib Razak. This is seen in the NST's '3 steps to strengthen workforce' (Text 1A), which begins by reporting the contents of a speech by the Prime Minister to celebrate Labour Day 2014. Please refer to Table 2 below for the headlines of the six parallel news reports and Appendix A for the full texts.

The report then moves on, in paragraphs 17 to 22, to cover the next event in the Prime Minister's agenda on that day, a meeting with a group of motorcyclists who had taken part in the '1Malaysia World Endurance Ride'. This meeting was not covered in the *BH* report (Text 1B) headlined '*Tiga agenda penting tingkat kebajikan pekerja*' (Three

important agenda to increase workers' welfare). In the second political report there is no topic development or shift, but the great disparity in the length of the *BH* (305 words, 10 paragraphs) and the *NST* (882 words, 26 paragraphs) reports is accounted for by the more extended quotation from the speech made by the Malaysian Prime Minister at the official opening of the new airport terminal.

In terms of topicalisation, the *BH* and *NST* Political Report 1 texts are similar at the outset, although the *BH* headline 'Tiga agenda penting tingkat kebajikan' is more specific than that of the *NST*, which read, '3 steps to strengthen workforce'. Both have an italicised byline specifying what the three steps are. In the *NST* byline the principal actor was named ('says Najib'); he is not named in the *BH* subheading. The first two paragraphs of the respective reports share the same initial focus. The third paragraph of the *BH* report topicalises the principal actor

Table 2 Headlines of six reports in three categories

	NST	ВН
Political Report 1	Text 1A	Text 1B
	3 steps to strengthen workforce	Tiga agenda penting tingkat kebajikan pekerja *three agenda important upgrade welfare workers
Political Report 2	Text 2A	Text 2B
	A global benchmark	KLIA2 mercu kejayaan negara (airport) pinnacle success nation
Crime / Accident	Text 3A	Text 3B
Report 1	Man killed in suspected turf war	Mati selepas kena 3 das tembakan Dead after PASS shot shooting
Crime / Accident	Text 4A	Text 4B
Report 2	2 soldiers killed in crash	2 askar maut kereta perisai terbalik soldier dead car armoured overturn
Local Report 1	Text 5A	Text 5B
•	Baling tops happiest place survey	Penduduk Baling paling bahagia inhabitant (placename) most contented
Local Report 2	Text 6A	Text 6B
•	12 to face rap over Aedes breeding	881 kena kompaun biak Aedes PASS fine breed (mosquito type)

<sup>\* =</sup> interlinear glosses for Malay headlines

and uses reported speech, while the *NST* paragraphs 3 to 5 are direct quotations from the speech. A further contrast is in the use of subheadings: the shorter *BH* report has two: 'Syarikat buat penyesuaian' (Companies make adaptations) above paragraph 4, and 'Tiga prinsip tambahan' (Three additional principles) above paragraph 11. The longer NST report is without subheadings. In the remainder of the report there are some differences both of ordering of information and in terms of which points from the speech are reported and which are not reported.

Political Report 2 covers Prime Minister Najib's speech at the official opening of KLIA2, the second terminal of the Kuala Lumpur International Airport. Again, there is a difference in the headline, with the NST's 'A global benchmark' (Text 2A) less specific than that of the BH (Text 2B), 'KLIA2 mercu kejayaan negara' (KLIA2 a pinnacle of national success). The bylines differ in focus, as the NST report first mentions the name of the airport terminal here, as opposed to in the headline. In the second paragraph, the NST report starts to provide more detailed background information, the projected annual passenger total, while the BH reports Najib's speech in more general terms using both direct and indirect quotation strategies. Similar to Political Report 1, the NST reports more content from Najib's speech; the information in the final three paragraphs 21 to 23 is not found in the shorter BH report.

These differences clearly show that the BH and NST journalists operate separately when compiling their reports. This fact was confirmed by the interviews. One of the main themes that appears prominently in the interview data is that although both are sister papers within the same organisation and operating from the same building, they each work independently from each other. It was revealed that during the early years of the news organisation, there was more collaboration in terms of sharing of stories due to the smaller number of staff and limited resources available then. However, as both papers -expanded considerably over the years in terms of manpower and resources there was less of a need for collaboration.

Although these two newspapers do on occasion choose to collaborate with each other on producing news reports, as reported by our informants, the prevalent feeling was that each had a distinct identity and a welldefined target audience and these influenced how their news reports were created. In the words of a BH journalist, "...we are well aware that most of our readers are Malays. So, we will try to highlight everything that has to do with the Malays. For instance, issues in relation to the Malays, land issues, public concerns among the Malays, or property issues at the civil or Syariah court. So, we try to highlight anything that is of interest to the Malays, as our readers are mostly the Malays. Therefore, we highlight things that they are concerned about".

The same belief is echoed by the *NST* staff. Although the information obtained

from the interviews with the editors indicate that Malay/Muslim readers form the majority of readers for both papers, one NST journalist states that "...NST is different, our readers are different. The content and our readers are different, so we cannot go towards that angle." The 'angle' that is mentioned here refers to his views that NST readers prefer more direct or factual content, "without the emotional aspect, the overtly religious aspect."

The parallel texts that we analysed did not include any explicit references to Islam or viewpoints regarding Islam as our data were obtained from a limited period. Articles that espouse Islam and Islamic values are generally found in BH, reflecting the perceived interests of the community, as described in the interview data above. For example, an article in the Berita Premium (Premium News) section of its online paper on 23 November, 2015 included a feature story entitled Lari daripada keluarga demi agama Islam (Running away from the family for Islam) which tells the story of a Muslim convert who faced resistance from her non-Muslim family upon her conversion.

With regard to Crime/Accident Reports, the first report covers a murder which took place in the northern peninsular Malaysia state of Kedah. Once again there is a contrast in the respective headlines: the *BH* headline (Text 3B) '*Mati selepas kena 3 das tembakan*' (Dead after being hit by 3 shots) is more specific and foregrounds the three gunshots fired by the killers, while the NST headline (Text 3A), '*Man killed in suspected* 

turf war', refers to a possible motive. The BH report includes a detailed graphic showing where and how the murder took place and a photograph of the victim. These are not found in the somewhat shorter and less-detailed *NST* report. The *BH* report can also be viewed as rather more sensational in describing the incident through the use of phrases such as 'nyawa-nyawa ikan' (a Malay idiom that means half-dead like a fish out of water) in describing the condition of the dying man. The tone of the NST report, on the other hand, is more detached. The NST Text 3A, for example, on the murder case uses primarily passive forms and the relatively formal term 'the deceased' instead of the term 'victim', the English equivalent for the word 'mangsa' that is used in the BH report.

In the reports of an accident in which two soldiers were killed in an armoured vehicle (Crime/Accident Report 2), the tendency for the BH to provide more detailed headlines is once again evident. The BH report (Text 4B) also includes a sidebar giving the specifications of the military vehicle involved in the accident. This information is not given in the shorter NST report (Text 4A). Additional information reported by the BH but not by the NST is from eye-witnesses who were present when the accident occurred. The final paragraph of the NST report quoting the Kuala Kangsar police chief is not reported in the BH. As in the first crime and accident report, the BH report is also seen as being more sensational in describing the incident through the use of phrases such as 'terbalik' (overturned)

which is mentioned not just in the headline but repeated several times in the text. Also, the use of words like 'melambung' (tossed or catapulted) repeated at least twice in the text, 'tercampak' (thrown with great force) and 'terperangkap' (trapped). In contrast, the NST text is not just shorter with fewer details, it is also less vivid in reporting the facts.

However, the interview data seem to contradict the findings from the texts. The BH staff feel that Malay papers in general are more responsible in their reporting and are less inclined to resort to sensationalism. One BH journalist states that "for Malay newspapers like BH or Utusan, we are concerned about the sensitivity of our local society." Another BH journalist say that when reporting such news, the paper is "very careful about language...we don't use gory photos, we censor our photos, and we don't print photos that shock." A gangrape case that occurred in Kelantan a few months prior to the interviews was brought up as an example. According to the BH journalists, the paper did not mention the name of the village where the crime took place in order to protect the identity of the victim and to avoid shaming those villagers who had nothing to do with the crime. However, they note that other non-Malay newspapers "reported all the details." This belief seems to be supported by at least one NST journalist, who states firmly, "I try not to self-censor as much as I can, because I believe that a story is a story. So, you have to honour the story, for me personally. You try not to exclude..."

The third category, Local Reports, includes texts which cover neither political issues nor crimes and accidents. Local Report 1 is about the results of a 'National Happiness Index' survey. The BH and NST headlines are close parallels in naming the town of Baling in Kedah state as the happiest place, but the byline of the BH (Text 5B) names the organisation conducting the survey, while the NST byline (Text 5A) lists three other towns which recorded high happiness indexes. The extra length of the BH was partly due to the final two paragraphs, which report another unrelated event attended by the principal actor, Malaysia's Urban Wellbeing, Housing and Local Government Minister, who disclosed the survey findings presumably in a media briefing. The BH report uses the strategy previously observed in the NST Political Report 1 (Text 1A) of including supplementary information about a later event linked to the main report only through the common principal actor. Here, in the final two paragraphs, the same minister was reported as having visited the family of a firefighter killed in an accident.

In Local Report 2 the topic is the number of property owners charged with allowing Aedes mosquitoes (vectors of dengue fever) to breed on their properties. The *BH* report (Text 6B) headline refers to the total number of 881 owners in the state of Pahang made to pay a compound fine, while the *NST* headline (Text 6A) topicalises the 12 owners charged in court for failing to settle the compound fine. These two reports have two

principal actors, the Pahang State Health Committee chairman and the state's Director of Health, who both provide information about dengue fever and its prevention. In the *BH* report the connection was made explicit: the latter is present ("*Yang turut hadir*…" para. 7, *BH*) at the media briefing given by the former. In the shorter *NST* report this is not made explicit, and textual coherence is through the common topic of Aedes mosquito eradication and reducing the risk of the spread of dengue fever.

To summarise, the six parallel texts analysed show clear differences in terms of content and ordering, as discussed above. This finding is supported by the interview data which show that the respective BH and NST reporters work independently, each finding their own sources of information and making their own decisions on what facts and quotations to include. The tendency to add material unrelated to the original report topic, observed to occur in both newspapers shows a characteristic of Malaysian news report text production. The focus is on the prominent personalities, such as the Prime Minister or other ministers, rather than on the newsworthiness of the event. It is expected that every public appointment of government ministers should be reported, even if the overall coherence of the report is compromised. This can be explained by the fact that reporters are generally assigned to follow prominent figures as they move from one appointment to another, as told to us by our informants.

#### **DISCUSSION**

Even though the BH and NST journalists who agreed to be interviewed were not the ones who wrote the reports included in our corpus of six parallel Malay and English hard news reports, there is a high level of consistency between the findings from the textual analysis and those from the interviews. The higher level of personal involvement demonstrated in the BH Text 4B, which reports an accident involving a military vehicle, is reflected in the interview data where the BH journalist explain, "You interview the family or you come up with the extra statement from the police. That is the difference of our story from NST." Paragraphs 9, 10 and 11 of BH Text 4B quote statements made by an eye-witness to the accident and gave information on what the eye-witness was doing at the time. This information is not included in the NST report (Text 4A) about the same accident.

With regards to this, one of the main differences between the Malay and English reports that we found in our study relates to the reporting of crime and accident news. Similar to the findings of our parallel Brunei study, competition from online news media has perhaps resulted in BH displaying a more sensationalist approach compared to the NST. For example, BH journalists, as per the quotations in the section above, follow up stories and include more background information in the reporting of crime/ accident stories such as in BH Texts 3B & 4B. The *NST* reports in this category, on the other hand, demonstrate a more restrained and detached attitude, as discussed earlier.

This distinction may arise from the respective newspapers' identification of the main target readership, as disclosed in the interviews with the editors. The NST sees itself as more of an upmarket paper compared to BH. Nielsen statistics show that NST readers come from a higher-income bracket than BH readers (http://www.nstp. com.my/new-straits-times). In addition to income, clearly the ethnicity of readers is a further major factor; the NST, even though its editors acknowledge that the majority of their readership is Malay and thus Muslim, tends to avoid emotional and religious angles in their reports, preferring instead a more detached stance that is commensurate with English-language news media reporting, as discussed earlier.

The question therefore arises as to why BH targets a Malay readership and emphasises Malay/Muslim issues, in similar fashion to the ethnic-based content found in Malaysian Chinese and Tamil newspapers, when Bahasa Malaysia (BM) is the national and official language for all Malaysians, not just for the Malay community. BM is officially promoted as the 'glue' that holds together all the disparate cultures and languages (Asmah Omar, 1982, pp.21-31; 2012, pp.157-158). This 'newspaper for all Malaysians' approach has been taken up by the NST rather than BH, based on both the textual and the interview data. As pointed out by Shaari et al. (2006), English newspapers in Malaysia transcend racial groupings. But in the context of postcolonial Malaysia, it should be the Malay papers that should be doing that. From our study, it seems that non-ethnic Malay readers are relegated to mere 'overhearers' rather than addressees of BH news reports. However, in a follow-up interview with some of our original respondents, in which we gave them a draft copy of this paper, one of the editors in BH whom we had interviewed earlier explained to us that although the vast majority of their readers are Malays/ Muslims, the paper does have an 'inclusive' policy. He gave an example of how BH tries to attract young Malaysians of all races to read their paper by providing educational supplements to their main paper four times a week. This is one of their strategies to obtain a more diverse readership (currently he estimates the non-Malay/Muslim readership to be about 5% only).

Our findings also reveal that the discourse structure of the genre is the same for the English and Malay hard news reports, despite Asmah Omar's (1992) assertion that one of the features of Malay discourse is that it is typically circuitous or "beating about the bush" (p.175). The 'inverted pyramid' macrostructure (Faure, 2001, p.358) is followed in both the crime and accident and in the local news report categories. This macrostructure is less evident in the political reports because the two events reported are both speeches given by the Malaysian Prime Minister. Hence, the report structure tends to reflect that of the speech itself. As explained in the interviews by both BH and NST journalists, they undergo six months of in-house training in journalism practices, during which they develop awareness of the need to follow the descending order of importance and salience associated with the 'inverted pyramid' report structure. This fact echoes the findings of Ahmad (1997, cited in Chek & Evans, 2010) in her study of research articles with introductions in Malay and English. She finds that despite some differences in the Malay texts when compared with the English ones, which she attributes to cultural influences, in general the genre of scientific research article introductions is relatively similar in both languages as the Malay discourse community of researchers is aware of the expectations of the international scientific community and researchers learn to write to meet these expectations. Similarly, the journalists we interviewed show awareness of the norms and values of international news media reporting yet there is also a prevalent sense of the need to adhere to a distinct Malaysian identity, especially among the BH journalists. They feel that Malaysian Malay journalists have a keener awareness of "community" and "political sensitivities" compared with Western journalists or even journalists from non-Malay newspapers in Malaysia. The fact that our textual analysis seems to somewhat disprove this, as discussed earlier, makes for an interesting observation.

#### **CONCLUSION**

The conclusion to a research article such as this needs to address the "So what?" question. Although this study is based on a limited set of data texts and interviews, the findings presented and discussed above still

offer significant insights. The major finding from the application of the comparative CDA methodology is that there are commonalities in terms of structure and stance between the hard news texts found in the *NST* and *BH*. We tentatively suggest that the canonical 'inverted pyramid' report structure (Faure, 2001; Manning 2011) has been transferred from English to Bahasa Malaysia, and that this is therefore a property of the hard news report subgenre, rather than a language-specific discoursal practice.

Having investigated the question of translation of news reports, we have found that this rarely happens, even though both newspapers are published by the same organisation and their journalists are based in the same building. In addition, we have uncovered some evidence of different stances adopted by the journalists of the *NST* and the *BH* in terms of their inclusion of detail and their level of involvement or detachment in crime and accident reports. The BH reports tend to include more detail and background information and to demonstrate more involvement, compared to the more detached, less involved and less detailed *NST* reports. The next stage of our research will attempt a more complex cross-comparison between the Malay and English print media of both Malaysia and Brunei Darussalam.

#### **ACKNOWLEDGEMENT**

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### APPENDIX A

Parallel Hard News Stories in the News Straits Times and Berita Harian

	NEW STRAITS TIMES	BERITA HARIAN
Category:	TEXT 1A	TEXT 1B
Political	3 steps to strengthen workforce	Tiga agenda penting tingkat
Stories (Texts 1A & 1B)	22 June 2014 (page 2) JASON GERALD JOHN AND ADIB POVERA MALACCA news@nst.com.my  FOCUS: Building labour market, streamlining social security network and harmonising industrial ties are key, says Najib 1. THE government has outlined three	kebajikan pekerja 22 Jun 2014 Oleh Badrul Hizar Ab Jabar, Hazwan Faisal Mohamad dan Amir Mamat. bhnews@bh.com.my Najib menyampaikan Anugerah Majikan 1 Malaysia kepada Ketua Pegawai Sumber Malaysia Celcom Axiata Berhad, Mazri Abdul Rahim di MITC, Ayer Keroh, semalam. [FOTO
	agenda for the continuous protection of the country's workforce, Prime Minister Datuk Seri Najib Razak said yesterday.  2. They comprise strengthening the labour market, streamlining the social security network and harmonising industrial relations.  3. "The government is committed to continuously defending the interests of employees in the country, be it in the civil service or the private sector.  4. "In strengthening the labour market, the government has its focus set on issues pertaining to the rights and welfare of employees. For example, when we enforced the minimum wage on Jan 1 last year, although there were mixed reactions initially, many companies were able to adapt it.  5. "This was clearly seen from the higher employment growth and lower retrenchment."	<ul> <li>Muhammad Hatim Ab Manan/Bh]</li> <li>Mantap pasaran buruh Negara</li> <li>Perkemas jaringan keselamatan sosial</li> <li>Harmonikan perhubungan perusahaan</li> <li>Ayer Keroh - Datuk Seri Najib Razak semalam, menetapkan tiga agenda penting bagi memastikan kebajikan golongan pekerja di negara ini terus mendapat pembelaan.</li> <li>Agenda itu, memantapkan pasaran buruh negara, memperkemas jaringan keselamatan sosial dan mengharmonikan perhubungan perusahaan.</li> <li>Perdana Menteri berkata, menerusi agenda memantapkan pasaran buruh negara, kerajaan memberi tumpuan kepada aspek berkaitan hak dan kebajikan warga pekerja, termasuk menetapkan dasar gaji minimum berkuat kuasa pada 1 Januari 2013.</li> <li>Syarikat buat penyesuaian</li> <li>Katanya, walaupun menimbulkan pelbagai reaksi, pertumbuhan guna tenaga lebih tinggi dan pemberhentian pekerja yang lebih rendah menggambarkan kebanyakan syarikat berupaya membuat penyesuaian dengan dasar gaji minimum.</li> <li>"Menerusi tinjauan dilakukan Persekutuan Majikan-Majikan Malaysia, gaji purata sektor swasta naik sebanyak 6.6 peratus pada tahun lalu, berbanding enam peratus pada tahun sebelumnya.</li> </ul>

- 6. This, said Najib, was based on the assessment by the Malaysian Employers Federation, which showed that the average salary in the private sector increased by 6.6 per cent last year compared with six per cent in 2012. 7. "On average, executive-level workers recorded a 6.3 per cent increase in salary
- last year. This was similar to what they received in 2012.
- 8."In comparison, non-executive employees enjoyed a 6.7 per cent increase in salary in 2013 compared with 5.8 per cent the year before. All these were made possible with the introduction of the minimum wage policy."
- 9. The government went on to introduce the Minimum Retirement Age Act 2012 for the private sector, a proactive move to overcome any possible shortage in the nation's workforce, Najib said during the Human Resources Ministry's Labour Day Celebration 2014 at the Melaka International Trade Centre here vesterday.
- 10. Present were Malacca Chief Minister Datuk Seri Idris Haron, Human Resources Minister Datuk Seri Richard Riot Jaem and Malaysian Trades Union Congress president Mohd Khalid Atan. 11. On streamlining the social security network, Najib said, it involved the review and revision of labour acts in a holistic manner, in which the proposed improvements were discussed based on the spirit of tripartism until an agreement was reached by all parties. 12. "In fact, the transformation in labour laws is an important element in preparing workers and the industry to meet the challenges in the era of globalisation and liberalisation.

Prime Minister Datuk Seri Najib Razak meeting the people at the Human Resources Ministry's Labour Day Celebration 2014 at Melaka International Trade Centre in Ayer Keroh yesterday. Pic by Khairunisah Lokman.

- 6. "Secara purata, pekerja kumpulan eksekutif mencatat peratusan gaji 6.3 peratus, kekal seperti pada tahun 2012, manakala pekerja bukan eksekutif mencatat kenaikan 6.7 peratus pada tahun lalu, berbanding tahun sebelumnya iaitu 5.8 peratus, sejajar dengan keputusan kerajaan memperkenalkan dasar gaji minimum."
- 7. Beliau berkata demikian ketika berucap merasmikan Perhimpunan Hari Pekerja 2014 di Pusat Dagangan Antarabangsa Melaka (MITC) di sini, semalam.
- 8. Pada majlis dihadiri kira-kira 10,000 warga kerja membabitkan 200 jabatan kerajaan dan sektor swasta itu, Perdana Menteri turut menyampaikan 13 anugerah kepada individu dan syarikat sebagai mengiktiraf dan menghargai sumbangan golongan pekerja kepada pembangunan negara.
- 9. Yang turut hadir, Ketua Menteri Melaka, Datuk Seri Idris Haron; Menteri Sumber Manusia, Datuk Seri Richard Riot Jaem dan Presiden Kongres Kesatuan Sekerja Malaysia (MTUC), Mohd Khalid Atan.
- 10. Berhubung memperkemas jaringan keselamatan sosial membabitkan kajian, katanya, semakan semula Akta Pekerjaan 1955 secara holistik dengan semua cadangan penambahbaikan dibincang berasaskan semangat tripartisme sehingga suatu persetujuan dapat dicapai oleh semua pihak.

#### Tiga prinsip tambahan

11. Najib turut menggariskan tiga prinsip tambahan, berbanding lima sebelum ini untuk golongan pekerja negara ini menjelang tahun 2020. 12. Tiga prinsip tambahan itu adalah budaya kreativiti dan inovasi, nilai tambah dan kompetensi serta permuafakatan kerja yang tidak dalam silo atau lohong.

- 13. "Accordingly, a modern system of labour legislation should be established to ensure all workers are protected and, at the same time, provide enough space and flexibility needed by the industry to grow.
- 14."Consequently, policies should be formulated taking into account the flexibility of the labour market, which will promote increased employment rates, economic stability, an increase in productivity, and improve the living standards of the people as a whole."

  15. In the final agenda, Najib said, he had always stressed that in harmonising industrial relations, the government would listen to the people and look at new development strategies for the benefit of all.
- 16. "I call on the unions to continue to achieve this." The government, Najib said, supported the spirit of tripartism and noted that industrial relations were underpinned by the principles of peace talks and not based on confrontation.

  17. After the event, Najib welcomed home bikers who were part of the 1Malaysia World Endurance Ride, a motorcycle world tour expedition to promote global moderation for peace.

  18. The prime minister is patron of the project, spearheaded by Yayasan Wangsa Perdana.
- 19. The team, comprising three riders of high-powered motorcycles, travelled non-stop across 41 countries for about a year before arriving in Malaysia yesterday.
- 20. Its team leader, Datuk Zamri Mohamed, handed a Malaysia flag to Najib to signify the completion of the world expedition.
- 21. For their feat, the team earned a place in the Malaysia Book of Records for the longest distance travelled on motorcycle around the world (group).

  22. The certificate was presented by the organisation's founder and managing director, Tan Sri Danny Ooi, to Zamri.

  Additional reporting by Roshidi Abu Samah, Kelly Koh and Christina Tan.

- 13. Mengenai pelaksanaan cukai barang dan perkhidmatan (GST), beliau berkata pertambahan hasilnya akan membolehkan kerajaan menimbang pelbagai permintaan termasuk kenaikan elaun penjawat awam.
- 14. Perdana Menteri berkata, kerajaan memerlukan hasil tambahan baharu bagi memenuhi permintaan itu dengan sistem GST yang lebih telus dan berkesan akan dapat membantu menambah hasil kerajaan.
- 15. "Jika Presiden CUEPACS nak minta tambah elaun, sebagai Menteri Kewangan, saya perlu cari hasil tambahan dan barulah boleh dipertimbangkan," katanya.

#### Category: Political Stories (Texts 2A & 2 B)

#### TEXT 2A

#### A global benchmark

#### 15 June 2014

REPORTS BY WED UMAR ARIFF, ADRIAN LAI, BALQIS LIM, TEOH PEI TING, ALYAA SUFIAH TAJUDIN, FARAH JABIR AND SIMRAN MALIK

MEGASTRUCTURE: klia2 a critical part of realising nation's potential to become region's leading aviation hub, says Najib SEPANG

- 1. THE new Kuala Lumpur International Airport 2 (klia2), Malaysia's first hybrid airport, is set to be the country's catalyst for growth in the expanding aviation sector.
- 2. The country's latest international gateway, which is expected to serve some 45 million passengers annually, three times more than the now decommissioned Low Cost Carrier Terminal (LCCT), also promises to realise Malaysia's potential to emerge as the region's aviation hub.
- 3. Prime Minister Datuk Seri Najib Razak, who officially opened the airport yesterday, said klia2, a "megastructure" in its class, would stand as a global benchmark in future terminals of its kind
- 4. The airport is expected to record 25 million travellers passing through its gates between the day it began operations on May 2 and by year-end. 5. Najib said the low-cost air travel sector in Malaysia had consistently recorded double digit-growth every year over the past decade and that the robust growth was expected to continue, given the strong demand in the sector.

#### TEXT 2B

#### KLIA2 mercu kejayaan negara

25 Jun 2014 Rabu Oleh Irwan Shafrizan Ismail irwansha@bh.com.my

Foto: Najib bersama Hishammuddin merasmikan Terminal klia2 di Sepang, semalam.

PM yakin lapangan terbang baharu pemangkin industry penerbangan.

- 1. Lapangan Terbang Antarabangsa Kuala Lumpur kedua (klia2) adalah mercu tanda pencapaian negara dalam industri penerbangan dan menjadi kebanggaan rakyat, kata Datuk Seri Najib Razak.
- 2. Perdana Menteri juga yakin klia2 akan menjadi pemangkin kepada perkembangan berterusan dalam industri penerbangan yang penuh cabaran.
- 3. "Saya menerima banyak komen dan "tweet" di laman sosial daripada orang ramai termasuk rakyat tempatan serta asing yang mengucapkan tahniah kepada Malaysia, selain memuji keindahan terminal ini.

#### Penanda aras global

- 4. "Bagi saya, klia2 adalah contoh kemampuan kita sebagai sebuah negara, bukan dengan hanya kemampuan membina infrastruktur bertaraf dunia, malah menjadi penanda aras global dalam pembinaan terminal seumpamanya pada masa akan datang.
- 5. klia2 juga meletakkan Malaysia dalam peta dunia khususnya dalam sektor penerbangan dan pelancongan.
  6. "Ia kebanggaan kerana pembangunan klia2 menjadi tanda perkembangan dan kepemimpinan kita dalam industri penerbangan bukan sahaja di rantau ini, malah juga di dunia," katanya ketika merasmikan Terminal klia2, di sini, semalam.

6. "The low-cost carrier business models have evolved in line with the market's needs that include hybrid and premium offerings, as well as transfer and transit connectivity," he said, adding that klia2 played a critical part in realising the country's potential to become the region's leading aviation hub.

Prime Minister Datuk Seri Najib Razak listening as MAHB senior general manager of operation services Datuk Azmi Murad briefs him on the details of klia2 in Sepang yesterday. Pic by Ahmad Irham Mohd Noor

- 7. Najib said klia2 was also Malaysia's definitive and permanent answer to supporting projected air travel growth for the next 10 to 15 years.
- 8. "LCCT was built as a temporary solution. However, it exceeded its capacity of 10 million passengers per annum and was expanded to its furthest possible extent," he said. Najib added that under the National Airport Master Plan (NAMP), the government had laid out a strategic development road map to provide for the growth in air travel demand across the nation over the next 50 years.
- 9. Najib, who is also finance minister, said the aviation industry was one of many focus areas in the 2014 Budget, in which RM1 billion had been allocated. 10. Of the figure, RM700 million would be spent for the development of a new air traffic management centre at the Kuala Lumpur International Airport (KLIA) to facilitate an increase in air traffic capacity from 68 to 108 movements per hour on the three runways.
- 11. KLIA now has the world's highest capacity for air traffic management.
  12. Najib said another RM300 million had been allocated for upgrading airports nationwide.

7. Yang turut hadir, isteri Perdana Menteri, Datin Seri Rosmah Mansor; Pemangku Menteri Pengangkutan, Datuk Seri Hishammuddin Hussein dan Timbalan Menteri Pengangkutan, Datuk Abd Aziz Kaprawi. Yang hadir sama Pengerusi Malaysia Airport Holdings Bhd (MAHB), Tan Sri Dr Wan Abdul Aziz Wan Abdullah; Pengarah Urusan MAHB, Datuk Badlisham Ghazali dan Penasihat serta bekas Pengarah Urusan MAHB, Tan Sri Bashir Ahmad. 8. Najib berkata, klia2 juga dijangka dapat menampung keperluan perkembangan industri penerbangan negara dalam tempoh 10 hingga 15 tahun lagi.

#### 25 juta penumpang 2014

- 9. "Terminal mega ini berupaya mengendalikan 45 juta penumpang setahun, lebih tiga kali ganda berbanding Terminal Tambang Murah (LCCT). Berdasarkan sasaran pengendalian penumpang bagi tahun ini, klia2 dijangka menerima 25 juta penumpang sehingga hujung tahun ini," katanya
- 10. Beliau berkata sebagai infrastruktur ikonik, klia2 juga mampu membantu menarik lebih ramai pelancong dengan membantu kempen Tahun Melawat Malaysia 2014.

13. Najib said "It will enable us to continue enhancing the level of comfort and convenience for all travellers," adding that the country's aviation and tourism industries shared a symbiotic relationship.

'klia2 will help us flourish'

- → From Page 2
- 14. Last year, the arrival of more than 25 million tourists through the airport gates resulted in RM65 billion in tourism revenue.
- 15. The prime minister said he was optimistic that this year's "Visit Malaysia Year" and "Year of Festivals" campaigns would draw more tourists.
  16. "The readiness of klia2 as another international gateway to the nation will be vital in supporting these campaigns.
  17. "Najib expressed pride in Malaysia's ability to keep up with developments in
- the aviation industry.

  18. "The industry is competitive.

  However, the national civil aviation sector has recorded astounding achievements in terms of passenger
- movements each year. 19. "In catering to an increasing passenger and cargo demand, Malaysia's economy will flourish through global trade and see an expansion of our export market and tourism industry," said Najib, adding he believed that a worldclass aviation infrastructure would be a catalyst for national development as it had a multiplier effect on the economy. 20. Present were the prime minister's wife, Datin Seri Rosmah Mansor, Acting Transport Minister Datuk Seri Hishammuddin Hussein, Communication and Multimedia Minister Datuk Seri Ahmad Shaberry Cheek, Malaysia Airports Holding Berhad (MAHB) chairman Tan Sri Dr Wan Abdul Aziz Wan Abdullah and MAHB managing director Datuk Badlisham Ghazali.

A crowd surging through the international departure gates at klia2 yesterday. Pic by Mohd Fadli Hamzah

21. Against the backdrop of Malaysia Airlines flight MH370's disappearance, Najib expressed his condolences to the families of those aboard the Boeing 777 jetliner.

- 22. Najib congratulated MAHB for the success of its five-tranche Senior Sukuk Programme, which partly funded the development of klia2.
- 23. "As a privately-funded project, klia2 has become the largest contributor to a privatised stimulus package announced by the government in 2009."
- 24. Najib launched gateway@klia2, a connecting mall located between the drop-off point and the main terminal at klia2.

He officially opened the KLIA Ekspres and KLIA Transit service to klia2 and the Sama-sama Express Terminal Airside Transit Hotel at the international departure area.

- 25. Hishammuddin, who touched on the slight delay of klia2's completion, said the setting up of a special klia2 task force by the Transport Ministry was instrumental in preventing further hiccups.
- 26. "The objective of the task force was to monitor the progress of klia2's construction and ensure it met the May 2 deadline. It also addressed all issues related to the project and looked into the need for an independent auditor to investigate problems that caused the delays."

Page 1 caption: Prime Minister Datuk Seri Najib Razak with Datuk Seri Hishammuddin Hussein launching klia2 in Sepang, Selangor, yesterday. Pic by Mohamad Shahril Badri Saali.

Category:
Crime / Accident
Stories (Texts 3A
& 3B)

TEXT 3A

TEXT 3B

Man killed in suspected turf war 22 June 2014 (Page 24)

Mati selepas kena 3 das tembakan 22 Jun 2014. (muka surat 21)

Info: Kronologi pembunuhan bekas banduan di Taman Songket, Kuala Ketil, Kedah

- 1. SUNGAI PETANI: A 24-year-old man was killed after he was shot three times in the chest in Taman Songket, Jalan Kuala Ketil, here, on Friday.
- 2. M. Gurubaran was shot by a man and his accomplice while riding a motorcycle in the 10.30pm incident. The murder is believed to be linked to a turf war between underworld gangs.
- 3. The victim, from Taman Keladi, was on his way to meet a friend before the suspects, who were travelling on a motorcycle, came from behind and one of them opened fire at him.
- 4. Gurubaran fell off the motorcycle right after the first shot hit him on the chest and the suspect again fired two more shots at point-blank before fleeing the scene.
- 5. A source said checks showed that the deceased had a past criminal record and was a member of a gang involved in drug trafficking in Sungai Petani as well as in other violent crimes.
- 6. "The deceased was a prime suspect in a murder case in March 2011.
- 7. "He was arrested in Sungkai, Perak, last March and charged in court, but was acquitted."
- 8. Kedah Criminal Investigation Department chief Assistant Commissioner Nashir Ya said they were tracking down the suspects.

- 1. Mangsa menunggang motorsikal bersendirian melalui lorong menuju Taman Songket, lima kilometer dari rumahnya.
- 2. Mangsa diekori penyerang, yang kemudian melepaskan satu das tembakan tepat ke arah dada mangsa.
- 3. Mendapati mangsa terjatuh belum mati, suspek menghampirinya dan melepaskan dua lagi tembakan ke arah dada mangsa.
- 4. Mangsa mati di lokasi. Info Mangsa M Gurubaran 24 Tahun
- → Bekas banduan dengan rekod jenayah lampau
- → Motif serangan: Pertelingkahan atau dendam antara kumpulan penjenayah
- → Siasatan: Seksyen 302 Kanun Keseksaan kerana membunuh Deen: Grafik BH
- 1. Sungai Petani: Bagi memastikan mangsa mati, dua lelaki melepaskan dua das lagi tembakan ke atas penunggang motosikal yang dalam keadaan 'nyawanyawa ikan' di atas jalan raya, selepas ditembak satu das sebelum itu di Taman Songket di sini, malam kelmarin.
- 2. Difahamkan, tembakan pertama ke atas M Gurubaran (gambar), 24, tersasar, namun tembakan kedua mengenai tepat bahagian dada mangsa yang berasal dari Taman Keladi di sini, menyebabkan mangsa yang sedang menunggang motosikal terus terjatuh.
- 3. Melihatkan mangsa masih bernafas, suspek melepaskan dua das tembakan mengenai bahagian dada Gurubaran, menyebabkan mangsa maut.
- 4. Dalam kejadian kira-kira jam 10.30 malam di Taman Songket, dekat Batu 2 Jalan Kuala Ketil di sini, mangsa disahkan maut terkena tiga das tembakan dilepaskan dua penyerang yang dikatakan mengekorinya dengan menggunakan sebuah motosikal.

5. Ketika kejadian, mangsa dikatakan baharu sahaja memasuki lorong menuju Taman Songket yang terletak kira-kira 5 kilometer dari rumahnya untuk berjumpa seseorang, sebelum dipintas kedua-dua lelaki itu yang terus menembaknya.

#### Ada rekod jenayah lampau

- 6. Berdasarkan maklumat, mangsa dikatakan pernah dikaitkan dengan satu kes pembunuhan pada Mac 2011 lalu, selain turut mempunyai beberapa rekod jenayah lampau.
- 7. Ketua Jabatan Siasatan Jenayah (JSJ) Kedah, Asisten Komisioner Nashir Ya, ketika dihubungi mengesahkan kejadian itu termasuk status mangsa, namun motif kejadian masih dalam siasatan.

2 askar maut kereta perisai terbalik

Category: Crime/ Accident Stories (Texts 4A & 4B)

#### TEXT 4A

#### 2 soldiers killed in crash

4 July 2014 Friday (Page 12)

(photo) The armoured fighting vehicle that crashed at Km232 of the North-South Expressway yesterday.

- 1. KUALA KANGSAR: Two soldiers died while two others were seriously injured after their armoured fighting vehicle hit a divider in the North-South Expressway yesterday.
- 2. The 6.40pm incident happened at Km232.5 on the southbound lane of the expressway.

#### TEXT 4B

- 4 Julai 2014 Jumaat (muka surat 50) Oleh Jalal Ali Abdul Rahim dan Shaarani Ismail bhnews@bh com my
- 2 lagi parah dalam nahas di Kilometer 232 Lebuh Raya Utara-Selatan Keadaan kereta perisai ATM yang terbalik di Kilometer Lebuh Raya Utara-Selatan arah Selatan, berhampiran Kuala Kangsar, semalam (Foto E-Mel)

#### Kuala Kangsar

- 1. Dua anggota tentera maut, manakala dua lagi parah selepas kereta perisai milik Angkatan Tentera Malaysia (ATM) dinaiki mereka, terbalik di Kilometer 232 Lebuh Raya Utara-Selatan arah selatan, berhampiran bandar ini, semalam.
- 2. Kejadian kira-kira jam 6.15 petang itu dipercayai berlaku ketika kenderaan jenis SIBMAS 6x6 dinaiki empat anggota berkenaan sedang melalui laluan berbukit, dipercayai hilang kawalan lalu terbabas ke kiri dan melanggar penghadang jalan sebelum terbalik.

- 3. The two soldiers killed were Sergeant Bayong Anak Burma and Corporal Cik Mohamad Fatonah Che Ismail. Bayong was killed on the spot, while Cik Mohamad died in Kuala Kangsar Hospital.
- 4. A police spokesman said the other two soldiers in the vehicle were Corporal Mohd Sarifudin Abdullah and Lance Corporal Fredi Anak Barnabas. They were being treated at the same hospital.
- A witness, Abd Momin Khushairy of the Civil Defence Department, said he was on his way here when he saw the incident.
- 6. Momin, who was with three colleagues, said they stopped to help.
- 7. Kuala Kangsar Fire and Rescue Department chief Ismail Darus said they received a call at 6.46pm and a team was deployed to the scene.
- 8. He said the armoured car was believed to have skidded, crashing into a road divider before overturning.
- 9. He said the armoured car was part of a convoy of army vehicles heading towards Gemas, Negri Sembilan. 10.Kuala Kangsar police chief Assistant Commissioner Ghuzlan Salleh said the
- Commissioner Ghuzlan Salleh said the incident would be investigated under Section 41(1) of the Road Transport Act 1987.

#### Tayar melambung

- 3. Anggota yang maut di tempat kejadian dikenali Sarjan Bayong Burma, manakala rakan setugasnya, Koperal Che Mohd Fatonah Che Ismail, 31, dilaporkan meninggal dunia ketika dalam perjalanan ke Hospital Kuala Kangsar.
- 4. Dua anggota yang cedera ialah Koperal Sarifuffin Abdullah, 36, dan Lans Koperal Fredi Barnabas, 29.
- 5. Difahamkan, mereka dalam perjalanan dari Kem 3 Armor Sungai Petani, Kedah menuju Gemas, Negeri Sembilan.
- 6. Sementara itu, Ketua Balai Bomba dan Penyelamat Kuala Kangsar, Ismail Darus, berkata pihaknya menerima laporan berhubung kejadian itu, jam 6.46 petang.
- 7. "Sebaik lapan anggota kami tiba di lokasi, didapati sebuah kereta perisai terbalik dan pemeriksaan kemudian mendapati ada empat anggota tentera dalam kenderaan berkenaan.
- 8. "Bomba kemudian menjalankan kerja menyelamat sebelum semua mangsa dihantar ke Hospital Kuala Kangsar untuk bedah siasat dan rawatan lanjut," katanya.
- 9. Sementara itu, anggota Jabatan Pertahanan Awam Malaysia (JPAM) Kuala Kangsar, Abd Momin Khushairy, berkata dia bersama beberapa rakan berada kira-kira 50 meter di belakang kereta perisai berkenaan apabila melihat kepulan asap dan tayar kenderaan itu melambung hingga lepas ke laluan bertentangan.
- 10. "Sebaik tiba di tempat kejadian, saya melihat dua anggota tentera terbaring di atas lebuh raya termasuk seorang yang tercampak kira-kira 20 meter dari lokasi, manakala dua lagi anggota tentera masih dalam kenderaan. Kami kemudian membantu mangsa termasuk yang terperangkap dalam kereta perisai terbabit," katanya.

11. Katanya, dia bersama tiga rakan setugas ketika itu dalam perjalanan pulang ke pejabat selepas ke lokasi satu lagi kes kemalangan, kira-kira tiga kilometer dari tempat kejadian membabitkan anggota tentera berkenaan.

#### INFO

Kereta perisai SIBMAS AFSV-90

- > Buatan Belgium
- ➤ Berat 14,500-18,500 kg (tempur)
- ➤ Panjang 7.32 meter
- ➤ Lebar 2.5 meter
- ➤ Tinggi 2.77 meter
- ➤ Kru 3 orang
- Senjata utama Meriam Cockerill Mk III 90mm
- Senjata kedua Mesingan 7.62mm, mesingan anti pesawat 7.62mm
- Enjin diesel bercas turbo, penyejukan air, MAN D 2566 MK 6-silinder sebaris
- ➤ Kuasa kuda 320hp
- ➤ Kelajuan 100 kmj

TEXT 5B

#### Category: Local Reports (Texts 5A & 5B)

#### TEXT 5A

### Baling tops happiest place survey

27 June 2014 Friday (page 11) RAHMAT KHAIRULRIJAL KUALA LUMPUR news@nst.com.my

QUALITY OF LIFE: Also happy are Alor Gajah, Pekan, Raub

- 1. BALING, Alor Gajah, Pekan and Raub are four of the happiest places in Malaysia.
- 2. Residents in the four districts were said to be the happiest lot, according to the National Happiness Index Survey conducted last year. The districts scored above 80 per cent in the boxes ticked for various aspects affecting their lives.

#### Penduduk Baling paling bahagia

MURNINets kaji kaitan kesan pembangunan ke atas kehidupan 27 Jun 2014 Jumaat Oleh Fairuz Zaidan fairuzaidan@bh.com.my

#### Kuala Lumpur

- 1. Kajian Indeks Kebahagiaan Negara 2013 menyenaraikan Baling di Kedah sebagai daerah yang mencatatkan kadar kebahagiaan tertinggi di Malaysia, diikuti Alor Gajah, Melaka serta Pekan dan Raub di Pahang.
- 2. Kajian itu meletakkan Majlis Perbandaran Baling di tempat teratas dengan 84.62 peratus, hanya sedikit mengatasi Majlis Perbandaran Alor Gajah yang memperoleh 81.54 peratus serta Majlis Daerah Pekan dan Raub, masing-masing dengan 80 peratus.

- 3. Baling, the second largest district in Kedah, topped the list with 84.62 per cent followed by Alor Gajah in Malacca with 81.54 per cent. Pekan and Raub in Pahang recorded 80 per cent respectively.
- 4. Urban Wellbeing, Housing, and Local Government Minister Datuk Seri Abdul Rahman Dahlan said the survey served as an indicator to monitor the wellbeing of the people, especially on their economic and social development. 5. "The survey is a part of our 'Malaysian Urban Rural Indicator Network for Sustainable Development' programme, covering 151 areas in Malaysia. Happiness index is an indicator introduced under the quality of life theme to meet the current development trend that emphasises on the well-being of communities." 6. The 2012 survey revealed most of the areas nationwide recorded average happiness.
- 3. Kajian Indeks Kebahagiaan bertujuan mengenal pasti kesejahteraan komuniti dalam arus pembangunan semasa. Ia dikendalikan Pusat Operasi Jaringan Petunjuk Bandar-Luar Bandar Malaysia (MURNINets) bersama pegawai pihak berkuasa tempatan (PBT) serta komuniti setempat.

Foto: Abdul Rahman (kanan) melawat keluarga Allahyarham Mohd Taufik Ali di Senggarang, Batu Pahat, semalam.

4. Menteri Kesejahteraan Bandar, Perumahan dan Kerajaan tempatan, Datuk Abdul Rahman Dahlan, berkata indeks kebahagiaan penduduk di kawasan PBT tahun lalu meningkat daripada purata 75.18 peratus atau 'sederhana bahagia' yang dicatatkan pada tahun sebelumnya.

#### Aspirasi rakyat

- 5. "Kajian terbaharu menunjukkan 90 PBT mencatatkan tahap sederhana untuk kebahagiaan penduduk masing-masing, iaitu antara 50 hingga 79 peratus, manakala hanya empat PBT melepasi 80 peratus. Indeks itu mengenal pasti hasrat dan aspirasi rakyat, sekaligus meningkatkan kesejahteraan dan kualiti hidup mereka," katanya dalam kenyataan, semalam.
- 6. Di **Batu Pahat**, Abdul Rahman bersama beberapa pemimpin UMNO Bahagian Batu Pahat, termasuk Timbalan Ketuanya, Zaidi Japar, meluangkan masa melawat dan bertanya khabar keluarga Allahyarham Mohd Taufik Ali, anggota Balai Bomba dan Penyelamat Pekan Nanas, yang maut dalam kemalangan di Pontian, 21 Jun lalu.
- 7. Taufik yang berasal dari Kampung Parit Dalam, Senggarang, Batu Pahat, meninggal dunia selepas dirempuh lori ketika sedang menyimpan peralatan sebaik selesai memadam kebakaran di Batu 29, Pengkalan Raja, Pontian. Rakan sekerjanya, Suboh Abdullah, 45, pula cedera dalam kejadian jam 3.45 petang berkenaan.

Category: Local TEXT 6A TEXT 6B
Reports (Texts 6A
& 6B)

#### 12 to face rap over Aedes breeding

22 June 2014 Sunday (page 7)

- 1. KUANTAN: Twelve house owners in the state will be charged in court after they failed to settle compounds for the breeding of Aedes mosquitoes on their premises.
- 2. State Health Committee chairman Datuk Norol Azali Sulaiman said the houses involved were among the 881 premises issued RM500 compounds this year.
- 3. They were among 1,195 premises found to have Aedes breeding-grounds. The remaining premise owners were given a notice to clean their areas.
- 4. "We have issued several reminders to them but they refused to settle the compounds.
- 5. "We have no choice but to charge them in court," he said after launching the state-level World Health Day celebration here yesterday.

#### 881 kena kompaun biak Aedes

Jabatan Kesihatan Pahang pergiat usaha tangani denggi

22 Jun 2014 Ahad Oleh Amin Ridzuan Ishak aminridzuan©bh.com.my

#### Kuantan

- 1. Dua belas pemilik rumah di negeri ini akan dihadapkan ke mahkamah dalam masa terdekat, kerana gagal membayar kompaun kerana kesalahan pembiakan nyamuk Aedes di kediaman masingmasing.
- 2. Pengerusi Jawatankuasa Kesihatan, Sumber Manusia dan Tugas-Tugas Khas Pahang, Datuk Norol Azali Sulaiman, berkata mereka antara 881 individu dan syarikat pembinaan di negeri ini yang diarahkan membayar kompaun RM500 kerana menyebabkan pembiakan Aedes bagi tempoh enam bulan pertama tahun ini.
- 3. Katanya, Jabatan Kesihatan Pahang juga menyerahkan 314 notis Seksyen 8, Akta Pembawa Penyakit (APSPP) 1975 yang mengarahkan supaya pemilik premis membersihkan kawasan masing-masing supaya bebas daripada pembiakan Aedes.
- 4. Beliau berkata, 54 daripada 880 tapak pembinaan yang diperiksa pula mendapati ada tempat pembiakan nyamuk Aedes dengan 47 pemaju projek berkenaan sudah dikenakan kompaun dan membayar kompaun masingmasing.

#### Sudah diberi peringatan

5."Dua belas pemilik rumah terbabit diberi banyak kali peringatan membayar kompaun RM500 selepas pemeriksaan di kawasan masing-masing mendapati ada pembiakan nyamuk Aedes, tetapi gagal berbuat demikian.

- 6. Norol said the Health Department had inspected 880 construction sites and 54 of them were found to have Aedes breeding grounds.
- 7. He said 47 of them were issued with compounds and had settled them, one was given a closure order, while the remaining premises were issued cleanup notices.
- 8. State Health Director Datuk Dr Norhizan Ismail said dengue cases were expected to increase because of the prolonged dry season caused by the El Nino weather phenomenon.
- 9. Statistics show that the number of dengue cases in the state from January to June 15 had increased by more than 100 per cent, to 535 cases compared with 248 cases in the same period last year.
- 10. Kuantan has the highest number of cases at 281, followed by Jerantut with 65; Temerloh, 62; Raub and Maran, 31 each; Bentong, 24; Bera, 16; Pekan and Lipis, nine each; Rompin, four; and, Cameron High-lands, three.
- 11. Dr Norhizan said two new hot spots were also identified, Taman Setali Jaya here and the Felda Jengka 13 housing area in Jerantut.
- 12. "The department has asked the security and development committees in both areas to organise a gotong-royong to clean up their areas and destroy Aedes breeding grounds."

- 6. "Kita dalam proses mendakwa mereka di mahkamah kerana gagal membayar kompaun," katanya selepas merasmikan sambutan Hari Kesihatan Sedunia peringkat Negeri Pahang di Taman Permainan Lembah Sekilau, di sini, semalam.
- 7. Yang turut hadir, Pengarah Jabatan Kesihatan Negeri Pahang, Datuk Dr Norhizan Ismail.
- 8. Sementara itu, Dr Norhizan berkata, pihaknya menjangkakan kes demam denggi di negeri ini meningkat berikutan fenomena El Nino, yang bakal menyebabkan cuaca panas berpanjangan sekali gus memudahkan pembiakan nyamuk Aedes.
- 9. "Masalah ini bukan saja dialami di Pahang tetapi seluruh negara dan kita sudah mengambil langkah berjaga-jaga dengan membuat pemantauan serta pemeriksaan berterusan di pelbagai lokasi berisiko.
- 10. "Orang ramai juga dinasihatkan supaya membersihkan kawasan takungan air dengan sebaik mungkin bagi mengelakkan ia menjadi pembiakan nyamuk Aedes, ia sebagai langkah persediaan dalam menghadapi cuaca panas bakal melanda," katanya.
- 11. Mengikut statistik, kes demam denggi di negeri ini dari Januari sehingga 15 Jun lalu merekodkan 535 kes dan ia meningkat 116 peratus berbanding kes direkodkan dalam tempoh sama tahun lalu iaitu dengan 248 kes.
- 12. Daerah Kuantan, Temerloh dan Jerantut dikesan menjadi kawasan panas dan merekodkan jumlah kes demam denggi tinggi.

#### APPENDIX B

Interview questions with editors and journalists of Berita Harian and the New Straits Times

#### **Interview Questions (Editors)**

- 1. What is your editorial policy regarding language use in
  - (a) news reports;
  - (b) reporting parliamentary and political speeches or debates;
  - (c) crime reports?
- 2. What are the criteria for translating reports from Malay into English and vice-versa?
- 3. Do your journalists translate word-for-word or are some features left out?
- 4. Are there differences in what is covered in the Malay newspaper produced by your company as compared to your English-language newspaper?

#### **Interview Questions (Journalists)**

- 1. How do you go about drafting reports?
- 2. How do you decide what to include or exclude in your reports?
- 3. Are the reports drafted in Malay or English?
- 4. Do you translate word-for-word or are some features left out?
- 5. What is your strategy or what are your strategies when drafting the following:
  - (a) Current affairs news?
  - (b) News regarding speeches of Ministers and other VIPs?
  - (c) News about crime?





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Journal homepage: http://www.pertanika.upm.edu.my/

# A Study of the Relationship between the Components of Organizational Justice and the Dimensions of Job Satisfaction of Physical Education Teachers

Firoozi, M.1\*, Kazemi, A.2 and Sayadi, N.1

<sup>1</sup>Department of Psychology, College of Humanities, Yasouj University, Yasouj, Iran
<sup>2</sup>Department of Applied Linguistics, College of Humanities, Yasouj University, Yasouj, Iran

#### **ABSTRACT**

The present research sought to investigate the relationship between organisational justice and the dimensions of job satisfaction of physical education teachers. The research method was descriptive, in general, and correlational, in particular. The population included all the 275 physical education teachers of the city of Khorramabad, Iran in the academic year 2013-14. Out of this population, applying Krejcie and Morgan's formula for Sample Size Determination, 162 individuals were selected, using stratified random sampling. The data collection instruments were Niehoff and Moorman's Organisational Justice Questionnaire and Wysocki and Kromm's Job Satisfaction Questionnaire. The data were analysed by running the Pearson Correlation Coefficient and Multiple Regression. The results indicated that there is a positive and meaningful correlation between the components of organisational justice and dimensions of job satisfaction. Regression analysis showed that out of the components of organisational justice, distributive justice has the capability of predicting all dimensions of job satisfaction. Moreover, procedural justice has the capability to predict satisfaction with co-workers and their supervisors. Finally, interactive justice does not contribute to the dimensions of job satisfaction.

*Keywords:* Distributive justice, interactive justice, job satisfaction, organisational justice, procedural justice

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E-mail addresses: m.firoozi@yu.ac.ir (Firoozi, M.), akazemi@yu.ac.ir (Kazemi, A.), nasrinsayadi1077@gmail.com (Sayadi, N.) \* Corresponding author

#### INTRODUCTION

As an area of inquiry in organisational behaviour, as Greenberg, Mark and Lehman (1985) first put it, sports could serve as a manifestation of justice. In other words, justice in larger society could be

represented in sports, and based on one's understanding of justice in sports, it is possible to draw conclusions about justice in society as a whole. These ideas were later put into practice by other scholars (Jordan, Gillentine, & Hunt, 2004; Jordan, Turner, Fink, & Pastore, 2007). In the latter work, they were able to establish a link between organisational justice and job satisfaction among head basketball coaches at the collegiate level. According to Jordan et al. (2007), one of the most important psychological characteristics of each individual that can impact his/her performance is the motivation to act. One type of such motivation is job satisfaction. Job satisfaction refers to the attitudes or views of the personnel towards the job, the working environment and, more generally, to the emotional reaction of the individual to the defined role (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951; Diener, 2000). Locke (1976) defined job satisfaction as the pleasant and positive emotional reaction to experiences in one's job and career. It has also been considered as one of the indexes of job-related happiness (Zhang, Wu, Miao, Yan, & Peng, 2014).

It is necessary to point out that different theories lead to different characterisations of job satisfaction. An oft-cited theory is Maslow's Theory of Hierarchy of Needs. According to Maslow (1971), this hierarchy of needs can be considered as the relevant framework within which we can determine how various personal needs are satisfied in the context of the work we do. According to this theory, needs could be classified into

physiological needs, safety needs, affection and belongingness needs, esteem needs and self-actualisation or self-development needs. Moreover, according to Maslow (1971), an individual cannot be satisfied unless the needs of a previous level are met, at least to some extent.

Given the discussion so far, there is no doubt that job satisfaction is highly important for organisations. Various studies carried out so far suggest that a lot of variables are related to job satisfaction. However, most previous studies carried out on job satisfaction have focussed on income, characteristics of jobs, conflict between job and family life, stress and leadership (Judge, Piccolo, Podsakoff, Shaw, & Rich, 2010). However, recently, most researchers have focussed on the impact of personal characteristics on job satisfaction (Zhang et al., 2014). One individual characteristic which can have a significant effect on job satisfaction is organisational justice. Organisational justice refers to the impression of fairness (Di Fabio, & Palazzeschi, 2012). This type of justice has also been defined as the perception of individuals and groups of just behaviour on the part of organisations and their responses to such perceptions (Samad, 2006). Individuals in an organisation assess their work experiences as either fair or unfair. If the members of an organisation see the decisions made by an organisation as being just, it is highly likely that these members will reciprocate with higher job satisfaction and get involved in the behaviours related to

their roles (Fischer, 2004). Bies and Moag (1986) hold that organisational justice has three dimensions: distributive justice, procedural justice and interactive justice. The first activity about organisational justice focusses on distributive justice. The studies in this vein have emanated from the ideas of Adams (1965), who suggested the Equality Theory, which is a motivational theory in the first place. It describes individual efforts to achieve equity and fairness in social interactions and exchanges. According to this theory, employees usually compare their inputs and outcomes with those of their co-workers and evaluate them to see whether their rewards are fair or not (Leventhal, 1976). It could be said that job dissatisfaction occurs when one perceives the proportion of one's input to his/her output to be unfair and unequal (Ambrose et al., 2007). Thus, distributive justice emphasises the perceived justice of distribution of organisational outcomes (Fischer, 2004; Fortin & Fellenz, 2008; Greenberg, 1987; Kang, 2007; Othman, 2008), which involves the fair distribution of rewards and resources (Greenberg, 1987; Milkovich, Newman, 2005; Othman, 2008). In addition, employees make judgements about fairness in decision-making by organisations to determine whether they are free of prejudice, are exact, modifiable and represent the views and concerns of the employees or not (Greenberg, 1986; Leventhal, 1980; Thibaut & Walker, 1975). In other words, procedural justice refers to the perception of individuals of the

degree of fairness in decisions made by leaders to determine outcomes (Kang, 2007; Lue, 2008; Rubin, 2009; Shi, Lin, Wang, & Wang, 2009). Interactive justice is the third component of organisational justice, which was pointed out by Bies and Moag (1986) for the first time. It refers to the quality of interpersonal relationships between authorities (Bies & Moag, 1986). Recent studies regard interactive justice as consisting of interpersonal justice (sincerity and respect), and informational justice (adequate, honest explanations) (Bies & Moag, 1986; Greenberg, 1993). Such components of justice correlate with different outcomes such as satisfaction, commitment, citizenship, withdrawal and quitting one's job (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001). Some of the studies carried out so far suggest that organisational justice could predict a lot of organisational variables such as increased performance (Mohamed, 2014), respect for and trust in employees (Sang Long, Wan Mardhia, Tan Owee, & Low, 2014), satisfaction with working environment (Elnaga & Imran, 2014), satisfaction with pay and supervisor (Loi, Yang, & Diefendorff, 2009; Najafi, Noruzy, Khezri Azar, Nazari Shirkouhi, & Dalvand, 2011) and job satisfaction (Schappe, 1998). In a metanalysis, Viswesvaran and Ones (2002) showed that the correlation coefficient between procedural justice and job satisfaction was 0.36 and that of distributive justice and job satisfaction was 0.35.

Therefore, given the discussion so far, the findings suggest a significant correlation between organisational justice and job satisfaction. However, there have been very few studies in which the relationship between components of organisational justice with those of job satisfaction has been investigated concurrently. Thus, the current study sought to fill the gap by seeking to determine to what extent components of organisational justice could predict job satisfaction and its components.

#### **METHODOLOGY**

The research design adopted in the study was descriptive, in general, and correlational, in particular. The population was all the teachers of physical education formally employed with the Department of Education, Khorram Abad, Iran. Based on the information provided by the Bureau for Development and Planning of Personnel, the total population was 275 people. Applying Krejcie and Morgan's sample size formula, 162 teachers (80 males and 82 females) were chosen, using stratified random sampling. The instruments used in the study were the Organisational Justice Questionnaire developed by Niehoff and Moorman (1993) and the Job Satisfaction Questionnaire developed by Wysocki and Kromm (1986). The former questionnaire was validated by Naami and Shokrkon (2004) for use in the Iranian context. This questionnaire consists of three components of distributive justice (six items), procedural justice (nine items) and interactive justice (five items), with a

5-point Likert scale. Naami and Shokrkon (2004) established the coefficients of construct validity and the Cronbach alpha (reliability), which were reported to be 0.42 and 0.85 for general organisational justice, 0.46 and 0.78 for distributive justice, 0.57 and 0.82 for procedural justice and 0.40 and 0.64 for interactive justice, respectively. In the present study, the reliability of the organisational justice questionnaire, established through the Cronbach alpha, was calculated as 0.85. The Job Satisfaction Questionnaire comprised 40 items. In this questionnaire, five components measure satisfaction with work itself, with the supervisor, with coworkers, with promotional policies, with pay and with fringe benefits on a scale of 5. In the study carried out by Kouzechian, Zareie and Talebpour (2003), the Cronbach alpha coefficient of the Job Satisfaction Questionnaire was 0.92. In this study, the Cronbach alpha coefficient was 0.91. For data analysis, the Pearson Correlation Coefficient and Multiple Regression Analysis (enter method) were used. It is also necessary to point out that because in the current study, Maslow's Theory of Hierarchy of Needs and Adam's Equality Theory were considered as the frameworks within which job satisfaction was addressed, the data were analysed with an eye to these motivational theories.

#### **FINDINGS**

Table 1 depicts the correlation between the variables in the current study.

Table 1 Correlation coefficient between the variables in the study

Variable	MD	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1.Distributive justice	14.74	3.25	1							
2.Procedural justice	18.72	4.62	0.14	1						
3.Interactive justice	29.70	6.95	0.19*	0.71**	1					
4. Work itself	36.63	7.52	0.35**	-0.06	0.03	1				
5.Supervisor	27.75	5.85	0.23**	0.21**	0.14	0.33**	1			
6. Co- workers	35.23	7.50	0.36**	-0/13	-0.01	0.49**	0.36**	1		
7.Promotion	16.27	4.80	0.25**	0/04	0.07	0.37**	0.48**	0.36**	1	
8.Pay	17.96	5.40	0.24**	0.05	0.09	0.17*	0.31**	0.34**	0.54**	1

Note: \*p<0.05; \*\*p<0.01

As suggested by the findings, the correlation coefficients between the components of job satisfaction and the dimensions of organisational justice ranged from 0.14 to 0.36. In order to determine to what extent and in what direction organisational justice can predict job satisfaction, multiple regression was run. The results are given in Tables 2-6.

# Prediction of Satisfaction with Work Itself through Organisational Justice

For the purpose of investigating the relationship between organisational justice and satisfaction with work itself, use was made of multiple regression analysis.

According to Table 2, the dimensions of organisational justice can account for 14% of variance of satisfaction with work itself. Out of the components, distributive justice, with a beta value of 0.36, as the

Table 2
Regression analysis of dimensions of organisational justice and the component of work itself

Cri variable	R	$\mathbb{R}^2$	В	β	P
Distributive justice			0.88	0.36	0.001
Procedural justice	0.37	0.14	-0.29	-0.17	N.S
Interactive justice	-		0.09	0.08	N.S

first component, contributed the most to the prediction of satisfaction with work itself.

### Prediction of Satisfaction with Supervisor through Organisational Justice

For the purpose of investigating the relationship between organisational justice and satisfaction with supervisor, use was made of multiple regression analysis.

Table 3
Regression analysis of dimensions of organisational justice and the component of supervisor

Variable	R	$\mathbb{R}^2$	В	β	P
Distributive justice			0.39	0.22	0.001
Procedural justice	0.29	0.08	0.27	0.21	0.05
Interactive justice			-0.04	-0.05	N.S

According to Table 3, the dimensions of organisational justice can account for 8% of the variance of satisfaction with supervisor. Out of the components, distributive justice and procedural justice, with a beta value of 0.22 and 0.21 each, contributed the most to the prediction of satisfaction with supervisor as the second dimension of job satisfaction.

## Prediction of Satisfaction with coworkers through Organisational Justice

For the purpose of investigating the relationship between organisational justice and satisfaction with co-workers, use was made of multiple regression analysis.

According to Table 4, the dimensions of organisational justice can account for 17% of variance of satisfaction with coworkers. Out of the components, distributive justice, with a beta value of 0.38, and procedural justice, with a beta value of -0.26, contributed the most to the prediction of satisfaction with co-workers as the third dimension of job satisfaction.

Table 4
Regression Analysis of Dimensions of
Organisational Justice and the Component of Co-

Variable	R	$\mathbb{R}^2$	В	β	P
Distributive justice			0.89	0.38	0.001
Procedural justice	0.41	0.17	-0.43	-0.26	0. 01
Interactive justice			0.12	0.11	N.S

### Prediction of satisfaction with job promotion through organisational justice

For the purpose of investigating the relationship between organisational justice and satisfaction with job promotion, use was made of multiple regression analysis.

Table 5
Regression analysis of dimensions of organisational justice and the component of promotion

Variable	R	$\mathbb{R}^2$	В	β	P
Distributive justice			0.36	0.24	0.003
Procedural justice	0.25	0.06	-0.03	-0.02	N.S
Interactive justice			0.03	0.04	N.S

According to Table 5, the dimensions of organisational justice can account for 6% of variance of satisfaction with job promotion. Out of the components, distributive justice, with a beta value of 0.24, contributed the

most to the prediction of satisfaction with job promotion as the fourth dimension of job satisfaction.

# Prediction of Satisfaction with Pay through Organisational Justice

For the purpose of investigating the relationship between organisational justice and satisfaction with pay, use was made of multiple regression analysis.

Table 6
Regression analysis of dimensions of organisational justice and the component of pay

Variable	R	$\mathbb{R}^2$	В	β	P
Distributive justice			0.38	0.23	0.004
Procedural justice	0.26	0.07	-0.16	-0.13	N.S
Interactive justice	-		0.11	0.13	N.S

According to Table 6, the dimensions of organisational justice can account for 7% of variance of satisfaction with pay. Out of the components, distributive justice, with a beta value of 0.23, contributed the most to the prediction of satisfaction with pay as the fifth dimension of job satisfaction.

Taken together, the findings of the study, as shown in Tables 2 through 6, invariably indicated that distributive justice could significantly predict all the components of job satisfaction, which is clearly consistent with Adam's Theory of Equality. In addition, the findings were in line with Maslow's Theory of Hierarchy of needs. According to this theory, an individual is satisfied with

her or work when his/her expectations of the workplace and jobs are met.

#### DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The results of the regression analysis showed that correlation between the components of organisational justice and those of job satisfaction varies. Out of the components of organisational justice, just distributive justice had the capability of predicting all the components of job satisfaction; satisfaction with work itself had a beta value of 0.36, satisfaction with supervisor had a beta value of 0.22, satisfaction with co-workers had a beta value of 0.38, satisfaction with job promotion had a beta value of 0.24 and satisfaction with pay had a beta value of 0.23. In other words, distributive justice contributed the most to the prediction of all the components of job satisfaction. This finding is in line with the relevant findings in the literature (Colquitt et al., 2001; Elnaga & Imran, 2014; Loi et al., 2009; Najafi et al., 2011; Sang Long et al., 2014; Schappe, 1998; Whisenant, 2005). From a theoretical perspective, the findings related to distributive justice can be justified with reference to the Equality Theory of Adams. According to this theory, through comparison between their inputs and outcomes with those of others, individuals can judge whether they have been give fair rewards or not (Kang, 2007). Given this finding, if some arrangements are in place by the Department of Education so that teachers of physical education see their rewards and benefits as being fair in exchange for the services that they render,

their job satisfaction and motivation could be enhanced. On the other hand, procedural justice could account for satisfaction with supervisor with a beta value of 0.21 and satisfaction with co-workers with a beta value of -0.26. Thus, it could be said that the nature of the teaching profession of teachers of physical education is such that the presence or lack of perception of justice in practice or interaction has possibly nothing to do with the components of job satisfaction. This could be taken to imply that teachers of physical education do not consider their job success in line with their personal interests. The lack of a significant relationship between procedural justice and the components of job satisfaction (except satisfaction with supervisor) suggests that the feeling of equality or lack of it in organisational policies and decision making has probably no impact on the attitudes of teachers of physical education towards job satisfaction. The supremacy of distributive justice, compared with other components of organisational justice, suggests some analytical discussions. Consistent with Maslow's Theory of Hierarchy of Needs (1970), in reaction to the environment, humans give priority to those characteristics and components that are closer to their basic needs. Given that distributive justice deals with the distribution of resources, life chances and different opportunities within an organisation, it is more important than other components of organisational justice. The other point has to do with the nature of the population of interest. Some needs

are priority for them until met so much so that until these needs are met, they will be priority. In other words, according to Maslow's Theory of Hierarchy of Needs (1970), the low level needs of teachers of physical education (i.e. material needs) are not met, and this does not allow them to pay attention to higher-order needs such as being respected and being valuable, and has an impact on lower-order needs. However, the findings of the present study regarding the priority of distributive justice suggest that there are shortcomings in meeting the basic needs of teachers of physical education, and they are due to shortages of resources or defects in distribution. Given that distributive justice is the best predictor of components of job satisfaction, Education Department authorities need to pay careful attention to equal payment to staff so that staff can trust the distribution of resources. This is important as it can pave the way for job satisfaction and could promote motivation.

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# Antecedents of Employees' E-training Participation in a **Malaysian Private Company**

Tan, Y. Y. and Mohd Rasdi, R.\*

Department of Professional Development and Continuing Education, Faculty of Educational Studies, Universiti Putra Malaysia, 43400 Serdang, Selangor, Malaysia

#### **ABSTRACT**

Previous literature indicated that people tend to have lower motivation and level of participation in e-training. This case study aims to shed light on the factors that contribute to employees' e-training participation. It examines the influence of personality traits i.e. computer self-efficacy and self-esteem and attitudinal disposition i.e. technology acceptance, job satisfaction and organisational commitment on employees' e-training participation. Results of the study indicate that all of the selected predictors were correlated positively with employees' participation in e-training. The three most dominant factors that influenced employees' participation in e-training were computer self-efficacy, technology acceptance and organisational commitment. The implications and conclusions of the study are clarified.

Keywords: Attitudes, e-training, participation, personalities

#### INTRODUCTION

E-training or web-based training (WBT), virtual classroom, distance education and Information and Communications Technology (ICT) have become prevalent in today's organisations (Ramayah,

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E-mail addresses: tyen1988@hotmail.com (Tan, Y. Y), roziah.mr@gmail.com (Mohd Rasdi, R.)

\* Corresponding author

Ahmad, & Hong, 2012). According to the E-Learning Market Trends and Forecast Report by Dacebo from 2014 to 2016, more organisations and individuals are turning to e-learning each year as e-learning is effective and powerful. Based on this report, which considered the situation in 26 countries worldwide, Malaysia has the third highest rate of growth in e-learning (41%), while Asia has the world's highest regional growth rate at 17.3%.

Every year, the government as well as the private sector incurs a large sum of

money on education and training. According to the Tenth Malaysia Plan prepared by the Economic Planning Unit and the Finance Ministry of Malaysia, one of the priorities of the national budget from 2011 to 2015 was to focus on improving the knowledge abilities and innovation of the people to bring progress to the country. E-learning refers to the use of technology in order to learn while e-training is defined as learning offered to employees to enhance their job performance (Nadler, 1984). Adult education or andragogy is the art and science of teaching adults. Thus, e-training is a combination of e-learning and adult education that refers to any type of training given by organisations through electronic media to improve employees' knowledge, attitudes and skills (Ramayah, Ahmad, & Hong, 2012). In e-training, the training programme is delivered through the Internet and the course interaction and delivery are technology mediated. Therefore, one can easily access the information online and be more flexible in terms of time and venue of learning as the learning is more self-directed and independent. As such, e-training is suitable for adult learners who are more independent, mature and expected to have a higher locus of control (Makoe, Richardson, & Price, 2008).

As a result, e-training, which is flexible, accessible, cost effective and time saving, has become an ideal and popular delivery method for training programmes in many organisations (Rosenberg, 2006). According to the research by Global Industry Analysts, e-learning, at the time of writing, was almost

US\$107 billion in 2015 and would continue to grow. This is at par with figures detailed in studies by Welsh et al. in 2003, which showed that learners tend to learn better using computer-based teaching methods rather than traditional classroom methods. Similarly, Fletcher and Tobias (2000), Bonk and Wisher (2000), Hairston (2007) and Lowry (2007) obtained comparable results in their research. Furthermore, e-learning is more effective than traditional classroom education as learners can tailor the learning to suit their learning pace and it is more engaging for learners (Means et al., 2009). Therefore, it is not surprising that e-learning plays a major role now in adult education and e-training has become a trend in private and public sectors (Egodigwe, 2005). However, most previous research has focussed on training effectiveness and talent development but seldom touched on employees' participation in e-training (Donaldson & Townsend, 2007).

Learners who are not familiar with computer and electronic gadgets may have problem handling the online learning software and in the end lose their interest in e-learning (Kruse, 2004). Thus, computer self-efficacy is crucial in motivating employees to join e-training. Previous research showed that many learners who enrolled in e-learning education did not finish their study and tended to have lower motivation (Dutton, Dutton, & Perry, 2002). This is also supported by the studies done in Kennesaw State University the United States that showed a higher dropout rate of distance learning than for traditional

education. According to the study, 15 to 20% more students dropped out of online classes. Other than that, local research study carried out by Yiong, Sam and Wah (2008) in Sarawak, Malaysia also showed that most of the learners surveyed had moderate levels of e-learning acceptance with a mean of 3.80. Sloane et al. (2004) pointed out that there is clear evidence that training has positive relationship to job satisfaction. Motivation is the thrust that determines how much effort a worker will put in his or her work and how long and which direction the effort is geared towards (Robbins & Judge, 2008). If employees are forced to take part in e-training because they have to, their job satisfaction will be lowered. Thus, it is crucial to understand the factors that will lead to employees' participation in e-training to have optimum results from the training.

Most studies on e-learning have focussed on pedagogy and have not taken into account the different challenges faced by adult learners (Gail & Donald, 2013). As such, this study aimed to narrow the gap between pedagogy and andragogy in e-learning and to provide more findings on e-training in the Malaysian context, which is lacking. Moreover, it is hoped that through this research, employers can better understand the needs and difficulties faced by employees in e-training and be able to encourage them to pick up e-learning with ease. This study provides the participating employees with a better understanding of themselves about their own personality and attitudes including self-esteem, computer self-efficacy, technology acceptance, job

satisfaction and organisational commitment so that employees can identify the potential problems they faced in e-training. The identified personality traits and attitudinal disposition also provide a helpful reference to employees as well as the organisation to make e-training a success.

The objective of this study was to determine the antecedents of e-training participation among private sector employees. The specific research objectives of this study were (i) To examine the level of employees' participation in e-training in a selected private company; (ii) To determine the level of personality traits i.e. computer self-efficacy and selfesteem and attitudinal disposition i.e. technology acceptance, job satisfaction and organisational commitment among general employees in a selected private company; (iii) To determine the relationships between personality traits i.e. computer self-efficacy and self-esteem and attitudinal disposition i.e. technology acceptance, job satisfaction and organisational commitment and general employees' participation in e-training in a selected private company, and (iv) To determine the major predictors of employee participation in e-training in a selected private company.

This study was in line with initiatives to promote e-training in the workplace. In addition, it is of the utmost importance to enhance the effectiveness of training in the workplace to produce a competent and knowledgeable workforce able to provide optimum organisational performance. The paper is structured as follows: Firstly,

we discuss the concept of employees' e-training participation and review previous literature to develop the hypotheses. Then, the methodology, results and implications of the study are discussed.

# THEORISING EMPLOYEE PARTICIPATION IN E-TRAINING

In this study, employee participation in e-training was conceptualised using the ISSTAL Model by Cookson (1986). ISSTAL stands for Interdisciplinary, Sequential-Specificity, Time-Allocation and Life-Span. This classic model incorporates all relevant institutional, situational and dispositional variables to explain the factors that affect adult education participation. This is also the main reason why the ISSTAL model was picked as the foundation of this study; it is a well-rounded and complete model that explains the various factors that influence employee participation in e-training. The model was first introduced by Smith and Theberge in 1980 and later adapted by Cookson in 1986.

In this model, institutional and situational variables include external contexts such as climate, culture and environment and learners' social background and social roles such as age, education level and occupation. Four factors fall under dispositional variables, which are personality traits, intellectual capacity, retained information and attitudinal disposition. Personality is the sum of individual characteristics of a person while intellectual capacity refers to a person's cognitive ability, such as his/her intelligence test scores. Retained information includes learners' stored and retrievable information, images, knowledge and plans. Attitudinal disposition refers to learners' attitudes, beliefs, motivations and perceptions. All of these factors are intertwined and lead to situational factors, which are a result of the complex and interactive effects of the previous factors. Finally, situational variables lead to adult participation in continuing education. Figure 1, from left to right, shows the relevance of the factors contributing towards adult

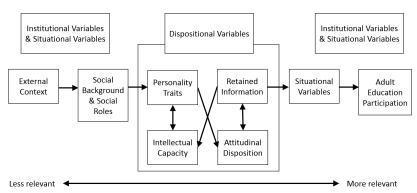


Figure 1. ISSTAL model Source: (Cookson, 1986, p. 130–141)

education participation. The more to the right, the stronger the relation is between the factors and adult education participation.

#### The Theory of Reasoned Action

This study also applied the Theory of Reasoned Action (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980) to explain the phenomenon of employee participation in e-training. According to this theory, an individual's behavioural intention is determined by two major factors, which are the person's attitudes and subjective norms. Ajzen and Fishbein refer to attitudes as the evaluation and strength of a belief whereas subjective norms are "the person's perception that most people who are important to the individual think he or she should or should not perform the behavior" (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975, p. 302).

# The equation of the theory of reasoned action

Behavioural Intention = Attitude+ Subjective norms

Based on this theory, employee behaviour is determined by employees' behavioural intention, where behavioural intention is the result of attitude and subjective norms as depicted in the equation above. Behavioural intention is an indication of how hard individuals are willing to try and how much effort they are going to put in to perform the behaviour. A person's beliefs or perceptions about the consequence of a behaviour will affect the person's attitude towards that particular behaviour. Thus,

an employee who perceives e-training as beneficial will have a more positive attitude towards e-training participation.

Meanwhile, subjective norms are determined by the beliefs of the people around a person and by his motivation to comply with the norms. For example, in this study, if many of the employees had a positive experience in e-training and it was the organisational culture to actively take part in e-training, other employees who previously had not takeen part would be influenced to join e-training, too.

As such, the Theory of Reasoned Action fits in well with the ISSTAL Model. It supports the rationale behind the model, showing the impact of environment or social background and individual attitude towards adult education participation. An individual's personality and attitude can be shaped by situational factors and they intertwine to influence a person's behavioural intention, leading to the probability of action. For this study, we selected computer self-efficacy and self-esteem to represent personality traits, technology acceptance and job satisfaction, while organisational commitment characterised attitudinal disposition.

# The Antecedents of Employee E-Training Participation

The research framework in Figure 2, which is an integration of the ISSTAL Model and the Theory of Reasoned Action, shows the relationships between the independent variables, which are personality traits i.e. computer self-efficacy and self-

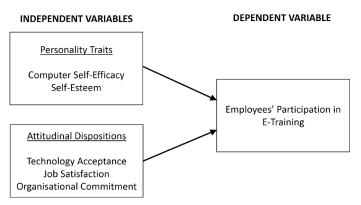


Figure 2. The research framework

esteem, and attitudinal dispositions i.e. technology acceptance, job satisfaction and organisational commitment with the dependent variable i.e. employee participation in e-training. The position of these variables was consistent with the research objectives. Moreover, the research framework was based on the ISSTAL Model by Cookson (1986) and the selection of variables was supported by Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (1943), the Theory of Reasoned Action (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980) and previous research to investigate the relationships between the chosen independent variables and employee participation in e-training.

# Personality Traits and Employee E-Training Participation

Computer self-efficacy. According to Karsten and Roth (1998) and Kripanont (2007), learners with higher computer self-efficacy tend to perform better in e-learning. Furthermore, based on Bandura (1997), people with higher self-efficacy have a stronger sense of commitment to

their tasks. Therefore, these people tend to develop deeper interest in their job. Thus, when an employee has higher computer self-efficacy, he or she will be more interested in e-training. Moreover, computer self-efficacy influences employee expectation of learning outcomes and their emotional reactions to computers (Compeau & Higgins, 1995). Staples (1999) also agreed that employees with higher computer self-efficacy tend to have more satisfactory experience in e-learning. Previous research supports that computer self-efficacy has a correlation with employee e-training participation. Based on the above, this study hypothesised:

H1: Employee computer self-efficacy is positively and significantly related to employee participation in e-training.

**Self-esteem.** In this study, self-esteem refers to the feelings or perception an employee has towards himself. It can reflect the employees' overall emotional evaluation towards themselves. According to Maslow (1954), people with positive feelings about themselves have higher self-esteem and will

have more positive thinking that reflects greater confidence. In addition, self-esteem is closely related to one's happiness, while low self-esteem is more likely to lead to depression and low confidence (Rosenberg, 1965). For instance, employees with high self-esteem are more willing to take risk and perceive challenges more positively (Hellriegel & Slocum, 2010). Training involves changes and therefore, employees with higher self-esteem tend to be more inclined to take part in e-training. Based on Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, self-esteem is one of the crucial factors that leads to selfactualisation. Self-actualisation is becoming what a person can be in order to actualise his or her potential (Maslow, 1954). As the main purpose of e-training is to help employees realise their full potential, it is more likely that employees with high selfesteem would be interested to join e-training (Lloyd & Sullivan, 2003). Therefore, employee self-esteem is likely to influence their participation in e-training. We therefore hypothesised that:

H2: Employees' self-esteem is positively and significantly related to employee participation in e-training.

## Attitudinal Disposition and Employee E-Training Participation

**Technology acceptance.** In this study, technology acceptance refers to how well an employee can accept the use of technology in training. This variable is based on the Technology Acceptance Model by Davis (1989) that proposed that perceived

usefulness and perceived ease of use would determine a person's behavioural intention and eventually, his technology-related behaviour. Thus, employees tend to use technology in learning when they perceive it to be useful for improving their working skills (Kripanont, 2007). However, if the system is too complex to use, employees would lose interest in using technology to assist their learning as the perceived ease of use would be too low (Sardinha & Costa, 2011). Therefore, an employee with high technology acceptance would think more positively about technology and thus, be more willing to take part in e-training (Al-Adwan & Smedley, 2013). Apart from that, employees with higher technology acceptance would be more ready to use technology in their learning to enhance job performance. Consequently, this would motivate employees to take part in e-training with an open mind and a willing heart (Masrom, 2007). As such, this study hypothesised:

H3: Employees' technology acceptance is positively and significantly related to employee participation in e-training.

Job satisfaction. Job satisfaction refers to how content an employee is with his or her job. Job satisfaction is influenced by job expectations. If the work conditions meet with the employees' expectations, they would be more satisfied with their job. If they do not, employees may suffer from stress, low quality of working life and depression and finally, resort to absenteeism and resignation (Seashore & Taber, 1975). Jones,

Latreille and Sloane's (2008) study found that employees with lower job satisfaction would tend towards lower participation in training provided by the company. Therefore, in order to encourage employees to take part in e-training, employers have to meet the needs of workers to raise their job satisfaction. This is because employees with higher job satisfaction show lower resistance to change as they feel more secure and confident in their job (Abdul Hameed, 2011; Struijs, 2012). Thus, they would also be more likely to take part in e-training. Based on the above, this study hypothesised:

H4: Employees' sense of job satisfaction would be positively and significantly related to employee participation in e-training.

## Organisational commitment.

Organisational commitment refers to how much effort and how dedicated employees are to their company. Research has shown that high organisational commitment has a positive influence on employees' attitudes and behaviour in an organisation (Porter et al., 1974; Koch & Steers, 1978). Studies by Mowday, Porter and Steers (1979) also revealed that employees with higher organisational commitment are less likely to be absent from work or to resign and they tend to be more productive. Apart from that, a study by Cunningham and Mahoney (2004) also pointed out that higher organisational commitment would result in higher motivation to take part in training. Moreover, employees with higher organisational commitment have a stronger bond with the company and are willing to exert more effort in their job (Miller & Lee, 2001). A high level of organisational commitment leads to high affection for the job, continuance commitment and a sense of obligation to stay. Thus, employees with a high level of commitment have low turnover intention (Meyer & Allen, 1991). All this evidence supports the finding that employees' organisational commitment correlates with e-training participation. Based on the above, this study hypothesised:

H5: Employees' organisational commitment ise positively and significantly related to employee participation in e-training.

#### **METHODOLOGY**

## **Participants**

The target population of this study was a private company in Malaysia with 384 employees. The main service provided by the company is business security systems such as structured wiring, alarm systems and camera systems. The study samples were 100 employees comprising 67 female and 33 male respondents working in the selected private company. As only one company selected for the case study, the findings of this research are unsuitable for generalisation of trends in other companies. The average age of the respondents was 32.46 years old, with 19 years old being the youngest and 54 years old being the oldest. The majority (74%) of the respondents were married, while 26% were single. A total of 37% of the respondents were Malay, 40% were Chinese and 23% were Indian. None of the respondents possessed a doctorate or Master's degree; the majority (64%) had a Bachelor's degree, while one respondent had received education up to secondary level only. A total of 35% of the respondents had diploma-level education.

This descriptive correlational study investigated the relationships between the five antecedents, which were personality traits i.e. computer self-efficacy and self-esteem and attitudinal disposition i.e. technology acceptance, job satisfaction and organisational commitment and the criterion variable i.e. employee participation in e-training. According to Ary, Jacobs and Sorenson (2010), correlational research is indeed suitable to determine the relationships between variables.

This study used a cross-sectional survey that helped researchers to collect one-time data from a large population in an easier and cheaper way (Hayes et al., 2002). The data were collected using a self-administered survey and analysed using univariate, bivariate and multivariate statistical analyses to describe the employees' participation in e-training. Furthermore, the study calculated the coefficient of correlation between the measures to indicate the strength and direction of the relationships between the variables to test the hypotheses.

## **Procedure**

This study involved two steps of sampling. In the first stage, the convenient sampling technique was used to select the focus of this study, which was a private company in Cheras, Kuala Lumpur. It was a largescale private company with 384 employees consisting of different ethnicity and age. The main service provided by the company was business security systems such as structured wiring, alarm systems and camera systems. Apart from its convenience, the sample was typical and could be used to represent the target population. In the second stage, the simple random sampling technique was adopted to identify the respondents who were representative of the target population (Hayes et al., 2002). This study used the Table of Random Numbers to select randomly the 100 samples for the study.

Herzberg's fairly large estimation of predictive power of subjects/independent variable ratio of 15:1 (Stevens, 1986) suggests that sample size should be 75. Green's (1991) formula (N>50+8m; m is the number of independent variables) proposes that sample size should be 90. Based on these formulae, we selected 90 as the sample size for this study. We then added an estimated 10% of the proposed size to cater for the non-response respondents. Hence, for this study, the total sample size was 100.

Data were collected from the employees through a formal survey using a standardised questionnaire. The drop-and-pick method was used to collect data in this research. Prior to data collection, the researchers approached the top management of the company by phone and later sent an application letter to the company for approval to carry out the research. Then, the

researchers met the manager of the human resource department of the company to further clarify the purpose, significance of the return rate and data collection procedure. Anonymity of the company and respondents was ensured in this study. After that, the researchers gave the questionnaires to the manager of the human resource department to be distributed to the employees.

#### **Instruments**

## Employee e-training participation.

Employee e-training participation was measured using a single-item scale adapted from Adult Education and Training Survey (2003) and Continuing Vocational Training Survey (2005). This item measured employee e-training participation by measuring how often employees took part in e-training. The item was, "In the past 12 months, how often did you participate in e-training?" The responses for this question ranged from 1 (Never) to 5 (Very often). As it is hard to measure an employee's level of participation, most of the previous studies used secondary data to measure this variable. To date, there is no one simple and established scale to be used to measure e-training participation.

Therefore, based on extensive literature review, this study adapted the item from the related surveys to measure this variable. The literature revealed that there were researchers who used a single-item scale to measure education participation when they did not use secondary data (Chmielewski,

1998; Klunk, Boucouvalas, Hinson, Morris, & Renard, 2013). As there was only one question in the scale, internal consistency could not be calculated. However, many studies have shown that a single-item scale is reliable and valid for use in research. For example, a single-item scale correlated highly with multiple-item scales to measure personality in studies by Woods and Hampson (2005) and Wanous, Reichers and Hudy (1997).

Personality traits. Self-efficacy was measured using a 15-item scale developed by Murphy (1992). The Likert-scale items ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). A sample of the items is, "I feel confident copying a disk" and "I feel confident getting the software up and running." In this study, the reliability coefficient estimated for this scale was 0.89.

Self-esteem was measured with a 10-item scale developed by Rosenberg (1965). The scale measured both positive and negative feelings about oneself. The scale used a 4-point Likert scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. A sample of the items is, "At times I think I am no good at all" and "I am able to do things as well as most other people." The reliability coefficient estimated for this scale in this study was 0.76.

Attitudinal disposition. Technology acceptance was measured using a 10-item scale developed by Venkatesh (2003),

Compeau and Higgins (1995), Thompson, Higgins and Howell (1991) and Teo (2009) to measure employees' intention to use technology in e-training. The instrument used a 4-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. Two samples of the items are, "Working with computers is fun" and "I find computers easy to use." The reliability coefficient reported in this study was 0.86.

Job satisfaction was measured using the Minnesota satisfaction questionnaire (MSQ) (Weiss, Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1967), which consists of 20 items. The instrument uses a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (not satisfied) to 5 (extremely satisfied). Two samples of the items are, "The chances for advancement on this job" and "The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities." The reliability coefficient reported was high in this study, which was 0.84.

Organisational commitment was measured using the Organisational Commitment Scale (OCS) developed by Mowday (1982), which consists of nine items. This instrument used a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Two samples of the items are, "What this organisation stands for is important to me" and "I feel a strong sense of belonging to this organisation." This scale also had a high reliability coefficient of 0.87 in this study.

#### RESULTS

The study aimed to determine the predictors of e-training participation among employees in the private sector. As high as 81% of the respondents had a low level of participation in e-training, while 14% of them had a medium level of e-training participation and only 5% of the respondents had a high level of e-training participation. As depicted in Table 1, the minimum overall personality traits value was 3.40 and the maximum was 8.63, with a range of 5.23. The values of the mean, median and standard deviation of the overall personality traits were 6.06, 6.20 and 1.02. These values suggested that the overall level of personality traits of the respondents was low.

On the other hand, the 25th percentile of the personality traits was 5.44 and the 75th percentile was 6.66, which suggested that 50% of the respondents had a personalitytrait rating between 5.44 and 6.66. The 90th percentile of the personality trait was 7.20, which showed that 90% of the respondents had a personality-trait reading of 7.20 or less. In other words, only 10% of the respondents had a personality-trait reading of above 7.20. The personality traits categorisation revealed that only 20.5% of the respondents achieved a high level of personality traits, followed by 30% of the respondents, who had a medium level of personality traits and 49.5% of the respondents, who had a low level of personality traits.

Table 1
Levels of personality traits

Descriptive Statistics	Overall Personality Traits	Computer Self-Efficacy	Self-Esteem
Mean	6.06	3.29	2.77
Median	6.20	3.30	2.90
Standard Deviation	1.02	0.56	0.46
Minimum	3.40	1.90	1.50
Maximum	8.63	4.93	3.70
Interquartile Range (IQR)	5.23	3.03	2.20
Skewedness	0.19	0.29	-0.66
Kurtosis	0.31	0.56	0.06
Percentile			
25th	5.44	2.94	2.50
50th	6.20	3.30	2.90
75th	6.66	3.56	3.10
90th	7.20	4.00	3.20
	Level of Personalit	ty Traits	
Descriptive Statistics	Overall Personality Traits	Computer Self-Efficacy	Self-Esteem
Low	(1.00-6.10)	(1.00-3.30)	(1.00-2.80)
Frequency	49.5	51	48
%	49.5	51	48
Medium	(6.11-6.70)	(3.34-3.60)	(2.81-3.10)
Frequency	30	27	33
%	30	27	33
High	(6.71-8.50)	(3.61-5.0)	(3.11-3.50)
Frequency	20.5	22	19
%	20.5	22	19
Total: Frequency	100	100	100
0/0	100	100	100

Table 2 shows that the minimum overall attitudinal disposition value was 5.87 and the maximum was 12.74, with a range of 6.87. The mean, median and standard deviation of the overall attitudinal disposition were 9.94, 9.94 and 1.64. The 25<sup>th</sup> percentile of the attitudinal disposition was 8.80 and the 75<sup>th</sup> percentile was 11.25, which suggested that 50% of the respondents had personality traits between 8.80 and 11.25.

The 90<sup>th</sup> percentile of the overall attitudinal disposition was 12.24, which showed that 90% of the respondents had personality traits of 12.24 or less. Thus, only 10% of the respondents achieved a rating above 12.24. The categorisation of the overall attitudinal disposition shows that only 21% of the respondents achieved a high level of attitudinal disposition, 30% had a medium level and the majority (49%) had a low

Table 2
Levels of attitudinal disposition

Descriptive Statistics	Overall Attitudinal Disposition	Technology Acceptance	Job Satisfaction	Organisational Commitment
Mean	9.94	3.45	3.21	3.28
Median	9.94	3.50	3.30	3.14
Standard Deviation	1.64	0.39	0.57	0.68
Minimum	5.87	2.00	1.89	1.98
Maximum	12.74	4.00	4.30	4.44
Interquartile Range (IQR)	6.87	2.00	2.41	2.46
Skewedness	-0.50	-1.16	-0.43	0.09
Kurtosis	0.15	2.20	-0.54	-1.20
Percentile				
25th	8.80	3.30	2.80	2.70
50th	9.94	3.50	3.30	3.14
75th	11.25	3.70	3.60	3.95
90th	12.24	3.99	3.95	4.30
	Levels of At	titudinal Dispositi	on	
Descriptive Statistics	Overall Attitudinal Disposition	Technology Acceptance	Job Satisfaction	Organisationa Commitment
Low	(1.00-9.81)	(1.00-3.40)	(1.00-3.30)	(1-3.11)
Frequency	49	43	53	50
%	49	43	53	50
Medium	(9.82-11.53)	(3.41-3.60)	(3.31 - 3.60)	(3.12-4.33)
Frequency	30	24	24	42
%	30	24	24	42

(3.61-4.00)

33

33

100

100

level of attitudinal disposition. In short, the level of personality traits and attitudinal disposition of the respondents was low on average.

(11.54-14)

21

21

100

100

High

%

Frequency

Total: Frequency %

Skewedness and kurtosis were used to test for normality. As not all of the skewedness and kurtosis values fell between -2 and +2, the data were not normally distributed. Thus, Spearman's Rho was

used to determine the relationships between the five variables, which were personality traits i.e. computer self-efficacy and selfesteem and attitudinal disposition i.e. technology acceptance, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The five hypotheses (H1, H2, H3, H4, H5) based on correlations between the independent variables and the respondents' participation

(3.61-5.00)

23

23

100

100

(4.34-5.00)

8

8

100

100

in e-training were tested. The five hypotheses predicted that personality traits i.e. computer self-efficacy and self-esteem and attitudinal disposition i.e. technology acceptance, job satisfaction and organisational commitment would be positively related to employee participation in e-training. The findings of the study supported the positive relationships between all the predictor variables and employee participation in e-training.

As illustrated in Table 3, hypothesis 1 was supported by the findings ( $r_s$ =0.416, p=0.000), which showed a positive and moderate relationship between computer self-efficacy and employee participation in e-training. Thus, the results suggested that the higher the respondents' level of computer self-efficacy, the higher their level of e-training participation as employees with higher computer self-efficacy were more likely to have greater ability in using the computer during training. Furthermore, the results also supported Hypothesis 2, which showed a positive relationship between employee self-esteem and their level of participation in e-training. From the findings, employee self-esteem (r<sub>s</sub>=0.270,

*p*=0.046) had a positive but low relationship with employee participation in e-training. Overall, it implied that the higher the level of employee self-esteem, the more likely they were to take part in e-training as they had higher confidence in themselves and thus, were more open to change.

Hypothesis 3 was also supported as employee technology acceptance (r<sub>s</sub>=0.306, p=0.019) had a positive but low relationship with employee e-training participation. Therefore, the more positive the perception that employees had towards technology, the more willing they were to participate in e-training as they had a positive perception towards e-training. In addition, the findings were also congruent with Hypothesis 4, which showed that employee job satisfaction  $(r_s=0.244, p=0.023)$  had a positive and weak relationship with their e-training participation. As such, employees who were more satisfied with their job tended to be more inclined to taking part in e-training. This was because employees were more likely to put in more effort for a company with which they were satisfied. Apart from that, the results supported Hypothesis 5,

Table 3
Spearman's rho correlation coefficient of relationships between the independent variables and employee participation in e-training

	Variables	Spearman's Rho Correlation (r <sub>s</sub> )
Y	Employee participation in e-training	
X1	Computer Self-efficacy	0.416**
X2	Self-esteem	0.270**
X3	Technology Acceptance	0.306**
X4	Job Satisfaction	0.244**
X5	Organisational Commitment	0.349**

<sup>\*\*</sup>Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (two-tailed)

which showed that employee organisational commitment ( $r_s$ =0.349, p=0.012) was positively and weakly correlated with their e-training participation. Employees were more supportive towards company training when they were dedicated to the company.

The findings shown in Table 3 support that the five predictor variables i.e. personality traits encompassing computer self-efficacy and self-esteem and attitudinal disposition encompassing technology acceptance, job satisfaction and organisational commitment were indeed the antecedents of employee participation in e-training. Overall, the results supported Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (1943) and the Theory of Reasoned Action (Ajzen, 1980) that explain how human beings learn. Moreover, studies by Rubenson (2010), Meriam (1998), Holton (2003) and Costa (2011) also agreed on the influence of personality traits and attitudinal disposition in affecting an individual's intention to learn. The results indicated that computer self-efficacy (r<sub>s</sub>=0.416, p=0.000) had the highest correlation with employee participation in e-training followed by organisational commitment  $(r_s=0.349, p=0.012)$ , employees' technology acceptance ( $r_s=0.306$ , p=0.019), selfesteem ( $r_s=0.270$ , p=0.046) and finally, job satisfaction ( $r_s$ =0.244, p=0.023). This showed that among the variables, the most influential factor was employees' computer self-efficacy. The higher their confidence in using the computer, the more willing they were to take part in e-training as they were able to make good use of the computer during training.

## **Equation**

$$Y = b_0 + b_1 (X1) + b_2 (X2) + b_3 (X3) + b_4 (X4) + b_5 (X5) + e$$

where,

Y = Employee participation in e-training

 $b_0 = Constant (Intercept)$ 

 $b_1$  = Computer self-efficacy

 $b_2 = Self-Esteem$ 

 $b_3$  = Technology acceptance

 $b_4$  = Job satisfaction

 $b_5$  = Organisational commitment

e = Error

The results showed that only three variables were significant in explaining the variation in employee participation in e-training (Y). The three dominant variables were computer self-efficacy (X1) (t=5.394, p=0.000), organisational commitment (X5) (t=2.551, p=0.012) and technology acceptance (X3) (t=2.379, p=0.019). The other two variables, self-esteem (X2) and job satisfaction (X4), were excluded because their contribution to the variation in employee e-training participation was not as significant as the other three variables (X1, X3, X5). In other words, they did not have a significant impact on employee e-training participation (Y). The findings suggested that the data did not fully support the proposed multiple linear regression model for employee participation in e-training. The findings are reported in Table 4.

Table 4
Estimates of coefficients for the model of employee participation in e-training

Dimension	β (Unstandardised Coefficients)	Std. Error	β (Standardised Coefficients)	t	<i>p</i> -value
Constant	1.639	0.448		-3.660	0.000
Computer Self- Efficacy	0.435	0.81	0.455	5.394	0.000
Organisational Commitment	0.164	0.64	0.212	2.551	0.012
Technology Acceptance	0.267	0.112	0.195	2.379	0.019

Notes: R=0.612; R<sup>2</sup>=0.374; Adj. R<sup>2</sup>=0.355; F=19.156; p=0.000; Durbin-Watson=1.499

The b-values showed that computer self-efficacy (X1) with ( $\beta$ =0.435, t=5.394) had the strongest contribution in explaining employee participation in e-training if the effects of other variables were held constant. The positive  $\beta$  shows the positive effect of employees' computer self-efficacy on their participation in e-training. Thus, for every one unit increase in computer selfefficacy, employees' e-training participation (Y) would increase at 0.435. The second highest contribution was from technology acceptance (X3) with ( $\beta$ =0.267, t=2.379) followed by organisational commitment (X5) with ( $\beta$ =0.164, t=2.551). From the results, it was illustrated that organisational commitment (X5) contributed the least to the variance in employee e-training participation. This suggested that a one-unit increase in organisational commitment (X5) was followed by 0.164 units of increase in employee e-training participation (Y).

To decide whether the factor made a significant contribution to the model, the t-tests were used. In this study, computer self-efficacy (t=5.394, p=0.000), organisational

commitment (t=2.551, p=0.012) and technology acceptance (t=2.379, p=0.019) were all significant antecedents for employee e-training participation. The degree of freedom was calculated using the formulae: N-p-1, (100-5-1=94). The adjusted R-squared value was used to avoid a biased estimation. In this study, the adjusted R-squared value was 0.355, which showed that 35.5% of the variance in employee e-training participation was accounted for by computer self-efficacy (X1), organisational commitment (X5) and technology acceptance (X3).

On the other hand, the ANOVA results showed that the F-value was large (F=19.156) and the corresponding p-value was small (p=0.000) compared to the alpha value ( $\alpha$ =0.05). As the slope for the estimated linear regression line was not equal to zero, it verified that there was a linear relationship between employee e-training participation and computer self-efficacy (X1), organisational commitment (X5) and technology acceptance (X3). The Durbin-Watson value was 1.499, which

fell between the values 1 and 3 and thus, supported the assumption that independent residuals has been met.

## DISCUSSION

In this study, all of the five independent variables were positively correlated with employee participation in e-training. This showed that an increase in the five antecedents would also increase employee participation in e-training. Thus, most of the respondents in this study had a low level of e-training participation as they also had a low level of personality traits and attitudinal disposition. In other words, an employee with a high level of computer self-efficacy, organisational commitment and technology acceptance is more likely to take part in e-training.

Furthermore, the significance of computer self-efficacy and technology acceptance in affecting employee participation in e-training was highly supported by Ajzen (1980), Kripanont (2007), Richardson and Price (2008) and Sardinha and Costa (2011). Apart from that, the findings also supported the Theory of Reasoned Action (Ajzen, 1980) and Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (1943). Based on Maslow's view, self-actualisation can only be achieved when an individual's physiological, safety, love or belonging and self-esteem needs are met. Thus, in order to encourage employees to continue learning to realise their full potential, self-esteem and organisational commitment are the important factors that are needed to motivate them to join e-training. According to Ajzen

(1980), an individual's behavioural intention depends on his attitudes about behaviour and subjective norms. Thus, an employee's intention to join e-training is influenced by his/her own attitude towards e-training and also the people around him/her. In other words, if employees have a positive attitude towards e-training and their work, they will be more likely to join e-training, which is in line with the findings of this study.

The findings of the study also suggested that employees with low confidence in using the computer had a higher tendency of showing low participation in e-training too because they did not think using the computer in training could help them to learn better. As a result, they were not interested in joining e-training, which uses the computer and the Internet as the teaching medium. Moreover, low self-esteem leads to low e-training participation as employees have a negative attitude towards themselves. Pessimistic thinking causes higher resistance to change. As such, employees with low self-esteem do not like to take part in e-training. Moreover, employees who are dissatisfied and not committed to their job have lower e-training participation as they do not want to spend more time and effort on a company to which they do not have a sense of belonging.

In addition, employees with low technology acceptance have low e-training participation as they have a negative perception about the use of the computer in e-training. Furthermore, the findings are in line with Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs. An employee can only achieve selfactualisation, which is the highest level of need, when his or her lower levels of need such as commitment, care, love and self-esteem are fulfilled. As such, to motivate an employee to fulfil his or her potential, the company should first take into consideration the employees' personality traits and attitudinal disposition. The company should strive to increase employees' computer self-efficacy (X1), organisational commitment (X5) and technology acceptance (X3) in order to motivate them to join e-training.

Moreover, as the company provides business security systems that are strongly technology-based, workers face high demand to keep their skills and knowledge updated according to current developments in science and technology. This industry is a rapidly growing one that requires employees to be continuously learning. Therefore, increasing employee e-training participation is crucial for the company to stay current.

### **CONCLUSION**

In conclusion, employee participation in e-training is a function of personality traits and attitudinal disposition. Employees' computer self-efficacy plays a major role in their e-training participation. Besides enriching the understanding of e-training, the study also promoted and improved e-training in the company by helping the human resource department to pinpoint the factors that contribute to e-training participation. All in all, the organisation should take into account the employees' affective domain when trying to encourage

them to join e-training. E-training can only be successful when both the organisation and the employees are willing to cooperate and pitch in effort.

## **Implications for Theory and Practice**

This study shed light on how organisations can avoid the flaws of e-training and bring the best out of employees through e-training. The study helped the organisation to identify the possible reasons behind employees' low motivation to participate in e-training. The factors that contributed greatly to e-training participation were computer self-efficacy, technology acceptance and organisational commitment. Besides enriching the understanding of e-training, the study also promoted and improved e-training in the company.

Only when employees are motivated to join e-training, can organisations enhance employees' job performance through e-training. The main purpose of training is to improve employees' knowledge, skills and attitude but the findings have shown that job satisfaction and motivation have a positive effect on training effectiveness. Thus, organisations need to encourage and motivate employees to take part in e-training and not force them to do so. The findings shown in Table 1 and Table 2 indicate that the majority of the respondents had a low level of personality traits (49.5%) and attitudinal disposition (49%). Thus, it was not surprising that the respondents (81%) had a low level of participation in e-training. The results of the study should now be able to help the organisation determine the areas they need to focus on to increase employee e-training participation.

Top management need to pay closer attention to the psychological needs and attachment of employees. Thus, the human resource department, apart from only providing training, can also organise activities such as gathering, mentoring and sharing sessions to help inculcate a positive and supportive working environment within the organisation. Other than that, employees need to be given a chance to voice their opinion through a feedback form or suggestion box. A different idea must not be taken negatively but be considered as a way of improvement for the company. Increasing employee loyalty and commitment towards the company can raise employee participation in e-training.

Thus, the company ought to increase employees' level of attitude and personality variables. For example, the responses from the questionnaires showed that most of the respondents were not satisfied with their salary. Thus, to increase employee job satisfaction, the company could review their salary scheme. Furthermore, as it was identified in the study that computer self-efficacy had the strongest influence on e-training participation, the trainers of the organisation need to give closer guidance to employees in helping them pick up computer skills with ease. In addition, the ISSTAL model, the Theory of Reasoned Action (Ajzen, 1980) and the Theory of Planned Behaviour (Ajzen, 1996) explain the phenomenon of employee e-training participation. Based on these theories, employees' intention to join e-training is affected by their own personality, attitude, the people around them and their social background as depicted in the Equation of the Theory of Reasoned Action:

Behavioural Intention = Attitude + Subjective norms

However, the primary factors that influence an employee's e-training participation are intrinsic and not external because according to these theories, external factors can only indirectly affect one's behaviour by influencing an individual's attitude. In brief, the findings of the study provided empirical data for the ISSTAL Model (Cookson, 1986), Theory of Reasoned Action (Ajzen, 1980) and Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (1943). The results were in line with the theories and thus, supported the importance of personality and attitude in influencing employee e-training participation. Through this research, it is hoped that human resource practitioners can pay attention to employees' affective domain to increase e-training participation. Moreover, the study has also provided updated findings from Malaysia, which is an Eastern country with a different culture from that of the West. The results showed that the ISSTAL Model is applicable to Eastern countries in explaining employee e-training participation.

## Limitations and future research

As the samples of the study were drawn from a private company only, it is not suitable to generalise the findings to the public sector or other private companies as it is a case study based on one selected private company only. Thus, it is recommended that future studies should employ public sector samples and do a comparative study to examine differences in terms of antecedents of e-training participation. In addition, the scope of the study is limited to the selected independent variables only. Thus, it is highly recommended that future studies should include more relevant variables to yield a clearer picture of the phenomenon. Moreover, as this study is quantitative research work, the findings are only surface-level. To have a more thorough understanding of the predictors of employee e-training participation, it is recommended that future research on this area be qualitative.

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# Bhabha's Parody of the Master-Slave Relationship in J. M. Coetzee's *Foe*: Friday's Resistance and Susan's Chicanery

## Alireza Farahbakhsh and Mohammad Chohan

English Department, Faculty of Humanities, University of Guilan, Rasht, 41625 Gilan, Iran

#### **ABSTRACT**

The present paper studies John Maxwell Coetzee's *Foe* (1986) from Homi K. Bhabha's standpoint which parodies the conventional definition of master and slave. Unlike the conventional view that the slave is a passive being under the ultimate dominion of his/her master, Bhabha, by parodying the Master-Slave relationship through his concept of 'ambivalence', reveals that in particular moments the slave shows resistance and, thus, is an active agent. In Coetzee's novel, Friday—Cruso's and later Susan's slave—through various forms of resistance, like silence and disobedience, not only abrogates all of her attempts to dominate him, but also obliges her to change her strategy of dealing with him. He, although a slave, not only refuses to communicate in any way with Susan, but also refuses to obey her commands frustrating her in every possible way. In the end, the paper concludes that the colonised—in the novel represented by Friday—is not a passive figure as pictured in various colonial sources; instead, he/she is an active figure and has a significant role in shaping the colonizer's strategy of dealing with him/her.

Keywords: Ambivalence, cultural studies, stereotype, master-slave relationship, parody, Resistance, Subaltern

## INTRODUCTION

The present research answers the following question: *How does Coetzee use* 

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E-mail addresses: farahbakhsh2000@yahoo.com (Alireza Farahbakhsh), mhmd\_chohan@yahoo.com (Mohammad Chohan) \* Corresponding author 'ambivalence' to parody the master-slave relationship? The research study's Coetzee's novel from Bhabha's point of view and seeks to unveil the "hybrid" situation in the novel and the "ambivalent" and parodied master-slave relationship between Susan and Friday. It will show Susan's incompetence and Friday's resistance which, for short moments, inverts the master and slave relationship thereby undermining the essentialist view of thinkers like Renan

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and Hegel. The paper begins with a brief explanation of the concept of parody and its relationship to ambivalence. This is followed by a brief account of Hegel's master-slave dialectic, before examining the master-slave relationship in Foe through Bhabha's parodic concept of 'ambivalence'.

Colonial ideology divides humanity into two essential groups namely masters and slaves. Focusing on this essentialist colonial idea, the contemporary postcolonial critic Homi K. Bhabha, refutes this master-slave model with his concepts of 'ambivalence,' 'hybridity,' and 'resistance.' These concepts become tools for parodying the master-slave relationship. In fact, "... in Homi Bhabha's formulations...the one who engages in mimicry or parody is in the oppressed position and is trying to subvert the dominant discourse" (Tobin, 1999, p. 90) Unlike Renan, Hegel and other essentialists, where human beings are presented as having either master-like essence or slavelike essence, Bhabha suggests "there are moments when the colonized were able to resist the dominance exercised over them" revealing "the active agency of the colonized" (Huddart, 2006, p. 1). He puts forward the question "Must we always polarize in order to polemicize?" (Bhabha, 1994, p. 19). Thus, for Bhabha, the slave is not a permanently passive, dominated, and compliant figure; on the contrary, he is "an active agent" who limits the authority of his master and sometimes forces him to change his strategy and approach.

John Maxwell Coetzee's *Foe* (1986) present's a scenario where the essentialist

master-slave relationship seems to be distorted and undermined. Thus, in the novel, we see how Friday, a black slave, resists his master, Susan Barton, and obliges her to change her strategy to control him, an act which can be seen as a moment of defeat and retreat of the colonizer.

## **DISCUSSION**

The present section begins with the definition of parody and ambivalence and their literary functions before elaborating Bhabha's use of these concepts. There is also a short description of Hegel's master-slave dialectic following which post-colonial concepts used by Bhabha is applied to Coetzee's *Foe* to display he (Coetzee) undermines the post-colonial master or slave essentialist view of humanity.

The critic, Dwight Macdonald mentions that "Parody is making a new wine that tastes like the old but has a slightly lethal effect" (Macdonald, 1960, p. 559). Implied in this definition is the point that a parody "imitates" and "distorts" a previously existing work or concept and as such it has two functions: Firstly, it undermines the authority of the work which it imitates and secondly, it presents a new discourse and a new dimension of the previous work or concept. Abrams (1999) says that "a parody imitates the serious manner and characteristic features of a particular literary work, or the distinctive style of a particular author, or a typical stylistic and other features of a serious literary genre, and deflates the original by applying the imitation to a lowly or comically inappropriate subject"

(p. 26). Thus, "deflation" of a discourse becomes the main function of parody and the result of this "deflation" is the emergence of a new discourse which challenges its authoritative predecessor. In the following pages, "destruction and reconstruction are two simultaneous aspects of parody" (Chohan, 2013, p. 120).

Of the many writers who have used parody to bring forward a new discourse is Bhabha's theory that "the authority of dominant nations and ideas is never as complete as it seems, because it is always marked by anxiety, something that enables the dominated to fight" (Huddart, 2006, p. 1). That is, the colonizer always has a definition for the colonized or the slave and strives to bring the colonized as close as possible to that definition. However, there is never a one to one transparent relationship between that definition of the slave and the real world slave; concerning the definition of the slave, the colonized is "almost the same, but not quite" (Bhabha, 1994, p. 86). In other words, there are "moments in which the colonizer was less powerful than was apparent, moments when the colonized were able to resist the dominance exercised over them" (p. 86). It is in these moments that the situation seems to be covered with a mist of 'ambivalence'—Bhabha's key term. He describes ambivalence as follows:

The 'true' is always marked and informed by the ambivalence of the process of emergence itself, the productivity of meanings that construct counter-knowledges in medias res, in the very act

of agonism, within the terms of negotiation (rather than a negation). (p. 22).

Through 'ambivalence' Bhabha parody's the Hegelian master-slave relationship which is based on the essentialist belief that "Man is never simply man. He is always, necessarily, and essentially, either Master or Slave" (Hegel, 1807/2009, p. 8).

George W. F. Hegel's polarized masterslave model can easily be traced to "that ahistorical nineteenth-century polarity of Orient and Occident which, in the name of progress, unleashed the exclusionary imperialist ideologies of self and other" (Bhabha, 1994, p. 19). Hegel believes that "Man is Self-consciousness" and it is this quality that makes him "essentially different from animals" (Kojève, 1980, p. 3). In his view, "man becomes conscious of himself at the moment when—for the 'first' time—he says 'I" (p. 3). Thus, being conscious of objects implies an awareness of the self as a subject facing an object. However, it also means that a subject is an object in the eyes of another subject. Consequently, the awareness of another's awareness of oneself is what we call self-consciousness. That is, when we see ourselves through the eyes of another, we gain self-awareness. When this happens, each subject attempts to make the other recognize his rights and reality. This attempt leads to "a fight to death for 'recognition'" (p. 7). It is only through "securing the voluntary recognition of his self-determination by another selfdetermining being" (Buchwalter, 2012, p.

133) that the subjects gain human value. But noteworthy is the fact that if all the human beings were to follow this process, no human being would survive, for each would strive to death for the recognition of his dignity by the other self-consciousness. Subsequently, no recognition can be achieved for one cannot expect to be recognized by a corpse. Thus, the survival of the other party is vital for any recognition to take place. Therefore, what happens is that "One of the parties to the struggle begins to realize that life, which he was hitherto willing to risk for recognition, is just as 'essential' or important to him as recognition. Death would mean the absolute end of all possibilities" (Williams, 1997, p. 61). As a result, he gives up his desire to be recognized in order to preserve his existence. In this situation, he "may well be recognized as a person; but he has not attained the truth of this recognition as an independent self-consciousness" (Hegel, 1807/2009, p. 114). Hereby, the victor spares his life and usurps his autonomy. The victor becomes the Master while the complacent becomes the Slave. These two "exist as two opposed shapes of consciousness; one is the independent consciousness whose essential nature is to be for itself, the other is the dependent consciousness whose essential nature is simply to live or to be for another" (p. 115). In this way, Hegel formulates his essentialist definition of humanity—"Man is never simply man. He is always, necessarily, and essentially, either Master or Slave" (Kojève, 1980, p.8).

This Hegelian model accords with Bhabha's 'stereotype.' Stereotyping is the

strategy that the colonizer uses to define, describe and determine the 'other.' That is, the colonizer is dependent on the concept of 'fixity' for constructing and defining the inferiority of the 'other.' According to Huddart (2006), "through racist jokes, cinematic images, and other forms of representation, the colonizer circulates stereotypes about the laziness or stupidity of the colonized population. These stereotypes seem to be a stable if false foundation upon which colonialism bases its power..." (p. 24). The disastrous effects of such stereotyping can be noticed in the words of Chicago sociologist, W. I. Thomas: "If men define situations as real, they are real in their consequences" (1928, p. 527). Therefore, if people accept something as true, then they are likely to build their beliefs on this foundation and act according to it. However, Bhabha unmasks this veiled aspect of the stereotype by expressing the fact that:

The stereotype is not a simplification because it is a false representation of a given reality. It is a simplification because it is an arrested, fixated form of representation that, in denying the play of difference... constitutes a problem for the representation of the subject in significations of psychic and social relations. (1994, p. 75)

This "fixity," according to Bhabha, "is a paradoxical mode of representation: it connotes rigidity and an unchanging order as well as disorder, degeneracy and

daemonic repetition" (p.66). In accordance with Bhabha's words, Patrick Brantlinger says that "stereotypes always differ from themselves: they are always more 'ambivalent' and contradictory than they seem. Hence, they are always relational and plural rather than singular" (2011, p. 13). 'Ambivalence' is the essential quality of the 'stereotype.' Bhabha explains this ambivalence in terms of Lacanian "mirror stage": "Like the mirror phase 'the fullness' of the stereotype—its image as identity—is always threatened by 'lack'" (1994, p. 77). This "lack" exists because "colonial discourse is then a complex articulation of...the forms of narcissistic and aggressive identification" (p. 77) in that the colonizer expresses his dominant status aggressively to the colonized but is always anxious regarding his own identity because he knows that his identity is tied to the identity of the colonized. Consequently, due to his dependence on the colonized, his previously assumed stable identity turns into a shaky and unstable identity. This can be viewed as a crack in the Hegelian Master-Slave model. Based on this view, neither the colonizer is an absolute master, nor is the colonized an absolute slave. As a result, in certain circumstances, the colonizer might lose his dominance or the slave might gain the ability to show resistance.

J. M. Coetzee's novel, *Foe* (1986), displays a similar parodic model of the master-slave relationship. The novel is woven around Daniel Defoe's *Robinson Crusoe* (1719), but with numerous changes which makes the novel a parody of the

master-slave relationship. It is written from the perspective of Susan Barton, a castaway who drifts in a boat to Cruso's island where she encounters both Cruso and Friday. Susan steps on the island with the same colonial mentality which dominated contemporary Europe and the Americas. The novel opens with a contrast made by Susan: She describes herself as "a flower of the sea, like an anemone, like a jellyfish of the kind you see in the waters of Brazil", but pictures Friday as "A dark shadow," and "a Negro with a head of fuzzy wool" (Coetzee, 1986, p. 5). Further, she notices that "At his side he had a spear" and concludes that she has "come to an island of cannibals" (p.6). Friday takes her to Cruso. On meeting Cruso, and noticing that he is "a European" with "green" eyes, the first thing that strikes her mind is that he must be a "mutineer, set ashore by a merciful captain, with one of the Negroes of the island, whom he has made his servant" (p.8). Being raised in a colonial culture, her mind has accepted the colonial ideology and she sees the Negro only as a "cannibal" or a "servant"—the typical colonial stereotype. For instance, "U. B. Philips 'believed that the African Negroes were inferior in intelligence to whites; thus, they were fit only for work on southern plantation" (as cited in Rothstein, 1995, p. 141). Or "Darwin's cousin Sir Francis Galton, founder of the 'science' of eugenics, believed that 'the average intellectual standard of the negro race is some two grades below our own'. A 'very large' number of black people were 'halfwitted' (Fryer, 1984, p. 180). Such pseudoscientific views backed colonial ideology upon which Americans and Europeans built their worldview. Like other "whites" of her time, Susan also displays similar traits; for example the morning of the day after her arrival on the island, when she woke up in her "bed" before the stove which Friday was trying to "blow...into life," she said that she "was ashamed that he should see me abed, but then I reminded myself of how free the ladies of Bahia were before their servants, and so felt better" (Coetzee, 1986, p. 14).

As the plot unfolds, Susan exposes her colonial attitude for her, Friday was a "creature" (Coetzee, 1986, p. 24) like other animals. His value did not go beyond that of an animal. Thus, she says, "My first thought was that Friday was like a dog that heeds but one master" (p. 21). Or in other instances, she compares Friday to a "cat" (p. 27) and a "horse" (p. 42). This also displays the other perspective through which coloureds are presented in colonial ideology:

Two types of natives were tolerated by colonialism. First, there were *mechanical men*, mimic men, aides to whites, natives who were reduced to a more instrumentality or appendage of whites, and thereby exhibited little creativity and initiative. Second, there were the natives who were dehumanized to the level of *tamed animals*, and were thereby expected to be devoid of reason. (Hall, 1977, p. 198)

Thus, for Susun, Friday lacks the value and personality that every human being possesses. Unlike Cruso, who is a white man and according to her has a soul, the blacks lack essence and are like other non-human animates. And even if colonial mentality considers them as human beings, it views them as savage and uncivilized, and in need of "white" enlightenment. In her book, The Post-colonial Critic (1990), Gayatri Spivak asserts this point: "when the colonizers come to a world, they encounter it as uninscribed earth upon which they write their inscriptions" (p. 129). On one occasion, Susan asks Cruso why he hadn't taught Friday more words and helped him to master English in order to "civilize" him: "Yet would it not have lightened your solitude had Friday been master of English?...you might have brought home to him some of the blessings of civilization and made him a better man" (Coetzee, 1986, p. 22). Thus, Susan sees Friday as a being with a lesser value than herself and Cruso.

Based on these colonialist presumptions, Susan tries to play the role of a master towards Friday, to only face disappointment when she encounters resistance on his part; and which he displays through disobedience and negligence. Through silent, non-violent disobedience, Friday tries to hinder Susan's attempts to dominate and control his soul and identity. Disobedience gives him the ability to avoid a passive existence making him a dynamic element in the master-slave relationship. When he played "over and over again on his little reed flute a tune of six

notes, always the same," Susan felt annoyed and "one day [she] marched over and dashed the flute from his hands" (Coetzee, 1986, p.27-8). However, a few days later, "Friday took out his flute and began to play his damnable tune," frustrating Susan to the extent that she "believed [herself] in a madhouse" (p.28). Later, Susan and Friday are rescued from the island and taken to England. In England, at Foe's house, Friday discovers Foe's robes. Wearing them, he starts "dancing" (p. 92) and when Susan attempts to stop him, she fails: "In the grip of dancing he is not himself...I call his name and am ignored, I put out a hand and am brushed aside" (p. 92). Friday ignores her, an act which can be seen as an act of defiance. Further, when Susan decides to take the robes away from him and secretly enters his room, she notices that he [is] awake, his hands already gripping the robe, which was spread over the bed, as though he read [her] thoughts" (p. 92). The text shows that Friday is not a very complacent slave; on the contrary, he is a slave who shows resistance and limits his master's dominion forcing her, in some instances, to "retreat" making the conventional definition of master and slave ambivalent (p. 92). As such, he blurs the traditionally accepted border marking the difference between master and slave.

Another, more subtle kind of resistance which Friday shows is "silence." Friday "has no tongue," because, Cruso says that "the slavers" cut it out (Coetzee, 1986, p. 23). Although Friday's silence is imposed on him, there are some instances in the

text which suggest that his silence can be interpreted as a resistance to communication. Susan was aware that Friday was very fond of playing his reed flute. After arriving in England and settling in Foe's house, one day it occurred to her that "if there were any language accessible to Friday, it would be the language of music" (p. 96). This can be seen when Friday started to play his flute and Susan also did likewise, imitating the tune, but after a while she "could not restrain [herself] from varying the tune" and "was sure Friday would follow her" (p. 97). However, Friday paid no heed to her and "persisted in the old tune," thus, refusing to follow her and, as a result, to communicate with her (p. 97). His persistence to play his own tune, rather than that of Susan's can be interpreted as his desire to have and follow his own culture and identity, rather than complying with that of Susan's. In another attempt to communicate with Friday, Susan decides to teach him to write, giving him a slate and a chalk which to write words like "house" and "ship," he chooses to write recurring alphabets like "h-s-h-s" (p. 146). He writes the letters in an order that suggests he did not wish to learn. In another instance, when Susan and Foe were talking, Susan notices that Friday had the slate in his hands and "was filling it with a design of, as it seemed, leaves and flowers" (p. 147). However, coming closer, she noticed that they "were eyes, open eyes, each set upon a human foot" (p. 147). When she tried to snatch the slate away from him in order to show it to Foe, "Friday put three fingers into his mouth and wet them with spittle and rubbed the slate clean" (p. 147). Such acts show that Friday can, but deliberately refuses to communicate. Friday's silence is so impressive and forceful that Susan feels completely helpless against it:

...a silence that rose up the stairway like smoke....Before long I could not breathe, I would feel I was stifling in my bed. My lungs, my heart, my head were full of black smoke. I had to spring up and open the curtains and put my head outside and breathe fresh air.... (p. 118)

In her book, *Old Myths-Modern Empires* (2005), Michela Canepari-Labib asserts that "Friday's rejection of the master's language comes to represent the silence intrinsic to the concept of canon" and also "as a strategy of opposition and a resistance of his attempted obliteration by the colonizers" (p.241).

It is possible to read Friday's silence as representing his resistance towards Susan's attempt to write her book that will incorporate Friday's past. If Friday is seen as representing the colonized, then Susan's attempt to unveil and write Friday's story can be seen as the colonizer's attempt to define, delineate, and write the colonized society's history from the colonizer's perspective. As pointed out above, the Orientalist and the colonial historian has always tried to define and describe the non-western Others in a particular way in order "to universalize their meaning within its own cultural and

academic discourse" and "having opened up the chasm of cultural difference, a mediator or metaphor of otherness", he (the colonial historian) creates a space in which "The Other is cited, quoted, framed, illuminated, encased in the shot/reverse-shot strategy of a serial enlightenment" making "Narrative and the cultural politics of difference" a "closed circle of interpretation" (Bhabha, 1994, p.40). Therefore, the history of the Other written by the colonial historian is actually a "strategy of containment where the Other text is forever the exegetical horizon of difference, never the active agent of articulation" (p.40). The same strategy is adopted by Susan when she views Friday as a mere savage in need of guidance towards "salvation" as defined by the West. In the novel, she tries to teach Friday English and make him use a spoon. She tries to inject her European culture into Friday's identity in order to alter his identity for her own benefit. Therefore, just as the colonizer views the colony as a "settling place which was unsettled" Susan views Friday as "an uninscribed earth upon which" she can "write [her] inscriptions" (Spivak, 1990, p.129). Thus, her delineation of Friday's past cannot be expected to be fair and unprejudiced. Friday's reluctance to cooperate with Susan and his resistance shows that he "refuses to be 'saved' by Susan's narrative and to be translated into mere (English) linguistic signs" (Canepari-Labib, 2005, p. 241). He refuses to be a picture portrayed by Susan. Silence gives Friday the ability to escape slavery and

the dominance of his master. It even gives him the power to make his master retreat questioning her authority as master.

Her authority being challenged by Friday, Susan, who is his master and represents the colonizer, is compelled to retreat and change her strategy in dealing with him. She becomes aware that if she intends to preserve her status as Friday's master and retain her dominance and control over him, she has to alter her game plan. As such, she pretends to be Friday's wellwisher who intends to set him free, but does not do so because of her concern for him. For instance, when the ship—which "rescued" Susan, Cruso, and Friday from the island—anchored on the beach, Susan asks the sailors to catch Friday and bring him on board for he did not wish to leave the island. When the crew catch Friday and bring him on board, Susan, turning to Friday, says that "They will bring us back to England, which is your master's home, and there you will be free" (Coetzee, 1986, p. 41). But when in England, she tries to keep him as her slave, writing to Foe that she "is turning Friday into a laundryman" because she thinks "idleness will destroy him" (again the same well-wisher's gesture) (p. 56). Later, she once more repeats her promise of setting Friday free, but never keeps her promise: "You will have money with which to buy your way to Africa or Brazil, as the desire moves you..." (p. 58). Or elsewhere, she notices Friday's "toes curl on the floorboards or the cobblestones" and hints "that he craves the softness of the earth under his feet" (p. 59). She writes to Foe: "How I wish there were a garden I could take him to!" as if she felt pity for him (p. 59). However, she continues: "Could he and I not visit your garden in Stoke Newington?...'Spade, Friday!' I should whisper, offering the spade to his hand; and then: 'Dig!'—which is a word master taught him—'Turn over the soil, pile up the weeds for burning" (p. 59).

Further, she tries to teach him English for she is the only link between Friday and his environment (the British society). Language becomes a means of "civilizing" Friday and gaining dominance and control over him; it is the means through which she can shape his thoughts which, previously, were not dominated by any (Western) culture. She mentions that "Watch and Do: those are my two principal words for Friday, and with them I accomplish much" (Coetzee, 1986, p. 59). She starts teaching him English: "While he works I teach him the names of things. I hold up a spoon and say 'Spoon, Friday!' and hold out my hand to receive the spoon; hoping thus that in time the word Spoon will echo in his mind" (p. 59). Or "Broom, Friday!' I say, and make motions of sweeping, and press the broom into his hand" (p. 59). Thus, she does not intend to teach him in order to make him capable of living in the British society; instead, she is teaching him the daily chores a slave must perform. She reads him stories, although she "expect[s] no sign that he has understood" with the "hope that if I make the air around him thick with words, memories will be reborn in him" (p. 59). However,

all of Susan's attempts are in vain. Unable to break Friday's resistance, enter his inner world, and interpret his "black" soul, Susan has no choice but to accept that "he is himself, Friday is Friday" (p. 122). As a result, it is through silence that Friday resists being colonized and defeats the colonizing system which intends to chain him with its culture.

#### **CONCLUSION**

The present research shows how John Maxwell Coetzee's novel, Foe (1986), can be viewed as a parody of the colonial Master-Slave relationship. Susan's colonialist mentality views non-Europeans, especially blacks, as inferior beings. Based on this mentality, she tries to assume the role of a master against Friday and tries to dominate him. However, Friday by being silent and reserved and by paying no heed to Susan's commands, proves that he cannot be dominated. It can be concluded that Friday, by resisting and disobeying Susan, creates an atmosphere of 'ambivalence' in which the conventional definitions of master and slave are lost and thus, parodied. Through disobedience on the one hand, and silence on the other, he chains Susan abrogating all her attempts to dominate and control his self. In the novel, Coetzee displays that although the colonizer controls the freedom of the colonized, there are moments in which the colonized resists the colonizer and at times, even makes him retreat. Thus, Friday (the slave) is not a permanently passive, dominated, and compliant figure;

on the contrary, he is "an active agent" who limits the authority of his master and sometimes forces her to change her strategy and approach towards him.

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## Confirmatory Factor Analysis of the Malay Version of the Recreational Exercise Motivation Measure

Kueh, Y. C.1\*, Kuan, G.2, Morris, T.3, and Naing, N. N.1

<sup>1</sup>Unit of Biostatistics and Research Methodology, School of Medical Sciences, Universiti Sains Malaysia, Kubang Kerian, Kelantan, Malaysia.

<sup>2</sup>Exercise and Sports Science, School of Health Sciences, Universiti Sains Malaysia, Kubang Kerian, Kelantan, Malaysia

<sup>3</sup>Institute of Sport, Exercise and Active Living, College of Sport and Exercise Science, Victoria University, Melbourne, Victoria, Australia

#### **ABSTRACT**

The purpose of the present study was to validate the Malay language version of the Recreational Exercise Motivation Measure (REMM-M) using a confirmatory approach. A total of 506 (females=373, males=133) university students with a mean age of 20 (*SD*=1.7) years old, participate in this study. Participants completed the REMM-M to measure their motives for doing recreational exercise. The REMM-M consisted of eight subscales, with 73 items measuring motives of respondents related to recreational exercise. The confirmatory factor analysis was tested on the REMM-M using the Mplus 7.3 software. We developed eight hypothesised measurement models of REMM-M based on each subscale. Therefore, there were eight measurement models with eight latent variables and the number of observed variables for each measurement model ranged from seven to 11. All the eight hypothesised measurement models were found not in good fit based on several fit indices. Therefore, several modifications were made iteratively, with theoretical support, to improve the measurement models. These modifications included deleting 22 low-loading items (< 0.50). The final measurement models were combined as one complete measurement model of REMM-M and the CFA results indicated fit based on several fit

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E-mail addresses: yckueh@usm.my (Kueh, Y. C.), garry@usm.my (Kuan, G.), Tony.Morris@usm.my (Morris, T), nyi@usm.my (Naing, N. N.) \* Corresponding author indices (SRMR=0.064 and RMSEA=0.049 (90% CI: 0.046 to 0.051), Clfit=0.832). The motive constructs' reliability of the final measurement model were acceptable, ranging from 0.683 to 0.867. The final measurement model comprised 51 items and eight subscales. Overall, 70% of the items were retained from the original English version of REMM.

*Keywords:* Confirmatory factor analysis, construct validity, exercise, motivation, recreational

#### INTRODUCTION

Physical activity is well known as a behaviour that can provide benefit across a wide range of health outcomes. Physical activity has been defined as "any bodily movement produced by the contraction of skeletal muscle that increases energy expenditure above a basal level" (US Department of Health and Human Services, 2008). Physical activity can be in many forms in our daily life, such as doing household activities, labour activities in the workplace that require some physical movement or recreational physical activity (Caspersen, Powell, & Christenson, 1985). Exercise is a subset of physical activity that is planned and structured and has a repetitive element with the aim of improving or maintaining an individual's physical ability (Caspersen et al., 1985). Recreational physical activity can consist of exercise done within leisure time; the activities chosen are driven by satisfaction and pleasure, and are relatively unorganised activities that require physical exertion (Kraus, 1978; Smith & Theberge, 1987). Rogers (2000) described recreational exercise as a participation in any physical activity during leisure time that does not involve formal competition or monetary payment. Recreational exercises can include common physical activities, such as swimming, running, walking, jogging, cycling and aerobics, when they are performed informally. Therefore, most

people participate in a variety of forms of recreational exercise. Researchers have reported that people who participated in physical activity regularly were more likely to maintain a higher level of mental health, and that such activities reduced the risk of chronic disease, such as heart disease, stroke and type 2 diabetes (Hamer, Stamatakis, & Steptoe, 2009; Warburton, Nicol, & Bredin, 2006).

Motivation plays an important role in participation in physical activities. It is one of the essential components in the psychological process of individuals in deciding their participation in physical activities. Rogers and Morris (2003) created an instrument that measures individual's motives for participation in recreational exercise based on a qualitative study. Rogers, Morris and Moore (2008) interviewed recreational exercisers. Through inductive content analysis of the verbatim interview content they identified 13 main themes in terms of motives for participation in exercise. Based on their findings, Rogers et al. developed an instrument named the Recreational Exercise Motivation Measure (REMM), which included 73 items. The REMM was validated in 750 recreational exercisers using exploratory factor analysis (Rogers et al., 2008). The results revealed that the REMM had an eight-factor structure. The factors were identified as mastery, enjoyment, psychological condition, physical condition, appearance, others' expectations, affiliation and competition/ ego. A second-order factor analysis was

conducted on the factor loadings for the eight factors because there were noteworthy correlations between various pairs of factors. In this process Rogers et al. identified two broad constructs into which the eight factors were classified. The motives of mastery and enjoyment were grouped into an intrinsic motivation dimension, whereas the other six motives were grouped into an extrinsic motives second-order factor. Thus, the instrument framework produced by Rogers et al. fit into the framework of self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 1991, 2000), which is commonly employed by researchers in investigating the motivation of people for participation in physical activity. Based on the EFA results. the REMM covered a breadth of motives for participation in physical activity that were not covered by many other physical activity motivation scales, such as the Motivation for Physical Activity Measure - Revised (MPAM-R; Ryan, Frederick, Lepes, Rubio, & Sheldon, 1997) or the Participation Motivation Questionnaire (PMQ; Gill, Gross, & Huddleston, 1983).

Currently, there is no published instrument that measures the motives for participation in recreational exercise in the Malay language. It is important to understand the motives that influence the Malaysian community to participate in recreational exercise. Therefore, the aim of this study was to translate the REMM into the Malay language and to examine its reliability and validity using confirmatory factor analysis.

## **METHODOLOGY**

## **Participants**

A total of 506 university undergraduate students in Universiti Sains Malaysia participated in this study. The majority were female students (73.7%), with a smaller proportion of male students (26.3%). The mean age of the participants was 20 years (SD=1.7). The participants consisted of 76.3% Malay, 19.0% Chinese and 4.7% other ethnic background. All the participants were undergraduate students enrolled in health-related degrees. The participants reported that they were involved in one or two sport activities, including jogging, badminton, netball, taekwondo and tennis. Most of the participants reported exercise twice a week (28.3%) followed by once a week (27.1%) and three times a week (23.3%). Only a minority of the participants (4.5%) reported that they exercised seven times a week.

## Measures

Demographic and recreational exercise activity questions were administered that included age, gender, ethnicity, exercise and recreational activities, and the hours per week of pursuing the activities.

Recreational Exercise Motivation Measure – Malay language (REMM-M) is the translated version of REMM (Rogers & Morris, 2003), consisting of 73 items that measure motives for participation in recreational exercise. There are eight subscales or factors, namely mastery, enjoyment, psychological condition, physical condition, appearance, others' expectations, affiliation and competition/ ego, each of which represents a motive for participation. Each item is measured on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). Thus, higher scores reflect that participants rate that as a stronger motive for participating in recreational exercise.

The internal consistency (Cronbach's Alpha) for each subcale in the original REMM was reported to be high in validation research, with 0.88 for mastery, 0.88 for enjoyment, 0.85 for psychological condition, 0.80 for physical condition, 0.83 for appearance, 0.77 for others' expectation, 0.90 for affiliation and 0.92 for competition/ego. The REMM has been validated among 750 recreational exercisers in Australia and found to be suitable for measuring motives for participation in recreational exercise among that community sample (Rogers & Morris, 2003; RoyChowdhury, 2012).

#### **Procedure**

Prior to data collection, approval was obtained from the institution's Human Research Ethics Committee. Participants were provided with the research information sheet prior to commencing the study. Implied consent was obtained when the participants volunteered to complete and return the REMM-M questionnaire to the researchers.

Because the main language spoken among students in Malaysia is Malay, we translated the REMM from the original English version to Malay and named this version the REMM-M. The second author forward-translated the English version into Malay language and then another local Malay who was bilingual back-translated the Malay version to English. The forward and backward translation process was based on the principle of retaining meaning, rather than on literal word-to-word translation. Then, any deviations between the two translated versions were noted and the preliminary version of REMM-M was constructed. We invited five panel members with expertise in the areas of sport sciences, sport psychology and psychometrics to review the content of the preliminary REMM-M version to make sure that the questions were culturally appropriate to the Malaysian population. Then, the final version of REMM-M was pre-tested among 10 undergraduate students for comprehension and understanding.

We employed a cross-sectional study design in this study. First, participants read the information statement, then they were further briefed by the researchers about the purpose of the study and they were allowed to ask the researchers any relevant questions, which the researchers answered. Participants' who volunteered to participate in the study completed the demographic and physical activity survey and the REMM-M and returned it to the researcher. We distributed a total of 600 questionnaires to the students; 545 were returned to the researcher, with a response rate of 90.8%. However, after excluding 39 questionnaires with incomplete answers, there were only 506 usable questionnaires with complete answers for further data analysis.

## **Data Analysis**

Data were entered and screened using SPSS 22. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted using Mplus 7.3. Data were checked for missing data, outliers and multivariate normality prior to the CFA. If the data are severely nonnormal, the common method of CFA that uses a maximum likelihood (ML) estimator is not suitable to be used in the CFA analysis (Kline, 2011). Therefore, an alternative estimator, a MLM, also known as the Satorra-Bentler chi-square was used. The MLM estimator is robust to nonnormality and is commonly used when the assumption of multivariate normality is not met. In the present data analysis, the Mardia multivariate skewedness and a kurtosis test in Mplus were used to test the assumption of multivariate normality.

The hypotheses measurement model for REMM-M consisted of eight latent variables and 73 items. In CFA analysis, items with factor loading below 0.50 were treated as problematic items. The meaning of the item and the importance of the item in the measure were examined by the researchers to decide whether the item should be retained or removed. The problematic items were removed iteratively, examining the fit indices every time an item was deleted. Modification indices in CFA were used as a guide to introduce additional correlation

among the error items. However, as a precaution, only meaningful correlations between error terms were introduced in the model. The models were evaluated based on the number-of-fit indices with the recommended fit values: the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), with the desired value of less than 0.07 and Close fit (Clfit) of more than 0.05, the standardised root mean square (SRMR), with the desired value of less than 0.08, the comparative-fit index (CFI) and Tucker and Lewis index (TLI), with desired values of more than 0.95 (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010; Kline, 2011).

The best-fit measurement model based on the fit indices was evaluated for construct validity. Examining construct validity includes examining convergent validity and discriminant validity. Convergent validity examines whether the items within a latent variable shares a high proportion of variance in common (Hair et al., 2010). This can be done by assessing the construct validity (CR) and average variance extracted (AVE; Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The recommended range for CR is 0.60 and above (Tseng, Dornyei, & Schmitt, 2006) and the AVE is 0.50 and above (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Raykov's method in calculating the CR was applied when there was a covariance between the error terms (Raykov & Marcoulides, 2015). For discriminant validity, Kline (2011) suggested that if the correlations between latent variables are less than 0.85, discriminant validity can be established.

#### RESULTS

## Measurement Models of REMM-M

There are eight subscales in the REMM-M. The number of items within each subscale ranges from seven to 11 items. In order to achieve the most parsimonious model, we developed eight measurement models, each reflecting the items and latent variables of the eight subscales. Data screening was carried out before the CFA analysis. There was no missing data in the data set and there was no extreme outliers observed by inspecting the squared Mahalanobis distance value computed in SPSS. In the measurement models, the assumption of multivariate normality was not met based on a p-value less than 0.05 in the Mardia multivariate skewedness and kurtosis test. Thus, the MLM estimator was used in the subsequent CFA analyses.

Table 1 presents the fit indices of the initial or the hypothesised measurement models for all eight subscales of the REMM-M. Problematic items were identified from each measurement model by inspecting the item factor loading. Then the fit indices of each problematic item was deleted and examined and presented in Table 1. A total of 22 problematic items were identified. After evaluating the meaning and the role of these items in the measure, we decided to omit the items from the measure. This is because omitting those problematic items would not affect the theoretical framework of the measure. In addition, covariance was added to the items' error 44 and 47. This is reasonable as both items were within the same latent variable and measuring the motive of affiliation.

The best-fit measurement models from Table 1 were combined as one

Table 1
Fit indices for eight individual measurement models in REMM-M

Model	CFI	TLI	SRMR	RMSEA (90%CI)	Clfit
Mastery					
Model 1 (Initial model)	0.876	0.840	0.055	0.100 (0.087, 0.113)	< 0.001
Model 2 (Item 2 deleted)	0.968	0.958	0.033	0.051 (0.035, 0.068)	0.422
Enjoyment:					
Model 1 (Initial model)	0.949	0.929	0.041	0.077 (0.060, 0.095)	0.005
Model 2 (Item 55 deleted)	0.976	0.964	0.031	0.055 (0.032, 0.077)	0.339
Psychology condition:					
Model 1 (Initial model)	0.927	0.906	0.046	0.075 (0.062, 0.089)	0.001
Model 2 (Item 6 deleted)	0.949	0.931	0.041	0.068 (0.052, 0.083)	0.030
Model 3 (Item 6,21 deleted)	0.962	0.947	0.036	0.064 (0.046, 0.082)	0.099
Model 4 (Item 6, 21, 24 deleted)	0.980	0.969	0.030	0.052 (0.029, 0.075)	0.417
Physical condition:					
Model 1 (Initial model)	0.939	0.923	0.044	0.061 (0.049, 0.074)	0.063
Model 2 (Item 72 deleted)	0.948	0.933	0.040	0.061 (0.047, 0.075)	0.088
Model 3 (Item 72, 62 deleted)	0.950	0.933	0.039	0.065 (0.050, 0.081)	0.049
Model 4 (Item 72, 62,19 deleted)	0.965	0.951	0.033	0.058 (0.040, 0.077)	0.214

Table 1 (continue)

Model	CFI	TLI	SRMR	RMSEA (90%CI)	Clfit
Appearance:					
Model 1 (Initial model)	0.979	0.969	0.030	0.055 (0.033, 0.078)	0.318
Model 2 (Item 43 deleted)	0.980	0.967	0.030	0.065 (0.038, 0.092)	0.165
Model 3 (Item 43, 15 deleted)	0.990	0.980	0.023	0.058 (0.022, 0.096)	0.309
Others' expectations:					
Model 1 (Initial model)	0.807	0.742	0.064	0.103 (0.089, 0.118)	< 0.00
Model 2 (Item 54 deleted)	0.806	0.728	0.066	0.115 (0.098, 0.132)	< 0.00
Model 3 (Item 54, 38 deleted)	0.808	0.712	0.068	0.125 (0.106, 0.146)	< 0.00
Model 4 (Item 54, 38, 46 deleted)	0.913	0.856	0.045	0.090 (0.066, 0.117)	0.005
Model 5 (Item 54, 38, 46, 60 deleted)	0.935	0.870	0.041	0.093 (0.061, 0.129)	0.017
Model 6 (Item 54, 38, 46, 60, 29	0.984	0.952	0.023	0.066 (.012, .127)	0.245
deleted)					
Affiliation:					
Model 1 (Initial model)	0.859	0.789	0.062	0.143 (0.123, 0.163)	< 0.00
Model 2 (Item 7 deleted)	0.993	0.988	0.022	0.033 (0.000, 0.065)	0.773
Competition/ego					
Model 1 (Initial model)	0.814	0.768	0.075	0.114 (0.103, 0.126)	< 0.00
Model 2 (Item 8 deleted)	0.822	0.772	0.077	0.121 (0.108, 0.134)	< 0.00
Model 3 (Item 8, 64 deleted)	0.898	0.864	0.057	0.095 (0.080, 0.110)	< 0.00
Model 4 (Item 8, 64, 63 deleted)	0.921	0.890	0.050	0.093 (0.076, 0.110)	< 0.00
Model 5 (Item 8, 64, 63, 36 deleted)	0.924	0.886	0.050	0.105 (0.085, 0.126)	< 0.00
Model 6 (Item 8, 64, 63, 36, 61 deleted)	0.960	0.933	0.036	0.086 (0.061, 0.112)	0.011
Model 7 (Item 8, 64, 63, 36, 61, 35 deleted)	0.970	0.939	0.031	0.091 (0.059, 0.127)	0.020
Model 8 (Item 8, 64, 63, 36, 61, 35 deleted and covariance on items' errors: 44 and 47)	0.998	0.994	0.014	0.029 (0.000, 0.078)	0.703

Note. The numbers in brackets indicate the items in REMM-M

measurement model of the eight-motive model of REMM-M. The fit indices for the combined measurement model were: CFI=0.856, TLI=0.847, SRMR=0.064 and RMSEA=0.049 (90% CI: 0.046 to 0.051), Clfit=0.832. A sequence of modifications of the model that included adding correlation on the items' error and deleting crossloading items based on their modification index was carried out in an attempt to improve fit. None of the modifications

produced substantial improvement in the fit indices. Therefore, the measurement model of REMM-M with eight latent variables and 51 items was considered to represent an adequate fit based on the fit indices of SRMR and RMSEA. All factor loadings of the combined measurement model were above the recommended value (>0.50) and they ranged from 0.500 to 0.830 (see Table 2).

Table 2 Standardised factor loadings ( $\lambda$ ), composite reliability and average variance extracted

Construct and Items	Standardised Factor Loading, (λ) <sup>a</sup>	Standardised Factor Loading, (λ) <sup>b</sup>	Composite Reliability (CR)	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
Mastery		*		,
QS1	0.653	0.625		
QS3	0.601	0.579		
QS16	0.641	0.631		
QS17	0.686	0.669		
QS18	0.576	0.541	0.862	0.413
QS26	0.513	0.546		
QS41	0.739	0.747		
QS53	0.718	0.725		
QS71	0.636	0.684		
Enjoyment				
QS10	0.600	0.619		
QS20	0.600	0.611		
QS45	0.709	0.695		
QS48	0.669	0.677	0.843	0.435
QS52	0.758	0.738		
QS59	0.672	0.683		
QS68	0.589	0.581		
Psychological condition				
QS11	0.625	0.642		
QS22	0.526	0.551		
QS23	0.715	0.716		
QS30	0.768	0.764	0.862	0.474
QS32	0.616	0.605		
QS33	0.781	0.771		
QS65	0.743	0.738		
Physical condition				
QS12	0.637	0.627		
QS14	0.645	0.668		
QS31	0.692	0.686		
QS34	0.689	0.683	0.867	0.450
QS39	0.599	0.608		
QS42	0.648	0.672		
QS69	0.707	0.699		
QS70	0.740	0.719		

Table 2 (continue)

Construct and Items	Standardised Factor Loading, $(\lambda)^a$	Standardised Factor Loading, $(\lambda)^b$	Composite Reliability (CR)	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
Appearance				
QS13	0.544	0.563		
QS28	0.709	0.716		
QS51	0.823	0.830	0.853	0.542
QS56	0.826	0.813		
QS58	0.738	0.728		
Others' expectations				
QS4	0.515	0.500		
QS9	0.756	0.611	0.683	0.355
QS27	0.583	0.730		
QS66	0.531	0.515		
Affiliation				
QS5	0.530	0.543		
QS25	0.543	0.569		
QS37	0.707	0.709	0.824	0.442
QS40	0.699	0.709		
QS57	0.815	0.775		
QS67	0.644	0.656		
Competition/Ego				
QS44	0.632	0.651		
QS47	0.612	0.603		
QS49	0.831	0.808	0.793*	0.465
QS50	0.724	0.727		
QS73	0.570	0.595		

Note. a=Standardised factor loading for individual final measurement model, b=Standardised factor loading for combined measurement model, \*CR using Raykov's method

#### **Construct Validity**

From the combined measurement model of REMM-M, the CR values ranged from 0.683 to 0.867, which indicated a moderate-to-good construct reliability. The AVE for each latent variable ranged from 0.355 to 0.542. Although the majority of the latent variables' AVE were below the recommended value of 0.50, the CR values

were above the recommended value of 0.60. On this basis, the convergent validity of the measurement model was considered to still be adequate (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The discriminant validity was checked based on the correlations among the latent variables. Table 3 presents the Pearson's product-moment correlation value and its significant indication. All correlations were

Table 3
Correlations Between Latent Variables in the Combined Final Model for REMM-M

Variable	Mastery	Enjoyment	Psychological condition	Physical condition	Appearance	Others' expectations	Affiliation	Competition/ Ego
1. Mastery	1	0.707*	0.604*	0.721*	0.364*	0.270*	0.453*	0.471*
2. Enjoyment		1	0.665*	0.653*	0.394*	0.212*	0.413*	0.370*
3. Psychological condition			1	0.690*	0.404*	0.194*	0.331*	0.265*
4. Physical condition				1	0.547*	0.182*	0.313*	0.302*
5. Appearance					1	0.254*	0.227*	0.315*
6. Others' expectations						1	0.556*	0.468*
7. Affiliation							1	0.539*
8. Competition/ Ego								1

Note. \* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (two-tailed)

below the recommended cut-off point of 0.85, which indicated that the eight-motive latent variables achieved good discriminant validity.

#### **DISCUSSION**

The purpose of this study was to identify the best-fit measurement model of REMM-M and to evaluate the construct validity of the best-fit measurement model by assessing the two main components: convergent validity and discriminant validity. Overall, the results indicated that the measurement model for each subscale needed to go through model respecification to improve the model fit. Then, the best-fit measurement models of all eight subscales were combined as the final measurement model of REMM-M. The final model of REMM-M met the cutoff values of SRMR and RMSEA. The construct validity test indicated that the items in each construct (subscale of the REMM-M) were converging and shared a high proportion of variance in

common (known as convergent validity), and all the eight individual constructs were unique and distinct from each other (known as discriminant validity).

In the present study the reliability was checked using the CR. The recommended value of CR is 0.70 and above (Hair et al., 2010). All the CR values were above 0.70 except for the subscale others' expectations, which suggests that the majority of subcales had good reliability (Hair et al., 2006). The CR for the subscale others' expectations is still considered reliable if based on the recommendation of Tseng et al. (2006), who suggested a lower cut-off for CR (more than 0.60). For AVE, all the values were below the recommended value of 0.50 except for the subscale appearance. A value of AVE less than 0.50 indicates that the variance due to measurement error is larger than the variance depicted by the factor and the individual items. However, if the value of the CRs is available, then we still can consider that the convergent validity of the

REMM-M is adequate, even though more than 50% of the variance is due to error (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Therefore, from this study, convergent validity was achieved. In addition, discriminant validity was achieved as the correlations among the latent varibles (subscales) in the measurement model were below the recommended value of 0.85 (Kline, 2011). We can conclude that the eight subscales in REMM-M were distinct from each other and they measured different motives for participation in recreational exercise.

#### **CONCLUSION**

In conclusion, the findings showed that the revised 51-item version of the REMM-M was reliable and valid among the 506 undergraduate students who were surveyed in this study. However, improvements are needed for future research using REMM-M to attain more accurate results for different study populations and age groups, such as people with illness and of older age. This study developed the Malay version of the REMM-M, which can be used in future research examining motives for participation in recreational exercise, where the Malay language is the main spoken language among the study participants. The final version of the REMM-M is shorter than the original version, with 51 items and eight factors on motives for participation in recreational exercise. This might be valuable, given that a criticism of the 73-item REMM has been that it might be too long for use with a range of the

population, who might get bored or tired while completing a 73-item measure (Morris & Rogers, 2004).

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## Constitutional Recognition and Legal Protection for Local Religion in Indonesia: A Discourse on Local Religion of the Tengger and Baduy People

Moh. Fadli

Faculty of Law, Brawijaya University, Veteran Street, Postal-code 65145, Malang, East Java, Indonesia

#### **ABSTRACT**

The Tengger and Baduy tribes represent the tribal societies in Indonesia that hold a unique local religion. The existence of this local religion deserves to be protected by the nation to give comfort to its devotees when they worship according to their belief. This constitutional recognition and legal protection is stated in Article 28E Paragraphs (1) and (2) and Article 29 Paragraphs (1) and (2) of the Indonesian Constitution. This regulation is not complete and requires to be elaborated in several delegated legislations. The existing problem is to make space for the local religion to emerge with its own identity without being referred to any particular religion. At the implementation level, protection for local religion is not yet perfected. Therefore, regulation needs to be more widely implemented to guarantee protection for local religion in the Constitution.

Keywords: Local religion, constitutional recognition, legal protection, socialisation

#### **INTRODUCTION**

As widely known, Indonesia is diverse (*bhinneka*) in terms of race, ethnicity, religion, custom, native language, local culture and education as well as the welfare and participation of the people. It is

estimated that there are more than 500 races occupying the archipelago of Indonesia (Ajawaila, 2003, p.23). Moreover, there are approximately 400 belief systems in a divine diety (Setiawan, 2006, p.153). Due to its cultural diversity, Indonesia deserves to be called a miniature of the world (National Defense Institute, 2012, p.44) and may serve as an epicentre of future civilisations (Gatra, 2013).

In sociocultural perspective, religion is inseparable from the life of societies that believe in a diety. Religion plays a role as a

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E-mail address: mfadlifhub@gmail.com \* Corresponding author

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science system and belief in the daily lives of people, and it is believed to provide an explanation of the hereafter. Therefore, religion captures the need of individuals to understand and provide meaning and purpose for their existence on earth and after death. Harmony among people, whether of the same or different religions, in Indonesia is essential, as it is a diverse country. Religion functions as a system of referenced values, and therefore, serves as a basis for the behaviour of believers (Hadikusuma, 1993, p.98-147). Consequently, religion acts both as unifier, making peace between peoples and at the same time, can also profound divisions among people, provoking powerful emotions of anger and extreme patterns of social violence.

Indonesia is not a country of religion, but this nation respects the existence of religions. The relationship between people from different religions in Indonesia is protected, although there is potential for conflict among people of different religions. The former President of Poland, Lech Walesa, in his meeting with President Susilo Bambang Yudhoyono in 2010, agreed that Western countries should learn about peace from Indonesia (Fadli, 2009, p.1). Indonesia has proven to be able to preserve its unity. Although the religion of the majority is Islam, Indonesia respects and gives more attention to the minority (Fadli, 2013, p.4).

During the pre-colonial era in Indonesian history, the Empire of Majapahit (A. D. 1293–1500), which rose as a maritime empire, united some of the islands of the archipelago, which comprises the present

territory of Indonesia (Fadli, 2013, p.5). Spirituality plays a key role in the vision of Indonesia as a miniature of the world and as an epicentre of future civilisation. Spirituality is manifested through inner awareness, which influences the social behaviour of every individual, promoting adherence to mutual respect and tolerance among the populace. Spiritual values are not influenced by the identity of a religion, which is officially accredited by either the nation or other local religions. Principally, the government, as a representative of a nation, has the responsibility to respect, protect and guarantee the rights of developing religions or beliefs existing among societies in an effort to enrich national cultural diversity.

Working from such an awareness, at the independence of Indonesia in 1945, the founding fathers and the framers of the constitution of Indonesia decided to make the statement "Belief in the One and Only God" as the first principle of the *Pancasila*, the state philosophy of the Republic of Indonesia, commonly called the Ideology of the Nation (Fadli, 2013, p.6), which is fundamental to the life of the nation. This first principle acts not only as the fundamental measure for people to respect those who profess belief in different religions but also serves as the basis to keep people on the right track of righteousness, justice, kindness, honesty and brotherhood. Therefore, it is expected that this nation will strengthen its foundation. The manifestation of values expected by the founding fathers are stated in the Constitution of Indonesia Article 29 as drafted in the year 1945 in

the following regulations: (1) The State is based on the belief in the One and Only God and (2) The State guarantees each and every citizen the freedom of religion and of worship in accordance with his religion and belief.

Constitutional recognition and legal protection given to local religions in Indonesia need to be studied and formulated for practice to guarantee freedom of religion to worship in accordance with one's belief or religion, which is also conducted not only in a normative way but also in an implemental way. This study focussed on the native people of Tengger, Pasuruan Regency, East Java and the native people of Baduy, Banten. The author chose these two tribes from among the 500 races in Indonesia due to four reasons: (1) The people of Tengger and Baduy still hold on to the cultures and customs of their ancestors; (2) These two tribes are the biggest ethnic groups on Java Island; the Tengger occupy the eastern part, whereas the Baduy are found in the west coast; (3) The Tengger and the Baduy are seen to have unique characteristics reflected in their way of life and resistance level towards incoming cultures; and (4) The author conducted research in these sites at significant periods in three different years, 2002, 2008 and 2012.

#### **Research Problem**

The research questions that were scrutinised in this study were:

1. What is the uniqueness of the local religion of the Tengger and Baduy people? 2. How does the state protect local religion through constitutional recognition and legal protection?

#### RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Research data include primary and secondary data. The primary data were obtained through interviews (in-depth interview) and observation. Respondents were determined through the purposive sampling technique. The sample respondents included religious/traditional leaders, village heads and several village officials, experts who study local customs and society. Secondary data were obtained from a study of the literature, which was then analysed using the qualitative juridical technique.

#### THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

#### **Local Religion**

The term 'local religion' is used in this study to refer to the religions and original beliefs of an ethnic group in Indonesia. According to the author, the existence of ethnic groups in Indonesia is admitted and honoured by the Government of Indonesia and is regulated by the Constitution. In addition, the independence of Indonesia is not separable from the struggle of the ethnic groups of the archipelago under the different empires of the colonial era.

Article 18(2) of the 1945 Indonesia Constitution stipulates that:

The State shall recognize and respect, to be regulated by law, the homogeneity of societies with customary law along with their traditional rights for as long as they remain in existence and in agreement with societal development and with the principle of the Unitary State of the Republic of Indonesia.

By law, the Government of Indonesia recognises six official religions in Indonesia, namely Islam, Catholicism, Christianity, Hinduism, Buddhism and Confucianism. According to the author's understanding, this recognition is related to the facts in national and global level. However, it does not mean that in reality there is no local religion. Here, the author holds a different perspective. The believers of local religion acknowledge that their religion is not part of any particular religion. They cling firmly to the teachings of their religion which they consider to be true and follow certain guidelines for religious behaviour and perform rituals according to the teachings of their religion. I try to understand them the way they understand themselves, as prescribed by Phenomenology, which Annemerie Schimmel saw as the only legitimate method to understand Islam (Bagir, 1997, p.10-11). In the author's opinion, local religion should be protected. In some cases, local religion has similarities with local belief, but for the author, the source of local belief is different from that of the local religion.

Seen from the historical aspect, local religion was also expressed by the French scholar J. J. Rousseau in his concept of a 'social contract'. In his magnum opus, *Social Contract Book IV*, Rousseau discussed what is meant by civil religion

together with a simple explanation (Hatta, 1981, p.28). At first, Rousseau took note of the two categories of religion, which were considered unsuitable for the need of the people: the religion of human beings and the religion of societies. Rousseau also stated a third religion. However, Rousseau did not elaborate the third religion, but he came to a conclusion that these three religions could not keep in line with the life of societies (Rousseau, 2003, p.9).

The religion of human beings (in reference to Christianity), according to Rousseau, is the religion emphasising on the moral aspect and the worship of God. This religion of human beings is believed to be bad due to its lack of emphasis on social empowerment (Rousseau, 2003, p.9). This religion is private and individual. Meanwhile, the religion of societies is defined as a religion that is professed by the people of a nation.

Bellah (1992) described the concept of civil religion from a unique perspective. He wrote in his book, The Broken Covenant: American Civil Religion in Time of Trial, that in America, a well-arranged and institutionalised civil religion, together with its church, could possibly be separated and differentiated from Christianity, meaning that the civil religion could be differentiated from the "institution" of civil religion in the world (Bellah, 1992, p.3). Bellah understood that this has nothing to do with national selfworship, but that it indicates a submission of America to the principles above it and is based on the perspective from which it is supposed to be valued.

In addition, Nur Syam (2013) agreed that civil religion has insight into what is seen from the outside and represents the values and spirit of belief apart from a formal understanding of religion. Therefore, religion arises out of a historical process. It does not consist of dogma, rigid lesson or exclusive ethics but is rather formed by a sequence of a historical process with a tendency to move forward and improve. A continuous process of verification is required to find out the unlimited truth that is beneficial to all human beings. He elaborated on and continuously reformed and revolutionised all old dogmas to be more civilised. As a result, the proposed freedom for human beings, which enables them to engage in social activities, whose transcendence is usually sublimated, should be able to serve as a paradigm in the process.

Komaruddin Hidayat (2003, p. 9) stated that there is a close correlation between religion and culture as manifested in various forms of religious festivals that convey meaning and messages and diffuse cultural diversity. This is related to the human characteristic known as *homo ludens*, a species that likes diverse shows; *homo religious*, a species always searching and yearning for God; and *homo festivus*, a species that likes participating in festivals (Hidayat, 2003, p.9).

In his writing entitled, *The Dialectic on Religion and Culture*, Komaruddin Hidayat (2003, p. 9) emphasised that religion was supposed to position itself amid cultural and national pluralism, give vision and motivate and illuminate people within their

culture and nationality. Religion, at last, is considered a culture if seen from the last manifestation and behaviour of individuals in the cultural hierarchy. When religion fails to articulate in cultural scope as an emancipator, it is at risk of being abandoned by its believers. Conversely, cultural drive that has no capability to transcend will lack support. Thus, religion is put to the test in a historical scope by means of empirical measures of humanism (Smith, 1985).

The concept of civil religion was also concluded by Tedi Kholiludin (2013), who stated that there are two theoretical constructions concerning the development of civil religion, with the awareness of society functioning as a central point. First, according to the centrifugal theory, the construction of civil religion moves upwards from societies to national idealism as described by Rousseau. Second, according to the centripetal theory, the collective awareness, civic morals, serves as a hub for this theory, as referred to by Durkheim. These two theoretical concepts was depicted by Bella in reference to civil religion in America.

The phenomenon of religion and various beliefs in Indonesia has attracted many experts to study it. One of them is Clifford Geertz. Geertz conducted his research from May 1953 to September 1954. In *The Religion of Java*, he saw the dichotomy of *Santri, Abangan* and *Priyayi* in the Javanese community. He discussed all three in depth in 21 chapters of his book (Geertz, 1981, pp.1–161, 163–301, 303–471). Even though his work is very much appreciated

(Kleden 2006, p.6), a number of people have criticised it. Smith (1963, p.203) pointed out that the very title of Geertz's work is fairly ambiguous, stating that it could refer to one of several angles: the religion of Java or religion in Java or the religious life of Java. The terms *Abangan*, *Santri* and *Priyayi* were also not free from his criticism (Smith, 1963, pp. 203–206). Parsudi Suparlan, the author of the foreword of the Indonesian edition of Geertz's book (Geertz, 1980, p.ix), also criticised the work. Suparlan argued:

Professor Bachtiar has precisely suggested (1973, pp. 80–90) that the use of the terms *Abangan*, *Santri*, and *Priyayi* to divide Java community into religious categorization is not appropriate, because the three groups mentioned above are not rooted in one similar classification system (*Abangan* and *Santri* are classified according to the level of their adherence to practice the religion of Islam, while *Priyayi* is a social classification); and also, the classification made by Geertz seems to be an absolute category, whereas in reality it is not so.

This description clearly demonstrates Geertz's weaknesses in understanding Javanese communities.

## Constitutional Recognition and Legal Protection

The protection of law involves all deeds done by the state/government to protect local religion either at the level of the Constitution or the law. Thus, it is expected that the local religion is guaranteed to develop among its communities.

Philips Hamburger (2009) proposed a concept concerning the protection of law. He divided the protection of the law into several categories. The first was the protection of the law for natural liberty. To be precise, the state of nature was a model of the state or condition where individuals had no common sovereign and there was no civil government (Locke, 1988, p.271). The liberty that individuals enjoyed under this natural law was their natural liberty or, when particularised, their natural right (Hamburger, 1993, pp. 918–919). Generally in the 18th century, if individuals in the state of nature were to preserve their natural liberty, they had to form themselves into a people, establish a civil government and thereby acquire civil laws, which would give a clear definition of their natural rights and protect their moral claims with civil sanctions (Hamburger, 2009, p.1835). The government and its laws was thus understood to be established for the protection of natural liberty. This limited but basic sort of protection for natural liberty came to be the essential protection, to which every citizen or free natural subject had a right (Hamburger, 2009, p.1835). The second was a sort of secondary protection, which would ultimately be more significant; this was the protection of the law, most salient in the courts for all rights enjoyed under civil law. On this assumption, all legal rights had the protection of the law in the sense that they could not be taken away contrary to the law

or without due judicial process. The third was the protection of government, a moral or political commitment of the executive to enforce the law rather than a legally-binding duty (Hamburger, 2009, p.1835). The law of the land, however, carried a legal obligation and was judicially enforceable. As a result, the second kind of protection, the general protection of the law for legal rights, related ultimately to the liberty enforceable at law. This was the sort of protection that had the greatest practical significance in disputes. Nonetheless, the other two types of protection, protection of the law for natural liberty and active protection provided by the government, were also aspects of protection that was reciprocal with allegiance (Hamburger, 2009, p.1835).

#### RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

### **Uniqueness of Local Religion of the Tengger and Baduy Societies**

Tengger society. The native people of Tengger are scattered across Pasuruan Regency, Lumajang, Probolinggo and Malang. The word 'tengger' yields various meanings. Etymologically, 'tengger' could mean standing upright, still, unmoved (Java). When related to custom and belief, 'tengger' can be defined as the sign (tengering) of nobility (Hariyanto, 2013, p.59). The Tengger people respect their leader and obey rules that are implemented. When Thomas Stamford Raffles served as Governor General during the period of rule by the Dutch East Indies, he admired the Tengger people. He said that during his

visit to this cold mountainous area, he saw the native people of Tengger as individuals who lived in peace, worked hard, obeyed the law and were always happy. They did not indulge in gambling. When Raffles raised a question about adultery, theft and other crime, they simply answered that he would not find such behaviour among the Tengger (Sutarto, 2006, p. 1).

Based on local legend, the native people of Tengger, who were searching for seclusion, originated from the Empire of Majapahit. Initially, the Tengger had no religion but a belief that everything existed because it was created. Not until A. D. 929 did the people of Tengger worship *Sang Hyang Swayambuwa* (God of Brahma) facing Mount Bromo. At present, the people still keep the Hindu traditions of Dharma, although they recognise no caste (Sutarto, 2006, p. 1). Interestingly, it is also believed that they have been in existence since before the Majapahit Empire came to an end.

Although the major religions among the Tengger are Hinduism, Buddhism and Islam, one village, Southern Ngadas Village in the Malang Regency, believed in local religion. This local religion has no name; the local people call it *Ki Dodo Putih*. According to the history of this religion, the first Javanese king, Ajisaka, brought the message of divine revelation through the Aksara, the Javanese script. After some time, Ajisaka went into the wilderness for some years to meditate, so that the Aksara could be developed into a proper belief system for the Tengger. The implicit function of the script is a means for the pursuit of God.

Aksara Jawa				
ഗ്ഥ	$\mathbb{H}$	លា	ЗЛ	(LA)
ha	na	ca	ra	ka
മ	(ISI)	$\Im$	$\mathbb{O}$	
da	ta	sa	wa	la
~				nya
Œ	$\Omega$	$\mathfrak{m}$	າ ແກ	$\mathbb{C}$
				a nga

Figure 1. Javanese script of Ajisaka

This pursuit of God involves the following:

- 1. Be respectful to the creator of life.
- 2. Be respectful to one's parents (biological parents and parents-in-law).
- 3. Be kind to one's siblings and relatives, neighbours and friends.
- 4. Be cooperative towards your spouse.
- 5. *Ilinga ring pepatinira*, which is a belief not considered part of religion, but which has been long associated with the Tengger.

Maintaining the common law and noble values of the native Tengger is a duty that falls to the shamans. They take control of the customs and beliefs of the community. Therefore, it is quite common that everything prescribed by the shamans is followed closely by the Tengger. The shamans also lead the people in preserving their customs and culture.

The Tengger people are believed to be the most persistent ethnic group in preserving their culture. They are easily spotted, as they commonly wear a sarong called *kawengan*. The sarong is an affordable garment worn as a jacket to protect from cold weather (Adiprasetio, 2010). No written norms or rules related to their custom are found, as everything is based on mutual agreement among the people. Although there are no written records, it is understood that the Tengger have been attached to their culture for centuries. According to the village inscription of Walandit in the Saka year of 851 according to the Balinese calendar (A. D. 929), Tengger territory has been known as sacred (hila hila) ground since the Majapahit Empire (Widyaprakosa, 2006), and all the residents are considered servants in religious matters, as provided for in 'Sang Hyang Widi Wasa'. The Walandit, Hyang dharma kebuyutan, states that they should be left undisturbed in swatantera (Yamin, 1962, p.84). Hefner believed that the inscription bearing the Saka year of 1327 (A. D. 1405) was found in Penanjakan, Wonokitri Village, implying that the Walandit village was occupied by hulun Hyang (servant of God) (Widyaprakosa, 2006). The Tengger inherited the Hindu tradition from the glorious Majapahit Empire. Hinduism in Bali and Tengger is basically the same; the only difference is that the former follows the caste system, whereas the latter does not. The strain of Hinduism practised in Bali is Mahayan while the Tengger practise Dharma Hinduism, which is its majority religion. Minority religions practised among the Tengger are Christianity, Catholicism and Buddhism. Moreover, the Hindu communities of Tengger follow

traditions legated from the Majapahit period (Suprapto, 2011).

The people of Tengger have three kinds of kinship. The most basic is the nuclear family or batih family, commonly known as sa'omah. The second kind of kinship is sa'dulur or relatives, and the third kinship, which forms the biggest unit, is wong Tengger or the entire Tengger tribe itself (Hamidi & Harianto, 2014, pp.14-15). The Tengger people recognise all three kinship; wong Tengger, which represents the biggest unit, is responsible for conducting religious activities for the whole group as one. Traditional ceremonies such as kasada and karo are usually held as part of the religious activities of the Tengger tradition (Hamidi & Harianto, 2014, pp.14–15).

In general, the local religion of the Tengger community is experiencing some change either because of internal factors or external factors. Hefner alluded to this issue when he wrote 'Islamisation and Hindu Reform' (Hefner, 2007, p.239]. Nevertheless, the uniqueness of their way of life is still visible. Typical local religion must be protected and given the freedom to implement its teachings alongside the six other major religions recognised by the state. The Tengger local religion enriches the life of diverse, pluralistic Indonesia.

**Inner Baduy society.** The Baduy are known as an ethnic group that has held on to its custom and culture for a long time. The major belief followed of the Baduy people is *Slam Wiwitan*, a belief emphasising a

simple lifestyle through ritual meaning reflected in behaviour, habits, decision and teachings. The Baduy people are divided into two groups: Inner Baduy and Outer Baduy; the Inner Baduy are more unique as it only has three *Tangtu: Cibeo, Cikesik* and *Cikertawana* (Endrawati, Hamidi, & Fadli, 2012, p.44). The outer Baduy, however, practise forms of other religions such as Hinduism, Christianity, and Buddhism in addition to Slam Wiwitan.

Geographically, the Baduy live in Kanekes Village, Leuwidamar sub-district, Lebak Regency, which lies 45 km to the south of Rangkasbitung City. The access to the central government of inner Baduy, Cibeo Village, can be reached on foot as far as 12 km. From the northwest (the gate of Keroya Market, Kebon Cau Village, Cirinten Sub-district), it is as far as 22 km. This distance has helped to preserve Baduy custom and cultural legacy (Endrawati, Hamidi, & Fadli, 2012, p.44).

The core of *Sunda Wiwitan* is the relationship between human beings and nature, where God commands human beings to preserve and keep nature pristine. As a whole, *Sunda Wiwitan* is described in *Amanat Buyut*, which means that *Buyut* who is taken care of by a *Pu'un* or leader:

To preserve religious values, the *pu'un* (leader) plays an important role. The *pu'un* responsible for keeping religious laws and customs of the Baduy is the *Pu'un Cikeusik*. The people of Baduy are strictly obedient to either formal or informal rules made by their leader. This is seen in their absolute

Table 1
Twelve principles of Sunda Wiwitan

No.	Principles of Sunda Wiwitan	Meaning
1	Puun nagara satelung puluh elu	The state of 33
2	Begawan sawidak lima	River of 65
3	Pamer salawa nagara	Centre of 25 states
4	Gunung teu meunang dilebur	Mountain should not be shattered
5	Lebak teu meunang sirsak	Valley should not be wrecked
6	Larangan teu meunang dirempak	Prohibition should not be broken
7	Buyut teu meunang dirobah	Buyut cannot be changed
8	Lojor teu meunang dipotong	Length cannot be cut off
9	Pondok teu meunang disambung	What is short should not be connected
10	Nu lain kudu di lainkeun	What is not must not be present
11	Nu ulah kudu di ulahkeun	What is forbidden must not be done
12	Nu enya kudu di enyakeun	What is right must be justified

Source: Research result

adherence to the rules. Both the Inner and Outer Baduy rarely go against the rules set by the *Pu'un* (Puspitasari, 2011).

The Baduy believe in karma. Sam Wiwitan is similar to Sunda of the past, but it is different from Sam Wiwitan taught by Raden Kiansantang from Pasundan. The Slam Wiwitan practised by the Sunda people stems from the Slam Wiwitan followed by the Inner Baduy. The Baduy put God the first and then nature followed by belief in Mecca and the *ka'ba* of Islamic tradition. The Inner Baduy believe that they have been entrusted by God to manage nature and to unite with it to preserve the balance of the universe. Therefore, they are strictly committed to preserving nature and the environment. The paths in an Inner Baduy village are linear and are patterned after flowing water. These paths can only be passed by one person at a time. The paths are intact from any marks made by a hoe and are free from all efforts at modification. Both the Inner and Outer Baduy speak the Sundanese language with a Rangkasbitung accent for daily communication. However, Indonesian is also fluently spoken, especially by those aged under 35 years, to communicate with guests of different cultures.

The rapid social changes in the era of globalisation do not preclude the Inner Baduy. However, their resoluteness in maintaining their principles amid modernisation shows that they truly believe in the rightness of the local religion which they profess. Their uniqueness still seems real.

The existence of the Baduy highlights the importance of preserving and protecting local religion and giving it the freedom to implement its teachings alongside the six other major religions recognised in Indonesia. Local religion is an invaluable and extraordinary treasure in pluralistic and religious Indonesia.

## Constitutional Recognition and Legal Protection for the Local Religion

In Article 29 of the Constitution of Indonesia 1945, it is stated that (1) The State is based on the belief in the One and Only God and (2) The State guarantees each and every citizen the freedom of religion and of worship in accordance with his religion and belief. However, after the reformation era, changes were made to the Constitution to emphasise more clearly the freedom of religion as stated in Article 28E Paragraphs (1) and (2) of the 1945 Indonesia Constitution:

- (1) Each person is free to worship and to practice the religion of his choice, to choose education and schooling, his occupation, his nationality, his residency in the territory of the country that he shall be able to leave and to which he shall have the right to return.
- (2) Each person has the right to be free in his convictions, to assert his thoughts and tenets, in accordance with his conscience.

What is regulated in the Constitution of the Republic of Indonesia 1945 is also regulated by Law No. 39 Year 1999 concerning human rights. The regulation concerning religion is stated in Article 8:

Protection, advancement, enforcement, and human rights fulfilment are primarily the responsibility of government.

#### and Article 22:

- (1) Each person is free to worship and to practice the religion of his choice.
- (2) State guarantees each and every citizen the freedom of religion and of worship in accordance with his religion and belief.

This regulation is not complete and requires elaboration in several delegated legislations. The regulation concerning the freedom to worship in Indonesian law is in line with regulations of international law. In some international conventions, freedom to worship has been ratified by the Government of Indonesia, such as in the Declaration of Human Rights 1948, the International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination 1969, the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights 1976 and other international agreements (Hidayat, Isnur, & Yonesta, 2011).

Furthermore, the government has composed Law No. 26 Year 2000 on Human Rights Courts to address human rights violations. Thus, the constitutional and legislative assurance toward local religion is already strong enough.

However, there is a problem left unsolved; the followers of local religion need to be given the chance to emerge with their own identity without referring to any particular religion. This case is inseparable from the era of Soeharto. In that era, local religion had to be referred to or returned to the teachings of its closest religion (Islam, Catholicism, Christianity, Hinduism or Buddhism). This eroded the identity of local religion or caused it to disappear altogether.

## CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

Local religion has its uniqueness and exists only in a particular part of Indonesia. The nation has given constitutional recognition and legal protection to local religion, which is in line with international law. Where implemented, however, this protection needs improvement. This is because, in practice, there are still certain restrictions on local religion, for example, prohibition of the use/ display of religious symbols.

#### Recommendations

Some recommendations are made:

- 1. The regulation needs to be widely socialised among the followers of a local religion, and they should be aware that their existence has been given appropriate protection.
- 2. The regulation needs to be implemented consistently so that the followers of local religion are equal to the followers of other religions.

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# Critical thinking in the Language Classroom: Teacher Beliefs and Methods

Tuzlukova, V., Al Busaidi, S. and Burns, S. L.\*

Sultan Qaboos University, Language Centre, P.O. Box 43, Al Khoud 123, Muscat, Sultanate of Oman

#### **ABSTRACT**

In recent years, English language teaching and research in the Sultanate of Oman has witnessed a significant increase in the emphasis upon critical thinking skills development alongside language proficiency. Fostering a perspective of commitment to teaching critical thinking skills in line with the English language courses, this paper reports on a study conducted at the Language Centre at Sultan Qaboos University. In particular, it explores English language teachers' conceptual definitions of critical thinking, their beliefs about the significance of critical thinking for language teaching and connections between critical thinking and language teaching methods. The results of the study's survey, supported by concrete examples from the classroom, suggest that the ultimate majority of those teachers (96%) recognise the central role played by critical thinking in effective language pedagogy. The results also indicate teachers' preference for aligning their teaching methods with the functional-communicative approach, related to Ennis' (2011) critical thinking categories. They also suggest a predisposition for employing practical aspects of critical thinking teaching methodologies in the English language classroom to more holistically prepare students for further academic studies and their future careers in the workplace.

*Keywords:* Critical thinking, learner autonomy, Oman, problem solving, reflective thinking, skills for the 21st century

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E-mail addresses: victoria@squ.edu.om (Tuzlukova, V.), asad@squ.edu.om (Al Busaidi, S.), samantha@squ.edu.om (Burns, S. L.) \* Corresponding author

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#### INTRODUCTION

The significance and value of critical thinking skills are thought about at present as being ones of social empowerment, enhanced communication, employability and networking. The most decisive point at issue, on the one hand, is that of stimulating and enhancing student capacity for critical

thinking, nurturing and promoting critical thinking skills across disciplines and diverse socio-cultural and educational contexts. On the other, it is that of teachers' ability to continually self-assess their own beliefs and methods in the classroom in order to enhance students' critical thinking skills. In these interrelated conditions, Oman is a case conforming to this general course and prevailing tendency, being a country of distinctive identities, and education that emphasises critical thinking as an essential component of students' personal and social development (Al-Busaidi & Sultana, 2014) and their preparation for future work.

The issue of higher education graduates' preparedness for the modern job markets and the skills' shortages that these markets are facing are currently among the concerns observed by multiple publications noted in Shaw (2011). Most of this research drew attention to the fact that many higher education graduates lack capacity in specific areas wanted by employers (Candy & Crebert, 1991, cited in Robinson & Garton, 2008, p.96). It also raises questions about students being inadequately "equipped with general, transferable skills" (Robinson & Garton, 2008, p.96) that are necessary for successful professional careers in the new global economy and in fast-growing local job markets.

The majority of the local population in the Middle East is under 30, and the composition of Oman's population is no exception. To exemplify this, according to the Oman Demographics Profile (2013), the age groups from 0 to 14 years and from 15

to 24 years make up 30.6% and 20.2% of the total Omani population, respectively. This fact is a concern of the Omani government with regards to the current and future working population, their knowledge and capacities. Low skill levels is also among the most significant current topics of discussion in the Middle East. Addressing this issue, Neil Shaw (2011), regional skills advisor for the Middle East, Near East and North Africa, drew attention to its relevance for future stability and prosperity and suggested that greater alignment is needed between education and industry.

Recent research indicates that team work, problem-solving and critical thinking are essential skills that top the list of the most desired attributes for the 21st century workplace (Billing, 2003; Robinson & Garton, 2008; Wagner, 2008; Wagner, 2012) and the "increasingly complex economy" (Salama, 2004). It also focusses the attention of educators on the importance of skills' development. According to Robinson's study (2000) that has strongly influenced later developments in educational research, "failure to equip young people with the job readiness skills critical to job success is equivalent to placing employability barriers in their path" (p. 2). Similar to other higher education institutions worldwide, universities and colleges in the Sultanate of Oman are interested in ensuring suitable adaptation and adjustment of their training systems in order to equip students with effective skills needed for successful professional careers in the 21st century.

The English language classroom has an important place in these training systems and plays a key role in developing skills, including critical thinking also referred to as the skill of 'responsible thinking' (Eder & Paul, 2009; Vaughn, 2005). As a consequence, critical thinking skills' development, alongside language proficiency, has become one of the key goals of Oman's tertiary education to more holistically prepare students for further academic studies and their future careers in the workplace. As a consequence, there has recently been a significant increase in research in Oman that emphasises theoretical and practical aspects of critical thinking (Al Busaidi & Sultana, 2014; Al-Issa & Al Balushi, 2010; Al-Issa, 2014; Al-Seyabi & Tuzlukova, 2014; Mehta & Al-Mahroogi, 2014; Thakur & Al-Mahroogi, 2015 etc.).

In recognition of the central role played by critical thinking in effective pedagogy and the multiple factors that influence its successful implementation, the fundamental aspect of teachers' beliefs and methodologies emerges as one of the most important (Al-Issa, 2014). According to Al-Issa (2014), in Oman teachers at different levels remain key players in the policy implementation process (p.20). He further explained that "their motivation and creative teaching approaches, methods, and methodological and critical reflective skills can have positive and direct implications for influencing change in the Oman ELT educational system" (p. 20).

Using information from a pilot study of a research project funded by The Research Council of Oman, this paper focusses on critical thinking skills and discusses different aspects of their integration into English language curricula and teaching at Sultan Qaboos University, a leading higher education institution in the Sultanate of Oman. Looking closely at language teachers' views and beliefs and considering such pedagogical conditions as teachers' assumptions, age, experience as well as external conditions such as the socio-cultural context in general and the social context of the educational institution (Turebayeva & Doszhanova, 2013, p.1320) adds to a better understanding of the factors that are necessary for developing students' capacity for thinking critically and may help to close the gap between higher education and the workplace.

#### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### Skills for the 21st Century

Pragmatic concerns for addressing dynamic change in the work environment are highlighted in studies relating to education for the 21st century. Wagner (2008) maintained that today's higher education institutions are, in the main, ill-equipped to meet the cognitive, communicative and technological needs of students. Traditional ways of imparting knowledge are no longer adequate to ensure that students graduating are able to meet the demands of the workforce. Adopting different strategies to answer these needs are both vital and

challenging. According to Warlick (2001), "whether it is the expansion of social networking technologies, the power of digital media tools, or the ability to publish to the world instantly, our students and teachers have access to more information than ever before" (p.vi). He further explained that during our exciting time to be a teacher and a learner "we all possess the ability to interact with learning networks much wider than at any other time in history, and we all now have the unprecedented ability to create powerful artefacts of learning" (Warlick, 2011, p.vi). Tony Wagner (2008) in his seminal work, The Global Achievement Gap, focussed on a set of core skills that teachers need to adopt. Among these are critical thinking and problem solving, followed by collaboration, adaptability, entrepreneurialism, oral and written communication, accessing and analysing information, curiosity and imagination. It should be noted here that these skills are particularly relevant to Oman in light of the findings of the Survey of Higher Education Graduates (Ameen, 2013, n.p.), which showed a deficit in Omani graduates' generic skills.

#### **Conceptions of Critical Thinking**

Critical thinking is interpreted and defined in various ways. In a seminal study on critical thinking and education, Edward Glaser (1941) defined critical thinking as "the ability to think critically" (p.409). Reflecting upon the components of critical thinking, Glaser (1941) pointed out the importance of the range of one's experiences as well

as an attitude of being disposed to consider problems and subjects in a thoughtful way and knowledge of the methods of logical inquiry and reasoning. He also suggested taking into account some skill in applying these methods (p. 409-410).

Several other leaders in the field included in their understanding of critical thinking, skills, practice and the need for reflection both by the student and the teacher. Scriven and Richard (1987) in their address to The National Council for Excellence in Critical Thinking listed the following as attributes of critical thinking: clarity, accuracy, precision, consistency, relevance, sound evidence, good reasons, depth, breadth and fairness. Fairness and empathy were also supported by Elder and Paul (2009) as traits and attributes of critical thinking.

It should be noted that leading members of The Critical Thinking Community, Elder and Paul (2009), included in their definition of critical thinking, not only information, belief generating and processing skills, but also added the importance of developing a habit of using those skills to guide behaviour. In a similar way, Van Gelder (2005) concurred that learning the skills was not enough and that students must practise using them. According to him, to develop critical thinking, there must be full concentration on improvement, that is, exercises to improve performance that are graduated and including repetition and guidance with timely feedback (p.43).

There is some debate on the transferability of critical thinking skills;

however, Elder and Paul (2006) and Vaughn (2005) considered the skill of critical thinking as transferrable to any subject, content or problem, Willingham (2007) stated that critical thinking is intertwined with content knowledge and is highly discipline specific and, therefore, non-transferable.

There are also differing opinions as to whether critical thinking is synonymous with higher order thinking skills. Mulnix (2012), Elder and Paul (2006) referred to higher order stages in Bloom's taxonomy when describing critical thinking, while Rudd (2007) stated that critical thinking and higher order thinking are not equivalent, "... [because critical thinking also includes] problem solving, creative thinking and decision making" (p.48). Interestingly, Halpern (2014) also noted the importance of these elements. Following this line of thought, he incorporated practical guidelines including acquisition, retention and retrieval of knowledge and moves onto the importance of problem solving, decision making and creative thinking.

#### **Developing Critical Thinking**

The issues of critical thinking skills' development and teaching practices have been addressed by many researchers. Ennis (2002), a leading contributor to the field of critical thinking, designed the 'FRISCO approach' (focus, reasons, inference, situation, clarity and overview) with emphasis on understanding and evaluating an argument. He also produced a superstreamlined conception of critical thinking,

which lists the attributes of a critical thinker. According to Ennis (2011), a critical thinker is open-minded and mindful of alternatives; tries to be well-informed; judges well the credibility of sources; identifies conclusions, reasons and assumptions; judges well the quality of an argument, including the acceptability of its reasons, assumptions and evidence; can well develop and defend a reasonable position; asks appropriate clarifying questions; formulates plausible hypotheses; plans experiments well; defines terms in a way appropriate for the context; draws conclusions when warranted, but with caution; and integrates all items in this list when deciding what to believe or do. Other writers in the field have produced similar lists or frameworks including Duron, Limbach and Waugh (2006), who shared their fivestep framework, and James Cooper (2013), whose work focusses on the importance of questioning. Another advocate of the importance of questioning techniques to aid engaging in critical thinking is Yilin Sun, of the TESOL International Association in 1997, whose blog explains her use of the acronym FIRE to stand for four areas of critical thinking: factual, insightful, rational and evaluative. Critical thinking has also been linked to autonomous learning (Little, 2004; Pemberton & Nix, 2012), and in particular in relation to writing where the student is engaged in reflective thinking (Nunn, 2015). As well as that, a substantial body of present-day research on critical thinking development emphasises its continued nature and the importance of considering the types of teaching and learning activities from the point of view of their contribution to such development (Vdovina & Gaibisso, 2013).

### Critical Thinking and Language Teaching Methodologies and Approaches

A number of English language educators and researchers have investigated the relationship between foreign language acquisition and cognitive development. Areas that have been explored are language teaching approaches and their role in promoting students' critical thinking skills. For example, Alagozlu (2007) argued that "since the traditional instructional process urges the students to receive ready-made information without questioning, they [students] are not encouraged to think critically, which is probably transferred into ELT classes as well" (p. 185). However, other approaches, for example, the contentbased approach that refers to "concurrent study of language and subject matter, with the form and sequence of language presentation dictated by content materials (Brinton, Snow, & Wesche, 1989, p.2), are viewed as effective techniques for developing students' critical thinking skills while teaching them language skills (Brinton et al., 1989; Kusaka & Robertson, 2006; Liaw, 2007; Stoller, 1997). According to Stoller (1997), it is believed that the content-based language teaching approach is an effective way of teaching higherorder thinking skills due to the infusion of language in teaching all subject matter and the close connections between oral and

written language and thinking. Both contentbased instruction and critical thinking activities are intrinsically motivating (Brown, 2007). Using a content-based approach brings different and interesting topics from different subject matter into the language classroom. In addition, this approach offers teachers opportunities for using different activities which focus on students' learning capabilities, instead of focussing solely on their linguistic abilities (Chamot, 1995). Moreover, the contentbased language classroom has "the potential of increasing intrinsic motivation and empowerment, since students are focused on subject matter that is important to their lives," and "... their own competence and autonomy as intelligent individuals capable of actually doing something with their new language" (Brown, 2007, p.56). Similarly, improving students' critical thinking skills motivates them "because it appeals to our innate desire for self-improvement" (Crocker & Bowden, 2010, p.3). Aiming at bringing into discussion practical aspects of critical thinking teaching methodologies, Brinton, Snow and Wesche (1989) also argued that content-based activities provide teachers with opportunities to stimulate students to think using the target language.

Crocker and Bowden (2010) proposed using a content-based approach as a way of merging the notional-functional approach with critical thinking in a language course. According to them, both the notional-functional approach and the critical thinking subject share similar learning outcomes. Their study also suggested that

"self-correction, clarifying ideas, making distinctions, giving reasons, formulating appropriate questions, making connections and comparing" are examples of learning outcomes that can be found in either discipline (p.3). Crocker and Bowden (2010) believed that the only difference is that in critical thinking the students are expected to improve their cognitive skills, whereas the notional-functional approach aims to improve students' ability "to express or articulate these cognitive skills" (p.3). Hence, combining the two disciplines through a content-based programme places more emphasis on critical thinking in the language classroom. Such an approach allows direct instruction of critical thinking skills while achieving the intended notionalfunctional learning outcomes.

Learning strategy instruction is also considered an effective approach to teach critical thinking skills in the language classroom. Language teachers can promote their students' critical thinking through teaching them learning strategies. In doing so, students can develop their metacognitive awareness. Teachers can encourage students to describe and share their own learning techniques and strategies. According to Reid (2000), the best way to develop students' metacognitive skills is by making them consciously aware of the learning strategies they use when attempting different tasks. Thus, explicit instruction of learning strategies is needed. Chamot (1995) suggested a framework for building a community of thinkers in the language classroom. This framework consists of five kinds of instruction to help students demonstrate and improve their thinking. These include recognising and building on students' prior knowledge; providing meaningful learning tasks; engaging in interactive teaching and learning; focusing on learning processes and strategies; and helping students to evaluate their own thinking (Chamot, 1995, p.16).

In contrast, the communicative approach, which is extremely popular in the majority of foreign language classrooms, is not believed to be very supportive of incorporating critical thinking. For example, Kabilan (2013) argued that the communicative approach places more emphasis on 'using the language' rather than 'learning about the language'. As a consequence, according to Kabilan (2013), it does not really prepare students to be proficient in the target language. Kabilan, Adlina and Embi (2011) strongly believed that learners should be able to employ creative and critical thinking when using the language. Only then can learners become proficient language users. Similarly, Tarvin and Al-Arishi (1991) argued that the communicative approach disregards the importance of reflection in the target language. They stated that "many activities in the communicative language teaching classroom discourage reflection and contemplation and the emphasis is on conspicuous action and spontaneous response" (p.10). Moreover, according to them, "conspicuous action tends to be more highly valued than the need of all participants to pause unilaterally and stand back from and reflect on what they are doing" (p.10). Therefore, students are not given opportunities to develop their metacognitive awareness when they engage in communicative tasks only.

#### **METHODOLOGY**

Our study examined English language teachers' responses regarding the concept of critical thinking and its use in the classroom, which informed a frame of reference regarding teachers' general views on critical thinking and how it relates to English language teaching and learning. The study was conducted at the Language Centre at Sultan Qaboos University, the leading national government-funded university in the Sultanate of Oman. Sultan Qaboos University uses English as a medium of instruction in all its science-based colleges and some specialisations in the Colleges of Law, Education, Arts and Social Sciences. The university's Language Centre, the largest language institution in the country, has more than 200 faculty members from 30 different countries bringing with them unique experiences and a variety of linguistic, educational and sociocultural backgrounds. They provide English language services to support Omani students in their academic studies in preparation for their future roles in the workplace. The Language Centre offers a variety of foundation and credit courses to equip students with prerequisite English language and study skills for English-medium courses in their subject areas to help them succeed in their majors and future professional careers.

The study was grounded on the interpretive approach that "allows the researcher to conduct a study in its natural setting" (Al Riyami, 2015, p.413). The study involved 24 English teachers at the Language Centre at Sultan Qaboos University who participated in the in-house professional development courses. These teachers represent both foundation and credit courses across the Language Centre academic divisions, including Science, Humanities (Arts and Education), Engineering, Economics and Political Science, Medicine and Nursing, Agriculture and English for English Specialists. In addition, they reflect diversity in background, educational cultures and teaching experiences, with the majority of participants having over five years' teaching experience in Oman and the Middle East.

The study's primary aim was to yield descriptive information regarding English language teachers' conceptions of critical thinking skills in general, and in relation to the mastery of English, course content, pedagogical strategies, teaching methods and teaching practices being employed in the classroom to communicate and teach these skills. The data collection instrument was a survey. The survey research method was chosen as "a matter of asking a sample of people from a population a set of questions and using the answers from the population" (Fowler, 2014, p.ix) to investigate language teachers' responses to the concept of critical thinking and its use in the classroom. The survey was administered online on the wiggio.com platform. Though the online survey tool was conducted anonymously, each teacher was assigned a code name [P-participant] and an identifying number from 1 to 24 [P1 to P24] to differentiate their responses.

The survey comprised the following five statements allowing open-ended responses: a) State the meaning of the concept of critical thinking in one sentence (e.g. Critical thinking is ... In other words, ...); b) State the significance of critical thinking for language teaching (e.g. This idea is important because...); c) Give an example of the concept of critical thinking (as it applies to your teaching at the Language Centre of Sultan Qaboos University); d) Connect the idea of critical thinking skills to other important ideas in language teaching (e.g. This idea is connected to the following ideas within language teaching ...); e) Give examples to support the relationship between the ideas of critical thinking skills and other important ideas in language teaching (e.g. Some examples that show the relationship between this idea and other important ideas are ...). These statements were based on the most common contributory factors to the state of critical thinking teaching in higher education in the literature detailed in Paul (2004). In his study of higher education, he identified disturbing facts about the lack of clarity regarding critical thinking among most college faculty at all levels. To exemplify this, he stated that most "don't realize that they lack a substantive concept of critical thinking, believe that they sufficiently understand it, and assume they are already

teaching students it" (n.p.). Paul (2004) further goes on to explain that "when faculty have a vague notion of critical thinking, or reduce it to a single-discipline model (as in teaching critical thinking through a "logic" or a "study skills" paradigm), it impedes their ability to identify ineffective, or develop more effective, teaching practices" (n.p.).

The participants of the study responded to the online survey during and after the in-house professional development courses organised by the Language Centre. To optimise the analysis of the responses, computer programmes Word Tabulator [http://www.rvb.ru/soft/index.html] and TextAnalystv2.01 [www.analyst.ru] were used for automatic identification of the descriptors (words and phrases) and their frequencies.

#### RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A total of 24 teachers participated in the study, representing approximately 10% of the total academic staff of the Language Centre. When asked to state the meaning of the concept of critical thinking in one sentence, teachers gave as many definitions of critical thinking as there were participants in this study. For example, one of the teachers defined critical thinking as "an evaluation of a concept/idea arrived at after questioning, analysis and reflection" [P20]. Another teacher referred to critical thinking as "actively awakening and involving all aspects of thought, with attempts to suppress emotion and environmental boundaries that one is raised or taught with, which can limit one's ability to objectively view matters rationally" [P2]. A third response stated that critical thinking "means not accepting everything you read or hear at face value, but considering the source and whether or not there is a bias involved" [P3]. However, the most common concepts attributed to critical thinking from the 24 participants were that critical thinking a) requires analysis; b) involves evaluation; c) should be rational; d) involves reflection; e) requires suppression of bias; f) involves problem solving.

The analysis of the responses of the teachers also indicated that they understood the concept of critical thinking quite sufficiently. They associated it with a variety of words and expressions, for example: "application of knowledge", "ability", "process", "complex", "concept", "decision making", "opinion forming", "thinking outside the box", "identifying", "identifying connections", "systematic", "rigorous", "independent", "judgement", 'innovative", "life-long endeavour", "opinion-forming", "objective", "original" etc. However, the most frequently used descriptors involved such elements for identifying and describing critical thinking as "analysis", "evaluation", "rational", reflection", "suppression of bias/ objectivity" and "problem solving".

Paul (2004) argued that most college teachers "have no clear idea of the relation between critical thinking and creativity, problem-solving, decision-making, or communication" (n.p.). On the contrary, most study participants demonstrated their knowledge of such relations; for

example, 46% of all the responses included "problem solving" and/or other notions of an applicable outcome of the thought process. To illustrate, one of the teachers was of the opinion that critical thinking is "the application of knowledge gained in the classroom to real life" [P7]. According to this teacher, the purpose of such use may include "logical problem solving, objective decision making and cultivating a questioning stance/perspective" [P7].

Some of the teachers went beyond the requested one sentence to explain their meaning of critical thinking. One teacher shared her view as follows:

Living and teaching in the 21<sup>st</sup> century makes one realize that teaching and learning do not demand the knowledge of soon-to-be obsolete facts, but, rather, the fostering of critical thinking at all levels, especially in the field of education. I am not sure if defining it in a sentence will bring out its real essence. Defining will put it in a "box". I also believe there are no set standard ways in teaching and learning critical thinking. However, having taught language through problem based learning ..., I find it one of the best ways of promoting critical thinking among young adults. When we envisioned using this method for teaching language, our premise was the demand for 21st century skills in the work force. Traditional education that generated passive learners became a scary thought given that collaboration, communication, teamwork, etc. had become the buzz words for the future. I believe it is a soon-to-be organic process through which young minds can be facilitated toward 'thinking out of the box'. [P6]

The study revealed that the ultimate majority of the study participants (96%) considered it significant to incorporate critical thinking in language teaching. Only one teacher expressed the opinion that critical thinking has no significance to the language classroom [P14]. According to most responses, the idea of critical thinking is important and necessary in language teaching, because, as one teacher wrote:

It provides opportunities for students to think beyond the context/classroom, challenge themselves to invent/offer solutions, relate the issue to their own experiences and bring ingenuity to their ideas and in the process use language in various forms unconsciously. This will facilitate language learning in an autonomous atmosphere without any threat or impediment. [P13]

Moreover, the teachers' responses revealed that incorporating critical thinking ideas into classroom activities changes the language-learning environment while "actively engaging students with constructing a new means of communication" [P9] and "preparing for using the language "outside the classroom situation in real life contexts" [P9]. Indeed, 37.5% of the responses referred to critical thinking skills in relation to processes, events and situations both

inside and outside the language classroom and/or other contexts. To exemplify this, one of the study's participants responded to this item of the survey as follows:

Critical thinking is the essence of tertiary education. If students are to be self-disciplined, self-guided individuals, they need to be able to think at a high level of quality and fair-mindedness. Language teachers have a duty to provide students with an opportunity to develop critical thinking skills. These skills should then become a habit whenever they read, write, speak or listen to language. Human thinking is inherently flawed due to a range of factors, such as, social, personal and cultural factors. The use of critical thinking tools helps students to analyze, assess, and evaluate more effectively. Critical thinking helps to develop the intellectual virtues of integrity, humility, rationality and empathy. Most people will, at times, be guilty of irrational decisions, prejudices, biases, assumptions, distortions, uncritically accepted social rules and taboos. Critical thinking helps to avoid these human weaknesses. Through the medium of language teaching, teachers are able to promote critical thinking. It is an indispensable tool for students in both their academic life and also their life after university. [P7]

The relevance of critical thinking in relation to teachers was noted in 16% of

the respondents. This result correlates with Kabilan's (2000), who believed that teachers are the primary element needed to produce critical thinkers in language classrooms. Similarly, Lipman (2003) argued that it is a teacher's responsibility to promote students' critical thinking. Therefore, according to Lipman (2003), teachers should change their attitudes towards their students, pedagogy and themselves as teachers. They should respect learners' individuality, listen to their opinions and build mutual relationships with them. In addition, he proposed engaging learners in problem-solving situations and decision-making processes. More importantly, he purported that teachers need to act as facilitators and guides and to lead their students to be critical thinkers.

Some additional responses to the survey referred to both teacher and students; to exemplify this, one of the teachers wrote that, "... the idea of critical thinking is important because it offers both teacher and learner of a foreign language a platform to exploit the vast opportunities that this language has to offer" [P3].

Quite interestingly, students' ability to use critical thinking when using language creatively and to solve problems in learning English ranked high in the responses. In addition, students taking an active role in being responsible for their learning was seen as significant; this was evident in responses indicating autonomy, application outside the class and self-reflection as a language learner. Teachers agreed that the idea of critical thinking was significant because it could "engage students intellectually and

assist them in the process of applying skills learnt in various contexts" [P4], help them "become adventurous thinkers, generate creative solutions, use their reasoning skills to analyse and evaluate, plan and think cleverly" [P5] and assist their "development as independent learners" [P11]. Other benefits for the language classroom given in the responses included improved "attention", "observation", "analytical skills", "self-reflection", "personalized study" and the development of "intellectual virtues".

When asked to give an example of the concept of critical thinking as it applied to their teaching in the Language Centre, most teachers (87.5%) provided examples related to different language functions and areas of language learning with an emphasis on the notional-functional approach (Crocker & Bowden, 2010) and communication as both the means and the ultimate goal of language education.

A composite view listed by participants within receptive and productive areas of language learning can be presented in the following categorisations:

a) In relation to speaking, participants mentioned debate, discuss, argue and promote higher order questions, report, present, link to wider field of study, reflective interactions. To illustrate this, one of the teachers observed that she (sometimes consciously) employs "strategies that involve debate, discussion, argument in class and provides opportunities to students to come up with their own free responses" [P8].

In order to do so, she, for example, asks students to come up with topics that have intrinsic arguments in agriculture (e.g. marine pollution, genetically modified foods/plants, processed foods, chemical fertilisers vs natural fertilisers etc.) and then asks them to research for information/ideas, and present their thoughts in an argument/discussion. This teacher believes that she "can easily notice that students are using critical skills in the process" [P8].

- b) In relation to reading, participants listed analyse, evaluate, reflect, demonstrate open-mindedness, link ideas to wider field of study, recognise bias, identify main ideas, details, infer, evaluate. According to one of the teachers, "A simple example would be to give students an argumentative text on a certain controversial issue/problem, such as internet censorship or globalization and ask them what they think of the writer's ideas, whether they agree or disagree with him/her and why, and also suggest other solutions to the problem" [P3].
- c) In relation to writing, participants wrote research, source information, report, reflective journals, portfolios, paraphrase, summarise, reference, evaluate evidence, link to wider field of study. For example, one of the teachers contended: "I teach students to apply/use their language and study skills and to

- come up with a 500-word research paper. They are guided through the research process and for their research paper to be valid/useful to the community they need to pose real questions which need answers. They need to analyse previous theory and research, evaluate this and reflect on their own standpoint and of course how they will use this second language to communicate their ideas via a written report, and a presentation, to their instructor and their colleagues" [P9].
- d) In relation to listening, participants listed evaluate, reflect, demonstrate open-mindedness, link to wider field of study, identify main ideas, details, infer, recognise bias, evaluate, paraphrase, summarise. This categorisation can be supported by an example statement from one of the responses, "Creating and developing vocabulary mind-maps, writing reflective paragraphs on the listening tasks, creating their own quizzes, are just examples of tools that nourish their ability to think critically simply because they push students to reason, apply their knowledge to accomplish their task, synthesize and summarize their material" [P21].

The majority (75%) of the surveyed teachers suggested the connection of the idea of critical thinking with diverse ideas in language teaching and education. According

to teachers' responses, critical thinking is connected with "applying acquired language in new contexts", "collaborative learning", "convincing others", "creating", "developing values", "expressing opinions", "inferring", "innovative thinking", "learner autonomy", "paraphrasing", "presentation skills", "problem solving", "self-awareness", "self-reflection", "self-regulation", "social skills", "summarizing", "working with task-based approaches (projects, portfolios, journaling)", "using lexis, syntax and grammar to guess meaning of unknown words" and "using logic and reason". For example, according to one of the teachers who participated in the study, critical thinking skills "pave the way to promoting learner's autonomy" [P4]. Another teacher believed that the idea of critical thinking "is connected to the following ideas within language teaching: student engagement, active learning, personalized experience, cultural integration, sharing ideas, cooperative learning, group work/ pair work, but most importantly in teaching reading skills at a higher level" [P22]. In the view of a third participant of the study, critical thinking "is part and parcel of the modern language teaching methodology" [P5]. This teacher also expressed her strong belief that "learning best takes place through internalization; so developing critical thinking is a way to help students internalize the idea and later apply it in real life situations". When asked to connect the idea of critical thinking with language teaching, the fourth teacher observed that "using critical thinking strategies in language teaching can help teachers develop students' ability to solve problems, discuss an issue in a congenial atmosphere, express an opinion, convince the others, analyze issues in a scientific manner using logic and reasoning" [P11]. This teacher further argued that when teachers "allow these things to happen freely, students would develop autonomous learning skills which should be the primary goal of any instructional process" [P11].

It is noteworthy that 65% of the respondents provided examples of the relationship between critical thinking and other important elements of language teaching. These examples drive critical thinking skills associated with multiple activities performed in the communication environment of the language classroom. These included such types of activities as argue for/against; brainstorm; compare connoted (associative or implied) and denoted (dictionary) meanings of vocabulary in context; consider alternatives; design ways of organising and representing information; infer sub-textual meaning; link ideas; organise ideas in a logical sequence; reflect; while reading, identify patterns sequence, similarities and contrasts, guess and predict, find relationships, predict consequences, judge validity of sources; use the discovery process including: paying attention, finding patters, cross-checking, negating or confirming their own ideas, summarising and concluding; write opinion essays etc. To illustrate this, one of the survey respondents contended that "when asked to write a reflection on a given task, the students identify the 'weaknesses'

and then devise an action plan to rectify the shortcomings they have identified, themselves, in the analyses they provide. By doing so, the students take control of their own learning. It also shows that they are actively engaged with what they are learning and are not just passive learners" [P9].

Additionally, one teacher provided a thought-provoking response concerning teachers' critical awareness of their teaching methods [P18]. This respondent cited Chick's (1996) argument that the use of the communicative approach in language teaching "was possibly a sort of naive ethno centrism prompted by the thought that what is good for Europe or the USA had to be good for KwaZulu" (p. 22) and observed that similar issues were raised by researchers in China, India, Japan, Pakistan, South Korea and Thailand. In lieu with the study by Canagarajah (1999) that examined how teachers and students working in remote Sri Lankan classes use creative classroom strategies that reflect an engagement with local context, need and resources, this teacher called for "providing students with a teaching approach that will help them find ways to reconstruct their languages, cultures, and identities to their advantage" [P18]. Indeed, this response broadens the focus of employing critical thinking in higher education institutions. It encourages teachers to consider critically their philosophy of teaching, the strategies they use and the experiences they provide for their students in their classes. It widens the scope beyond student engagement and, therefore, has the possibility of developing a

more contextualised methodology to engage students in a way that may utilise their strengths rather than demand they develop less appropriate skills for the context in which they live and study.

#### CONCLUSION

There is a lot of interest and valuable implementation of critical thinking already taking place at the Sultan Qaboos University Language Centre, and the majority of participants in this study recognised the central role played by critical thinking in effective language teaching and pedagogy. According to the teachers, fostering a perspective of renewed commitment to teaching critical thinking skills in line with a functional and communicative languagelearning environment enhances students' chances of success and achievement in both their studies and potentially the job market. However, in spite of the identified connection between critical thinking and other elements of language teaching and a variety of activities directly relating to language teaching, there is no consensus among teachers regarding the understanding and interpretation of thinking that "defines the content" (Paul, 2004) of what is taught in the English language classroom. Therefore, there is a need for targeted professional development for teachers in the area of critical thinking that will include a theoretical rationale, reinforcement of the basic principles of critical thinking and practical examples that teachers can utilise and better understand the idea of critical thinking in general and critical thinking approaches in teaching specifically. As Paul (2004) stated, "If we understand critical thinking substantively, we not only explain the idea explicitly to our students, but we use it to give order and meaning to virtually everything we do as teachers and learners" (n.p.).

Though the study examined teacher beliefs and methods of teaching critical thinking in the language classroom only at one institution of higher education in Oman, its results may provide relevant information to other English language teachers in similar educational contexts. In addition, they may stimulate further research on critical thinking skills development alongside language proficiency to better conceptualise and organise the design and implementation of critical thinking teaching and student learning in the English language classroom.

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#### **SOCIAL SCIENCES & HUMANITIES**

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# **Determinants of Willingness to Pay for Hepatitis B Vaccination** in Malaysia

#### Yogambigai, R.

Faculty of Accountancy and Management, Department of Economics, Universiti Tunku Abdul Rahman, 43000, UTAR, Bandar Sungai Long, Cheras, Selangor, Malaysia Faculty of Economics and Management, Universiti Putra Malaysia, 43400, UPM, Serdang, Selangor, Malaysia

#### **ABSTRACT**

Hepatitis B infection is an upcoming health problem in Malaysia. HB vaccine coverage of infants in Malaysia was implemented by the Malaysian government in 1989. However, there is no compulsory vaccination programme for adults for HB vaccination. Currently, they have to protect themselves with a self-paid HB vaccination. The determinant of willingness to pay for HB vaccination is important to examine in order to estimate the economic benefit of high-burden diseases, such as HB. This study includes a few determinants identified by a literature review and an added new variable as risk behaviour to determine willingness to pay.

Keywords: Health Belief Model, Hepatitis B, vaccination, willingness to pay

#### INTRODUCTION

Hepatitis results in an inflammation of the liver caused by a viral infection. The World Health Organisation estimated that 240 million humans were chronically infected by HBV and globally, 240 million are chronically infected, while 650,000 cirrhosis (World Health Organisation, 2015). In Malaysia, an estimated one million nationals are chronically infected with the Hepatitis B virus (Khairullah & Merican, 2004). The HB vaccine coverage of infants in Malaysia under the Expanded Programme on Immunisation (EPI) was implemented by the Malaysian government in 1989 (Khairullah & Merican, 2004; Ng et al., 2005). However, in Malaysia currently, there is no compulsory vaccination programme for adults for HB vaccination. Their willingness

to pay for a self-paid HB vaccination and

individuals die each year due to liver

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E-mail address:

yogambigai@utar.edu.my (Yogambigai, R.)

\* Corresponding author

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the factors affecting their willingness to pay (WTP) are important to examine in order to estimate the economic benefit of vaccination for high-burden diseases, such as Hepatitis B. Since only a few studies (Hou et al., 2014; Pennie et al., 1991) focus on willingness to pay for existing vaccination, this study will identify the determinant for willingness to pay for a HB vaccination.

#### Rationale of the Study

Belief pertaining to safety and efficiency of vaccines is the most important factor in determining vaccine acceptance (Bodenheimer et al., 1986). However, some studies highlighted that doctor recommendation is important for increasing vaccine coverage among high risk populations (Kee at al., 2007). Nevertheless, Larson et al. (2011) highlighted that public trust in vaccination always changes and depends on vaccine perception, vaccine risk experience of getting vaccines, religious or political circumstances and socioeconomic status. Sustained vaccine coverage works only if public confidence in vaccines and the public's level of trust in vaccination increases (Larson et al., 2011).

The information on willingness to pay for an existing vaccination is important in policy-making decisions as it helps in gathering information about diseases and the fiscal burden it places on individuals in addition to providing vaccines with cost-controlled efficiency (Hou et al., 2014). Current literature does not provide an estimate of the benefit of vaccinations after

a vaccine is introduced. Information on the acceptable levels of vaccination in the past is also lacking (Piso & Wild, 2009).

### RESEARCH FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESIS SPECIFICATION

#### Socioeconomic Factors

In general, most studies conducted include the socioeconomic variable as one of the components in determining a customer's willingness to pay. Because Malaysia is a multiracial country, this research intends to test the racial significance difference. Several studies conducted in Malaysia show that the Chinese have a higher chance of infection compared to other races (Lopez et al., 1978; Tan et al., 1986, 1990). Hebert and his co-researchers also highlighted that race and ethnicity "play a small role" in vaccination as the rate of vaccination was shown to be low among at least one ethnic group, African-Americans (Hebert et al., 2005).

Basic economic models often focus on two determinants of willingness to pay, which are income and use of goods (Liebe et al., 2011). When consumers consider paying for improved health quality, their choices and responses are based on their disposable income. Therefore, income usually has a positive relationship to willingness to pay (Cawley, 2008; Do et al., 2006; Kartman et al., 1996; Lucas et al., 2007; Unutzer et al., 2003). Studies conducted in Sweden showed that lower-income patients preferred to finance their WTP via loans and have higher WTP for the treatment of obesity

compared to higher-income patients (Narbro & Sjostrom, 2000). For cardiovascular disease in Sweden, factors such as income, condition of pectoris status, attack rate and percentage in reduction in attack rates were positively related to willingness to pay (Kartman et al., 1996). Sometimes, willingness to pay correlates with income, tax burden and political persuasion for obesity in New York (Cawley, 2008). For cholera vaccine in Mozambique, private demands for a vaccine depended on lower price, higher income, increase in asset ownership, education and higher risk group (Lucas et al., 2007). In Western Washington, patients with higher risk and higher income were able to pay more for higher depression symptoms (Unutzer et al., 2003).

One of the studies conducted on allergy-asthma in Denmark showed that education and age were barriers for willingness to pay, but not income. Another determinant of willingness to pay is gender. Gender is also one of the important variables in HIV and malaria vaccine studies (Sauerborn et al., 2005; Whittington et al., 2008). In India, the willingness to pay for HIV-positive treatment was lower for women compared to men (Gupta & Sankar, 2003). Therefore, it was postulated that if one had good socioeconomic status, one would be more willing to pay for HB vaccination.

Hypothesis 1: Socioeconomic status has a positive effect on willingness to pay for HB vaccination.

#### **Knowledge Level**

Public goods can be expressed in the economic concept of value. When an individual uses goods to increase his/her wellbeing, he/she shows direct connection between himself/herself and the goods in terms of 'use value'. Moreover, if goods do not have a link to an individual's wellbeing, but to his/her knowledge, there is an indirect connection that is expressed as 'non-use value' (Liebe et al., 2011).

Knowledge context, source of information, HB transmission and vaccine existence will be tested. Results from Ma et al. (2006) showed that the healthcare provider is the main influence on the rate of HB immunisation. In another study conducted in France, the researchers suggested that knowledge of HB transmission among households was very poor and should be improved, especially for higher risk groups (Brouard et al., 2013).

Despite the high willingness to pay for several non-available vaccines such as for dengue and HIV, this study attempts to investigate willingness to pay in the presence of a readily available Hepatitis vaccine in the market (Palanca, 2008; Whittington et al., 2008). Lack of knowledge among parents (Smith et al., 2011; Becker et al., 1978) was found to be one of the factors influencing willingness to pay. Knowledge level among the targetted population highlighted that knowledge can influence Hepatitis B vaccination coverage (Bodenheimer et al., 1986; Ma et al., 2007; Slonim et al., 2005). Therefore, it was hypothesised that if one

had a high level of knowledge of Hepatitis B, one would be more willing to pay for Hepatitis B vaccination.

Hypothesis 2: High level of knowledge of Hepatitis B has a positive effect on willingness to pay for HB vaccination.

#### Awareness

Although awareness of Hepatitis B variables has been investigated in the Malaysian context, it only focussed on healthcare workers in general (Hesham et al., 2005; Lim & Rashwan, 2003; Sinnah et al., 1994; Yaacob & Samaranayake, 1989). Initially, a plasma-derived HB vaccine was not widely accepted by Malaysian dental practitioners due to the fear of side effects (Yaacob & Samaranayake, 1989) even though it was found to be safe and immunogenic by the Korea Green Cross Corporation (Sinnah et al., 1994). Even though employees in the medical sector were aware of the seriousness of this disease, not all of them were immunised against the HB virus (Hesham et al., 2005). Lim and Rashwan (2003) discovered that HB vaccination coverage was lower among the public (below 35%), but higher among healthcare workers at 65.6%. This outcome affirmed the findings of Hesham et al. (2005); in their study, 58.4% of healthcare workers took the complete vaccine schedule and 82.2% of them took at least one dose. Healthcare workers seem to be reluctant to complete a full vaccine schedule despite having a higher level of awareness compared to the general public. Nevertheless, in Nigeria, although healthcare workers were found to have substantial knowledge of Hepatitis B infection, there was a lack of knowledge of Hepatitis B vaccination (Daboer et al., 2010).

"In the context of WTP analyses, the personal norm to pay for the good, the awareness of need with respect to providing the good, and the awareness of responsibility for paying are considered as behavioural determinants" (Liebe et al., 2011). Even though few studies have focussed on willingness to pay and awareness of the health perspective, one study conducted in Sweden revealed that awareness has positive acceptability on HPV vaccination (Dahlstrom et al., 2010). Therefore, it was surmised that if one had greater awareness on Hepatitis B and vaccination, one would be more willing to pay for HB vaccination.

Hypothesis 3: Greater level of awareness on Hepatitis B has a positive effect on willingness to pay for HB vaccination.

#### **Perception**

Perception is described as an individual's belief in his or her own 'attributes' and the 'interpretation' of his/her own behaviour (Molden & Dweck, 2006). Belief has a relationship with socialisation and behaviour (Abraham & Sheeran, 2005). Individual belief is based on an individual's characteristics, which can be observed through his/her behaviour and primary socialisation. Lewin's 'seminal field theory

of 1935' is one of the earliest theories in health behaviour (Rimer, 2008). The theories of Kurt Lewin explain that an individual's behaviour depends on the individual and the environment (Sansone et al., 2003). The Health Belief Model (HBM), developed by Godfrey Hochbaum, is based on Kurt Lewin's theories, which explain that the perception of an individual is a very important determinant in individual reaction (Hochbaum et al., 1952). The study conducted by Hebert et al. (2005) showed that belief greatly influenced people to get vaccination. Luzar (1998) suggested that the attitude-behaviour relationship should be analysed to investigate an individual's willingness to pay.

Perceived susceptibility or risk of contracting disease is an important factor in influencing people to adopt healthier behaviour (Hochbaum et al., 1952). The similarity found in studies that have yielded this finding was that the targetted population perceived that they were not at risk. (Wai et al., 2005; Slonim et al., 2005; Rhodes & Hergenrather, 2002). In contrast, Vietnamese immigrants' susceptibility and their perceptions of severity caused them to believe that they were at high risk of premature death from liver cancer if they evaded Hepatitis B screening (Ma et al., 2007). For breast cancer, perceived susceptibility was seen to have a positive relationship to willingness to pay (Chaliki et al., 1995). Another study also indicated that perceived susceptibility for cancer has a direct and indirect relationship to willingness to pay (Bosompra et al., 2001). Another

study revealed that a positive and negative relationship exists between susceptibility and number of preventive dental visits (Chen & Land, 1986). Therefore, it was proposed that if one had greater perceived susceptibility to Hepatitis B, one would be more willing to pay for HB vaccination.

Hypothesis 4: Perceived susceptibility to Hepatitis B has a positive effect on willingness to pay for HB vaccination.

Perceived severity or perception of seriousness can be different among individuals even if they are from the same demographic group (Hochbaum et al., 1952). The rate of Hepatitis B vaccination increases in line with a health provider's advice given to patients educating them about the seriousness of a disease (Ma et al., 2006). Willingness to pay for genetic testing for cancer risk has a positive relationship to perceived severity (Bosompra et al., 2001). Therefore, it was hypothesised that if one had greater perceived severity of Hepatitis B, one would be more willing to pay for HB vaccination.

Hypothesis 5: Perceived severity of Hepatitis B has a positive effect on willingness to pay for HB vaccination.

Perceived benefit is an individual's perception or opinion of adopting new behaviour to reduce the chances of developing disease (Hochbaum et al., 1952).

In order to increase the number of women who undergo screening for breast cancer, women need to be aware of the benefits of breast cancer screening. The perception of current (Lucas et al., 2007) and future infectious diseases (Kim et al., 2008) was also found to influence households' willingness to pay for vaccination. In another study, benefits of and trust in vaccination were prominent factors in child influenza vaccination (Bhat-Schelbert et al., 2012). Bosompra et al. found that willingness to pay for genetic testing for cancer risk had a positive relationship with perceived benefits (2001). Therefore, it is believed that if one perceived Hepatitis B to bring more benefits, one would be more willing to pay for HB vaccination.

Hypothesis 6: Perceived benefits of HB vaccination has a positive effect on willingness to pay for HB vaccination.

Perceived barriers are the individual's perception of obstacles he/she may face in adopting new behaviour (Hochbaum et al., 1952). Perceived barriers are one of the main concerns in adult immunisation in the USA (Johnson et al., 2008). Understanding immunisation among adults was found to be low, apart from the lack of interest in promoting immunisation by health providers (Johnson et al., 2008). However, willingness to pay for genetic testing for cancer risk has a negative relationship with perceived barriers (Bosompra et al., 2001). Therefore, it is hypothesised that if one had more

perceived barriers to Hepatitis B, one would be less willing to pay for HB vaccination.

Hypothesis 7: A perceived barrier to Hepatitis B has a negative effect on willingness to pay for HB vaccination.

#### **Risk Factors**

The willingness to pay for vaccination has been found to be related to two effects, which were the 'dead anyway effect' and the 'high payment effect' (Pratt & Zeckhauser, 1996). The 'dead anyway effect' refers to the belief that even with vaccination, the disease would ultimately cause death, and therefore, spending money on vaccination was a waste of resources. The 'high payment effect' refers to the rise in marginal utility of income experienced by people at high risk of contracting a disease. Most of the studies related to willingness to pay and risk factors revealed the 'high payment effect'. Public willingness to pay for genetic testing for cancer risk using a structural equation model showed a positive and direct effect on willingness to pay and cancer risk (Bosompra et al., 2001). Another study showed that high risk for diabetes led to individuals being willing to pay more for a diabetes risk reduction programme (Johnson et al., 2006). A different study conducted by Krupnick and his co-researcher on mortality risk reduction and willingness to pay by cancer patients showed that individuals with cancer and good mental health were more willing to pay compared to those without cancer (Krupnick et al., 2002). Therefore,

it is postulated that if one had more risk behaviour for Hepatitis B, one would be more willing to pay for HB vaccination.

# Hypothesis 8: Risk behaviour for Hepatitis B has a positive effect on willingness to pay for HB vaccination.

#### **Model of the Study**

The model of this study was designed based on the study objectives and the Health Belief Model.

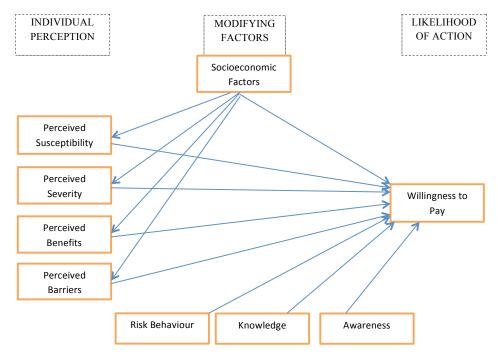


Figure 1. Conceptual model on the factors affecting willingness to pay for Hepatitis B vaccination

#### RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The research questions are based on the research model depicted in Figure 1. Questions to answer in this study included:

- What is the level of knowledge and awareness of respondents of Hepatitis B vaccination and how does knowledge level and
- awareness affect their willingness to pay?
- 2. What is the risk behaviour of people with Hepatitis B infection and how does the behaviour affect their willingness to pay?
- 3. What is the Malaysian perception of severity, perception of

sustainability, perception of benefit, and perception of barriers on Hepatitis B vaccination, and how does respondents' perception affect their willingness to pay?

4. What are the determinants of Hepatitis B vaccination among respondents and what are the perceived economic benefits?

#### SIGNIFICANCE OF STUDY

Firstly, awareness and knowledge level of Hepatitis B and Hepatitis B vaccination focus on a selected population i.e. blood donors, healthcare workers and individuals living in an urban area. However, this study focussed on awareness and knowledge level of the general population, including the rural and urban population.

Secondly, it is important to be aware of risk behaviour among the general population as this is necessary to foresee its future and current impact on the health system. However, in a Malaysian perspective, none of the previous studies on willingness to pay focussing on risk behaviour of Hepatitis B considered this to be an important issue. Nevertheless, this issue was already studied in the Romanian perceptive.

Thirdly, from a health perspective, consumer perception is very important to determine consumer behaviour towards vaccination. This is the first study conducted in Malaysia to assess the respondent's perception of Hepatitis B vaccination using the Health Belief Model.

Fourthly, currently, Hepatitis B vaccination is available at no charge to

Malaysian infants. Considering the nation's willingness to pay for HB vaccination, the government can allocate available healthcare resources (vaccine) at cost-controlled efficiency.

Fifthly, since the introduction of the EPI programme in 1989, adults who were born before 1989 experienced low Hepatitis B immunisation rates and are considered to be a high-risk group because they were not protected by this mandate. At the moment, there are no policies or compulsory vaccination enforced on this highly productive group who can contribute immensely to economic development. Therefore, this study intended to examine their willingness to pay for HB vaccination and to recommend the best policy development to reduce HB infection rates in Malaysia.

Lastly, at this moment, very few studies have been conducted to determine the willingness to pay for vaccination in Malaysia. Therefore, this research can be used as a reference by researchers or policy makers in the future to examine the willingness to pay for vaccination for other diseases.

#### **CONCLUSION**

The study offered a theoretical model based on existing literature and developed the determinant for a HB vaccination model based on the empirical investigation of the positive and negative effects of different factors on willingness to pay for HB vaccination. Although risk factors associated with willingness to pay were investigated,

there is no research that has attempted to examine the effect of risk behaviour on willingness to pay related to vaccination.

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# Employees' Retention Strategy on Quality of Work Life (QWL) Dimensions of Private Commercial Banks in Bangladesh

Rahman, M. M.1\*, Abdul, M.2, Ali, N. A.1, Uddin, M. J.3 and Rahman, M. S.3

<sup>1</sup>Faculty of Economics and Management, Department of Management and Marketing, Universiti Putra Malaysia, 43400 Serdang, Malaysia

<sup>2</sup>Institute for Social Science Studies, Universiti Putra Malaysia, 43400 Serdang, Malaysia

#### **ABSTRACT**

Quality of Work Life (QWL) is a philosophy on employees' organizational life satisfaction. Retention of experienced and trained employees is a challenging task for all organizations, especially for banking organizations. This research paper aims at identifying underlying dimensions of QWL program that shape employees' retention strategy in Private Commercial Banks (PCBs) in Bangladesh. The study is mainly based on primary data obtained through a structured questionnaire on 200 employees working at PCBs. Independent and dependent variables on a five - point "Likert -Type Scale" specifies how strongly the respondents agree or disagree with statements. Several statistical tools and techniques such as descriptive analysis, Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), Zero Order Karl Pearson's correlation analysis and Ordinary Least Square (OLS) multiple regression analysis have been used to determine empirical findings and draw a conclusion. The findings of the study shows the effects which can impinge on employees' retention strategy with the dimensions (maintenance and supervisory) being particularly significant. The authority of PCBs in Bangladesh should address these dimensions to retain their experienced and trained employees.

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E-mail addresses: mizanmgt@gmail.com (Rahman, M. M.), mohani@upm.edu.my (Abdul, M.), nazman@upm.edu.my (Ali, N. A.), muddin@metrouni.edu.bd (Uddin, M. J.), saidurmgt@gmail.com (Rahman, M. S.) \* Corresponding author

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#### INTRODUCTION

Quality of Work Life (QWL) is a slogan that has gained importance since the industrial revolution (Patil & Swadi, 2014). An effective QWL is a tool to improve working

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>Department of Business Administration, Metropolitan University, 3100 Sylhet, Bangladesh

conditions (an employee's perspective) and greater organisational efficiency (an employer's perspective). Positive results of QWL have been supported by Cohen et al., (1997) and found QWL helps to reduce absenteeism, lower turnover rate, and improve job satisfaction. Apart from that, organisational development is a contribution of QWL Asgari et al., (2011). QWL has gained greater importance in the period of globalisation where every organisation is struggling to survive. Successful organisations provide different facilities to their employees for QWL to achieve a balance between work and social/family life. Introduction and implementation of QWL dimensions in organisations aim at integrating employees' socio-psychological needs with organisational requirements and existing socio-cultural status of the organisation. Employees enjoying QWL are trustworthy, responsible and capable of making valuable contribution and therefore should be treated with dignity and respect (Straw & Heckscher, 1984). Organisations worldwide are working hard at keep their employees contented, introducing and bringing required modifications in the existing QWL dimensions. Banking organisations especially, Private Commercial Banks (PCBs) in Bangladesh are also focusing QWL dimensions. There are 49 PCBs in Bangladesh which are trying to gain a competitive advantage over their rivals and QWL dimension plays an important role to gain and sustain competitive advantage (Rahman & Iqbal, 2013). Numerous factors must be taken

into consideration when planning the QWL dimension. QWL dimensions encompass a range of practices like involvement, supervision, security, payment and mode of payment, working conditions, working time, health hazards issue, financial and nonfinancial benefits and management behaviour towards employees, safe work environment, equitable & satisfactory wages, equal employment opportunities, opportunities for advancement compensation management, decision participation, training facility and job security individual power, fairness and equity, social support, use of one's present skills job satisfaction, life satisfaction, happiness at work, and self-rated anxiety (Islam & Siengthai, 2009). A valid measure of QWL can be used as a basis for effective interventions of getting excellent work and to retain a good talented people in the organisation. Employees perceived favourable feelings for the organisational quality of work life program as it enables organizations to cope with challenges such as competition. Due to the importance of the banking industry, it is a necessity to evaluate the QWL of employees in the banking sector. Morin and Morin (2004) found QWL has always been a focal point in healthcare management besides other safety and health conscious work environment. QWL programmes should have two broad objectives for enhancing productivity and increasing employee satisfaction. In Bangladesh, PCBs are focusing on productivity rather than employees' life satisfaction. This paper intends to highlight the importance of the QWL dimension for employees in PCBs in Bangladesh. Its objectives are:

- To identify the QWL dimensions which help to retain the employees' of (PCBs) in Bangladesh.
- To determine the effect of QWL dimensions on intention to stay in (PCBs) in Bangladesh.
- To find out the effect of QWL dimensions on organizational internal life enjoyment of (PCBs) in Bangladesh.
- To recommend the QWL practices for maintaining sound organizational life and retaining employees in (PCBs) in Bangladesh.

#### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### **Quality of Work Life**

The Quality of Work Life (QWL) refers to the feelings of employees towards the job environment. QWL dimension is a way through which organisations confirm their responsibilities to employees by enriching jobs and creating favourable working conditions for both organizational people and organization's economic health (Rahman, Uddin & Rabb, 2015). QWL is a philosophy to manage talent with a program to satisfy employees' sociopsychological needs in the organisation. This philosophy aims at meeting the twin goals of the enhanced effectiveness of the organisation and improved QWL at work for employees (Patil & Swadi,

2014). QWL efforts are systematic efforts made by an organisation which ensure a greater opportunity for their employees to improve their job in a positively. . Not only that, QWL also contributes the overall effectiveness of their organisation. Rose et al., (2006) mentioned the concept of QWL programme began in the late 1960s emphasising the human dimensions of working environment that focused on the quality of the relationship between the worker and working environment. Davis first introduced the concept of QWL at the Forty-Third American Assembly on the Changing World of Work at Columbia University's Arden House and concluded with the statement that "improving the place, the organisation, and the nature of work can lead to better work performance and a better quality of life in the society" (Wyatt & Wah 2001, Sadique 2003, Islam & Siengthai, 2009).

#### **Quality Work Life Dimensions and its Importance**

Since the meanings and definitions of QWL varied and encompassed several different perspectives it is better to conceptualize the QWL dimensions (Seashore, 1975, p. 105-118.). Walton has identified eight dimensions, which make up the QWL framework (Walton, 1975, p. 99-104.). These dimensions are (1) adequate income and fair compensation (2) safe and healthy working conditions (3) opportunity for continued growth and security (4) immediate opportunity to use and develop human capacities (5) social

integration in the work organisation (6) constitutionalism in the work organisation (7) work and the total life space (8) social relevance of work life. QWL efforts include the areas of personal and professional development, work redesign, team building, work scheduling, and total organisational change. On the other hand, Havlovic (1991) identified seven job related key elements of QWL comprise by job security, job satisfaction, better reward system, employee benefits, employee involvement and organisational performance. European Commission (EC) proposed ten dimensions for QWL, which are (1) intrinsic job quality, (2) skills, life-long learning and career development, (3) gender equality 4) health and safety at work, (5) flexibility and security, (6) inclusion and access to the labour market, (7) work organisation and work-life balance, (8) social dialogue and worker involvement, (9) diversity and non-discrimination, and (10) overall work performance (Tabassum, 2011). Later on, Skinner and Ivancevich (2008) urged that QWL is associated with adequate and fair compensation, safe & healthy working conditions, opportunities to develop human capacities, opportunities for continuous growth and job security, more flexible work scheduling and job assignment, careful attention to job design and workflow, better union-management cooperation, and less structural supervision and development of effective work teams. According to Sadique (2003), a high QWL exists when democratic management practices are prevailing in an organisation and all the managers,

employees, Employees, union leaders share organisational responsibility. QWL also describes the satisfaction of employees and which can be possible through resources, activities, and outcomes stemming from participation in the workplace (Sirgy et al., 2001). Marta et al. (2011) introduced a new concept of QWL dimensions based on needhierarchy theory of Maslow, identifying seven sets of human developmental needs: (1) health and safety needs, (2) economic and family needs, (3) social needs, (4) esteem needs, (5) actualisation needs, (6) knowledge needs, and (7) aesthetic needs. However, employees perceived favourable feelings to the organisational QWL program in the light of organisation global business challenges. Due to the importance of banking industry, it is a necessity to evaluate the QWL of the employees in the banking sector. Further, employees in the banking sector play a key role in society making QWL among male and female employees in PCBs in Bangladesh an important issue.

### OPERATIONAL FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was used to sort-out the dimensions of QWL. The researchers intended to establish the relationship among quality of work life dimensions to their outcomes variables, such as intention to stay and overall organisational life enjoyment. The following Figure 1 shows conceptual framework and construction of hypotheses to determine the effects size among variables.

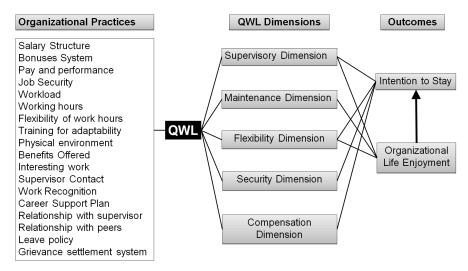


Figure 1. Operational Framework

The literature showed dimensions of QWL that can influence employee's intention to stay, job satisfaction and organisational life. The fact is employees who enjoy meaningful work, favourable working conditions, and salary can ensure a total quality situation. In a real situation, organisational requirements and employees need differ in QWL issues. The demands of the organisations are too much and the compensation to the employees is too little and does not value the QWL issue (Pranee, 2010). As a result, may limit their efforts, slow down production, and in some cases, cease production completely to the frustration of the managerial efforts to maximize returns. Havlovic (1991) identified job security, job satisfaction, better reward system, employee benefits, employee involvement and organisational performance. They have shown these dimensions produced differential effects on employee retention strategy and organisational life. Kottke,

J.L. &Sharafinski, 1988 stipulated that supervisory dimension refers to employee views to what extent the supervisors value employees' contributions, and are concerned with Recently, researchers have focused significant attention on the concept of supervisory support as a key predictor of intention to stay in the organisation (Allen et al., 2003; Maertz et al., 2007). The studies strongly indicate that the immediate manager plays an important role in employee turnover decisions (Maertz et al., 2003; Payne & Huffman, 2005). Not only that, Work flexibility dimension is a valuable organisational resource offered to and is also a resource that crosses the boundaries considered in the interrelated process of family and work domains (Kelly et al., 2008). Evidence suggests that flexibility dimension contributes to valuable organisational outcomes such as productivity, absenteeism, job satisfaction and reduce to turnover intention (Casey & Grzywacz, 2008; Grzywacz, Carlson, & Shulkin, 2008; Hill et al., 2008). Work flexibility is the result of formal organisational policies or can be derived from informal procedures implemented by the heads of units or discrete teams. Compensation is one of the most critical issues when it comes to attracting and keeping talent Griffeth et al. (2000) high performers quit when they are insufficiently rewarded. Sturman et al., 2003; Carraher et al., 2006 mentioned that Pay, pay satisfaction, and attitude towards benefits exhibit significant relationships with absenteeism, turnover intentions, and perceived organisational attractiveness for job seekers, organisational citizenship behaviours, and job performance. With this background the researchers present the following hypotheses:

## A. QWL Dimensions and Intention to Stay

Hypothesis 1: Quality of work life dimension is related to increased employee intention to stay in the organisation.

- $H_{1a}$ : Supportive supervisory dimension helps to increase intention to stay.
- $H_{1b}$ : Maintenance dimension helps to increase employee intention to stay.
- $H_{1c}$ : Flexibility dimension helps to increase employee intention to stay.

- $H_{1d}$ : Security dimension helps to increase employee intention to stay.
- $H_{1e}$ : Compensation dimension helps to increase employee intention to stay.

#### B. QWL Dimensions and Organisational Life Enjoyment

Hypothesis 2: Quality of work life is associated with increased organisational life enjoyment.

- **H**<sub>2a</sub>: Supervisory dimension helps to increase organisational life enjoyment.
- **H**<sub>2b</sub>: Maintenance dimension helps to increase organisational life enjoyment.
- $H_{2c}$ : Flexibility dimension helps to increase organisational life enjoyment.
- $H_{2d}$ : Security dimension helps to increase organisational life enjoyment.
- **H**<sub>2e</sub>: Compensation dimension helps to increase organisational life enjoyment.

#### C. Comparison of QWL Dimensions Between Intention to Stay Decision and Internal Organisational Life Enjoyment

From the previous literature, it can be identified that employees' intention to stay is a critical decision. It does not only depend on organisational QWL dimensions but also socio-economic factors. Organisational life enjoyment, on the other hand, solely depends

on organisational QWL dimensions. Thus, we can take the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 3: Quality of Work Life dimension is more associated with increased organisational life enjoyment than intention to stay.

- $H_{3a}$ : Supervisory Dimension is a strong predictor of organisational life enjoyment than intention to stay.
- $H_{3b}$ : Maintenance Dimension is a strong predictor of organisational life enjoyment than intention to stay.
- **H**<sub>3c</sub>: Flexibility Dimension is a strong predictor of organisational life enjoyment than intention to stay.
- $H_{3d}$ : Security Dimension is a strong predictor of organisational life enjoyment than intention to stay.
- $H_{3e}$ : Compensation Dimension is a strong predictor of organisational life enjoyment than intention to stay.

#### RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

#### Research Design

This research is exploratory and empirical in nature. Primary data was collected through a structured self-administered questionnaire consisting of respondent's racial makeup as well as research specific independent and dependent variables. The questionnaire was administered to 10 employees of three bank branches as part of a pilot survey to

justify the validity and reliability of all the questions, and following some corrections have shown good internal consistency.

#### **Participants**

On the basis of pilot study's feedback, the final questionnaire was modified and finalized to collect primary data. 350 survey instruments were surveyed by self and total 205 were returned representing an effective response rate of 58.57 %. 5 filled questionnaires were discarded because of respondents' inconsistent information. Finally, this study was based on 200 full times employees who met our sampling criteria (e.g., Cohen & Cohen (1983) mentioned that for running OLS multiple linear regression analysis, the optimum sample size might be 20 samples for one independent variable and minimum sample size might be 5 samples for one independent variable). In our study, we expect maximum 5 to 7 criterion variables to regress against predicted variables. In the study sample, it has found that 58 % respondents are male while 42% are female. Among them, 66% respondents are married and 34% respondents are unmarried. Maximum (48%) banking employees were at the age of 30+ years but in terms of job experience, 44% respondents having 1- 5 years and 39% having 6-10 years of experience. Most (89%) of the employees have completed post graduate degree and few (7%) of them have banking diploma. However, details about participants are presented in Table No.1.

Table 1
Demographic information of the respondents

Respondents' Characteristics	Frequency	Percentage
Gender		
Male	116	58
Female	84	42
	04	42
Age (Years)	92	41
20-30	82	41
31-40	96	48
41-above	22	11
Marital Status		
Married	132	66
Unmarried	68	34
Level of Education		
Graduate	8	4
Post Graduate	178	89
Banking Diploma &Others	14	7
Position		
Officer	92	46
Senior Officer	56	28
Principle Officer	36	18
AVP/VP	16	8
Working Experience (Years)		
Less than 5	88	44
6-10	78	39
11-above	34	17

Source: Field Survey, 2015

#### Measures

This study has extracted five independent variables as dimensions of QWL and intention to stay and organisational internal life enjoyment used as predicted variables. Details of the independent constructs are presented in Table No.2. The reliability value of each extracted component was found more than 0.50. Both intention to stay and organisational internal life enjoyment

were measured by global single item scale. All independent and dependent variables were rated on 5-point Likert Scale where 1= strongly disagree and 5= strongly agree.

#### Plan for Analysis

Data analysis was carried out with SPSS 17.5 version software. First, Principle Component Analysis (PCA) was carried out to extract the WQL dimensions. Internal consistency estimates for all five independent extracted variables were determined. Second, mean, standard deviation and correlation were computed for all independent and dependent variables. The Zero-order correlation was computed and examined to assess the general pattern of relationships among the variables. Following this, two regression equation models (OLS Regression Model) were developed to test the significant effect of QWL dimensions of predicted variables.

#### RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

#### **Principle Components Analysis (PCA)**

PCA analysis enables the reduction of a larger set of variables into smaller, relatively independent subsets of variables. This was seen as the most appropriate statistical analysis for the present study as the aim of the current review was to develop a measure of the quality of work life dimensions by reducing a larger number of variables to a smaller set. Individuals' scores on the components were also desired so that subsequent analysis could be conducted on the data set. Initially, as required for PCA, the correlation matrices were formed and

Table 2
Principles component factor analysis (factor loading)

KMO and Bartl	ett's Test							
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.				.769				
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity		Chi-Square Sig.		745.252 .000				
Rotated Compo	onent Matrix							
		Factor Components						
Extracted Dimensions	Original variables	1	2	3	4	5		
	Relationship with the supervisor.	.819	.050	.038	.150	.085		
	Communication facility with supervisor	.776	.076	.363	.047	.098		
Supervisory Dimension	Your supervisor's active involvement in your career development	.762	.301	.072	.079	.119		
	Work recognition from supervisor.	.752	.310	.244	065	.038		
	Relationship with peers/Colleagues	.749	176	129	.261	.001		
	Salary structure	134	.683	.107	.232	.066		
	Opportunity to get interesting work	.308	.661	.212	162	029		
Maintenance Dimension	Connection between pay and performance	.177	.641	.082	.332	.490		
	Training for new technologies adaptability.	.345	.467	.352	.174	066		
	I am satisfied with the existing grievance settlement system.	.188	.464	116	.152	.424		
	Workload during office hours	.088	.445	.192	.323	.213		
	Working hours of Bank	.012	.224	.831	.143	.064		
Flexibility	Flexibility of work hours	.135	075	.792	.101	.329		
Dimension	Physical working environment	.237	.330	.614	.149	057		
	Job Security	.116	.056	.223	.746	102		
Security Dimension	Frequency and amount of bonuses	.128	.308	.054	.629	.140		
	Leave policy of the Bank	.018	.070	.194	080	.822		
Compensation Dimension	Benefit (Increment and incentive)	.183	.108	.100	.542	.560		
Initial Eigenvalues			2.114	1.465	1.177	1.07		
Total Variance Explain			11.74	8.13	6.54	5.98		
Cumulative %		31.60	43.34	51.48	58.02	64.0		
Reliability Test	Cronbach's Alpha (α)	.862	.742	.757	.567	.517		
Extraction Meth (CPA).	nod: Principal Component Analysis							

Source: Survey data

found a number of sizeable correlations greater than .30. Second, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was applied and found Chisquare value of 745.25, p<.00. Third, the Kaiser Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was .769, which falls into the range of good, so we should be confident that factor analysis is appropriate for these data (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2001). The result of principle component factor analysis is presented in Table No.2.

The factor analysis table no.2 indicates the individual factor loading; eigenvalues associated with each extracted component, total variance explained by five extracted variables and reliability Cronbach's Alpha (α) values. Each of the five factors had eigenvalues greater than 1. In addition, these extracted five components accounted for 64.01% of the total variance.

#### **Descriptive Statistics and Correlation**

Table 3 shows the mean, standard deviation and correlation coefficient of independent and dependent variables. The correlation coefficients among variables were in the expected direction (positive correlation) and statistically significant.

Zero order Karl Pearson's correlation analysis was used to know the internal association among independent and dependent variables to support regression results.

Table 3
Mean, standard deviation and correlation coefficient of independent and dependent variables

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Intention to stay.	3.71	.78	1						
2. Internal life enjoyment	3.80	.71	.567**	1					
3. Supervisory Dimension	4.08	.60	.309**	.370**	1				
4. Maintenance Dimension	3.69	.48	.603**	.162	.603**	1			
5. Flexibility Dimension	3.57	.74	.151	.245*	.337**	.525**	1		
6. Security Dimension	3.58	.66	.232*	.324**	.296**	.431**	.342**	1	
7. Compensation Dimension	3.70	.76	.210*	.336**	.242*	.395**	.324**	.282**	1

<sup>\*\*.</sup> Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The above table (Table 3) shows that majority of the independent variables are positively related to employee's intention to stay in the organisation and employee organisational internal life enjoyment. The case of intention to stay decision, the maximum correlation came from

maintenance dimension (60.3%) and minimum correlation from flexibility dimension (15.10%). These suggest that in private commercial banks employees' intention to stay is highly associated with increased maintenance dimensions. Table (03) also shows that supervisory dimension

<sup>\*.</sup> Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

a. List wise N=200 Source: Survey data

(37%) most significantly and maintenance dimension (16.2%) least significantly related with organisational internal life enjoyment. These results suggest that stay decision of private commercial bank employee mostly related with employee maintenance facilities and organisational internal life enjoyment is highly associated with increased supervisory assistance.

#### Ordinary Least Square (OLS) Regression Analyses

Ordinary Least Square (OLS) multiple regression model was designed and used to know the pattern of relationship between QWL dimensions and employees' intention to stay and internal life enjoyment and their impact. In addition, to compare the effects of QWL dimensions, the researchers used beta coefficients of both models.

Table 4 *OLS regression analyses* 

	-	Mo	del One		Model Two				
	Coefficients		Intention to Stay		Coefficients		Organisational Life Enjoyment		
	В	Beta	T	Sig.	В	Beta	t	Sig.	
Supervisory Dimension	.241	.309	4.61	.000**	.263	.370	4.796	.000**	
Maintenance Dimension	.472	.603	9.01	.000**	.115	.162	2.100	.038*	
Flexibility Dimension	.118	.151	2.25	.026*	.174	.245	3.173	.002**	
Security Dimension	.182	.232	3.47	.001**	.230	.324	4.195	.000**	
Compensation Dimension	.164	.210	3.13	.002**	.239	.336	4.351	.000**	
$R^2$ = .579; Adj. $R^2$ =.557 F= 25.89**				$R^2$ = .44; Adj. $R^2$ = .41; F= 14.80**					
Effect size is significant at	*p<.05;	** *p<.	01						

# Analysis for Hypothesis H1: (QWL Dimensions and Intention to Stay)

In the first model, the researchers regress intention to stay on five QWL dimensions. The overall model is significant (F= 25.89, P=.00) and 57.9% of variance explained by these five dimensions. Adj.R<sup>2</sup> also very near to R<sup>2</sup> meaning that adding additional independent variables do not reduce the prediction power. All the dimensions of QWL are significantly (at 1% level) related to employees' intension to stay. Thus hypothesis H1 (Quality of work life

dimension is related to increased employee intention to stay in the organisation) and all other sub-hypotheses under H1, such as, H<sub>1</sub>a (Supervisory dimension, B=.241, p<.00); H<sub>1</sub>b (Maintenance dimension, B=.472, p<.00); H1c (Flexibility dimension, B=.118, p<.05), H1d (Security dimension, B=.182, p<.00), and H1e (Compensation dimension, B=.164, p<.00) are statistically significant and accepted. From the first model in table 4, it is said that 1 unit increased supervisory dimension can increase employee intention to stay in the organisation by the amount of

.241 units if other variables remain constant. Similarly, all other dimensions are also positively related to increased intension decision (values show in the unstandardized B coefficients). So, QWL dimensions are significantly related to increased intension to stay in the organisation. From the beta values, we can say maintenance dimension ( $\beta$ =.603) is more strong predictors than other dimensions and flexibility dimension ( $\beta$ =.151) a least important predictor to employee intension decision.

# Analysis for Hypothesis H2: (QWL Dimensions and Organisational Internal Life Enjoyment)

In the second model, the researchers regress internal organisational life enjoyment on five QWL dimensions. The overall model is significant (F= 14.80, P=.00) and 44.00% of variance explained by these five dimensions. Adj.R<sup>2</sup> (41.1%) is very near to R<sup>2</sup> meaning adding additional independent variables do not shrink the prediction power. All the dimensions of quality of work life significantly (at either 1% or 5% level) related to employees' internal life. From the results of the second model, the researchers accept hypothesis H2 (Quality of work life is associated with increased organisational life enjoyment) and it sub-hypothesis, such as, H<sub>2</sub>a (Supervisory dimension, B=.263, p<.00); H<sub>2</sub>b (Maintenance dimension, B=.115, p<.05);  $H_2c$  (Flexibility dimension, B=.174, p<.00);  $H_2d$  (Security dimension, B=.230, p<.00); and  $H_2$ e (Compensation dimension, B=.239, p<.00) are statistically significant and accepted. From the model

2 in table 4, we found that quality of work life is a strong predictor of internal life satisfaction. All the dimensions of QWL are associated with increased internal life enjoyment as all the dimensions are found statistically significant. If 1 unit of QWL dimension is increased than the internal life enjoyment also increased by respected dimension unstandardized beta coefficient. For example, 1 unit increased of compensation dimension can increase employee internal life enjoyment by the amount of .239 units if other variables remain constant. Similarly, all other dimensions are also positively related to increased internal organisational life enjoyment. So, QWL dimensions are significantly related to increased internal life enjoyment in the organisation. From the beta values, we can say compensation dimension is more strong predictors than other dimensions and maintenance dimension is a least important predictor to internal life enjoyment.

#### Analysis for Hypothesis H3: (Comparison of QWL Dimensions between Intention to Stay Decision and Internal Organisational Life Enjoyment)

Hypothesis H3 puts forth the comparative effect of QWL dimensions on intention to stay and organisational life enjoyment. The comparative effects size of the supervisory dimension is  $\beta$ =.309, P< .00 for intention stay decision and  $\beta$ =.370, P< .00 is for organisational life enjoyment. Thus, the result does not support H<sub>3</sub>a, that is supervisory assistance is more essential for

employee retention than organisational life enjoyment. Employee maintenance factor is strong predictors to retain employees than organisational life. Thus, the results do not support hypothesis  $H_3b$  because  $\beta$ =.603, P< .05 is for intention to stay and  $\beta$ =.162, P< .05 is for organisational internal life) its mean that employees' maintenance factor is more strongly related to intention to stay decision. But, flexibility factor is also strongly related with organisational life enjoyment  $\beta$ =.245, P< .00 over intention to stay  $\beta$ =.151, P< .05. Thus, the results support for hypothesis H<sub>3</sub>c. In terms of security dimension, organisational life is more significantly related than employees' intention to stay. Security relates to intention to stay  $\beta$ =.232, P<.00 whereas organisational life  $\beta$ =.324, P<.00. Thus, the results support hypothesis H<sub>3</sub>d. Finally, beta coefficient results also support H<sub>3</sub>e (compensation dimension) because  $\beta$ =.210, P< .00 is for intention to stray and  $\beta$ =.336, P< .00 is for organisational internal life). This study supports the notion that compensation is essential for both retention and internal life enjoyment but the most significant predictor to organisational internal life enjoyment over intention to stay decision. From the above findings, the researchers are not in a position of either accepting or rejecting hypothesis H3 because some dimensions of QWL are more responsible for employees' intention and some other dimensions are more related to organisational internal life enjoyment.

#### CONTRIBUTION TO PRACTITIONERS AND POLICY MAKERS

This study is relevant for PCBs in Bangladesh as it provides the information on QWL dimensions of their employees. In order to gain a competitive advantage over rivals and for sustainable development the PCBs should focus on QWL dimensions. The findings could assist managers and higher authority of PCBs and policy makers to understand the impact of QWL dimensions in bank employees' retention strategy. Finally, the central bank of Bangladesh (Bangladesh Bank) may also use the information when preparing any policy relating to QWL dimensions for banking employees in Bangladesh.

### LIMITATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The limitations of this study are: random but convenient sampling technique was used in this study to select employees and bank that may limit generalization of QWL dimensions for employees of PCBs in Bangladesh. In future studies it is important to increase the number of respondents and banks and investigate the channels through which the questionnaires were distributed to the respondents. Despite these limitations, the study has provided important information and therefore a d contribution to the body of knowledge on QWL dimensions for employees in PCBs in Bangladesh.

#### **CONCLUSION**

In today's competitive banking world, retaining experienced employees is a challenge for an organisation. The Quality of Work Life (QWL) is a philosophy aimed at ensuring employees organisational life satisfaction. The findings of the study have found all the dimensions (Supervisory, Maintenance, Flexibility, Security and Compensation Dimension) of the quality of work life significant (1% level) for employees' intention to stay and increased internal life enjoyment. All the dimensions not contributed to staying decision and life satisfaction. Though QWL dimensions are significantly related to increased internal life enjoyment in the organisation but from the beta values, we can say compensation dimension is more strong predictors than other dimensions and maintenance dimension is a last important predictor to internal life enjoyment. The findings of the study support the notion that compensation is essential for retention and internal life enjoyment but the most significant predictor to internal life enjoyment is over stay decision. However, from the empirical analysis, we are in a position to state that dimensions such as security and compensation dimensions are more important predictors to internal life enjoyment and dimensions such as maintenance and supervisory dimensions of QWL are more responsible for employees' intention to stay.

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#### Exploring Student Engagement in Writing using the Flipped **Classroom Approach**

Norazmi, D.\*, Dwee, C. Y., Suzilla, J. and Nurzarina, A. S.

Universiti Tun Hussein Onn Malaysia, 86400 Parit Raja, Batu Pahat, Johor, Malaysia

#### **ABSTRACT**

Over the years, considerable success of the flipped classroom approach (FCA) has indicated its usefulness in teaching and learning. However, studies on how flipped classrooms engage students in writing remain limited in Malaysia even though the ability to write well is considered an important skill. Therefore, this quantitative study sets out to examine students' engagement in writing in a flipped classroom through a self-developed questionnaire based on a meta-construct developed by Fredericks et al. (2004). One hundred and eighteen students involved in a writing course at tertiary level participated voluntarily in the study. The findings suggest that FCA is able to engage students in the writing process as demonstrated by high means reported for all three constructs, namely emotion (3.88), cognition (3.95) and behaviour (3.96). This study recommends FCA to be employed in all areas of language learning and offers practical guidelines for instructors and learners to maximise the flipped classroom experience.

Keywords: Engagement, flipped classroom approach (FCA), writing

#### INTRODUCTION

A flipped classroom is different from a conventional classroom as learning occurs in many forms which include "interactive

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E-mail addresses: norazmi@uthm.edu.my (Norazmi, D.), cydwee@uthm.edu.my (Dwee, C. Y.), suzilla@uthm.edu.my (Suzilla, J.), nurzarina@uthm.edu.my (Nurzarina, A. S.) \* Corresponding author

engagement, just-in-time teaching and peer instruction" (Berrett, 2012). It is a reversed teaching model where the instructor utilises different types of technology such as videos to record lectures in a normal classroom and allows students to view them outside classroom hours (Findlay-Thompson & Mombourquette, 2014). Gerstein (2012) defines the flipped classroom as a place to work out problems, advance concepts, as well as engage in collaborative learning. The flipped method is not only restricted to video lectures; students obtain most of the information outside the classroom through reading activities, online lectures or participation in online quizzes before class commences. During class, they engage in learning through student-centred activities such as games, group discussions, case studies or experiments facilitated by a teacher or an instructor. To put it simply, the flipped classroom model is based on the principle that homework is better done in class with assistance from the instructor whereas lectures are better completed at the students' own pace outside the classroom (Herreid & Schiller, 2013).

# Overview of the Flipped Classroom Approach

Educators worldwide have been advocating for a more student-centred teaching approach to promote active learning among students. Active learning is a term for teaching practices which emphasise on student activity and their involvement in the process of learning (Prince, 2004). The flipped classroom approach (FCA) embodies active learning because activities carried out in the classroom require high levels of participation from students. Active learning such as teamwork, self-reflection and case studies engage and motivate students to attain more knowledge and improve their skills (Prince, 2004).

Over the years, many instructors have reported considerable success using this model which indicates its usefulness in the process of teaching and learning (Enfield, 2013). The flipped classroom model can be implemented dynamically especially in institutions of higher education for the considerable advantages it offers. These include allowing classroom time to be utilised more effectively, higher rates of student achievement and the engagement and flexible use of technology (Fulton, 2012).

A survey conducted by Herreid and Schiller (2013) on 200 teachers found that the use of this classroom model was preferred as it helps promote critical thinking among students and makes them more responsible for their own learning process. As lecture time in institutions of higher learning is usually limited to one or two hours at a time, using the flipped classroom model also allows instructors to focus on students' different learning styles (McLaughlin et al., 2014) instead of relying entirely on lecture content.

As the flipped classroom model is implemented to give more face-to-face interaction time for hands-on activities. this method has been considered suitable for a writing course as it is expected that students will have more time to improve their writing with guidance from the lecturer in class after they have read and watched videos on the lecture before attending the class. The students can get prompt feedback from the lecturer if they have any inquiries or challenges in the writing process. In spite of these advantages that seem to accrue from it, there is a dearth of research studies on the implementation of flipped classroom or flipped learning method in English writing courses in a Malaysian context. Hence, this study examines students' engagement and performance in part of a writing course delivered through a flipped classroom approach.

#### **Research Objectives**

- To explore the use of the flipped classroom approach in teaching writing
- 2. To measure student engagement in writing using the flipped classroom approach

#### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### **Definition of Engagement**

Student engagement is closely related to students' involvement in classroom activities to enhance learning. It has been the focus of many researchers studying educational constructs through active participation in classroom activities by students. The term engagement has been defined by several scholars rather differently, based on different conceptualisations and dimensions. Kuh et al. (2007) defined engagement as a form of partaking in educationally effective practices to result in several assessable outcomes. Coates (2008) on the other hand, described engagement as students' participations in activities and conditions that are inclined to produce high-quality learning.

The study adopts the definition of engagement by Fredricks et al. (2004) as it was found to be the most relevant. Engagement is defined as a meta-construct which encompasses "behavioural, emotional and cognitive engagement" (p.59).

Behavioural engagement is a component which characterises students' participation, on-task attention, effort, persistence and positive conduct. Emotional engagement relates to student interest, belonging, value, and positive emotions. Finally, cognitive engagement comprises the use of strategic and sophisticated learning strategies and active self-regulation aspects (Fredricks & McColskey, 2012).

#### FCA and engagement

Problem solving activity is used to enhance student learning in the flipped classroom. According to Bishop and Verleger (2013), flipped classrooms require students carry out a review of the course online prior to attending class, and also spend time on problem-solving activities together with exercises in class that are traditionally known as homework.

The flipped classroom is a concept of active learning where students work on the materials shared by the lecturer and familiarise themselves with the lesson before class formally begins in order to facilitate discussion. The contents are generally in the form of videos, online tasks and more. This is supported by the findings of Mason, Shuman and Cook (2013) where they pointed out that inverted, or flipped, classrooms, are able to free classroom time for learner-centred activities such as active and problem-based learning.

According to Reeve and Tseng (2011), students' behavioural, emotional and cognitive engagement can be stimulated if they have a positive relationship with their teachers and receive instructional support during their learning activities. It shows that the lecturer plays a major role in integrating the delivery content with the instructional approaches in the classroom. Students will feel engaged when they are able to apply the skills learnt in the writing process from the materials given outside of the classroom. Herreid and Schiller (2013) applied FCA by using interactive videos that encourage engagement among students. This approach generates a new conception of incorporating active, student-centred learning with content that can be applied in real situations. Furthermore, according to Jamaludin and Osman (2014), a positive relationship is demonstrated between engagement and FCA. Additionally, Clark (2013) asserted that project-based learning activities in class help increase students' understanding of the content and at the same time encourage them to be more engaged in their activities.

#### FCA in a Malaysian Context

The FCA is not a new concept in Malaysia. Danker (2015) studied the implementation of FCA to stimulate deep learning in large classrooms during the teaching of a film module. Deep learning happens when students search for meaning, interact actively and relate new and prior knowledge in the learning process (Danker, 2015). Jamaludin and Osman (2014) on the other hand applied the FCA to teach an Instructional Design course to undergraduate TESOL students.

Some researchers have also reviewed the implementation of FCA in the Malaysian

context. For example, Rahman et al. (2015) discussed the needs and issues of students' learning styles, especially in the flipped classroom teaching methods. While it is true that numerous research studies have been carried out in Malaysia on the flipped classroom approach, none of them have discussed how it helps to enhance writing skills.

#### **FCA and Writing**

Using the flipped classroom approach, students are encouraged to do their own research for their writing assignments. Thus, they are exposed to independent learning and are given the latitude to express their opinions and conduct peer evaluation through online mediums created by the instructor.

A survey by Farah (2014) found that the majority of students lack skills needed to write original pieces. In fact, students possess a limited range of vocabulary, their sentence structures are weak and their learning environment is not stimulating enough to spark their interests in writing. These are some of the concerns which are tackled in this paper.

Furthermore, the ability to write well is important since courses in universities require students to put their ideas into words and express them competently based on the specified standards and conventions (Horstmanshof & Brownie, 2013). Some of the difficulties faced by the students include organising their ideas on paper as well as not being accustomed to writing. The FCA is

believed to provide a platform for students to express their ideas effectively in writing in a more interactive and creative way.

#### METHODOLOGY

# Sample

The respondents of this study were 118 students aged between 18-24 years. Of these, 55% of them are males while the rest are females. The respondents came from various ethnic backgrounds - 58.3% were Malays, 34.2% Chinese, 5.8% Indians and 1.7% representing other ethnic minorities. All students were involved in an English for Specific Purposes (ESP) course called Technical Writing.

# **Technical Writing**

Technical writing is a course offered by Universiti Tun Hussein Onn Malaysia (UTHM) to undergraduate degree students. It is a 2-credit course which aims to prepare students for an essential part of their tertiary education where they have to prepare research proposals in their final year. Traditionally, the course is delivered through lectures and tutorials. However, for the purpose of this study, a flipped classroom approach (FCA) was applied for teaching proposal writing.

Table 1
Stages of FCA and technical writing

Stage	Action
Pre-FCA	• Students brainstorm 20 problems individually such as problems which occur in their daily lives
	• Students form groups of five and combine their list of problems to obtain a list of 100 problems (5 students x 20 problems = 100 problems)
	• Each student chooses one problem from the list of 100 problems
	• Students are given instructions to develop their own research proposal based on the notes and samples provided
FCA	<ul> <li>Students use the notes and samples to construct their proposals</li> </ul>
	<ul> <li>Teacher collects and identifies common problems</li> </ul>
Post-FCA	<ul> <li>Teacher addresses common problems including format, length and depth</li> </ul>
	Proposals are returned to students for a revision within a week

The implementation of the FCA was done in three stages, namely pre-FCA, FCA and post-FCA. The pre-FCA stage aims to prepare students for their proposal writing in which they individually list 20 problems that they think are interesting and solvable. This is followed by a formation of groups

of fives in which the students consolidate their problems so that they would have 100 problems. Next, they were told to develop their own research proposal based on the notes and the samples given. The notes provided the definition and techniques needed to write a good research proposal.

The students were given several samples of research proposals written by UTHM students to be used as a guide.

In the post-FCA stage, the teacher scans for common problems such as choice of topic, length, depth, literature review, grammar and others. These areas were addressed thoroughly. The proposal drafts were then returned to the students so that they could make corrections and submit the corrected proposals within one week.

#### **Research Instrument**

The instrument used in this study is a 5-point Likert scale to gauge responses for 25 items in the questionnaire. A study on student engagement by Fredricks and McColskey (2012) revealed that it consists of multiple dimensions. Therefore, this questionnaire was developed based on a meta-construct developed by Fredericks et al. (2004) to measure student engagement through three dimensions, namely behaviour, cognitive and emotion.

According to the literature (Appleton et. al, 2006; Fredericks et al., 2004; Fredericks & McColskey, 2012), behavioural engagement

refers to student participation, conduct and effort while emotional engagement is measured through student interests, attitude or reactions and cognitive engagement can be gauged through students' learning strategies and self-regulation. A pilot test was conducted with 11 respondents to test the validity of the items in the questionnaire. Data was analysed using SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Studies) version 22 and produced an acceptable Cronbach's alpha value of 0.715, which indicated that the test was reliable (George & Mallery, 2003). A total of 223 students responded to the set of questionnaires posted via an online link and they were given three weeks to complete it. The students were also informed of it via Facebook and WhatsApp groups. Out of the 223 students involved in the flipped classroom study, 118 students or 53.8% responded.

#### **RESULTS AND FINDINGS**

High means were reported for the behavioural construct. Respondents were able to "focus well" (M=4.02, SD =0.84) and also "participate actively" (M=3.82, SD=0.86).

Table 2
Mean and standard deviation for the behavioural construct

Items		Mean	SD
10)	I can focus well during the flipped classroom.	4.02	0.84
11)	I participate actively during the flipped classroom.	3.82	0.86
	I can complete the writing activity effectively using the flipped classroom approach.	3.94	0.83
,	I am able to complete the writing task using the learning materials provided.	4.06	0.83
18)	I put a lot of effort into my writing during the flipped classroom.	3.98	0.92
Total		3.96	0.04

Respondents also cited that they were able to "complete the writing activity effectively" (M=3.94, SD=0.83) utilising "the learning materials" provided (M=4.06, SD=0.83). Perhaps the most interesting finding in the behavioural construct is when respondents agree that FCA has helped them to put in

more effort into their writing activities (M=3.98, SD=0.92). From the overall mean and standard deviation (M=3.96, SD=0.04) obtained for behavioural construct, it can be said that FCA was well-received by the respondents.

Table 3

Mean and standard deviation for the emotion construct

Item	S	Mean	SD
1)	I enjoyed the flipped classroom approach used in this class.	4.35	0.83
2)	The flipped classroom approach was interesting for me.	4.34	0.86
5)	I feel confident doing the tasks given during the flipped classroom.	4.07	0.85
7)	I like the flipped classroom approach because it allows me to learn at my own pace.	4.25	0.83
8)	I like flipped classroom approach because it allows me to learn anytime and anywhere.	4.24	0.83
9)	The flipped classroom is boring.	3.92	1.11
15)	The flipped classroom approach motivates me to learn writing.	3.99	0.86
16)	I feel anxious (worried, uneasy, fearful, nervous) learning writing without my lecturer.	3.13	1.20
19)	I like receiving feedback for my writing.	4.22	0.81
22)	I worry about my writing performance after going through FCA.	2.99	1.13
24)	I feel prepared to learn writing using the FCA.	3.96	0.80
	Total	3.88	0.08

For the emotion construct, the item that scored the highest mean (M=4.35) showed that respondents in general enjoyed the flipped classroom approach. The majority of the respondents agreed that it was interesting to learn in a flipped classroom (M=4.34, SD=0.86) as opposed to the statement "the flipped classroom is boring" which showed a relatively high mean of 3.92 after the responses were inverted. The respondents also said that the FCA approach is favourable because they can learn at their "own pace" (M=4.25, SD=0.83) and provides flexibility

(M=4.24, SD=0.83) by allowing them to "learn anytime and anywhere". A high mean of 4.22 also indicated that respondents liked "receiving feedback" for their writing through the FCA, which was done via tools such as Google Drive. The respondents also felt "confident" (Mean=4.07, SD=0.85) and "prepared" (M=3.96, SD=0.80) in learning writing using FCA even though it was the first time they were exposed to it. They also appeared to be more motivated to learn about writing as indicated by a relatively high mean of 3.99. This could be because the

respondents were exposed to new ways of learning writing using the FCA, for instance, by watching videos on Blendspace and by presenting their work on Padlet where they could easily share their work with their peers.

On the other hand, the two statements which showed the lowest mean were "I feel anxious learning writing without my lecturer" (M=3.13) and "I worry about my writing performance after going through FCA" (M=2.99). These two statements

imply that even though students may feel motivated and engaged when learning writing using the FCA approach, ample facilitation from teachers and familiarity with the tools used are still important in order to reduce learner anxiety associated with writing. Overall, the total mean of 3.88 for the emotion construct shows that the respondents find the FCA approach enjoyable and interesting for learning writing.

Table 4

Mean and standard deviation for the cognitive construct

Items	3	Mean	SD
3)	I experienced confusion during the flipped classroom.	2.98	1.04
4)	I find it easy to learn writing using the flipped classroom approach.	4.04	0.90
13)	I refer to the learning materials frequently to complete my writing task.	3.97	0.84
17)	I am able to clearly express my ideas in writing using the flipped classroom approach.	3.94	0.86
20)	The FCA helps me to review my writing lessons.	4.01	0.87
21)	FCA makes me think about what I have learnt and what I am learning in writing class.	4.08	0.83
23)	I believe I can write well after going through FCA.	3.83	0.79
25)	FCA encourages me to explore more materials online to complete my writing task.	4.22	0.78
Total		3.95	0.15

Based on the table above, the total mean is 3.95 with a standard deviation value of 0.15. It was found that the highest mean comes from the statement "FCA encourages me to explore more materials online to complete my writing task" which is 4.22 followed by a SD value of 0.78. This statement implies that the majority of the respondents agree that the flipped classroom approach motivates and encourages them

to explore and use more online materials such as Padlet and Blendspace as their source of reference. Ideally, the flipped classroom encourages them to complete their writing task in a more interactive way. The respondents also agree that FCA makes them think about what they have learnt and what they are learning in the writing class (M=4.08, SD=0.83). Most of the respondents also found it easy to

learn using the flipped classroom approach (M=4.04, SD=0.90). This indicates that the FCA is a very convenient way of learning writing. The respondents also expressed that online learning materials help them in completing their writing tasks based on the word "frequently" (M=3.97, SD=0.84). On the other hand, the lowest mean (M=2.98)and a high SD value of 1.04 was obtained from the statement "I experienced confusion during the flipped classroom". This is most probably due to the respondents' lack of familiarity with FCA and they may have experienced some difficulties in completing the writing task. This implies that clear instructions should be given by the instructor during the implementation of FCA to enable learners to accomplish their tasks smoothly.

## **CONCLUSION**

Based on the findings, it can be concluded that FCA is able to engage students in the writing process in terms of behaviour, emotion and cognition. This finding corroborates with other studies (Bergmann & Sams, 2012; Lasry, Dugdale & Charles, 2014; Jamaludin & Osman, 2014) which showed overall positive results when FCA was used in engaging students in the learning process. However, certain guidelines should be adhered to by instructors and learners in order to ensure the success of a flipped classroom. First, the content or teaching materials used for the flipped classroom should be carefully selected for clarity and brevity to best meet the learning

outcomes. Videos or tasks should be kept brief, yet, comprehensive to maintain student engagement and motivation. Next, the instructors should ensure that the students understand their roles in the flipped classroom by informing them of their responsibilities and learning goals. Finally, the instructors should vary their learning activities in the flipped classroom to cater to learners of different levels. This way, the potentials of the FCA can be maximised and help make learning meaningful and engaging for all learners.

#### **Recommendations for Future Research**

For future research, it would be useful to compare the writing of learners from traditional classrooms and learners from flipped classrooms using a pre-test post-test approach. It would also be interesting to look at the challenges faced by teachers and learners who subscribe to the flipped classroom approach.

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# **SOCIAL SCIENCES & HUMANITIES**

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# Exploring Undergraduates' Perceptions of White board and PowerPoint Lecture Style Presentations: A Case Study in Malaysia

Yee, V. C. L.<sup>1</sup>, Sim, K. N.<sup>2</sup>, Ng, Y. J.<sup>1</sup>, Low, L. M.<sup>1\*</sup>, and Chong, S. T.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>College of Foundation and General Studies, Uniten, Putrajaya Campus, Jalan Ikram-Uniten, 43000 Kajang, Selangor, Malaysia

#### **ABSTRACT**

Lecture is a widely used teaching method in universities worldwide as an intellectual discourse for delivering new knowledge. The effectiveness of a lecture depends on the teaching tools used in facilitating the learning process. At the same time, course content plays an important role in determining the effectiveness of a teaching tool. The present paper reports a cross-sectional study on Engineering undergraduates' perception of whiteboard and PowerPoint lecturing in enriching their learning experience. Questionnaires were distributed to 67 Engineering undergraduates. Interviews were conducted with seven Engineering undergraduates and seven lecturers. The survey and interview data collected were subjected to quantitative and content-based analyses, respectively. The findings concluded that whiteboard and PowerPoint lecturing tools complement each other in technical courses.

Keywords: Blackboard lecturing, engineering, PowerPoint lecturing, traditional teaching, whiteboard lecturing

#### INTRODUCTION

For decades, lecturing has been a widely used teaching method in universities

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E-mail addresses: vivian@uniten.edu.my (Yee, V. C. L.), kwongnui.sim@vuw.ac.nz (Sim, K. N.), yujin@uniten.edu.my (Ng, Y. J.), ming@uniten.edu.my (Low, L. M.), stchong@uniten.edu.my (Chong, S. T.) \* Corresponding author

worldwide by lecturers for undergraduate or even postgraduate programmes. Lecturing is a process in extending or delivering a new subject matter before an audience of new learners. It is beneficial before they attend tutorials or problem-solving classes as students are exposed to concepts foundational to the subject matter in this process (Schwerdt & Wuppermann, 2011). Nevertheless, the effectiveness of lecturing depends on the types of tool used

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Center of Academic Development, Victoria University of Wellington, New Zealand

in facilitating the teaching and learning process. Whiteboard and Power Point Slides are teaching aids used frequently in giving lectures to undergraduates in most universities nowadays.

A few studies have been conducted to investigate the different aspects of whiteboard and PowerPoint lecturing, including the effects on learners' selfefficacy, attitudes, academic performance and motivation as well as their perception of the teaching and learning process. In terms of time, some students have expressed that whiteboard lecturing is inefficient (Masoud Azizinezhad & Masoud Hashemi, 2011; del Campo et al., 2012). This is because all new concepts and important points (including examples and elaboration) are hand-written on the whiteboard during lecturing. Writing down the points on a whiteboard causes short or long pauses during lecturing. More time is involved or used in between the lecture if a question or an example of paragraphs or sentences are part of the subject matter. For example, this would be the case in language classrooms. However, the slow pace of the lesson allows learners to follow the lesson easily (Kahraman et al., 2011) and hence, more information implied is noted manually. Meanwhile, PowerPoint lecturing provides a fast-moving and smoother lesson without the need to pause to write down points for the learners. Under this condition, however, it is very difficult for the learners to take notes (Susskind, 2008; del Campo et al., 2012). In the event of technical malfunction, PowerPoint lecturing cannot be carried out as planned

and time is consumed in rectifying the problem or configuring the computer to the projector. In addition, classes could be cancelled due to the inability of the lecturer to teach without PowerPoint slides.

Studies have shown that traditional lecturing methods using the blackboard or whiteboard is more beneficial in terms of information retention and performance. Compared when taught using PowerPoint slides, learners retain more information when a lecture is delivered using the board (Savoy et al., 2009; Azizinezhad & Hashemi, 2011). This could be explained by the notion of active learning; learners stay alert by taking notes during the lecture. Learners' productivity drops during PowerPoint lecturing (Kahraman et al., 2011; Bartsch & Cobern, 2003). As mentioned above, the fast pace of PowerPoint lecturing hinders following a lesson completely and hence, affects learners' comprehension (Kahraman et al., 2011). Irrelevant multimedia items, such as sound effects, act as detrimental obstruction to getting the intended information (Bartsch & Cobern, 2003). The rate of information retention is affected when learners focus more on reading the slides than paying attention to the additional explanation given by their lecturer (Savoy et al., 2009). However, Apperson et al. (2006) claimed that there are no significant differences on students' academic performance between classes conducted with whiteboard and those conducted using PowerPoint.

On the other hand, PowerPoint is more effective than whiteboard when a lesson

involves presenting or lecturing a complex description of a figure as well as how it works (Savoy et al., 2009; Kahraman et al., 2011). This is particularly shown in terms of the clarity of a topic, which is enhanced through the presentation of slides. For example, Apperson et al. (2006) suggested that preference go to PowerPoint lecturing when clarity and organisation are the main concern. Yee et al. (2013) also emphasised that a systematic and organised PowerPoint lecturing facilitates information retention among learners. Furthermore, learners could really benefit from the slides as the topic is summarised in a more structured order.

As stated thus far, numerous studies have shown the positive and negative sides of whiteboard and PowerPoint lecturing. To the best of our knowledge, there are limited studies carried out in investigating the effectiveness of both whiteboard and PowerPoint lecturing in delivering technical course content, especially in Engineering courses. As emphasised in the existing literature (Tang & Austin, 2009; Kahraman et al., 2011; Çiğdem Uz et al., 2010; Fateme Samiei Lari, 2014; Vecdi Can et al., 2012), course content plays an important role in determining the effectiveness of a teaching tool in facilitating the learning process. To address this aim, the present paper reports a cross-sectional study on Engineering undergraduates' perception of the effectiveness of whiteboard and PowerPoint lecturing to enrich their learning experience. The survey and interview data collected were subjected to quantitative and content-based analyses, respectively.

#### **METHODOLOGY**

# **Participants**

Table 1 displays the demographics of the participants involved in this study to investigate their perceptions of the effectiveness of PowerPoint and whiteboard lecturing in teaching and learning. The participants were categorised under three groups. Group 1 consisted of 67 Engineering undergraduates who responded to the distributed questionnaires. Most of the participants were male (72%), while only 28% were female. A total of 79% of them were majoring in Mechanical Engineering and only 21% of the respondents were studying Civil Engineering, Electrical Power Engineering and Computer and Communication Engineering. Half of them were second-year students. The next biggest group was the freshman group of first-year students at 33%.

Groups 2 and 3 participated in the conducted interview for the purpose of data triangulation and explanation; the participants were seven Engineering undergraduates and seven lecturers, respectively. For Group 2, there was a balance of four male participants and three female participants. They were majoring in Civil Engineering, Electrical and Electronic Engineering and Mechanical Engineering. As for Group 3, there were five female and two male lecturers from different departments (Languages and Communication, Social Sciences, Civil Engineering, Mechanical Engineering, Electrical Power Engineering and Information System).

Table 1 Demographic information of the three groups of participants (N=81)

	N	Freq.	Percer
Group 1: Survey P	articipa	nts (Underg	graduates
Gender			
Male		48	72
Female		19	28
	67		
Programme			
Civil Engineering		9	13
Mechanical Engineering		53	79
Electrical Power Engineering		2	3
Computer & Communication Engineering		3	5
	67		
Year			
First Year (Freshman)		22	33
Second Year (Sophomore)		3	4
Third Year (Junior)		33	50
Fourth Year (Senior)		9	13
	67		
Group 2: Ir (Un	nterview dergrad	v Participar uates)	nts
Gender			
Male		4	57
Female		3	43
	7		
Programme			
Civil Engineering		3	43
Mechanical Engineering		1	14
Eligineering Electrical and Electronic Engineering		3	43
	7		

Table 1 (continue)

	N	Freq.	Percent %
Year			
Freshman		3	43
Sophomore		4	57
	7		
Group 3: Intervie	ew Partic	cipants (Le	cturers)
Gender			
Male		2	29
Female		5	71
	7		
Department			
Civil Engineering		1	14.2
Mechanical		1	14.2
Engineering			
Electrical Power		1	14.2
Engineering			
Information System		1	14.2
Social Sciences		1	14.2
Languages and Communication		2	29
	7		

#### **Data Collection**

The data were collected at three stages using two different types of instrument, namely a questionnaire and an interview. All of the data were collected from different individuals with their profile presented in Table 1.

Questionnaire. For the first stage of data collection, a questionnaire containing 11 items was designed to obtain data on the impact of PowerPoint and whiteboard as lecturing tools in teaching and learning based on the perception of Engineering undergraduates (Refer to Appendix A). This questionnaire was presented with

given options or answers to the respective questions. There were two sections in the questionnaire. The first section consisted of four demographic questions. Meanwhile, the second section consisted of seven questions on the types of teaching tool used in the Technical Communication classes and attitudes towards the two lecturing tools.

The first stage of data collection began by administering the questionnaire to 173 engineering undergraduates enrolled in three separate classes of the same course by the end of the semester. The questionnaires were attached with a cover letter and were sealed in envelopes before they were distributed to the potential respondents at the end of the class. The researcher explained the purpose of the questionnaire as well as the procedure to be followed to all respondents. The respondents were given one week to respond to the questionnaire on their own. The filled questionnaires were returned to the researchers within two to seven days. The return rate of completed questionnaire was 40% despite the enclosed token of appreciation that served as motivation to increase the response rate (Dillman, 2000). Statistical analysis of generating the frequency and percentage for each item was carried out from the data collected in this study.

**Interviews.** In the second stage of data collection, interviews were conducted with seven engineering undergraduates to support and explain the data collected from the questionnaires. The interview consisted of eight primary questions, of

which seven were the same questions from the questionnaire (Refer to Appendix B). In the interview, the participants shared their perception of the effectiveness of PowerPoint and whiteboard as lecturing tools in teaching and learning based on their experience in bachelor courses they had taken. Prior to the interview session, a cover letter attached with the interview questions was given to the participants. This was meant to seek consensus from the respondents to participate in the interview, which was audio recorded. The length of the interviews was between 15 and 30 minutes.

For the last stage of data collection, interviews were conducted with seven lecturers to identify similarities and differences compared to the data collected from the undergraduates in both the questionnaire and the interview (Refer to Appendix C). Similar to the interview conducted at Stage 2, this interview consisted of eight primary questions on courses taught, teaching materials used as well as their frequency and the advantages and disadvantages of using PowerPoint and whiteboard in the context of learning and teaching at the university. The procedure for this interview was similar to the interview process at Stage 2 as stated in the previous paragraph.

Finally, data analysis on both the interview data was done after the entire interview was completed. Both interviews with the undergraduates and lecturers were thoroughly analysed using content analysis. The researchers began the process by reading the short notes taken during the

interviews to highlight the responses, which were similar to or supported the highest percentage of the questionnaire results. Finally, the interview data were analysed for any similar responses given.

#### RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

# The impact of Using the Whiteboard on Teaching and Learning

Table 2 Undergraduates' perception of the advantages and disadvantages of using the whiteboard in teaching and learning (N=67

	f	%
What do you think are the advantages of using a whiteboard in teaching and learning	<u>;?</u>	
More authentic	15	22
More interactive	24	36
Students can understand better	32	48
More information can be delivered	19	28
More convenient for the teacher to explain a concept clearly	40	60
Others (Advantages of using whiteboard)	6	9
What do you think are the disadvantages of using a whiteboard in teaching and learn	ing?	
Less stimulating	9	13
Less information can be delivered to the students	10	15
Less systematic in explaining a concept to the students	36	54
It takes more time for the teacher to explain a concept clearly	36	54
The students cannot focus on the teacher's explanation due to the need to take down notes	31	46
Others (Disadvantages of using whiteboard)	5	7

Table 2 shows the questionnaire data of undergraduates' opinion on the positive and negative impacts of using the whiteboard as a traditional teaching tool in Engineering. It was found that the whiteboard served as an important teaching tool for lecturers to explain a new concept clearly for a group of Engineering respondents (60%). This result is agreeable with the interview data collected from both the lecturers and undergraduates. Analysis of the interview data concluded that a readily available whiteboard is essential for every Engineering course, especially for courses with calculations. A whiteboard

provides space for lecturers to give examples for impromptu questions raised by students on the newly introduced concept as well as for writing down additional information that lecturers think of. Courses with calculations, such as Electronic and Design, Linear Algebra and Signal and System require lecturers to show the work steps carefully and systematically as it would be difficult for students to visualise the steps in their mind.

Table 2 also shows that more than 50% of the questionnaire respondents felt that lecturing with a whiteboard was

less systematic (54%). This result could be related to the high volume of words written on the board in responding to students' questions as well as in writing down additional information that lecturers think of. In such a spontaneous situation, the points are mostly written on white spaces only. It was reported by most of the student interviewees that some lecturers' handwriting could not be read due to the small font size of the handwritten words.

At the same time, whiteboard lecturing is considered less time efficient as it takes longer for lecturers to explain a concept clearly to students. This result supports the claim made by Masoud Azizinezhad and

Masoud Hashemi (2011) and del Campo et al. (2012) that whiteboard lecturing is time consuming. However, the slow pace of whiteboard lecturing is seen as a learning opportunity as it gives more time for learners to write down notes according to an international student interviewee. This validates Kahraman et al.'s (2011) claim that the fast pace of PowerPoint lecturing has made it difficult for students to follow the lesson due to not having time to take down important notes.

# The Impact of Using PowerPoint on Teaching and Learning

Table 3
Undergraduates' perception of the advantages and disadvantages of using PowerPoint in teaching and learning (N=67)

	f	%
What do you think are the advantages of using PowerPoint in teaching and lea	arning?	
More interactive	34	51
The students can focus better	10	15
The students can understand better	7	10
More information can be delivered to the students	26	39
More convenient for the teacher to explain a concept clearly	28	42
Others (Advantages of using PowerPoint)	3	4
What do you think are the disadvantages of using PowerPoint in teaching and	learning?	
Less stimulating	15	22
It consumes time in set-up	40	60
Less information can be delivered to the students	13	19
Less systematic in explaining a concept to the students	18	27
It takes more time for the teacher to explain a concept clearly	9	13
Others (Disadvantages of using PowerPoint)	13	19

In Table 3, the majority of the questionnaire respondents (51%) agreed that PowerPoint lecturing is more interactive in terms of the use of graphics or visual elements, such

as pictures of a machine and diagrams of a model, in line with Yee et al.'s (2013) findings. Interaction between a lecturer and students is made possible through the use of graphics that capture the students' attention. With this, students become more interested in listening to the description of the graphics and hence, more questions tend to be asked for further details. In this context, graphics play a role as a stimulus for curiosity.

Another important finding of the questionnaire based on the students' experience was that the most obvious drawback of PowerPoint lecturing is the time consumed in setting up the projector and laptop (60%). This is largely due to the fact that there are still classrooms not equipped with a projector and computer at the participants' university. In this case, lecturers who would like to lecture with PowerPoint slides will have to borrow the devices and equipment from the IT Department and set up everything all by themselves. Not only does set-up consume time, it can also lead to compatibility issues at times. According to the interview data, there was a high tendency that a class would be cancelled due to the inability of the lecturer to lecture when technical malfunctions happen as emphasised by del Campo et al. (2012).

Analysis of the interview data also revealed that the other technical drawback of PowerPoint lecturing is related to the slide design principle (Çiğdem Uz et al., 2010). Students found it difficult to read words on the slides when they were typed in small font sizes. In some classes, students were overwhelmed with the heavy load of information on a single slide, when too much information was packed on every

slide. This situation was worsened if the lecturer simply read aloud everything on the slides. Hence, according to the Engineering students, the principle of slide design affected the effectiveness of PowerPoint lecturing.

#### **CONCLUSION**

Based on the results reported in the present study, it can be concluded that whiteboard and PowerPoint lecturing tools can complement each other in an Engineering programme. It is impossible for a single teaching tool to suit all teaching content perfectly (Savoy et al., 2009). For optimal teaching and learning to take place, a whiteboard is needed from time to time in order for lecturers to provide detailed explanation along with PowerPoint slides, such as in calculation-based courses. The main points presented in the slides will ensure that the lecture flows smoothly in tandem with visual illustrations captured on the slides. The issue of setting up devices and equipment as well as the compatibility of the PowerPoint applications can be easily solved by equipping classrooms with their own technological system.

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# APPENDIX A

Sample of the Questionnaire

The purpose of this questionnaire is to elicit student perception of whiteboard and PowerPoint usage in Technical Communication classes. Please respond to all sections of the questionnaire. The information will be used for research purposes only. The identity of respondents will be kept confidential.

#### SECTION 1

Plea	ase tio	ck one.						
1.	You	r gender?	☐ Male	☐ Fem	ale			
2.	You	r age?						
	IJ	Jnder 25	□ 26-30	□ 31-35	□ 36-40	□ 41-45		
	$\square$ 4	16-50	□ 51-55	□ 56-60	□ Over 60			
3.	You	r Programme	?					
	€	Civil Engine	eering					
	€	Mechanical	Engineering					
	€	Electrical Po	wer Engineerin	ng				
	€	Electrical an	d Electronic Er	ngineering				
	€	Computer ar	nd Communicat	ion Engineeri	ng			
4.	Yea	r of Study?						
	€	First year, fi	rst semester					
	€	First year, se	econd semester					
	€	Second year, first semester						
	€	Second year, second semester						
	€	Third year, f	irst semester					
	€	Third year, s	econd semester	r				
	€	Forth year, f	irst semester					
	€	Forth year, second semester						
	€	Others. Please specify						
SEC	CTIO	N 2						
You	may	tick more tha	an one.					
1.	Wha	at teaching ma	aterials / aids d	id your lecture	er use in this clas	sroom?		
	€	Whiteboard						
	€	Blackboard						
	€	Textbook						
	€	OHP transpa	rency					
	€	PowerPoint	slide					
	€	Worksheet/H	Iandout					
	€	Authentic ar	ticle (journal, n	nagazine etc.)				
	€	Video clip						
	€	Audio CD						
	€	Others. Plea	se specify					

#### **APPENDIX A** (continue)

- 2. How often did he or she use the whiteboard?
  - € All the time
  - € Often
  - € Sometimes
  - € Rarely
- 3. How often did he or she use PowerPoint?
  - € All the time
  - € Often
  - **€** Sometimes
  - € Rarely
- 4. What do you think are the advantages of using a whiteboard in teaching and learning?
  - € More authentic
  - € More interactive
- 5. What do you think are the disadvantages of using a whiteboard in teaching and learning?
  - € Less stimulating
  - € Less information can be delivered to the students.
  - € Less systematic in explaining a concept to the students.
  - € It takes more time for the teacher to explain a concept clearly.
  - € The students cannot focus on the teacher's explanation due to the need to take down notes.
  - € Others: Please specify
- 6. What do you think are the advantages of using PowerPoint in teaching and learning?
  - € More interactive
  - € The students can focus better.
  - € The students can understand better.
  - € More information can be delivered to the students.
  - € More convenient for the teacher to explain a concept clearly
  - € Others: Please specify
- 7. What do you think are the disadvantages of using PowerPoint in teaching and learning?
  - € Less stimulating
  - € It consumes time in set-up
  - € Less information can be delivered to the students.
  - € Less systematic in explaining a concept to the students
  - € It takes more time for the teacher to explain a concept clearly.
  - € Others: Please specify

#### The End

If you have already completed this questionnaire, please return it to us. We are especially grateful for your help because your perception help us understand better the impact of using whiteboard and PowerPoint as teaching aids in technical language teaching and learning.

#### APPENDIX B

Sample of Interview Questions for Undergraduates

The purpose of this interview is to elicit student perception of whiteboard and PowerPoint usage in teaching university courses. The information will be used for research purposes only. The identity of respondents will be kept confidential.

- 3. What are the courses that you have taken?
- 4. What teaching materials / aids did your lecturers use in the classroom?
- 5. How often was the whiteboard used?
- 6. How often was PowerPoint used?
- 7. What do you think are the advantages of using a whiteboard in teaching?
- 8. What do you think are the disadvantages of using a whiteboard in teaching?
- 9. What do you think are the advantages of using PowerPoint in teaching?
- 10. What do you think are the disadvantages of using PowerPoint in teaching?

#### APPENDIX C

Sample of the Interview Questions for Lecturers

The purpose of this interview is to elicit lecturer perception of whiteboard and PowerPoint usage in teaching university courses. The information is used for research purposes only. The identity of respondents will be kept confidential.

- 1. What are the courses that you have taught?
- 2. What teaching materials / aids did you use in the classroom?
- 3. How often did you use the whiteboard?
- 4. How often did you use PowerPoint?
- 5. What do you think are the advantages of using a whiteboard in teaching?
- 6. What do you think are the disadvantages of using a whiteboard in teaching?
- 7. What do you think are the advantages of using PowerPoint in teaching?
- 8. What do you think are the disadvantages of using PowerPoint in teaching?



# **SOCIAL SCIENCES & HUMANITIES**

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# Extraversion-Introversion Tendencies and their Relationship with ESL Proficiency: A Study of Chinese Students in Vellore, India

Zafar, S.1\*, Khan, Z. A.2 and Meenakshi, K.3

<sup>1</sup>Centre for Languages and Comparative Literature, Central University of Punjab, Bathinda, 151001 Punjab, India

<sup>2</sup>Adesh University, Bathinda, 151009 Punjab, India

<sup>3</sup>Department of English, School of Social Sciences and Languages, VIT University, Vellore, 632014 Tamil Nadu. India

#### **ABSTRACT**

This study investigates the relationship between the personality traits of extraversionintroversion and English as a Second Language (ESL) proficiency among 145 undergraduate Chinese students at VIT University, Vellore, India. It is one of the few studies in the subject area that is conducted in Asia and focuses on Chinese students studying in India. The data were collected using the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (EPQ), Student Information Questionnaire (SIQ) and scores from the English Bridge Course (EBC) for Chinese students. After analysing the data using correlation coefficient and ETA values, it was found that extraversion-introversion had a significant relationship with different language learning skills. Students who scored high on extraversion were likely to score better in speaking skills and reading skills, whereas introverts tended to perform better in listening skills. Writing skills did not correlate strongly with either of the personality traits. While the results refute the claim that ESL academic superiority rests solely with extraverts, as proven by the higher listening scores of introverts than their extraverted counterparts, they also refute the conclusions drawn by psychologists and support the applied linguists' argument that extraversion is a positive trait for language learning. The paper concludes by suggesting that ESL instructors modify their teaching strategies, keeping in mind the various strengths of extraverted and introverted learners.

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E-mail addresses: shahela.zafar@gmail.com (Zafar, S.), khan.zaved@gmail.com (Khan, Z. A.), k.meenaakshi@vit.ac.in (Meenakshi, K.)

\* Corresponding author

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#### INTRODUCTION

Eysenck and Eysenck (1985) defined extraversion and introversion as personality traits that lie on a continuum and have a profound effect on human behaviour. The two traits, according to Skehan (1989), are crucial for L2 acquisition as well. Many language teachers will vouch for the fact that one of the major hindrances that they face during their interactions with students is the shy behaviour or introverted nature of some students, whereas extraverted students are found to be a pleasure to work with. This has led to the assumption that an introverted student is a slow learner of a second language (L2). Keeping in mind this assumption, the present study focuses on the presumed introverted nature of Chinese students and its relationship with ESL proficiency. The need for this study also arose out of the fact that most of the established studies (Busch, 1982; Carrell, Prince & Astika, 1996; van Daele, 2005; Berry, 2007) on the given relationship are based on Western subjects and cultures. Very few studies (Kiany, 1998; Wakamoto, 2007; Souzandehfar et al., 2014; Tehrani et al., 2014) focus on Eastern learners of a second language. The focus of the present study on the much neglected Eastern scenario in general and on Chinese students studying in India in particular, makes it different.

#### **BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY**

# **Extraversion- Introversion and the Chinese Culture of Learning**

A globally stereotype still prevalent is that of the extraverted Westerner and the introverted Easterner. Eastern cultures, for example, Chinese culture, are generally considered to promote introversion and shyness (Kumaravadivelu, 2003). In Western individualistic culture, according to Chen et al. (1998), children are encouraged to be assertive, self-reliant and autonomous, whereas in Chinese culture, children who are sensitive, cautious, vigilant and behaviourally restrained are called "guai," ('good' or 'well-behaved'). It has been suggested that modern Western culture has extraverted inclinations, whereas Chinese culture has introverted inclinations because of the influence of Confucian values (Yip, 2005), which, according to Rao (1996), include collectivism, socialisation for achievement and high acceptance of power and authority. Konstabel, Realo and Kallasmaa (2002) found that cultural groups, like the Chinese, scored high on collectivism and scored lower on extraversion and agreeableness compared to a normative American sample.

# **ESL Learning and China**

For the last couple of decades, there has been clear recognition of the English language as an important resource that China can harness in its drive towards modernisation (Cortazzi & Jin, 1996). English is perceived as key to promoting international exchange, acquiring scientific knowledge and technological expertise, fostering economic progress and participating in international competition etc. (Ross, as cited in Hu, 2002). However, irrespective of this promotion of the English language, ESL learning and teaching has not

produced the desired results. Some put the blame on ineffective teaching methodologies (both the Grammar-Translation Method and Communicative Language Teaching [CLT]). Hu (2002) argued that CLT has failed to make the expected impact on ELT in China partly because some of its most important tenets and practices clash with expectations of teaching and learning that are deep rooted in Chinese culture with regards to learning. It is often implicitly or explicitly claimed that the learning culture of the Chinese is strongly influenced by Confucianism (Flowerdew, 1998; Nelson, 1995; Oxford, 1995), which expects students to respect their teachers by listening attentively and sitting acquiescently in class; participation in class is not particularly stressed. Rather, their reserved nature can be seen as an asset by instructors and peers, as they can concentrate and exert effort on their individual studies and strive for academic excellence (Chen et al., 1998). Sharp (2004) quoted three related studies conducted in China (Huang & Huang, 1992; Yao, 1993; Broer & McCarly, 1999) that concluded that introversion dominated over extraversion.

However, in a second language class, where students are required to speak or respond in the target language, introversion may not be desirable and can hold back a learner's progress in improving language skills. Therefore, to be successful in a second language class, an introverted learner may need to adapt to the communicative nature and demands of the course by possibly altering his or her learning strategies. Bearing this in mind, the current study

will examine if the Chinese participants of the study were actually introverted in nature as proposed by different studies on Chinese culture, and if they were, whether introversion obstructed or facilitated their language learning.

# Extraversion-Introversion and SLA: The Psychologists vs. the Linguists

The question of whether introversion, in the present case the perceived introversion of the Chinese students, helped or hindered in learning a second language has been a matter of debate for psychologists and linguists for many years. Many psychologists, including Eysenck et al. (1981), Kiany (1998), Matthews and Deary (1998) and Cook (2002), were of the opinion that extraversion is rather a drawback when it comes to learning a language. This assumption is based on a strong biological foundation (Skehan, 1989, p.101). According to Eysenck's theory of personality (Eysenck et al., 1981), extraverts have a lower level of cortical arousal and are more easily inhibited, which causes them to be more susceptible to mental distraction. They also have a limited long-term memory compared with introverts who benefit from possessing long-term memory. These biological differences cause both groups to have different behavioural tendencies.

Linguists in general, on the other hand, have regarded extraversion as the preferred and helpful trait for language learning. In the 1970s it was hypothesised by some applied linguists (Naiman, Fröhlich, Stern, & Todesco, 1978; Skehan, 1989) that

extraverts in comparison with introverts were better language learners. For many in applied linguistic research "the desirable end of the extraversion-introversion continuum has been taken to be extraversion" (Skehan, 1989, p.101). Moreover, many investigators (Naiman et. al., 1978; McDonough, 1981, Dewaele & Furnham, 1999) have suggested that more sociable learners would be more inclined to talk and more likely to participate in practice activities and accordingly, more likely to increase language-use opportunities through which they gain input. Zafar and Meenakshi (2012) also suggested that an extrovert with an outgoing personality and higher tolerance for risk would be a better language learner than the more introverted personality who was more conservative and more self-conscious.

## LITERATURE REVIEW

An overview of the literature on extraversionintroversion showed that it has tended to be overlooked in L2 research and has been considered an "unloved" variable (Dewaele & Furnham, 1999). Moreover, available research on the issue showed mixed results. These studies investigated the effect of extraversion-introversion on language learning strategies (Imanpour, 2005; Fazeli, 2012; Ameri, 2013; Kayaoglu, 2013), relationship between introversionextraversion and English grammaticality judgement among Iranian EFL learners (Razmjoo & Shaban, 2008), relation between affective variables and speaking skill (Do"rnyei & Kormos, 2000; Kormos & Trebits, 2012; Tehrani et al., 2014; Souzandehfar et al., 2014; Chen et al., 2015), influence of personality factors on reading skill (Li & Chingell, 2010), impact of extraversion-introversion on vocabulary learning (Carrell, Prince, & Astika, 1996; Saemian, 2001; van Daele, Housen, Pierrard, & Debruyn, 2006; MacIntyre, Clément, & Noels, 2007), effect of extraversionintroversion on evaluation of writing (Carrell, 1995), relation between affective variables and listening skill (Alavinia & Sameei, 2012) and relation between personality and academic performance (Rindermann & Neubauer, 2001; Chamorro-Premuzic & Furnham, 2003; Pulford & Sohal, 2006).

Pazhuhesh (1994) found that introverted students were more successful than their extraverted counterparts in his study, which explored the relation between extraversionintroversion and reading comprehension among EFL Iranian students. Busch (1982) in her study involving a group of adult Japanese learners of English in Japan found that the hypothesis that extraverts would perform better than introverts on a variety of ESL proficiency tests was not confirmed. In a study undertaken by Carrell et al. (1996), the statistically significant difference between introverts and extraverts indicated that the former considerably outscored their extraverted peers when it came to the end-of-course composite grades. Kayaoglu (2013) concluded that introverted learners used a greater range of metacognitive and cognitive strategies than did extroverted learners. Chen and Tsai argued that no claims could be made that extroverts were better L2 learners than introverts.

Daneshvari (1996), who examined the role of extraversion introversion in ESL listening comprehension in Iran, concluded that extraverts were better at listening strategy compared with introverts, whereas Alavinia and Sameei (2012) found introverted individuals to be at an advantageous position in acquiring listening skills. Kiany (1998) in his study found that while introverts might have an advantage when it came to written tests, extraversion had no bearing at all on listening proficiency. Karbalaei (2008) also reached a similar conclusion. He found that the extraversion-introversion personality trait had no significant effect on ESL learners' use of listening strategies. Wakamoto (2007) also could not confirm any impact of extraversion on listening proficiency.

The role of extraversion on L2 speaking proficiency studied by van Daele (2005) in an important longitudinal study on 25 Dutch-speaking adult learners of English revealed that, contrary to expectations, extraversion turned out to have "little effect on the speech production" (2005, p.108).

Berry (2007) tried to investigate how extreme introverts and extreme extraverts interacted with each other both in groups and in homogeneous or heterogeneous pairs. She found that introverted learners obtained better scores for accuracy. Extraverts, on the other hand, scored higher on the fluency component. The differences

between these two personality dimensions were most visible when students worked in heterogeneous pairs (Berry, 2007, p.95). She concluded the study by saying that "when an appropriate instrument [the EPQ] is used to assess personality, and when theoretically sound hypotheses derived from the psychological literature are tested, significant differences can be observed in the responses of extraverts and introverts on particular speaking test tasks" (Berry, 2007, p.195).

Gan (2011) examined the relation of extraversion and introversion with L2 oral performance with respect to fluency, accuracy and complexity in task performance. He concluded that there was no significant relation between the degree of extraversion- introversion and "assessment scores" and "discourse-based measure" (Gan, 2011, p.1259-1267) Similarly, Chen (2013), in a study exploring the relationship between extraversion and introversion, foreign language anxiety and participants' oral communication performance, found no significant correlation between extraversion and introversion and introversion and oral proficiency scores.

As for writing skills, Widyastuti's study (2012) found that extraversion correlated with not only learners' writing ability, but also with their vocabulary power. A significant positive correlation was also reported between extraverted learners' vocabulary strength and their writing ability. Mansourinejad, Bijami and Ahmadi (2012) and Alavinia and Hassanlou (2014) found no significant correlation between the participants' personality types and their

writing performance. On the other hand, Boroujeni, Roohani and Hasanimanesh (2015) found that introverts outperformed their counterparts in writing.

Thus, the literature review clearly indicates that research done so far is not conclusive and requires further examination, especially in the Asian context. Thus, the present study examines the relationship between extraversion-introversion and English language proficiency, as represented by listening, speaking, reading, writing and overall scores of adult Chinese learners of English as a second language.

## **METHODOLOGY**

# **Participants**

The participants of the study consisted of a sample of 145 undergraduate Chinese students studying English at VIT University, Vellore, in India. These students were selected through convenient sampling as they came to VIT University for at least two years to study different courses in Computer Science, Computer Animations and Finance through an exchange programme between different universities of China and VIT University, Vellore, Tamil Nadu, India. All the students were between 18 and 21 years of age. Before they started their regular semester, the students had to take the English Bridge Course (EBC) 101 for one semester. EBC 101 facilitated the students' learning in the different ESL skills. These students had already attained a moderate level of proficiency in the basics of ESL in China, and thus had opted for improving their performance in the four subject areas,

namely listening, speaking, reading and writing, through the EBC 101 at VIT. The students gave permission to collect data through signed Informed Consent Forms.

#### **Instruments**

To collect data about extraversionintroversion and language proficiency, a Student Information Questionnaire, the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire and scores of the English Bridge Course 101 were used. For data analysis, SPSS16 was used

# Student Information Questionnaire (SIQ).

The Student Information Questionnaire (SIQ) was used to collect personal data such as name, registration number and gender. The SIQ also included items pertaining to the students' linguistic background and exposure to ESL.

# Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (EPQ).

The Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (EPQ) is a widely used instrument for self-report personality inventory created by HJ Eysenck in 1975. The view that the EPQ is reliable and valid, and is one of the most commonly researched psychological instruments, has been supported by different researchers (Dewaele & Furnham, 1999; Berry, 2007). The selection of the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire was on the basis of the following four key components: (1) it has shown exceptional reliability when used in an academic context over the last 35 years: (2) it takes a relatively short amount of time to complete: (3) its yes-no answer

format and relatively uncomplicated grading render it ESL-friendly; and (4) it avoids cross-cultural bias through questions which could confuse and/or mislead students and thereby skew measurement of extraversion and introversion. Three personality factors can be measured by the questionnaire: extraversion, neuroticism and psychoticism. From this questionnaire, 21 items related to extraversion were selected and given to the participants. It was found that the questionnaire was appropriate for the study and did not need any adaptation. The EPQ already has been found to be valid in many countries of the world including India and China. Using the data set from 34 countries, including Hong Kong, India, Japan, Korea, Singapore and Sri Lanka, the cross-cultural factorial similarity of its factors, Psychoticism (P), Extraversion (E) and Neuroticism (N), was supported (Barrett, Petrides, Eysenck, & Eysenck, 1998).

Scores from the English Bridge Course for the Chinese. The English Bridge Course for the Chinese, as mentioned earlier, is a course offered to the Chinese students of VIT University before they move on to take their regular courses in Computer Sciences, Commerce and Computer Animations. The course is taught using the CLT method supplemented with the use of technology. The course comprises six modules, namely, listening, speaking, reading, writing, grammar and vocabulary. Each component is primarily dealt with in the class with a view of making students

comfortable with English used in the academic and professional courses of VIT University.

The subjects of the present study were tested on their listening, speaking, reading and writing skills through quizzes, assignments, two Continuous Assessment Tests (CATs) and a Term-End exam conducted during the course. Data collection with regard to subject proficiency was done by means of the scores mentioned above as determined and recorded in the four subject areas of reading, writing, speaking and listening and overall achievement in ESL.

#### **Procedure**

The questionnaires were pilot tested by administering it to 15 students randomly selected from the sample of students involved in the study. After having noted their comments and suggestions, some modifications were made to the SIQ as it was found that some pieces of information were not required. Later, the questionnaires were distributed to the participants in their class. Two hours of class time was required for students (1) to complete the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire for measuring extraversion-introversion and (2) to fill out a Student Information Questionnaire for information pertaining to demographic and experiential data. To provide translations of words and phrases that some students found difficult to understand, for example, a phrase like "happy-go-lucky" in question no. 10 of the EPQ, we accepted the help of a senior Chinese student who was proficient in both Chinese and English.

The collected data were transferred to SPSS 16. Descriptive statistics for each measurement tool were calculated to analyse the characteristics of the obtained data. This was followed by the inferential statistics, in which correlation coefficients were calculated for all the data to account for the relationship between the variables. In addition, correlation analysis using the ETA coefficient was employed to view how variables related to one another in a nonlinear way. ETA is a coefficient of non-linear association. For linear relationships, ETA equals the correlation coefficient (Pearson's r). For non-linear relationships it is greater; hence, the difference between ETA and r is a measure of the extent of non-linearity of relationship.

# **RESULTS**

#### **Extraversion/Introversion Total Count**

An evaluation of the EPQ as given in the table below shows that out of the total 145 subjects, 68 (47%) were introverts, 51 (35%) were extraverts and 26 (18%) showed no major tendency towards either extraversion or introversion. These data are in accordance with the general belief that people raised in a Confucian culture are dominantly introverts. Still, there is a significant population of extraverts that can be used for data analysis.

Table 1
Extraversion/introversion total count

111110 7 015	ion No Majo Tendency	
N 68	26	51

# **Descriptive Statistics and Correlation**

Descriptive statistics, including central tendencies and dispersion of scores indicators, were calculated for each instrument individually. With the available data, the correlation between extraversion-introversion and language proficiency was determined. The following are the results obtained in the main study:

General Language Proficiency. The research question was whether there was a relationship between extraversion-introversion and English language proficiency. The results indicated that extraverts and introverts tended to score differently depending on the ESL subject. Based on the data collected the following four observations, supported by high r and ETA coefficient, can be made:

Listening Proficiency. Here, introverts had higher mean listening scores (77.97) than extraverts (50.84) as shown in Table 2. The mean difference was statistically significant (p<0.001; see Table 3 for the results of the t-test). Extraversion had a strong negative correlation with the listening score as depicted by ETA and r values (r=-0.747, ETA=0.883, 0.795) (see Table 4). Thus, the

Table 2
Descriptive statistics (Listening score)

Listening Proficiency Score					
	Mean	Std. Deviation			
Introversion	77.97	9.047			
No Major Tendency	52.58	11.72			
Extraversion	50.84	10.89			

Table 3
Independent samples t-test for equality of means of the introverts and extraverts' listening scores

t	df	Sig. (Two- Tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
14.828	117	0.0001	27.13	1.83	23.50663	30.75337

Table 4

Correlation coefficients (listening score)

Correlation					
		Extraversion score	Listening score		
Listening score	Pearson's r	-0.747*	1		
	ETA	0.883	0.795		

<sup>\*</sup>Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (two-tailed)

introverts seemed to be better at listening proficiency than the extraverts.

Speaking Proficiency. The extraverts had much higher mean speaking scores (75.98) than the introverts (57.38) (see Table 5). The mean difference was statistically significant (p<0.001; see Table 6 for the results of the t-test). The correlation between extraversion and speaking was also strong (r=0.629,

Eta= 0.663, 0.64) (see Table 7). The high speaking score of the extraverts showed that the extraverts were better L2 speakers.

Table 5
Descriptive statistics (Speaking score)

Speaking Proficiency Score						
Mean Std. Deviation						
Introversion	57.38	9.641				
No Major Tendency	62.69	11.51				
Extraversion	75.98	10.2				

Table 6
Independent samples t-test for equality of means of the introverts and extraverts' speaking scores

t	df	Sig. (Two- Tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
10.1591	117	0.0001	-18.6000	1.831	-22.22593	-14.97407

Table 7 Correlation coefficients (Speaking score)

Correlation			
		Extraversion score	Speaking score
Speaking score	Pearson's r	0.629*	1
	ETA	0.663	0.64

<sup>\*</sup>Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (Two-Tailed)

Reading Proficiency. The relation between extraversion and reading was strong as shown by the Pearson's coefficient and ETA values (r=0.625, ETA= 0.712, 0.631) (see Table 10). Extraversion was also positively correlated to reading skills (r=0.625). The extraverts had higher mean reading scores (73.16) than the introverts (54.91) as depicted in Table 8. The mean difference was statistically significant (p<0.001; see

Table 9 for the results of the t-test). Thus, the extraverts appeared to be better at reading skills than the introverts.

Table 8

Descriptive statistics (Reading score)

Reading Proficiency Score						
Mean Std. Deviation						
Introversion	54.91	10.86				
No Major Tendency	67.08	12.06				
Extraversion	73.16	8.622				

Table 9
Independent samples t-test for equality of means of the introverts and extraverts' reading scores

t	df	Sig. (Two- Tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
9.8864	117	0.0001	-18.25000	1.846	-21.90584	-14.97407

Table 10 Correlation coefficients (Reading score)

Correlation			
		Extraversion score	Reading score
Reading score	Pearson's r	0.625*	1
	ETA	0.712	0.631

<sup>\*</sup>Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (Two-Tailed)

Writing Proficiency. Both the extraverts and introverts showed no major differences in writing proficiency, though the extraverts appeared to score slightly higher (66.55) than the introverts (59.69) (see Table 11). The mean difference was statistically significant though (p<0.001; see Table 12 for the results of t-test). However, as per the Pearson's coefficient and ETA values, the relationship between extraversion and writing was weak (r=0.209, ETA=0.374,

0.233) (see Table 13). This led us to conclude that extraversion was not a major factor affecting writing proficiency.

Table 11
Descriptive statistics (Reading score)

Writing Proficiency Score				
	Std.			
		Deviation		
Introversion	59.69	15.07		
No Major Tendency	59.31	15.89		
Extraversion	66.55	11.41		

Table 12 Independent samples t-test for equality of means of the introverts and extraverts' reading scores

t	df	Sig. (Two- Tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
2.7177	117	0.0076	-6.8600	2.524	-11.8591	-1.8609

Table 13
Correlation coefficients (Writing score)

Correlation			
		Extraversion score	Writing score
Writing score	Pearson's r	0.209*	1
	ETA	0.374	0.233

<sup>\*</sup>Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (Two-Tailed)

# Comprehensive Language Proficiency.

Comprehensive language proficiency was calculated by studying the relationship between extraversion scores and the Term-End Exam (TEE) scores. As can be seen in Table 14, the extraverts had higher mean TEE scores (69.59) than the introverts (56.31). The mean difference was statistically significant (p<0.001; see Table 15 for the results of the t-test). The relationship between the extraversion

scores and total scores was strong (r=0.596, ETA=0.72, 0.603) (see Table 16). Thus, the extraverts were expected to score better in comprehensive language proficiency.

Table 14
Descriptive statistics (Term-End exam scores)

Term-End Exam Scores					
Mean Std. Devia					
Introversion	56.31	7.185			
No Major Tendency	60.58	7.601			
Extraversion	69.59	9.113			

Table 15
Independent samples t-test for equality of means of the introverts and extraverts' Term-End exam scores

t	df	Sig. (Two- Tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
8.8886	117	0.0076	-13.28000	1.494	-16.23890	-10.32110

Table 16
Correlation coefficients (Term-End exam scores)

Correlation			
		Extraversion score	TEE score
TEE score	Pearson's r	0.596*	1
	ETA	0.72	0.603

<sup>\*</sup>Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (Two-Tailed)

# DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The results of the study, as shown by the Pearson correlation coefficients and the ETA values, indicate that an important relationship exists between extraversion-introversion tendencies and English language proficiency. The accepted theory that a relationship between personality and ESL proficiency exists was confirmed by the results obtained in this study. In particular, statistically significant relationships were found when the scores for the listening, speaking and reading skills were correlated with the independent variables of extraversion/introversion.

The data confirmed the results of some previous studies concluding a general tendency for extraverts to score higher in ESL speaking tests (McDonough, 1981; Swain, 1984; Long, 1985). As suggested by Oxford (2006), face-to-face communication tasks might be viewed as easier by an individual learner with an extroverted learning style than by someone with an introverted learning style. In addition, contrary to Ehrman and Oxford's (1995) conclusion, extraverts, rather than introverts, seemed to do better at reading probably because as Wakamoto (2000) explained, extraverts tended to use "functional practice strategies" and learn by focusing more on meaning rather than on the form of the text, and in reading, meaning is as important as form (Andriyani, 2016). The results obtained in this study showing extraverts to hold higher average proficiency scores, as shown in Table 14, appeared to confirm the results documented by Rossier (1975), which Ehrman (1990) claimed may have been due to the extraverts' increased willingness to take conversational risks. While introverts are less likely to attempt such risks, it seems as if those from Confucian-based societies would be even less inclined to do so, given the aforementioned bias against extravert-type behaviour in Chinese culture.

At the same time, correlations drawn from the data collected in this study point towards several important exceptions to the popular trend, the most important being the tendency for introverts to score higher than extraverts in listening proficiency, as shown in Table 2. This contradicts results obtained by Naiman et al. (1978), Swain (1984) and Long (1985) that seemed to claim ESL academic superiority rested solely with extraverts. The higher scores may be indicative of the typical introvert's ability to focus and concentrate on listening exercises much more effectively than their extraverted counterparts, as discussed by Ehrman (1990) and Ausubel (1968). In addition, according to Brown (2000), introverts typically possess a great deal of the following characteristics, all of which can potentially improve ESL and listening skills: territoriality, concentration, depth, internal-orientated, intensive, limited relationships and a general conservation of energies.

While both personality groups stand out as having strengths and weaknesses in various ESL subjects, it must be noted that the data indicated these differences to be relatively small in some cases. For example, writing proficiency scores among extraverts

and introverts showed very little variation. Hence, neither of the two personality traits seems to bring any advantage to the learner in this case. However, overall, the results from this study contradict the conclusions reached by many psychologists (Rolfhus & Ackerman, 1999; Sanchez-Marin et al., 2001; Chamorro-Premuzic & Furnham, 2003) that introverts would have an advantage over extraverts with respect to overall academic performance (as cited in Furnham et al., 2003, p.61).

In the present study, conducted with Chinese tertiary level students studying for various courses in India, though the introverted students outnumbered the extraverted students, the extraverted students scored better than the introverted students in most of the language skills, including overall language proficiency. This supports the applied linguists' argument that extraversion is a positive trait for language learning. Further investigation of these theories with larger sample sizes would prove more conclusive. At the same time, theories that contradict this conventional wisdom and shed light on reasons why introverts may, in certain conditions, outperform extraverts in ESL reading, writing, speaking and listening proficiency also deserve closer examination.

Additionally, a pedagogical implication might find ESL teachers varying teaching methods, given the results introduced from this study. Specifically, teachers could organise practical lesson plans designed to maximise both communication and learning in the classroom. Given the results of this study, ESL instructors might combine the

more outgoing, extraverted students with introvert-type pupils so as to gradually encourage the latter group to participate more actively in class. Similarly, extraverted students may acquire better concentration skills as a result of working with introverts.

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# Fundamentals and Country Specific Determinants of FDI: Evidence from United States and Malaysia

# Catherine S F Ho1 and Lena Booth2

<sup>1</sup>Arshad Ayub Graduate Business School, Faculty of Business Management, Universiti Teknologi MARA, Malaysia

<sup>2</sup>Thunderbird School of Global Management, Arizona State University, Arizona, USA

### **ABSTRACT**

This paper analyses the impact of macroeconomic fundamentals and country specific determinants on Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) in the United States of America (USA) and Malaysia from 1981 to 2013. Increased world integration, liberalisation and deregulation have reduced trade barriers in all countries across the world, allowing for vast growth in international trade and investment. In addition, negotiations on regional free trade agreements and the adaptation of favourable policies towards expansion of foreign investment in emerging countries have resulted in tremendous interest on the part of policy makers to compete for FDI that brings prosperity to these host countries. Empirical results conclude that while the rate of economic growth and domestic credit draw more FDI into the USA, changes in total trade and domestic interest rates have a significant effect on FDI flows into Malaysia.

Keywords: Domestic credit, FDI, interest rate, international trade

# INTRODUCTION

Foreign direct investment (FDI) plays an astonishing role in global business and is considered to be an indicator of global

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E-mail addresses: catherine@salam.uitm.edu.my (Catherine S. F. Ho), Lena.Booth@asu.edu (Lena Booth)

\* Corresponding author

economic health and stability. In the last two decades, global economy has experienced escalated flow of capital from both direct and portfolio investments. FDI flows are less susceptible to speculative activities relative to portfolio investment and are expected to provide greater contribution to economic growth. FDI can also bridge the savings and investment gap as well as meet foreign exchange requirements of emerging countries. With the current

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trend of negotiations on regional free trade agreements, there is vast interest in applying favourable policies towards FDI in emerging countries. Understanding FDI flows is therefore of crucial interest to policymakers. It has also become an integral component of the balance of payments in emerging countries with large growth in international trade through increased global financial linkages. Some large investment flows in smaller economies have significant consequences on macroeconomic fundamentals in the host country. This gives rise to the need to understand the trends and determinants of FDI flows in order to formulate policy decisions and verify their impact on the domestic economy. In addition, with the current global uncertainty, relatively high unemployment worldwide and slowdown in not only emerging but developed nations, authorities are under intense pressure to create jobs and maintain stability in the economy fiscally and financially.

FDI may spread capital, technology and management skills, entrepreneurial ability, brands and access to markets across the globe, all of which are ingredients crucial for growth and development (Athukorala & Wagle, 2011). FDI is also capable of providing and stimulating economic growth; increasing employment by creating new production capacity and jobs; developing infrastructure; restructuring enterprise; and relieving capital account by adding to the stock of capital in the host country. In addition, multinational companies (MNCs) are expected to transfer foreign

intangible assets such as technology and managerial skills to provide a source of new technologies, processes, products, organisational technologies and management skills. This would provide a strong stimulus for economic development of the host country (Wijeweera et al., 2010). On the other hand, FDI may provide foreign investors with new markets and marketing channels; cheaper production facilities; opportunity for foreign investors to circumvent trade barriers; movement from domestic export sales to locally-based national sales; capability to increase total production capacity; and opportunities for co-production, joint ventures with local partners, as well as joint marketing arrangements and licensing. Furthermore, improvement of the access to international markets would stimulate competition and efficiency in the host country.

The yearly global foreign direct investment flows have increased tremendously from USD26.7 billion in 1990 to USD208 billion in 1999. As shown in Figure 1 (UNCTAD, 2015), FDI flows have grown in the last decade to a peak of almost USD2,000 billion in 2007 before falling to about USD1,300 billion due to economic uncertainty and geopolitical risks in recent years. The six top FDI recipient countries in 2014 were China (\$128 bil), Hong Kong (\$111 bil), USA (\$86 bil), Singapore (\$81 bil), Brazil (62 bil) and the United Kingdom (\$61 bil), respectively (UNCTAD, 2015). FDI flows in developing economies remained resilient in 2014, reaching more than US\$700 bil, the highest level ever

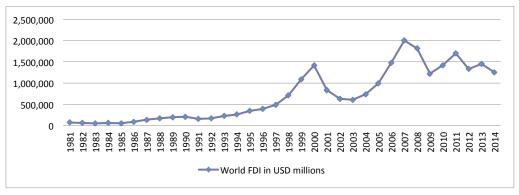


Figure 1. World FDI flows from 1981 to 2014 Source: UNCTAD (2015)

recorded, and accounting for 56% of global FDI flows. The increase was mainly driven by developing Asia, the world's largest recipient region (UNCTAD, 2015).

# FDI in Malaysia

The Malaysian government has intensely encouraged FDI since the 1970s but there remains some constraints on investment in specific sectors. While FDI inflow continues to improve after the effects of the 2008-2009 global financial crisis, Malaysia's performance in attracting FDI relative to both earlier decades and the

rest of the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) has slowed down (US Department of State, 2014). The level of FDI inflows for Malaysia fell drastically during the Asian financial crisis as observed in Figure 2 from a high of almost \$7.3 bil in 1996 to a low of almost \$600 mil in 2001. FDI in the country is very sensitive to global economic conditions. Even though FDI expanded after 2001 to a peak of \$8.6 bil in 2007, it fell drastically again to \$1.5 bil in 2009 before rallying to a high of \$12.2 bil in 2011 and falling slightly to \$11.6 bil in 2013 (UNCTAD, 2015).

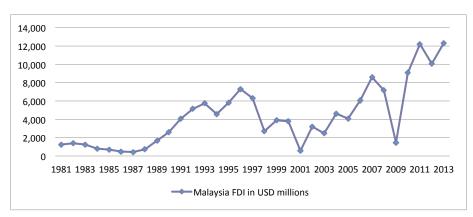


Figure 2. Global FDI flows into Malaysia from 1981 to 2013 Source: UNCTAD, 2015

According to Malaysia's central bank, Bank Negara Malaysia (BNM), the United States was the fifth largest source of new FDI to Malaysia in 2013 with \$2.8 bil in new investments. BNM reported that Singapore was Malaysia's largest source of new FDI, with \$5.2 bil in investments, followed by Japan with just under \$4.8 bil, the Netherlands with \$4.1 bil and Hong Kong with \$3.7 bil (UNCTAD, 2015). BNM listed the United States as Malaysia's third largest source of cumulative investment stock, with \$11.7 bil as of 2012 (UNCTAD, 2015). FDI played a vital role in Malaysia's rapid economic growth through export-orientated industrialisation (Athukorala & Wagle, 2011). Since Malaysia is a developing country, FDI plays a crucial role in its development and growth. This is especially so as Malaysia relies heavily on its exportorientated activities for the generation of income and growth. The US has always been a major foreign investor in Malaysia and any global crisis would drastically affect foreign investments in the country. Even though FDI flow into Malaysia between 1997 and 1998 was interrupted by the Asian financial crisis, Malaysia still received more FDI than any of its neighbours in ASEAN during that period (Athukorala & Wagle, 2011; Baharumshah & Almasaied, 2009). Malaysia was able to offer attractive incentives that attracted FDI into selected industries such as electrical and electronics (Wong, Tang, & Fausten, 2009). As mentioned by Choong and Lam (2010), Malaysia, though a small country in terms of income, is one of the developing countries that attracts FDI very well.

#### **FDI** in the United States of America

The United States of America is one of the largest recipients of FDI flows in the world and hence USA's perspective is important in the study of FDI. The country has vast potential to absorb FDI flows due to its huge market. As shown in Figure 3, the amount of American FDI increased tremendously during the Asian financial crisis from a level of \$84 bil in 1996 to a peak of \$314 bil in 2000. There has been much volatility in the FDI flows since year 2000 and the proportion of American FDI relative to the world FDI has deteriorated due to these flows moving mainly to emerging countries (UNCTAD, 2015). Over the past decade, FDI in the USA peaked in 2008, reaching \$310 bil. The recent global economic recession had a direct influence on inward direct investment transactions. Foreign companies dramatically reduced their investment in 2009, which dropped more than half from the prior year. Foreign investment in the USA increased in 2010 and again in 2011, before falling in 2012. In 2013, foreign investors' confidence in the USA returned and inward direct investment rose 35% (Organisation for International Investment, 2015).

Japan was the United States' largest foreign investor in 2013 at nearly \$45 bil, and it constituted nearly one fifth of all foreign investment in the country. The United Kingdom, Luxembourg, Canada and Switzerland constituted the rest of the top five largest investors in the USA. Between the years 1974 and 1994, the USA received

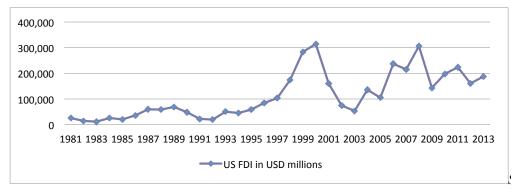


Figure 3. Global FDI flows into the United States from 1981 to 2013

Source: UNCTAD 2015

the most FDI inflow from around the world and was one of the preferred destinations for FDI due to its large market size and liberalised investment policy (Axarloglou, 2005). According to Salehizadeh (2005), FDI inflows into the USA are said to be the positive contributing factor towards its macroeconomic indicators. The USA is not only the largest supplier of FDI, it is the largest receiver as well. Of the total world FDI received by developed economies, the USA received the largest inflow (Roy & Berg, 2006; Bode & Nunnenkamp, 2011). FDI to the the USA accounts for almost 75% of total FDI that flowed into developed countries in 1999 (Choong & Lam, 2010).

For the fourth consecutive year, more than half of global foreign direct investment in 2013 flowed to developing and transition economies. Developed countries now account for only 39% of global FDI inflows (Organisation for International Investment, 2015). According to UNCTAD (2015), from 2015, trends in global FDI flows were expected to be rather uncertain due to: the fragility of the world

economy; growth tempered by hesitant consumer demand; volatility in currency markets and geopolitical instability. In addition, the decline in commodity prices may also lower investments in the oil and gas and other commodity industries. Within developed countries, increasing divergence in economic growth between the USA, Euro zone and Japan may result in differing patterns of FDI. With the increased uncertainty in Europe and the potential complexities arising from Brexit, the outlook for the coming years could be rather discouraging for this region. On the other hand, in developing economies, investment could be negatively affected by slower growth prospects and regional conflicts.

Worldwide economic power shifts have continued to evolve in the last two decades and this has resulted in dramatic changes in the trend of global businesses. This study investigated two contrasting economies, one well-developed and the other emerging, to examine the differences in the theoretical explanations and determinants of FDI. This

study aimed to provide a clear understanding of determining factors that drive FDI in developed and emerging markets. FDI has become not only an important source of investment but also a foundation of vital capital formation and growth for many countries. Policy makers from less developed countries that aspire to become more developed markets can learn from the experiences of other countries to attract FDI and move up the level of development (Ho & Rashid, 2011).

This research investigated the macroeconomic fundamental and country specific determinants of FDI in two countries. The results could provide policy implications to regulators on investment strategies and trade agreements as well as information to potential investors to make appropriate investment decisions through better understanding of these conditions. Any significant differences in empirical findings and theoretical understanding would also provide evidence that theoretical explanation for one nation may not necessarily be applicable to others with different levels of development.

The remainder of the paper is structured as follows: Section 2 reviews the empirical literature on fundamental and country specific factors on FDI. Section 3 describes the data and methodology applied in the empirical analysis and section 4 presents the empirical findings. Section 5 ends with a summary of the major findings and offers some policy implications.

# LITERATURE REVIEW

Lokesha and Leelavathy (2012) defined FDI as the process where domestic investors of a home country acquire assets for the intention of controlling activities of enterprise in a country located outside of the home country. FDI is very important for both developed and developing countries (Aamir et al., 2011; Ramrattan & Szenberg, 2014) in guiding sustainable development and growth. According to Klimek (2011), mergers and acquisitions are the major form of global FDI flow and macroeconomic variables play a crucial part in the mode of foreign establishment. FDI is an important source of knowledge in terms of the transfer of technology and management skills to the labour forces in countries such as Indonesia, Malaysia, Thailand and the Philippines. FDI can also enhance the domestic firms' usage of more advanced technologies, one of the crucial sources of economic growth in a country, and elevate the country to a global platform. It is also one of the principal sources of funding for developing countries, especially when a country is in financial crisis.

Three theories that commonly explain FDI flows are the internationalisation, market imperfection and product life-cycle theories. The internationalisation theory explains the gradual process of a firm's international involvement. The process outlines several interrelated steps a company must comply with in order to properly invest in foreign countries. Foreign entry

pattern starts with exports by local agents to new markets to setting up licensing and manufacturing plants later. Rugman (1981) stated that the process of internationalisation is as follows: 1) exporting; 2) licensing; 3) establishment of local warehouses and direct local sales, 4) local assembly and packing; 5) formation of a joint venture; and eventually 6) foreign direct investment. The market imperfection theory explains foreign investment as a strategy to profit from tangible or intangible competitive advantages not shared by competitors in foreign countries (Hymer, 1970). Foreign firms use these competitive advantages to capitalise on market imperfection in products and factors of production in the host country. The product life-cycle hypothesis, on the other hand, provides evidence of the maturity of product process and shifting of production to the most costefficient location.

Higher economic growth strengthens confidence in a domestic country and attracts foreign investors who expect to profit handsomely from their investments in that country. A rise in economic growth positively influences FDI inflows as it denotes a larger market with more opportunities and potential prospects for services and products produced. In addition, higher economic growth also corresponds to a higher level of productivity that lowers the cost of production through economies of scale. Furthermore, increase in economic growth denotes advanced infrastructure facilities that boost the marginal return to capital, which eventually attracts foreign investors. According to a previous study by Baharumshah and Almasaied (2009), FDI and economic growth have a significant and positive relationship. Similar to Choong and Lam (2010), Aw and Tang (2010) found that economic growth and the openness level of the Malaysian economy are very important factors that attract foreign investors into Malaysia. A country with higher gross domestic product (GDP) rate is likely to attract more foreign investments as it has higher demand for the services and products produced. Leitao (2010) analysed the determinants of FDI in Canada and concluded that economic growth is positively significant in affecting FDI inflows.

Openness level refers to the degree of trade openness of an economy and it is measured by a country's import and export activities. Kakar and Khilji (2011) mentioned that free trade or openness level has been regarded as the engine of a country's economic growth. Fast growing trade activities play a major role in the acceleration of growth in local demand and level of exports. When a country's openness level increases, the country provides opportunities for investors to bring their foreign products into the local markets (Athukorala & Wagle, 2011). Similarly, Demirhan and Masca (2008), who employed cross-sectional data of 38 developing countries from 2000 to 2004 to test the determinants of FDI found that trade openness is positively related to FDI inflows. Another study by Surge et al. (2008) on the drivers of FDI inflows into Rwanda

also confirmed a positive significant effect of trade openness on FDI inflow. Hailu (2010) noted that a higher degree of trade openness attracts foreign investors as high integration of the host country to the international market makes it cheaper to export products to other countries. Similar to Ho and Rashid (2011), Ho et al. (2013) also found that trade openness is positively significant for attracting FDI inflows for BRICS and Malaysia.

Empirical studies have shown that higher inflation negatively affects FDI inflow (Aw & Tang, 2010). Higher inflation rate in a host country indicates higher cost of conducting business; hence, it discourages foreign investment. In contrast, an increase in the inflation rate could also attract FDI as it implies larger demand and consumption levels. That in turn provides opportunities for foreign investors to increase production and benefit from higher sales in developed nations (Singhania & Gupta, 2011).

Host countries with lower interest rates are attractive to multinational firms that plan to raise funds domestically. High interest rates increase production costs and the cost of borrowing in the host country, discouraging direct foreign investments. However, previous studies showed conflicting evidence for this. Lave and Hidalgo (2000) found a negative relationship between FDI inflow and interest rate in the host country. Similarly, Ho et al. (2013) found a significant negative relation between interest rate and FDI inflows in China and South Africa, and concluded that a high interest rate increases the cost

of doing business and leads to lower foreign investment. Anna et al. (2012) found no significant impact of interest rates on FDI inflows in Zimbabwe. In contrast, Yang et al. (2000), who employed time series data in their study to examine the determinants of FDI in Australia, found that interest rate has a positive and significant relation with FDI inflows.

Exchange rate is the currency of a country expressed in another country's currency such as the value of Malaysian Ringgit (MYR) expressed as a unit of US dollar (USD). A study by Aw and Tang (2010) found that there is no significant relation between exchange rate and foreign investment decisions. However, Suliman et al. (2015) and Aamir et al. (2011) found a negative relationship between FDI and exchange rate. A later study on exchange rates by Mugableh (2015) found that exchange rates, gross domestic product, money supply and trade enhanced the flows of FDI into Malaysia, while consumer price index worsened them. In addition, Dua and Garg (2015) investigated macroeconomic factors underlying FDI flows in India by cointegrating VAR and found that depreciating exchange rates, higher domestic returns and domestic output as well as better infrastructure are conducive to FDI, while trade openness and global FDI flows are detrimental to India's FDI.

Positive stock market performance is a good indicator of healthy economic condition and potential for future growth, thus motivating foreign direct investment. Countries with a more developed financial sector allow investors access to liquidity and funds via domestic or external finance. Agbloyor et al. (2013) found that countries with more developed stock markets attract FDI, as improvement in the stock market performance strengthens confidence of investors in terms of better outlook and investment climate for the domestic market. Similarly, Arcabic et al. (2013) analysed both the long and short-term relationships between FDI and the stock market in Croatia and found that in the short run, upward movement on the stock market positively affects FDI.

A recent study by Malhotra et al. (2014) evaluated the determinants of FDI in Brazil, Russia, India and China over the period 1995 to 2012 and found that debt servicing and inflation have negative impact on FDI flows while GDP growth and per capita income have positive impact on FDI. Additionally, Kirchner (2012) modelled inward foreign direct investment for Australia and found that FDI is positively related to income and productivity growth and negatively related to foreign portfolio investment, trade openness, exchange rate and foreign real interest rate. Moreover, Kaur and Sharma (2013) concluded that openness, reserves, GDP and long-term debt positively impact FDI while inflation and exchange rate negatively affect FDI. In summary, changes in income, exchange and inflations rates, export and import, household consumption and economic activities of the host country affect foreign investors' sentiment and investment decisions.

### **DATA AND METHODOLOGY**

In order to analyse the impact of fundamentals and country specific determinants on FDI in Malaysia and the USA, annual data from 1981 to 2013 were collected from international financial statistics, namely, from the International Monetary Fund, the World Economic Outlook, the World Bank, the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD), the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) and the Global Market Information Database, Euromonitor International. The list included nine macroeconomic fundamentals and country specific factors, namely, exchange rate, inflation rate, interest rate, economic growth, total trade, domestic stock index, domestic credit, household consumption and domestic investment. This list of factors is shown in Table 1.

To provide a comparison for the two countries in the sample, Table 2 provides descriptive statistics of the variables used in the study. Being a developed and large country, it is no surprise that the USA has substantially larger FDI inflows, about 28 times larger than that of Malaysia. The USA's total trade flows, however, is on average only about 10 times larger than that of Malaysia. The inflation rate between the countries are on average very similar. The USA, on the other hand, has a slightly higher interest rate on average during the sample period. The USA also has a higher domestic credit and household consumption as percentage of GDP compared to Malaysia.

Table 1
Proxy for each variable and expected relation with FDI

Variables	Proxies	Expected Relation
Foreign Direct Investment (FDI)	Foreign Direct Investment/GDP	
Exchange Rate (ER)	Exchange Rate	Negative
Inflation Rate (INF)	Inflation Rate	Negative
Interest Rate (INT)	Interest Rate	Negative
Economic Growth (EG)	Gross Domestic Product	Positive
Total Trade (TR)	(Export + Import)/GDP	Positive
Stock Market (SM)	Domestic Stock Index	Positive
Domestic Credit (DC)	Domestic Credit/GDP	Positive
Household Consumption (HHC)	Household Consumption/GDP	Positive
Domestic Investment (DINV)	Gross Fixed Capital Formation/GDP	Positive

Table 2
Descriptive statistics of the variables for the USA and Malaysia from 1981-2013

		US	SA			Mala	ıysia	
Variables	Mean	Max	Min	Std Dev	Mean	Max	Min	Std Dev
FDI	114,380	314,007	11,518	92,293	4,296	12,197	422	3,324
(US\$M)	ER	2.02 \$/£	1.30 \$/£	0.17 \$/£	3.04 RM/\$	3.92 RM/\$	2.30 RM/\$	0.57 RM/\$
INF (%)	3.22	10.30	-0.30	1.77	2.93	9.70	0.30	1.90
INT (%)	5.08	16.38	0.10	3.78	4.72	8.46	2.12	2.13
EG*	8,959	16,768	3,126	4,155	354,416	986,733	57,613	288,788
TR (US\$M)	1,730,922	3,847,914	460,394	1,082,165	166,906	434,229	23,312	130,382
SM**	7,001	16,576	875	4,631	822	1865	233	451
DC (%)	179.32	240.55	111.36	39.66	123.18	163.35	72.67	22.86
HHC (%)	65.05	69.32	59.42	2.45	48.69	57.32	41.56	4.45
DINV (%)	21.78	25.08	17.51	1.82	28.84	43.59	20.57	7.32

*Note:* \* GDP for the USA is measured in billions of USD while GDP is measured in Malaysia in millions of MYR. \*\*SM for USA is the Dow Jones Industrial Index while that for Malaysia is the Kuala Lumpur Composite Index.

Malaysia has a higher domestic investment as a percentage of GDP, 28.84% on average, as opposed to 21.78% for the USA.

FDI is the inflow of foreign direct investment; ER is average yearly value of the country's currency in terms of one unit of US dollar for Malaysia and one unit of British pound for the USA; INF is inflation

rate proxied by changes in consumer price index; *INT* is interest rate; *EG* is the gross domestic product (GDP) of the respective countries; *TR* is total trade flows; *SM* is the domestic stock market index; *DC* is measured by domestic credit as a percentage of GDP, *HHC* is the domestic household consumption as a percentage of GDP and

*DINV* is an indicator of domestic investment and is the gross fixed capital formation as a percentage of GDP.

This study employed ordinary least Square (OLS) multiple regression analysis to investigate the FDI inflow behaviour of each country and to explore the significance of macroeconomic and country-specific factors on FDI inflow. This approach provides accurate predictions of the equation and measures the extent, direction and strength of association of each determinant in explaining the change in FDI.

The OLS regression model in this study is described as:

$$\begin{aligned} &FDI_{t} = \alpha_{0} + \beta_{1}ER_{t} + \beta_{2}INF_{t} + \beta_{3}INT_{t} + \beta_{4}EG_{t} + \\ &\beta_{5}TR_{t} + \beta_{6}SM_{t} + \beta_{7}DC_{t} + \beta_{8}HHC_{t} + \beta_{9}DINV_{t} \\ &+ \beta_{10}CS_{t} + \epsilon_{t} \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

where FDI is the inflow of foreign direct investment; ER is average yearly value of the country's currency in terms of one unit of US dollar for Malaysia and one unit of British pound for the USA; *INF* is inflation rate proxied by changes in consumer price index; *INT* is interest rate; *EG* is economic growth as measured by the change in gross domestic product; TR is total trade flows as measured by total export and import as a ratio of GDP; SM is the change in domestic stock market index (Dow Jones Industrial Index for the USA and Kuala Lumpur Composite Index [KLCI] for Malaysia); DC is measured by domestic credit as a ratio of GDP, HHC is the domestic household consumption as a ratio of GDP and DINV is an indicator of domestic investment and is the gross fixed capital formation as a

ratio of GDP; CS is the crisis dummy with 1 indicating crisis year, 0 otherwise, and  $\varepsilon_t$  is the error term representing the effects of omitted variables. It is assumed that  $\varepsilon_t$  can be characterised by an independently, identically distributed, random variable with mean zero and variance and subscript t represents years.

The changes in the variables are computed as a measure of the respective transformed factors in order to ensure stationarity and to avoid spurious analysis of results. Unit root test results for both countries are shown in Table 3. This study applied both Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) and Kwiatkowski-Phillips-Schmidt-Shin (KPSS) unit root tests in order to check stationarity of the time series. The data series were also corrected for multicollinearity, autocorrelation or heteroskedasticity problems with Variance Inflation Factor, White tests and Newey-West corrections.

### **EMPIRICAL FINDINGS**

The empirical results on macroeconomic fundamentals and country-specific determinants of FDI into the USA and Malaysia are detailed in Table 4. The results show that some factors impact developed and emerging countries similarly while others impact them rather differently. First, the coefficients on exchange rates are negative but insignificant for both countries. Similar but significant relations were found by Aamir et al. (2011) and Suliman et al. (2015) on exchange rates and FDI. FDI is attracted by an increase in the value of domestic currency, signalling foreign

Table 3
Descriptive statistics of the variables for the USA and Malaysia from 1981-2013

		USA			Malaysia	
Variables	ADF Test t-stats	Model (lag)	KPSS Test KPSS statistic	ADF Test t-stats	Model (lag)	KPSS Test KPSS statistic
FDI	-6.7276***	C(0)	0.2121	-6.6373***	C(0)	0.2485
ER	-4.0614***	C(0)	0.0879	-4.2664***	C(0)	0.1381
INF	-7.1743***	C(1)	0.1801	-7.8368***	C(0)	0.1956
INT	-5.1837***	C(3)	0.3257	-5.9264***	C(0)	0.5000**
EG	-5.6028***	C(0)	0.0836	-4.9037***	C(0)	0.0793
TR	-6.4616***	C(0)	0.5000**	-4.7261***	C(0)	0.1234
SM	-5.6396***	C(0)	0.2692	-7.0074***	C(0)	0.0593
DC	-7.3553***	C(0)	0.2028	-5.2012***	C(1)	0.1113
ННС	-7.6819***	C(0)	0.2541	-5.2155***	C(0)	0.4193*
DINV	-4.8745***	C(0)	0.0849	-3.9570***	C(0)	0.1116

*Note:* The ADF test has null hypothesis of the existence of a unit root in the time series while the null for KPSS tests is that the time series is stationary. \*\*\*, \*\* and \* denote statistical significance at 1, 5 and 10 %, respectively

investors' confidence and the strength of the domestic economy. Inflation rate has an indirect relation with FDI in Malaysia but a positive relation with FDI in the USA. The negative relation between inflation and FDI flows in Malaysia are consistent with Aw and Tang (2010). In the study on Malaysia, they argued that a higher inflation rate in Malaysia (and most emerging countries) signals higher costs of production. That worries foreign investors and lowers FDI inflows. The positive relation between inflation and FDI flows in the USA is consistent with Singhania and Gupta (2011), who argued that higher inflation in the USA signals a high level of economic activity and consumption, thereby attracting foreign interest in investments. While the effect on inflation is different for developed and developing countries, it is found to be not significant for both countries in this study.

In Malaysia, the coefficient of interest rate on FDI is positive and significant at the 5% level. A higher interest rate indicates a positive economic condition with a relatively higher level of investment and consumption, attracting FDI into the market. Interest rate, however, is not a significant driver for FDI in the USA. The contradictory results for interest rate show that interest rate provides differing signals depending on the state of development of a nation. Lower interest rate may indicate a positive economic outlook and cheaper source of financing for businesses in developed economies. A similar condition in less developed nations, however, may signal loss of business confidence and sluggish economic environment. While interest rate is not significant in affecting FDI in the USA, it is important to note that FDI inflow into the US is positively and significantly affected

by economic growth. When the domestic GDP improves, more FDI is attracted into this developed nation, consistent with our theoretical understanding. It is also consistent with findings from Choong and Lam (2010) and Aw and Tang (2010), where a growing and larger market was found to more likely attract global enterprises seeking markets for their ready products. It is interesting to note that while economic growth is the most significant driver of FDI in developed countries like the USA,

a similar relation is not found in Malaysia. On the contrary, the coefficient of economic growth on FDI is negative in Malaysia, even though it is not statistically significant. The negative coefficient indicates that faster economic growth may offset cost advantages of less developed nations for international firms seeking relatively cheap destinations for their labour intensive production. Additionally, faster growth may lead to higher inflation, which discourages FDI inflow into developing countries.

Table 4
Results of fundamental and country-specific factors on FDI for the USA and Malaysia

		USA		Malaysia
ER	-0.1197	-0.0996	-0.1731	-0.1973
	0.3609	0.5050	0.3798	0.3101
INF	0.0051	0.0023	-0.0026	-0.0026
	0.6154	0.8649	0.6838	0.7159
INT	-0.0012	0.0003	0.0151*	0.0162**
	0.8025	0.9460	0.0921	0.0448
EG	0.0747***	0.0650***	-0.3373	-0.3532
	0.0002	0.0027	0.3386	0.2399
TR	0.3126	0.3125	0.4842**	0.4964**
	0.1408	0.1470	0.0375	0.0321
SM	-0.0312	-0.0191	0.0134	-0.0001
	0.6027	0.7767	0.6854	0.9987
DC	0.5376**	0.4835*	-0.0686	-0.0448
	0.0233	0.0598	0.4683	0.5800
ННС	-0.4583	-0.2075	-0.5867	-0.8770
	0.3153	0.6499	0.4914	0.3589
DINV	-0.0156	0.1038	-0.0171	0.0885
	0.9509	0.7138	0.9255	0.6523
CS		0.0159		0.0524
		0.5601		0.1362
C	-0.0244	-0.0269	-0.0037	-0.0163
	0.2096	0.2088	0.9251	0.5777
Ad R <sup>2</sup>	0.3257	0.3040	0.2313	0.2545
F-sig	0.0293	0.0473	0.0838	0.0787

Note: \*\*\*, \*\* and \* denote statistical significance at 1, 5 and 10 %, respectively.

This table presents the OLS regression results as shown in equation (1):

$$\begin{split} &FDI_{t} = \alpha_{0} + \beta_{1}ER_{t} + \beta_{2}INF_{t} + \beta_{3}INT_{t} + \beta_{4}EG_{t} + \\ &\beta_{5}TR_{t} + \beta_{6}SM_{t} + \beta_{7}DC_{t} + \beta_{8}HHC_{t} + \beta_{9}DINV_{t} \\ &+ \beta_{10}CS_{t} + \epsilon_{t} \end{split}$$

where FDI is the inflow of foreign direct investment; ER is average yearly value of the country's currency in terms of one unit of US dollar for Malaysia and one unit of British pound for the USA; *INF* is inflation rate proxied by changes in consumer price index; *INT* is interest rate; *EG* is economic growth as measured by the change in GDP; TR is total trade flows as measured by total export and import as a ratio pf GDP; SM is the change in domestic stock market index; DC is measured by domestic credit as a ratio of GDP, HHC is the domestic household consumption as a ratio of GDP and DINV is an indicator of domestic investment and is the gross fixed capital formation as a ratio of GDP; CS is the crisis dummy with 1 indicating crisis year, 0 otherwise, and  $\varepsilon_t$ is the error term and it represents the effects of omitted variables. It is assumed that  $\varepsilon_t$ can be characterised by an independently, identically distributed, random variable with mean zero and variance and subscript t represents years.

Exports and imports play major roles in attracting investments from foreign nations and total trade signals the ease of doing business, especially in emerging countries. This factor is found to be significant in driving FDI for Malaysia. The relation is positive, indicating that the higher the level

of international trade, the more positive is the outlook for foreign investors to build capacity and production in that country. The relation is also positive for developed USA but is not statistically significant. The results indicate that openness in an economy is important for attracting FDI in developing countries but not so for the developed ones where openness was already a given. The results also highlight the significant benefit emerging nations could derive from negotiating in regional trade agreements so they will not be side-lined and miss out on investment and trade opportunities. It is surprising to note that stock market activities are not found to be a significant factor in encouraging foreign investment in both of the countries.

Another interesting finding is that both household consumption and domestic investment are negative but not significant drivers of FDI for both countries. The relation seems to suggest that an increase in domestic investment actually discourages foreign investments. This may be due to the crowding out effect of domestic investment replacing foreign investment and vice versa during this period of study. The relation of domestic investment and FDI, however, turns positive but insignificant after controlling for the crisis period. Domestic credit, however, is found to be a significant factor in fostering foreign investment in the USA. This is because easing of domestic credit boosts economic activity, facilitates expansion in local production and consumption and signals a rosy economy favourable to business. Unfortunately, the

same is not found for emerging Malaysia due to the stringent credit policies set by the central bank.

In order to control for the different economic crisis periods in this study, a crisis dummy variable was added to the regression as a control variable. The results of fundamental and country-specific determinants on FDI remained robust with the introduction of the crisis variable. The variables in the model were significant in explaining the changes in FDI in both countries with f-statistics of less than 10%. The adjusted R-squares indicated that these variables explained 30% and 25% of movements in FDI for the USA and Malaysia, respectively.

# SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The objectives of this paper were to compile the statistics on FDI and investigate the impact of fundamentals and country-specific determinants on FDI for both developed and developing countries. A set of nine factors were examined together in a model under two categories: fundamentals and country-specific factors. Fundamental variables included exchange rates, inflation and interest rates, economic growth and total trade, while country-specific factors included stock market performance, domestic credit, household consumption and domestic investment. The data set spanned from 1981 to 2013. The model also controlled for periods of economic crisis with a dummy variable.

The results from empirical tests found that economic growth and domestic credit

were significant drivers of FDI into the USA. A higher level of economic activities in developed countries provides a catalyst for FDI, while domestic credit expansion facilitates financing of investments from abroad. Higher economic growth was found to be significantly positive in affecting FDI in Baharumshah and Almasaied (2009) as well. FDI in the USA was negatively correlated to foreign currency value, indicating lower domestic currency value reduces the incentive for foreigners to invest. However, the factor was not statistically significant. Inflation, international trade and domestic investment after controlling for the crisis period all hade positive coefficients on FDI in the USA, but they were also statistically insignificant. Stock market performance and household consumption were insignificant in driving FDI in the USA as well, but there seemed to be a negative relation between these factors and FDI.

For emerging Malaysia, domestic interest rate and international trade were two significant drivers attracting FDI into the country. The Malaysian economy would be more attractive to international investors worldwide if the economy were more open to trade where products can be exported to surrounding countries. The relation of interest rate on FDI was significantly positive for Malaysia, which is in contrast to theoretical understanding and evidence gathered mostly from developed nations. For developing countries, a higher interest rate may signal a higher level of economic activities and promising business environment that provide opportunities for production and consumption stimulating FDI. Similar to the USA, exchange rate was insignificant but the negative relation seems to suggest stronger currency value would draw higher foreign interest in domestic investments. Inflation rate was negatively related to FDI for Malaysia but the factor was not significant. Domestic credit, household consumption and domestic investment were also found to be insignificant in attracting FDI into Malaysia.

The results in this paper documented that different factors were significant in driving FDI into developed and emerging nations. To fully understand the behaviour of foreign direct investments, more comprehensive studies in the future may look into other factors specific to emerging countries such as tax rates, skills and expertise, country risk factors, and others for a larger group of countries.

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# **SOCIAL SCIENCES & HUMANITIES**

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# How Intimate are You with Your Preferred Brand? - A Study on Brand Personality Congruence

# Sudipta Kumar Jana\* & Jyoti Ranjan Das

Institute of Business and Computer Studies, Siksha "O" Anusandhan University, Kalinga Nagar, SUM Hospital Road, Ghatikia, Bhubaneswar-751003, India

# **ABSTRACT**

Brand personality congruence is a concept not widely studied. The present study corrects this lack of knowledge of brand personality congruence by studying it via a service brand like KFC in the Quick Service Restaurant industry. Data were collected in two phases, first for a pilot study from a student sample with exploratory factor analysis applied to the data. Subsequently, data were collected from 473 KFC customers in the city of Bhubaneswar, India and tests like the confirmatory factor analysis and Structural Equation Modelling were applied to validate the conceptual model and estimate the path in the structural model. The findings of the study have practical implications for different service brands in the Quick Service Restaurant industry such as to design their products and services to match the personality of different target groups.

*Keywords:* Brand personality congruence, confirmatory factor analysis, measurement model Quick Service Restaurant, Structural Equation Modelling

# **INTRODUCTION**

Liberalisation and globalisation have already changed the business scenario in India. Domestic companies are facing

Kentucky Fried Chicken (KFC), a global brand operating in India. The lifestyle of people has changed dramatically and they enjoy their leisure time outside their home. As per Census 2011, more than half of the population of India are below 25 years of age and the age group of 21 to 30 years is

the largest segment of fast food consumers

in India. Taking advantage of the changing

tough competition with their multinational counterparts. The present study is based on

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E-mail addresses: sudiptajana82@gmail.com (Sudipta Kumar Jana), jyotiranjandas@soauniversity.ac.in (Jyoti Ranjan Das) \* Corresponding author

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demographics in India, which has the highest youth population in the world, global brands like KFC have positioned themselves to attract Indian customers. According to a Mckinsey Global Institute (MGI) study, by 2030 more and more people will live in urban areas and there will be a trend of both husband and wife being employed, which will fuel the growth of the Quick Service Restaurant industry in India. The Quick Service Restaurant industry (QSR) is growing rapidly and enjoys huge market potential. In this context it is very difficult to differentiate the service offered by different service brands; hence, it is of paramount importance to build brand personality for the different service brands operating in the QSR Industry.

The concept of brand or branding is not a new strategy, but dates back to primitive times Studies by Hieronimus (2003) clearly indicated that in primitive times, potters marked their clay-made articles to differentiate and give identity to their product. The term 'brand' comes from the Old Norse word 'bandr' which means 'to burn' and it clearly indicates the primitive practice of farmers who burnt a piece of metal and stamped it on their livestock in order to identify their animals. Today, brands have become part of our day-to-day life. From the moment we rise from bed to the moment we go to bed, we come across different brands.

What, exactly, is a brand? From time to time, academicians and practitioners have defined brands in different ways and from different perspectives. Earlier branding as a concept was confined to a product only but subsequently the concept was extended to the service sector. In the modern age, the concept has been further extended to places and even people. Travis (2000) has said, "A brand is like a bridge between you and the customers. How your customers feel about your brand isn't a casual question. It is a crucial question. A brand is not a brand to you until it develops an emotional connection with you." Kressman et al. (2006) in their study revealed the positive relationship between self-image congruence on brand loyalty, while Sirgy et al. (2000) studied the relationship between selfcongruity and retail patronage. Koksal and Mehmet (2012) in their study on cellular phone users mentioned that "self-congruity has a positive influence on brand loyalty moderated by love and commitment."

The review of literature revealed that very few studies have been done focusing on the relational aspect of branding, so in the present study the mediating role of different dimensions of brand relationship quality on brand personality congruence and brand loyalty was also examined. This study aimed to fill the gap in the literature. Although many studies have been done on different aspects of branding, the present study is based on the personality aspect of branding, which is known as 'brand personality' and its extension 'brand personality congruence'. This research is justified in several ways. In previous studies, different authors (Mocanu, 2014; Andonova et al., 2015; Tsai et al., 2015) have studied the congruence between brand

image, brand identity, brand personality and self-concept or image of customers but this study has uncovered how brand personality congruence is a better concept than the previous ones. This study explains how brand personality congruence can be useful in predicting brand loyalty. As the study was based on a quick service restaurant brand, which is also an experiential brand, the role of consumer-brand relationship dimensions like intimacy (consumer-brand) and intimacy (brand-consumer) were also explored.

# LITERATURE REVIEW

Today the concept of brand has been extended from products to services, places and even people, and has become an integral part of our day-to-day life. Burawat (2015) extended the concept of branding even to employers. Several studies were conducted on brands and have been on the centrestage of marketing literature. The American Marketing Association (AMA, 2010) defined brand by highlighting its identification aspects, whereas Murphy (1987) highlighted the tangible as well as intangible assets associated with a brand. Similarly, Broadbent and Cooper (1987) highlighted the legal aspects of branding. De Chernatony and Dall'Olmo Riley (1998) in their review of different studies of branding summarised the different perspectives and themes of brands, such as legal instrument, logo, company, short hand, risk reducer, identity system, image in consumer's mind, value system, personality, relationship, adding value and evolving entity. Travis

(2000) emphasised the role of a brand in developing an emotional relationship with customers. Aaker (1996) mentioned that customers buy branded products and services because they believe that its use or consumption will enhance their identity. As opined by Kapferer (2008), brand identity means "specifying the facets of the brands' uniqueness and value" but there was no clear cut idea about what he meant by "uniqueness" and "value." So, brand identity is a dynamic concept that is flexible to contextual changes.

According to Keller (1993) brand image is "the set of associations linked to the brand that consumers hold in memory." However, from the viewpoint of Aaker and Joachimsthaler (2000), the associations that customers have with the brand can be short-term and tactical. The concept of anthromorphisation of a brand is not new but has gained momentum after Aaker (1997) developed a valid and reliable scale to measure the personality of a brand, which is known as the brand personality scale (BPS). She described BPS as the human characteristics associated with a brand. Although most of the studies on brand personality were based on Aaker's (1997) brand personality scale, the scale was not totally applicable in different contexts. According to Chitale et al. (2013), "Personality represents the total pattern of characteristic ways of the thinking, feeling and behaving that form the individual's distinctive method of relating to the environment." They further elaborated that personality is the sum total of internal and external traits of an individual, which are relatively stable and which make the individual different from others; hence, there is merit in studying brand personality. Wirdamulia and Afiff (2013) suggested that marketers should emphasise integrated customer value proposition for developing the required brand personality, while Tekke et al. (2015) even studied the personality of religion. Although brand identity, brand image and brand personality are interrelated and have been used interchangeably in the existing literature, they are distinct constructs.

Sigry and Su (2000) in their study found that consumers have a tendency to buy brands when there is a match between brand image and self-concept, but in a previous study, Sigry (1982) mentioned that self-concept is of four types, and according to Rosenberg (1979), these can vary. So from this we came to the conclusion that there is merit in studying consumer personality instead of self-image or self-concept. Indeed, self-concept, selfimage and consumer personality are also distinct concepts and it is wise to study the congruence between brand personality and consumer personality in the context of consumer behaviour.

Although many studies have been done on brand personality, very few studies were done on brand personality congruence. Sigry et al. (2000) found the link between self-congruity and brand loyalty. Accordingly, Kressman et al. (2006) found that positive self-image congruence can lead to brand loyalty. Asperin (2007) mentioned that brand

personality congruence was a match between consumer personality and brand personality and developed a valid and reliable scale. Kuenzel and Halliday (2010) found a positive relationship between reputation, brand personality congruence and brand loyalty; similarly, brand personality and self-congruity play a positive role (Das, 2014) in predicting store loyalty. Khan and Farahat (2012) made a congruity study in the context of the Indian apparel market and mentioned its importance in predicting consumer choice. Labrecque et al. (2011) in their study mentioned that self-image congruence is found to enhance brand loyalty only for those consumers who are ready to conform. Koksal et al. (2012, p.97) revealed that "self-congruity has a positive influence on brand loyalty moderated by love and commitment". The congruence between human and brand personality is influenced by culture (Shan, 2012) and the personalities of students and the brand personalities of universities are positively related (Kazemi et al., 2013). Fazel (2015) mentioned that the congruency between cultural specific brand personality and national culture has a positive effect on brand evaluation.

Travis (2000) mentioned that a successful brand is one which establishes an emotional relationship with customers. Although several studies were done by different authors like Altman and Taylor (1973), Davis and Latty-Mann (1987) and Mizerski and White (1986) on consumer-brand relationship, Fournier (2000) dimensionalised the consumer-brand

relationship known as the brand relationship quality scale (BRQ). The present study focusses on intimacy as an important dimension of the brand relationship quality scale developed by Fournier (2000). Intimacy refers to how close the consumers feel to the brand and vice versa. Chaplin and John (2005) revealed the development of self-brand connections among children and adolescents, while Ahuja (2008) mentioned the importance of customer relationship for organisational success. Aaker et al. (2004) and Sahay and Sharma (2010) mentioned that intimacy is two-way communication. Malar et al. (2011) mentioned that actual self-congruence has the greatest impact on emotional brand attachment. That is to say, there is closeness between the brand and the consumer and each one understands the other. Intimacy not only involves consumers' understanding exhibited by the brand but also a consumer's personal experience with the brand will lead to strong brand loyalty. Ahmad and Thyagraj (2014) revealed the role of the consumer-brand relationship in building brand equity, while Haspari and Adiwijaya (2014) studied the relationship between self-congruity, brand relationship quality and brand loyalty. Hudson et al. (2015) mentioned that consumers develop an emotional bond with the brand via social media interactions and these interactions also have a positive relationship on brand relationship quality. In the present paper, instead of self-congruity, we have hypothesised the relationship between brand personality congruence, brand relationship quality and brand loyalty because brand

personality congruence is a better concept than self-congruity as explained in the earlier part of the literature review.

# **Objectives of the Study**

For the purpose of studying an experiential brand, KFC was chosen because the brand is new to the Bhubaneswar market but still a very popular brand. KFC is an acronym of the company name, 'Kentucky Fried Chicken'. It has its headquarters in Louisville, Kentucky in the United States of America. This fast food restaurant chain specialises in fried chicken and is the world's second largest restaurant chain, as measured by sales. The present paper aimed to study the application of brand personality congruence in the Quick Service Restaurant industry and the mediating role of intimacy on the effect of brand personality congruence on brand loyalty.

# Hypotheses

Fournier (2000) outlined two types of intimacy i.e. intimacy (consumer-brand) and intimacy (brand-consumer), which are important dimensions of consumer-brand relationship. Koksal and Demir (2012, p.97) mentioned that "self-congruity has a positive influence on brand loyalty mediated by love and commitment," so it is clear that consumers develop some form of relationship with the brands they use. Nyffenegger et al. (2014) in their study on service brand relationship quality revealed two new dimensions, namely hot brand relationship quality and cold brand

relationship quality. Hot brand relationship quality is based on emotions, whereas cold brand relationship quality is based on object relevant beliefs, but emotions can only be developed if there is intimacy between the consumer and the brand. In the present study it was understood that brand personality congruence is a more superior concept than 'self-congruity'. Hence, in the present study it was hypothesised that brand personality would have a positive influence on brand loyalty mediated by intimacy (consumer-brand) and intimacy (brand-consumer).

Hypothesis 1, H1: Brand personality congruence has significant effect on brand loyalty.

Hypothesis 2, H2: Brand personality congruence has significant effect on intimacy (Brand-Consumer).

Hypothesis 3, H3: Brand personality congruence has significant effect on intimacy (Consumer-Brand).

Hypothesis 4, H4: Intimacy (Brand-Consumer) has significant effect on brand loyalty.

Hypothesis 5, H5: Intimacy (Consumer-Brand) has significant effect on brand loyalty.

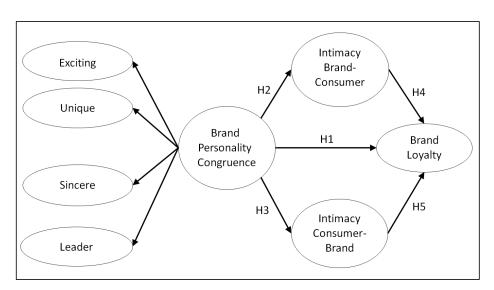


Figure 1. Conceptual model

### MATERIALS AND METHODS

Previous study of consumer behaviour in the context of branded vegetarian restaurants was conducted by Catherine and Magesh (2015) and Padmavathy and Thangavel (2015) in the context of employee engagement in KFC Chennai. Because no previous study with regard to brand

personality congruence was conducted in the context of brand personality congruence for the KFC brand, which is known for its non-vegetarian food, we selected it for our study. Also as the study was based on quick service retailing, we selected the KFC brand, which truly represented the quick service retailing sector and was also a well-known and established brand. Furthermore, KFC is also an experiential brand, so there is merit in studying the intimacy dimension of Brand Relationship Quality in relation to brand personality congruence and brand loyalty. Because no previous study was done on brand personality congruence in India, we conducted a pilot study to determine the underlying structure of brand personality congruence. The pilot study consisted of a student sample of 519 subjects from different higher education institutes of Bhubaneswar city. Exploratory factor analysis was done with varimax rotation and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO) value of 0.923 with the Bartlet Test of Sphericity, significant at 0.000 levels, indicating the appropriateness of the exploratory factor analysis. The factor loadings of the 17 items ranged from 0.703 to 0.849, which loaded on four factors. The four factors explained 72.687% of the variance. In the exploratory factor analysis, three items were dropped because we considered factor loadings only above 0.60, which failed to load on any factors. Before conducting the measurement and structural model, the second order four-factor brand personality congruence (Figure 2) was analysed. The initial model

provided a reasonable fit for the four-factor structure (Chi square=174.610, df =115; p=0.000, RMR=0.022; CFI=0.988; GFI=0.959 and RMSEA=0.033). Based on modification indices intra construct errors were allowed to covariate (e1-e2; e7-e11) and it improved the fit (Chi square=161.242, df=113; p<0.002, RMR=0.021; CFI=0.991; GFI=0.963 and RMSEA=0.030).

For the final study, structured questionnaires were distributed at KFC, Jayadev Vihar in Bhubaneswar city between 5:30pm and 7:30pm. Initially, the respondents were screened; they were asked whether they had visited KFC Bhubaneswar in the last one year. The sample composed of those respondents who had visited KFC Bhubaneswar in the last one year. The rationale for doing so was that brand loyalty was one of the important constructs in our study. In the present study a non-probability sampling approach i.e. convenience sampling had been applied and data was mostly collected on Sundays because it was found that most of the customers visited KFC on Sundays and were relatively free on that day to complete the questionnaire. Altogether, 614 questionnaires were distributed, but we received only 583 completed questionnaires and out of them, only 473 were used for the final study. The remainder was discarded because they were incompletely filled. To study the brand personality congruence, we adapted the scale developed by Asperin (2007), and for the intimacy construct, Fournier's (2000) Brand Relationship Quality Scale was adapted. For brand loyalty, Oliver's (1999) scale was adapted and for the entire study a 5-point Likert scale was used. Brand personality congruence was taken as a second-order factor because there is merit in studying a second-order construct. Second-order constructs are easy to interpret (Chen, Sousa & West, 2005), may account for the pattern of relations among the first-order factors and usually lead to relatively error-free estimates. All the analyses were done with the help of statistical software such as SPSS Ver. 20 and Amos Ver 20. Missing value analysis

and outliers were checked with the help of SPSS. Data were also checked for other assumptions of multivariate analysis and it was found that there were no serious violations of normality nor did the problem of multicollinearity or homoscedascity exist. We applied confirmatory analysis to test the measurement model, and the structural equation modelling technique was applied to test the hypothesised relationship between the different constructs. Both confirmatory factor analysis and structural equation modelling were done by Amos.

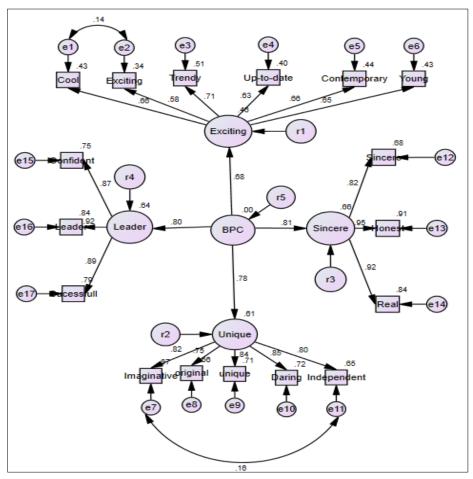


Figure 2. Second-order factor structure of brand personality congruence

### RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Table 1 shows that the sample comprised 57.9% female customers compared to male customers, while 67.4% of the respondents belonged to the age group of 17-27 years followed by 19.9% in the age group of 28-38 years. Most of the respondents were graduates (58.8%), followed by intermediates (28.3%). Private sector employees comprised 28.8% of the sample and most of the respondents were single.

A two-step approach was adopted for the final study, as suggested by Anderson and Gerbing (1988). First, confirmatory factor analysis was applied using Amos version-20 to test the measurement model. A measurement model specifies how variables measured logically and systematically represent constructs involved in a theoretical model. The confirmatory factor analysis provided acceptable model fit indices (Table 2) as suggested by Hu and Bentler (1999), (Chi square=692.469, df=332; p<0.000) and Normed Fit Index (NFI)=0.952; Comparative Fit Index (CFI)=0.974; Tucker Lewis Index (TLI)=0.971 and Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)=0.048 as suggested by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994).

Table 1 Sample profile

	D 1 /	D (0/)
	Respondents	Percentage (%) N=473
Age	17-27 years	67.4
	28-38 years	19.9
	39-49 years	10.1
	50 years and above	2.5
Education	High School Certificate Examination	3
	Higher Secondary Education	28.3
	Graduation	58.8
	Post-Graduation and above	9.9
Gender	Male	42.1
	Female	57.9
Marital	Single	74.8
Status	Married	16.2
	Others	9
Profession	Student	38.3
	Government Employee	13.1
	Private Sector Employee	28.8
	Professionals	9.6
	Others.	10.2
Monthly	Rs. 15,000-25,000	57.9
Income	Rs. 26,000-39,000	9.5
	Rs. 37,000-47,000	10.8
	Rs. 48,000 & above	21.8

Table 2
Fit indices for measurement model (N=473)

Fit indices	χ2	df	GFI	AGFI	RMSEA	NFI	CFI	PNFI	PCFI
Values	692.469	332	0.909	0.888	0.048	0.952	0.974	0.836	0.856

The average variance extracted was calculated from the standardised factor

loadings of the variables (Table 3) and the standardised factor loadings ranged from 0.568 to 0.949.

Table 3
Means, standard deviations and standardised factor loadings of brand personality congruence\*\*, intimacy (consumer-brand) \*, intimacy (brand-consumer)\* and brand loyalty \* \* (N=473)

		Standardised	Loadings ****	of BPC***		
Item No	Items	Factor 1 Exciting	Factor 2 Unique	Factor 3 Sincere	Factor 4 Leader	$M \pm SD$
1	Cool	0.660				$4.03 \pm 0.608$
2	Exciting	0.568				$4.07\pm0.448$
3	Trendy	0.723				$4.05 \pm 0.655$
4	Up to date	0.636				$4.08\pm0.586$
5	Contemporary	0.637				$4.06 \pm 0.511$
6	Young	0.645				$4.07\pm0.580$
7	Imaginative		0.819			$4.12\pm0.773$
8	Original		0.753			$4.21 \pm 0.758$
9	Unique		0.848			$4.14 \pm 0.795$
10	Daring		0.832			$4.13 \pm 0.801$
11	Independent		0.774			$4.14\pm0.788$
12	Sincere			0.826		$4.07\pm0.848$
13	Honest			0.949		$4.06\pm0.884$
14	Real			0.920		$4.03 \pm 0.887$
15	Confident				0.864	$4.00\pm0.998$
16	Leader				0.919	$3.92 \pm 1.002$
17	Successful				0.890	$3.93 \pm 0.998$
Intima	cy (Consumer-Bra	nd) *				
Item	Items			Standardise		M ± SD
No				Loadings** (Consumer-	*** of Intimacy -Brand)*	
18	I know the KFC	brand history/b	ackground.	0.990		$4.36 \pm 1.273$
19	I know what the	KFC brand sta	nds for.	0.868		$4.40\pm1.352$
20	I know more abo average consume		and than the	0.986		$4.36 \pm 1.270$
Intima	cy (Brand-Consum	ner)*				
Item No	Items			Standardise Loadings * (Brand-Cor	***of Intimacy	$M \pm SD$
21	The KFC brand	understands my	needs.	0.982		$4.01 \pm 1.524$
22	The KFC brand design products		rell and could	0.932		$4.04 \pm 1.589$
23	The KFC brand person.	knows a lot abo	out me as a	0.931		$4.01 \pm 1.576$

Table 3 (continue)

Brand	loyalty **		
Item No	Items	Standardised**** Factor Loadings of Brand Loyalty **	$M \pm SD$
24	KFC is superior to other brands in its class.	0.961	$4.31 \pm 1.477$
25	I have grown close to KFC more than to other QSR outlets in its class.	0.944	$4.29 \pm 1.472$
26	I intend to continue to visit KFC in the future.	0.946	$4.26 \pm 1.454$
27	When I have a need to go to a non-vegetarian restaurant, I will only visit KFC.	0.946	$4.25 \pm 1.465$
28	Overall, I consider myself loyal to KFC.	0.952	$4.32 \pm 1.530$

<sup>\*</sup>adapted from Fournier's (2000) presentation at the Association for Consumer Research Conference, Salt Lake City: UT.

To test the convergent validity, average variance extracted was calculated (Table 4) and for all the latent variables and all the average variance extracted, where the unit of variance was fixed to 1 as suggested by Bryne (2001), values were above the cut-off

value of 0.5 as mentioned by Kline (1998) and Fornell and Larcker (1981).

Similarly, to test the divergent validity, the squared correlation values among the constructs were compared with the average variance values and was found

Table 4
Construct reliability and Average Variance Extracted (AVE) for latent variables (N=473)

	Brand Personality Congruence	Intimacy (Brand- Consumer)	Intimacy (Consumer- Brand)	Brand Loyalty
Construct Reliability	0.801	0.702	0.748	0.792
AVE	0.602	0.899	0.901	0.903

Table 5
Standardised correlations (squared correlation) for latent variables (N=473)

	Brand Personality Congruence	Intimacy (Brand- Consumer)	Intimacy (Consumer- Brand)	Brand Loyalty
Brand Personality Congruence	1	0.554 (0.306)	0.693 (0.480)	0.722 (0.521)
Intimacy (Brand-Consumer)		1	0.714 (0.509)	0.605 (0.366)
Intimacy (Consumer-Brand)			1	0.734 (0.538)
Brand loyalty				1

<sup>\*\*</sup> Source: Oliver (1999)

<sup>\*\*\*</sup> Scale adapted from Asperin (2007)

<sup>\*\*\*\*</sup> All factor loadings were significant at 0.001

that (see Table 5) the squared correlation values were less than the average variance extracted. So from the above results, the convergent and divergent validity of brand personality congruence as a second-order construct, intimacy as a first-order construct and brand loyalty as a first-order construct was appropriate. Similarly, to check the reliability of the measures, we used the construct reliability method as suggested by Hair et al. (2015) because it gives the best results when structural equation modelling is to be applied. All the constructs displayed appropriate reliability results because the construct reliability values (Table 4) of all

the measures were above the cut-off value of 0.7 as suggested by Malhotra (1981). So from the above discussion we concluded that all the constructs used in the study displayed appropriate validity and reliability.

A structural theory is a conceptual representation of the structural relationships between constructs. The structural relationship between any two constructs is represented empirically by the structural parameter estimate also known as the path estimate. Structural models are referred to by several terms, including 'theoretical model' or, occasionally, 'causal model'. A causal model infers that the relationships meet the conditions necessary for causation.

Table 6
Fit indices for structural model (N=473)

Structural model	χ2	df	GFI	AGFI	RMSEA	NFI	CFI	PNFI	PCFI
Values	808.132	333	0.897	0.874	0.055	0.944	0.966	0.832	0.851

The structural model (Table 6) provided acceptable model fit indices (Chi square=808.132, df=333; p<0.000), Normed Fit Index (NFI) =0.944; Comparative Fit Index (CFI)=0.966; Tucker Lewis Index (TLI)=0.962 and Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)=0.055. To test the hypothesised relationship among the different constructs, structural equation modelling was applied by using Amos 20. All three hypothesised relationships, from brand personality congruence to brand loyalty, brand personality congruence

to intimacy (consumer-brand), brand personality congruence to intimacy (brand-consumer) and from intimacy (consumer-brand) to brand loyalty were statistically (Table 7) significant at the 0.05 level. The hypothesised relationship from intimacy (brand-consumer) to brand loyalty was also significant at the 0.05 level.

To test the mediating effect of intimacy on the effect of brand personality congruence on brand loyalty, we first tested all three conditions in accordance with Barron and Kenny (1986) to check whether intimacy (Consumer-Brand) and intimacy (Brand-Consumer) satisfied all the conditions mentioned below:

- 1. The brand personality congruence (independent latent variable) should positively influence intimacy (Consumer-Brand) and intimacy (Brand-Consumer), which are assumed to be acting as mediating variables.
- 2. Intimacy (Consumer-Brand) and Intimacy (Brand-Consumer), which are assumed to be acting as mediating variables, should

- positively influence brand loyalty (dependent latent variable).
- 3. When the relationship between brand personality congruence and intimacy (Consumer-Brand) and intimacy (Brand-Consumer) and the relationship between intimacy (Consumer-Brand) and intimacy (Brand-Consumer) with brand loyalty are controlled, then the relationship between brand personality congruence and brand loyalty should no longer be significant.

Table 7
Standardised direct, indirect and total effects

	Intimacy (Consumer- Brand) Direct	Intimacy (Brand- Consumer) Direct	Brand Loyalty Direct	Brand Loyalty Indirect	Brand Loyalty Total
Brand	0.766	0.665	0.471		
personality	t=11.009	t=5.774	t=5.774	0.303	0.774
congruence	p=0.000	p=0.000	p=0.000		
Intimacy			0.312		
(Consumer-	-	-	t=5.603	-	0.312
Brand)			p=0.000		
Intimacy			0.095		
(Brand-	-	-	t=2.120	-	0.095
Consumer			p=0.034		

From our study we found that both dimensions of intimacy (Consumer-Brand) satisfied the first two conditions only. The study further revealed that intimacy (Consumer-Brand) partially mediated (Table 7) the relationship between brand personality congruence on brand loyalty because the effect of brand personality congruence on brand loyalty decreased in the presence of both dimensions of intimacy.

# CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

The study revealed that brand personality congruence had direct effect on brand loyalty, intimacy (Consumer-Brand) and intimacy (Brand-Consumer). The study further revealed that intimacy (Consumer-Brand) and intimacy (Brand-Consumer) are important constructs and act as a positive mediator on the effect of brand personality congruence on brand loyalty. The findings of this study confirmed the notion that consumers might prefer brands that have a personality compatible with their own personality. Thus, our findings are in line with those reported by Jamal and Goode (2001) and Kazemi et al. (2013). The present study indicated that brand should also develop a positive relationship with consumers. The results of the study have practical implications for strategists and marketers because in the Indian context, marketers should design products and services that should match the personality of consumers. In a country like India, where people of different religions, races and cultures co-exist, business organisations should develop food products by taking different factors like religious belief, food habits, climatic conditions, income etc. into consideration so that brand personality congruence for different margent segments can be maximised and lead to brand personality congruence. In sum, global brands like KFC should design food products by taking into consideration the personality aspect of their brand as well as that of the consumers in order to successfully do

business in India. Taking advantage of the growing population there as well its youth segment, rising disposable income of Indian customers, ever increasing demand for fast food and the growth of the quick service retailing, KFC should build a different brand personality that matches Indian customers more accurately and profitably.

In the present study, we examined the mediating role of only one dimension of Brand Relationship Quality, but by studying the other dimensions some more important information could have been collected. Future researchers are encouraged to study the brand personality congruence construct in both industrial as well as service brands and across different product categories. From a marketing perspective, future researchers can even study the effect of colour, design, logo etc. on brand personality congruence. From the communication perspective researchers could also study the effect of online websites on building brand community and ultimately, brand personality congruence.

# Limitations

The quick service restaurant industry has experienced tremendous change in the last decade. The findings of this research should be interpreted with caution as all research suffers from inherent shortcomings (McGrath, 1981). Although the present study makes significant contribution to the existing literature on brand personality, it does have some limitations. The present study was conducted in the context of a very popular quick service restaurant

brand i.e. KFC and other global, local and non-chain quick service restaurant brands were not included in the study. Findings of the study apply within the context of respondents of a particular city which may tap into some contextual factors and may influence the findings of the study. The sample represented respondents of a particular city i.e. Bhubaneswar, the capital city of Odisha, and excludes residents of other rural and urban areas and hence, the findings of the study may not be generalised. In the present study, the mediating role of consumer brand relationship dimensions like intimacy (Consumer-Brand) and intimacy (Brand-Consumer) on the relationship between brand personality congruence and brand loyalty were included in the study but there are other relational constructs like commitment, nostalgic attachment partner quality and interdependence etc. that were not included in the study. Future researchers are encouraged to study the brand personality congruence construct in both industrial as well as service brands and across different product categories.

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## Human Rights, its Scope and Application: An Empirical Analysis of Future Human Rights Advocates in Malaysia

## Rohaida Nordin1\* and Abdul Rahman Abdullah2

<sup>1</sup>Faculty of Law, the National University of Malaysia, 43600 Bangi, Selangor, Malaysia <sup>2</sup>Human Rights Commission of Malaysia (SUHAKAM) 11<sup>th</sup> Floor, Menara TH Perdana, Jalan Sultan Ismail, 50250 Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

#### **ABSTRACT**

Human rights is an important subject in legal education. Human rights knowledge relates to awareness of the scope and content of human rights and the relationship of these rights to human dignity and survival. The principal elements of human rights are universality and equality and avenues to seek redress in the event of violation of human rights. Articles 1(5) and 1(10) of the ASEAN Charter state that the purposes of ASEAN are to generate a distinct market and invention base which is steady, affluent, highly competitive and improve human resources through closer collaboration in education and life-long learning. Since Malaysia is a member of ASEAN, this study was deemed important to assess the knowledge of future human rights advocates in Malaysia on human rights principles and mechanism for the protection and enforcement of human rights. It is also important considering the fact that Malaysia is a State Party to three international human rights treaties and some aspects of human rights are enshrined in its Federal Constitution. The study employs qualitative research design in achieving its objectives.

Keywords: Education, future advocates, human rights, knowledge, Malaysia, public university

## INTRODUCTION

The Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) Charter came into force in

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E-mail addresses:
rohaidanordin@ukm.edu.my (Rohaida Nordin),
abdulrahman@suhakam.org.my (Abdul Rahman Abdullah)
\* Corresponding author

December 2008 after being fully ratified by all 10 ASEAN Member States. The ASEAN Charter is in essence its Constitution and among others, contains the Articles of Association on how ASEAN will conduct its affairs, confers legal personality on ASEAN as a legal entity, establishes the organs through which ASEAN will act, and provides a formal structure for decision-making.

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One of the immediate implications of the ASEAN Charter is movement of business people, professionals, talents and labour within this regional bloc. Thus, it is important these groups of people had knowledge of the various legal systems in other ASEAN Member States. At the same time, human rights has become an important subject in legal education. Knowledge of human rights relates to the scope and content of human rights and the relationship of these rights to human dignity and survival. The principal elements of human rights are universality and equality and avenues to seek redress in the event of its violation (Hornberg, 2002, p.190).

This research was inspired by the fact Malaysia is a Member State of ASEAN and it is important to assess knowledge of future human rights advocates in Malaysia on human rights principles and mechanism for the protection and enforcement of human rights. Befitting current times and situation, it needs to be assessed how future Malaysian human rights advocates view the issue of human rights in Malaysia, considering the fact that Malaysia is a State Party to three international human rights treaties: Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) 1979, Convention on the Rights of Children (CRC) 1989 and Convention on the Rights of Person with Disabilities (CRPD) 2006. Additionally, Malaysians are guaranteed some rights under the "Fundamental Liberties" Article of the Federal Constitution.

#### **OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY**

Human rights education seeks to impart knowledge, values and related behaviour (Shapiee, Mohd, Hassim, Nordin, Basir & Mohamed, 2012, p.314). This study empirically assesses the objective of human rights education, raising the level of human rights knowledge among future human rights advocates. For the purposes of this study, human rights knowledge refers to knowledge of the scope and application of human rights as follows:

- (i) Ability to perceive what constitutes human rights and that every individual has human rights irrespective of differences in colour, religion, language and social background;
- (ii) Ability to determine various aspects of human rights as they are important for human survival and dignity;
- (iii) Ability to know the mechanism that exists domestically, regionally and internationally to address human rights violation and to enhance promotion of human rights.

Thus, the overall objective of the study is to assess empirically the scope and knowledge of human rights among future human rights advocates in Malaysia.

## Respondents of the Study

While there is no established definition for "future human rights advocates", we are of the view that law students are the future advocates of human rights. This is because

majority of them will practise as advocates and solicitors in all areas of law, including human rights. Law students are exposed to human rights issues throughout their studies. Thus, to achieve this study's objectives, we conducted a survey among Final Year Law students at seven public universities in Malaysia: Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia; Universiti Malaya; Universiti Sains Islam Malaysia; Universiti Teknologi Mara; Universiti Islam Antarabangsa; Universiti Utara Malaysia; and Universiti Sultan Zainal Abidin (Participating Universities). Altogether, 573 respondents participated in this study.

#### **Research Instrument**

A set of questionnaires was developed to gather data. The questionnaires were divided into six parts. Part A consists of questions on the personal information of the Respondent; Part B on the Respondent's knowledge on various aspects of human rights; Part C contains 11 questions on the knowledge of human rights principles; Part D assesses the Respondent's knowledge of human rights protection and mechanism while Part E assesses the Respondent's knowledge about Human Rights Commission of Malaysia (SUHAKAM) and their perception of its role. The last part contains 2 questions on the Respondent's perception of the human rights profession. Some questions are openended for the Respondents to express their views freely.

## LITERATURE REVIEW ON HUMAN RIGHTS EDUCATION

## **Human Rights Education (HRE) in General**

The Human Rights Education (HRE) is an integral part of general education in some countries. Hornberg (2002) argues that it is good to make learners alert of global interdependencies. Without human rights, education lacks a primary component and substance since human rights is considered the essence and arbiter of peace (Reardon, 2009, p. 3). The main objective of effective HRE is to educate people about their rights in accordance with the law so that they will become responsible citizens in an open society that values human rights (Claude, 2000, p.4). Thus, HRE could be seen as an essential apparatus in the preservation of social unity and should be taught in law faculties in Malaysian universities (Nordin, Shapiee, Suhor, Yusof, & Muhamad 2012, p. 721). The HRE originated from the United Nations Decade for Human Rights Education 1995 - 2004, proclaimed by the General Assembly in its Resolution 49/184 of December 1994, where the Plan of Action of the United Nations Decade for Human Rights Education emphasised that:

States should develop specific programs and strategies for ensuring the widest human rights education and the dissemination of public information through promoting, encouraging and focusing on the human rights education activities. (UNESCO, 2005)

In cooperation with United Nations, Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), the Office of the Human Commission for Human Rights (OHCHR) had developed Guidelines for National Plans of Action for Human Rights Education (UN, 1998). It has made the World Programme for Human Rights Education (2005-ongoing) possible (UNESCO, 2006). Furthermore, HRE is included in UNESCO's proposed educational programme under the concept of 'learning to live together.' The concept focuses on the development of understanding and respect for others, their beliefs, values and cultures that would eventually lead to the avoidance of conflicts, non-violent resolution and peaceful coexistence (Tibbits, 2005). Human rights should be incorporated into university courses or programmes of study to interpret societal and global problems through the human rights "lens" (Tibbits, 2006, p. 11).

UNESCO advocates three models that could be adapted when formulating a curriculum for higher education: the objective model; the process model; and the situation analysis model (UNESCO, 2005). However, Okebukola recommends the hybrid model that features elements of all three models (UNESCO, 2005). Irrespective of which model is adopted, there has to be a thorough evaluation of the educational programme and a clear, logical, and constant effort to infuse the teaching of higher-order thinking skills into the curricula of higher education (Nagappan, 2010, p.12, and Sing

& Abdul Samad, 2013, p. 1256) including human rights.

Nordin et al. (2012, p.721) in their study stressed that a good curriculum meets the mandate of the learners as well as the needs of society at large. Thus, in the framework of HRE at the Faculty of Law, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, the objective is in satisfying the demands of the multiethnic learners as well as the multi-ethnic Malaysian society at large, in the interest of preserving of social unity (Nordin et al., 2012).

It is interesting to see that in some States, HRE has been promoted as an integral part of general education. Sabine Hornberg (2002) argues that this is due to the fact that HRE, by its very nature, has the potential to help students transcend national, social, cultural and economic and other boundaries. It helps them to be aware of global interdependencies (for example, regarding environmental matters or processes of migration) without neglecting their personal situation, but rather, taking it as a starting point (Hornberg, 2002).

## **Human Rights Education at the Participating Universities**

In the participating universities, HRE is inserted in a specific course of Human Rights. Universiti Malaya, for example, offers International Human Rights and Humanitarian Law as a subject. In Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, the HRE is forms part of an introduction of the Constitutional Law and Public International Law subject. Based

on the analysis, majority of the respondents learned human rights in subjects such as Constitutional Law, Public International Law and Malaysian Legal System. In these participating universities, the human rights R knowledge is imparted via lectures, tutorials, assignments, Problem Based Learning (PBL) and assessed in examinations.

ethnically: Malays, Chinese and Indians. The largest number of respondents were Malays, 455, accounting for 79% of the sample. There were 84 Chinese respondents accounting for 15% of the total population surveyed. The Indians were the smallest group with 21 respondents accounting for 4% of the sample size.

## DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS (DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION)

## **Ethnic Background**

As seen in Table 1 and Figure 1, the respondents were well represented

Table 1 *Ethnic background* 

		Number	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Malay	455	79.4	81.3	81.3
	Chinese	84	14.7	15.0	96.3
	Indian	21	3.7	3.8	100.0
	Total	560	97.7	100.0	
Missing		13	2.3		
Total		573	100.0		

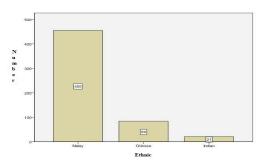


Figure 1. Ethnic Background

## Religion

In terms of religion, Muslims constituted 82% of the sample followed by Buddhists at 10%, Christians, 5% and Hindus at 3% percent; other religions accounted for less than one per cent, as shown in Table 2 and Figure 2.

Table 2 Religion

		Number	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Islam	465	81.2	81.7	81.7
	Buddhism	58	10.1	10.2	91.9
	Hinduism	17	3.0	3.0	94.9
	Christianity	29	5.1	5.1	100.0
	Total	569	99.3	100.0	
Missing	System	4	.7		
	Total	573	100.0		

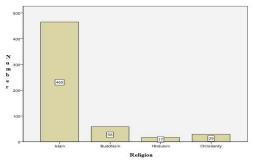


Figure 2. Religion

## Table 3

		Number	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	159	27.7	27.7	27.7
	Female	414	72.3	72.3	100.0
	Total	573	100.0	100.0	

## Gender

<b>Education Level</b>
The educational level of respondents is
STPM, Matriculation, Law Matriculation
and A Level. Among all the respondents,
more than $51\%$ are enrolled in Law
Matriculation while 6% of them are other
matriculation programmes. Respondents
with A Level qualification form the
smallest number (less than one per cent
of the sample). Respondents with STPM

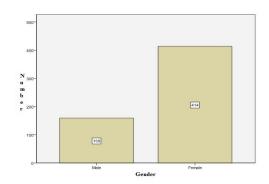


Figure 3. Gender

## Gender

Table 3 shows the gender of respondents that participated in this study. About 72% of respondents are females (414) and almost 28% (159) are males, as shown in Figure 3.

Table 4

Education Level

		Number	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	STPM	140	24.4	29.7	29.7
	Matriculation	34	5.9	7.2	36.9
	Law Matriculation	295	51.5	62.6	99.6
	A Level	2	.3	.4	100.0
	Total	471	82.2	100.0	
Missing		102	17.8		
Total		573	100.0		

qualification account for almost 25% of the sample. The results are shown in Table 4 and Figure 4.

## **Qualitative Analysis**

Human rights is concerned with equality and fairness as provided for by Article 7 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and Article 14 of the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights 1966. It recognises the freedom to make choices. The UN Declaration also guarantees a life free from fear, harassment or discrimination. There is a list of basic rights that people from around the world have agreed on, such as the right to life, freedom from torture and other cruel and inhumane treatment, rights to a fair trial, free speech and freedom of religion, rights to health, education and access to a decent standard of living. In many situations though rights exist, they are not provided for by law. These rights are usually referred to as moral rights and are based on people's sense of what is fair or just. Hence, it is important to gauge the knowledge on

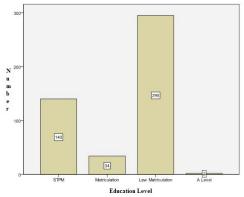


Figure 4. Education Level

human rights among our future human rights advocates specifically on: the scope and content of certain human rights and the relationship of these rights to human survival and dignity; the principal elements of human rights, namely universality and equality; and related issues concerning the Asian perspective on human rights; and the existing international, regional and domestic mechanisms to provide redress for human rights violations.

This study posted five open-ended questions to understand respondents'

perspective of the above said aspects of human rights. The five questions are:

- i. The abolishment of capital punishment in accordance with the right to life
- ii. Duty to ensure own access to food and clean drinking water
- iii. Promotion of a common culture such as the 1Malaysia culture
- iv. Entitlement of Malays to greater protections and privileges
- v. Approachability of SUHAKAM on the issue of violation of human rights
   The following section provides qualitative analysis based on the respondents' feedback.

# THE ABOLISHMENT OF CAPITAL PUNISHMENT IN ACCORDANCE WITH THE RIGHT TO LIFE

## Question 9: Capital Punishment should be Abolished in Accordance with the Right to Life

### Introduction

Malaysia is a country that still practises the death penalty. However, according to the Prime Minister's Department, there are positive signs that the death penalty legislation in Malaysia may be revisited (The Star, 2016). Statistics provided by the official agencies on exact number of people sentenced to death in this country is not sufficient. According to Datuk Seri Nazri Aziz, the Minister in the Prime Minister's Department, as at 2010, there were 114 death sentences with another 744 persons on

death row while one execution was reported (SUHAKAM Annual Report, 2010).

Article 5 (1) in Federal Constitution as well as Malaysian Penal Code (Act 574) legalise capital punishment in Malaysia. Capital punishment in Malaysia applies to murder under section 300 of Penal Code; discharging a firearm in the commission of a scheduled offence under Section 3, Firearms (Increased Penalties) Act 1971; trafficking in dangerous drugs under Section 39B(1) of Dangerous Drugs Act 1952; and treason and waging war against Yang di-Pertuan Agong under Section 121 and 121A Penal Code. As there is an increasing attention paid to the right to life as an inherent liberty under Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) 1948, Convention Against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment (CAT) 1984, International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR) 1966, there have been movements to abolish the death penalty in Malaysia. The Malaysian Bar Council and SUHAKAM are championing against the death penalty. A forum was conducted in May 2011 as part of a longterm campaign for the abolishment of the death penalty by NGOs in Malaysia. Despite their efforts to abolish capital punishment, SUHAKAM recognises that there are still strong views that capital punishment should remain, especially in murder cases. In 2011, SUHAKAM conducted a public survey led by a team from Universiti Malaya, to gather the public's opinion on the death penalty (SUHAKAM Annual Report, 2010).

## **Analysis**

A staggering 74% of the respondents do not support abolishing capital punishment (381 respondents from a total of 511). There are five main reasons for this. First, capital punishment is a preventive measure. A Respondent said "A necessity for the prevention of crime."

As many as 173 respondents (33.36%) think that this punishment acts as a deterrent to prevent serious crimes such as drug trafficking and murder. Another 73 respondents are of the opinion that there is a place for capital punishment but it needs to be applied based on the principle of proportionality. Hence, only crimes that involve the taking of one's life deserve death penalty. Drugs trafficker should not be punished with the same penalty as murderers. On the other hand, 62 respondents advocate for capital punishment as they believe that one should be responsible and accept this punishment as a consequence of one's actions. In the words of one respondent: "Your right stop when you encroached on someone else's right."

Religion also justifies capital punishment. According to 20 respondents, it is an "eye for an eye" as contained in Sūrat al-Māidah, 5:45 of the Holy Qur'an, also in Exodus 21:24 of the Bible, hence, it should not be abolished. Additionally, 50 respondents believe justice is served for the families of the victims through the execution of murderers.

A total of 130 respondents, 26%, support the abolishment of capital punishment. Sixty of them believe that this punishment encroaches the fundamental liberty of a person which is the right to life. One respondent opined, "No one has the right to take someone else's life." Another wrote, "Right to life is intrinsic, inalienable right which no one, not even State can take it away."

Another 32 respondents believe criminals should be given a second chance in life instead of robbing them of an opportunity to repent. A total of 21 respondents believe that there are other alternatives to punish these criminals such as life imprisonment. Religion, on the other hand, is the reason why 15 Respondents are supportive of the idea of doing away with capital punishment as God is the ultimate arbiter and punisher. The remaining two respondents suggest education to rehabilitate the criminals and return them to society.

Thus, it can be concluded that most of the respondents are not ready for the abolishment of capital punishment in accordance with the right to life. They strongly believe in the principles of retribution and deterrence. Despite the recognition of right to life by international law, majority of the respondents perceived

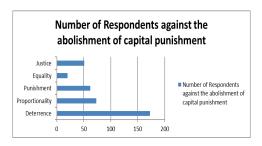


Figure 5. Bar chart of the number of respondents against the Abolishment of Capital Punishment

right to life as non-absolute as provided for by Article 5 of the Federal Constitution of Malaysia.

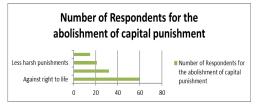


Figure 6. Bar chart of number of respondents for the abolishment of Capital Punishment

# DUTY TO ENSURE OWN ACCESS TO FOOD AND CLEAN DRINKING WATER

## Question 15: Everyone has a Duty to Ensure Their Own Access to Food and Clean Drinking Water

### Introduction

While the right to food is recognised under Article 25 of the UDHR 1948 and Article 11 of the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR) 1966, it is also recognised in specific international treaties such as the CRC under Article 24(2) (c) and 27(3), CEDAW under Article 12(2), and CRPD under Article 25(f) and 28(1) and clean drinking water under Article 25(f) and 28(1) of CRPD, Article 24 and 27(3) of CRC, and Article 14(2) of CEDAW which are distinct, but are also closely linked. These two rights are recognised under the international law which protects the rights of human beings to feed themselves in dignity, either by producing their own food or by purchasing it. Where water is scarce, and demand for it exceeds supply, individuals

will find it difficult to realise both rights to food and clean drinking water. However, the responsibility to ensure one's own access to food and clean drinking water is being debated. The international human rights law imposes duty on State Parties to realise these rights (Art. 11(2) of ICESCR). The right to food requires States to provide an enabling environment that will allow people to use their potential and resources to produce adequate food for themselves and for their families (Centre for Equity Studies, 2015).

The section below provides an analysis of respondents' feedback based on the questionnaire.

## **Analysis**

A staggering 89.6% of the respondents, 278 are of the opinion that everyone has a duty to ensure his or her own access to food and clean drinking water. It is deemed as one's responsibility to ensure survival. In the words of one respondent: "It is the basic right so everybody has the duty to ensure that their own access to food and clean drinking water."

On the same note, another 120 Respondents which is 33.1% of the sample think that it is the duty to the individual to ensure he or she has access to food and clean drinking water as these are basic necessities of life. According to them it is the "State's duty to provide" but it is "our own duty to ensure" that we have access to food and clean drinking water since these are basic necessities. One respondent opine: "It is a combined effort, not fair to just demand from State and without effort on one own effort."

Conversely, 7.7% or 38 respondents do not think that this is an individual duty. The justification is that it is State's duty to ensure one's access to food and clean drinking water. According to one respondent: "State should discharge its duty accordingly in order for the citizens to get their rights."

A total of 13 respondents comprising 2.2% of surveyed population size opine this is an inherent fundamental liberty that must be protected.

Thus, majority of respondents acknowledge that it is everyone's duty to ensure he or she has access to food and clean drinking water as a matter of survival.

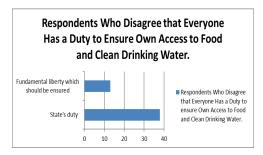


Figure 7. Chart on the number of respondents who disagree that everyone has a duty to ensure own access to food and clean drinking water

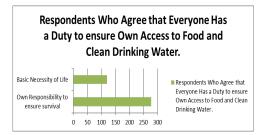


Figure 8. Chart on the number of respondents who agree that everyone has a duty to ensure own access to food and clean drinking water

## PROMOTION OF A COMMON CULTURE SUCH AS THE 1 MALAYSIA CULTURE

## Question 37: Promotion of a Common Malaysian Culture such as 1Malaysia Culture, for all Ethnicities should be Encouraged

## Introduction

The 1Malaysia concept is an on-going programme designed by the Malaysian Prime Minister, Dato Seri Najib Tun Razak, and introduced in 2009. It calls on the cabinet, government agencies, and civil servants to emphasise ethnic harmony, national unity and efficient governance. The concept emphasises a culture of excellence, perseverance, acceptance, education, integrity, meritocracy, humility and loyalty (Booklet 1Malaysia, 2011) manifested through the establishment of, among others, 1 Malaysia Clinics, 1 Malaysia Email, Kedai Rakyat 1 Malaysia, Saham Amanah Rakyat 1 Malaysia (SARA 1 Malaysia), Program Perumahan Rakyat 1 Malaysia (PR1MA), Program *Penjaja* 1Malaysia (PP1M), Program Kebajikan Rakyat 1Malaysia (KAR1SMA), Baucar Buku 1Malaysia (BB1M), Bantuan Rakyat 1Malaysia (BR1M). The National Civics Bureau organises courses and seminars to educate civil servants and community leaders about this concept and also to promote it. The courses and seminars on 1Malaysia with its slogan "People First; Performance Now," are held at the "Bina Negara" (nation-building) camps nationwide (GTP Roadmap, 2011).

The question on promoting a common Malaysian culture through 1 Malaysia concept for all ethnicities should be encouraged was in line with the right to practice one's culture as recognised by international human rights law.

## **Analysis**

On the 1Malaysia concept, 394 respondents agree with its implementation. A total of 93 respondents feel it is important to ensure communal harmony while 199 respondents opine that it is essential to promote racial unity in a country with such diverse cultures:

"It will promote togetherness, understanding and unity. With this (1Malaysia concept), peace and tolerance can be achieved."

"It breeds unity among citizens, although have different ethnics but unite under one nation so called lMalaysan nation."

Seventeen respondents believe that the concept is required to enhance unity and increase growth while 56 respondents said it gives a new identity to the country which can promote Malaysia in the global arena. A total of 16 respondents believe the concept is needed to achieve the constitutional guarantees of equality, which in this context means equality among every race in Malaysia. Seven respondents opine that it can increase patriotism among Malaysians

and eradicate the feeling of being different. Six respondents believe it can improve a sense of belonging to the nation among the races.

On the contrary, 99 respondents disagreed with the implementation of the concept. A total of 53 respondents concluded that it could harm the preservation of one's culture as it combines the different cultures in Malaysia, and in the words of one respondent: "We forget our own culture and adopt others."

Fifteen respondents declared that it was useless as it was not implemented properly to the citizens. On a similar note, 13 respondents perceived it as a political agenda to improve the citizens' impression towards the ruling coalition which is *Barisan Nasional*. One respondent shared his opinion: "*IMalaysia is a slogan of one political party*."

A total of 10 respondents feel it is disadvantages to ethnic Malays as they have special rights under the Federal Constitution. Six respondents suggested that it could cause confusion as Malaysia is already multiracial. Two Respondents opined that it could be prejudicial to the minorities, such as the *Orang Asli*, as the concept only includes the three main races.

Thus, the government has tried very hard to ensure the success of 1Malaysia concept, but reality is that it has been hardly felt. Race-based policies, such as the New Economic Policy, contradict such a concept. In short, the concept is a good idea, but its implementation has been questioned.

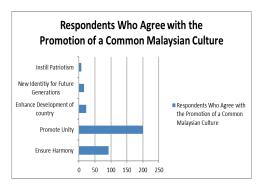


Figure 9. Chart on the number of respondents who agree with the promotion on a common Malaysian culture

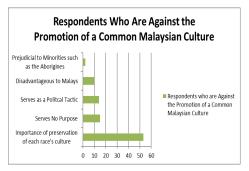


Figure 10. Chart on the number of respondents who are against the promotion of a common Malaysian culture

## ENTITLEMENT OF MALAYS IN MALAYSIA TO GREATER PROTECTIONS AND PRIVILEGES

## Question 39: In Malaysia, Malays are Indigenous and are therefore Entitled to Greater Protections and Privileges

### Introduction

The special position of the Malays is guaranteed under Article 153 of the Federal Constitution which grants the *Yang di-Pertuan Agong* responsibility for safeguarding the special position of the Malays and the natives of Sabah and

Sarawak, and the legitimate interests of all the other communities. It also specifies the ways to do this, which includes establishing quotas for entry into the civil service, public scholarships and public education. It is primarily a continuance of previous laws made by the British to protect the indigenous peoples from being overwhelmed by the presence of Chinese and Indian migrant workers in Malaysia. The scope of Article 153 is limited by Article 136, which requires that civil servants be treated impartially regardless of race. Clause 5 of Article 153 specifically reaffirms Article 136 of the Constitution which states:

"All persons of whatever race in the same grade in the service of the Federation shall, subject to the terms and conditions of their employment, be treated impartially."

Article 153 is one of the most controversial articles in the Constitution, and has been a subject of heated debate among Malaysians. The Chairman of the National Evangelical Christian Fellowship, Dr. Eu Hong Seng, said that Article 153 is akin to "bullying" if it only protects the rights of one group (The Malaysian Insider, 2011). The Deputy Prime Minister, Tan Sri Muhyiddin Yassin (2011) rejected the allegation and warned against continuous debate on the issues as it could incite racial tensions. He emphasised that what is already enshrined in the Constitution should not be questioned.

Principle of equality is a fundamental principle and affirmed in national and international legislations. Article 1 of UDHR proclaims that all human beings are born free and equal in dignity and rights and that everyone is entitled to all the rights and freedoms set out in it. This principle of equality is also affirmed in Article 5 of the International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination 1966.

## **Analysis**

A total of 355 respondents agree that the Malays are entitled to special rights; 130 of them opine that since Malays are the "original residents" of the land and the other races migrated at a later stage, Malays must be entitled to special rights. One respondent stated, "Malay is Bumiputera. Malays have 'hak ketuanan' (Malay supremacy)." Another Respondent wrote, "The original community who resides in Malaysia are Malays. Thus, their rights should be greater. They must be protected of their rights as the respect for being indigenous race."

A total of 120 respondents felt since a social contract was entered into between all races and the British, special rights must be given to the Malays. Similarly, 105 respondents said that it is provided for in the Federal Constitution which is the supreme law of the country.

However, 156 respondents disagreed that Malays are entitled to such rights. A total of 146 respondents declared that it contradicts the principle of equality, which is a fundamental human right under Article 8 of the Federal Constitution. The rest of

the respondents felt it promotes laziness among the Malays as they do not have to compete with other ethnic groups for access to education and jobs.

Thus, Malays are entitled to such privileges as provided for in the Federal Constitution. Although the respondents are aware of the history and legal position of the Malays, 156 respondents disagreed that Malays are entitled to such special privileges. The reality is that the strategies adopted to help uplift the Malay condition have backfired whereby their poor implementation had led to only small groups of Malays benefitting. This is consistent with Jomo's proposition when he alleges that the rule of law has been used over the years to legalise and legitimise the advance of authoritarianism in Malaysia, noting that it has often been invoked to justify the violation of human rights and the reduction of civil liberties of the Malaysian peoples (Jomo, 1990, 2004, p.11.). Had the provision and related policies been based on socio economic status of the recipients rather than race-based, Malaysia may have avoided many of its current challenges and criticisms (Chin, 2016).

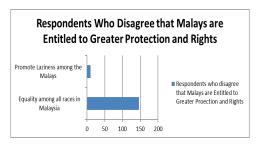


Figure 11. Chart on the number of respondents who disagree that Malays are entitled to greater protection and rights

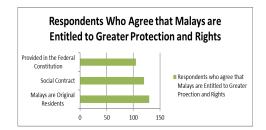


Figure 12. Chart on the number of respondents who agree that Malays are entitled to greater protection and rights

## APPROACHABILITY OF SUHAKAM ON THE ISSUE OF VIOLATION OF HUMAN RIGHTS

Question 99: Would you Lodge a Report with SUHAKAM if you were a Victim of Human Rights Violations?

#### Introduction

The Human Rights Commission of Malaysia (SUHAKAM) was established via a Parliament Act under the Human Rights Commission of Malaysia Act 1999 (Act 597). Since its inception in 2000, it has been internationally recognised for promoting and protecting human rights. SUHAKAM has been unanimously elected to sit on the International Coordinating Committee (ICC) of Human Rights Institutions for the Promotion and Protection of Human Rights (The Nut Graph, 2010) during the Annual Meeting of the Asia Pacific Forum of National Human Rights Institutions held in Amman, Jordan on 2nd August 2009. Being the National Human Rights Institution in Malaysia, its mandates are to promote human rights education, advise the government on legislation and policy, and conduct investigations (Section 4(1), Human Rights Commission of Malaysia Act 1999). The Commission emphasises that it has and will continue to carry out its duties under the Act independently, impartially and with utmost professionalism (SUHAKAM, 2015).

Respondents were asked on their perception of SUHAKAM, i.e. if they were to be a victim of human rights violation, will they have confidence or trust on accountability and competency of SUHAKAM in providing redress?

## Analysis

Majority of the 502 respondents (274) said they would report to SUHAKAM if they were to be a victim of human rights violations because they opine that SUHAKAM is the most appropriate medium to channel their complaints. Most comments lean toward SUHAKAM as a reliable and well known body that strives to uphold human rights by conducting investigations and relaying this information to the government. This was concluded based on the following opinions from respondents:

"SUHAKAM is a well-known NGO. If one lodges a report to them, they will respond adequately."

"This is one of the places to go as SUHAKAM is really determined in protecting human rights."

"I can count on SUHAKAM as one of the strongest NGO to take further actions."

A total of 123 respondents would also report to SUHAKAM because they believe that they have a right to do so. Another 13 respondents said they would report to SUHAKAM to ensure that they get the necessary protection and advice needed. As many as 31 respondents responded in the positives that justice will be served as SUHAKAM will be able to ensure that others will not have their rights violated the same way. Eight respondents said they would report to SUHAKAM but it would depend on the nature of the violation. They would seek the assistance of other nongovernmental organisations such as Suara Rakyat Malaysia (SUARAM) and All Women's Action Society Malaysia (AWAM) for domestic violence cases.

The remaining 53 respondents would not report to SUHAKAM if they were to be a victim of human rights violation because: they do not know the exact procedures to lodge a report, according to 14 respondents; and it is complicated and time consuming according to another three respondents. Most of them, 36 respondents, strongly believe that SUHAKAM is not efficient and is under the government's influence, hence, it is not an entirely independent body to uphold justice. One respondent regards SUHAKAM as a "toothless tiger." Another says:

"But, I have doubt in getting prompt and effective response. Although SUHAKAM is a human rights body, part of it is still dependent on the government and I will seek alternative solution or assistance." Furthermore, they are also of the opinion that SUHAKAM only manages investigations but not enforceability of laws that would help the citizens, hence, SUHAKAM is not the correct medium for them to channel complaints.

Thus, it is clear that the views of SUHAKAM among the respondents are quite positive due to the level of awareness and education in human rights. The negative views toward SUHAKAM are mainly based on the mandates that SUHAKAM has, according to Act 597, are 'limited.'



Figure 13. Chart on the number of respondents who would not lodge report with SUHAKAM if they were to become a victim of human rights violation



Figure 14. Chart on the number of respondents who would lodge report with SUHAKAM if they were to become a victim of human rights violation

#### **CONCLUSION**

Human rights is an important subject in legal education as it exposes students to principles of human rights and how to seek redress in the event of infringement of their constitutionally guaranteed rights. Thus, this study succeeded in assessing the knowledge and understanding of future human rights advocates (final year students) from the participating universities in relation to human rights principles, mechanism and enforcement procedures.

Teaching and incorporating human rights subjects in courses offered by the selected universities in this study truly enhances the contextual understanding of the students on human rights principles, mechanism and enforcement procedures. However, much needs to be done in enhancing their understanding and acceptance of the principle of universality of human rights and equality. Despite what they have learned, some respondents perceived human rights from cultural relativism approach. The cultural relativism approach is demonstrated through the responses of some respondents who believe no moral values are universal, meaning human rights varies from place to place, time to time and traditions limit the scope of human rights against the universality approach. The universality approach is founded on the premise that all human beings are born free and have equal rights.

#### ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

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## **SOCIAL SCIENCES & HUMANITIES**

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## Implementing Ethical Codes at Workplace: A Discussion on the Factors of the Enforcement, Employee Awareness and Understanding

Kamri, N. A.1, Basir S. A.2 and Ramlan, S. F.1\*

<sup>1</sup>Department of Shariah and Management, Academy of Islamic Studies, University of Malaya, 50603 Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

<sup>2</sup>Department of Siasah Syariyyah, Academy of Islamic Studies, University of Malaya, 50603 Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

### **ABSTRACT**

Compliance with ethical guidelines is strongly pursued in many organisations, be they public or private, profitable or charitable. The role of ethics is visibly significant when it comes to the standardisation of acts, professionalism and organisational interests, especially in Islamic institutions. Here, ethical concerns are determined by religious principles where the rules of ethical conduct are strongly emphasised. In this pursuit, organisations have established their own ethical codes; yet, inappropriate work conduct recurs. In the light of the issue, this paper identified the importance of the enforcement of codes of ethics and awareness and understanding of employees towards the codes as the catalyst towards the implementation of ethical codes at the workplace. To test the reliability of these factors, the study measured to what extent enforcement and employees' awareness and understanding influence their compliance with ethical practices and the depth of ethical practices among employees. One hundred and fifty respondents were selected from several Islamic institutions in Malaysia, including professionals and support staff, to be involved in this survey. The findings from this research indicate that understanding of employees obtained a higher average mean score compared to the other two factors (enforcement and awareness

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E-mail addresses: azzah@um.edu.my (Kamri, N. A.), sitiarni@um.edu.my (Basir S. A.), hana\_rafhani@hotmail.com (Ramlan, S. F.) \* Corresponding author of employees). The findings also reveal that two demographic factors had a significant relationship with the implementation level of the ethical code i.e. age and category of designation factors. Hopefully, the findings of the study can be used by managers in their effort to enhance the level of ethical practice among their employees, besides ensuring the practical implementation of ethical codes beyond merely following theoretical guidelines. Ethical practice must be promoted and implemented in order to contribute to the improvement of Islamic institutions

*Keywords:* Awareness, code of ethics, enforcement, factors of ethical behaviour, understanding

#### INTRODUCTION

According to the Ethics Resource Centre in 2009, 49% of respondents of one research witnessed misconduct at their workplace. In further research in 2011, it was discovered that the number had decreased to 45%. Although this seems to be a good sign, a more detailed finding on the category of misconduct showed increasing numbers. For example, sexual harassment rose from 7% to 11%, stealing from 9% to 12%, insider trading from 1% to 4%, contract violation from 3% to 6% and so on. Based on this finding, it can be assumed that the ethical norms among employees had not progressed much, although the organisational code of ethics had been established.

The code of ethics, also known as the code of conduct has been widely recognised as a useful mechanism to promote morally responsible behaviour (Nijhof et al., 2003). Meanwhile, Ibrahim (2012) stated that codes of ethics are an increasingly popular tool to shape ethical behaviour. Currently, there is growing concern over ethical issues in corporations worldwide. Recent corporate scandals have emphasised the relevance of ethics and have

encouraged the implementation of initiatives to restore confidence and maintain integrity in businesses. In this line, the adoption of a code of conduct is a step towards improving the ethical culture in today's business world (Domínguez, 2009).

A code of ethics is a form of standardisation of workplace behaviour; hence, it is a more detailed general behavioural guideline set by law (Weller, 1988; Schwartz, 2001; Bricknell & Cohen, 2005). It contains a statement of organisational values, duties and obligations (Cassell et al., 1997; Bricknell & Cohen, 2005) that create responsible employees, and therefore, responsible organisations (Nijhof et.al, 2003). The criterion of responsibility is intended to produce other positive traits such as efficiency, flexibility and quality (Fisscher et al., 2001). Furthermore, a code of ethics represents the organisation's expectations of employees' work conduct, sets a clear benchmark for employees and creates a positive influence on employees' behavioral patterns and decisions. For these reasons, the establishment of a code of ethics is perceived as ideal and to be practised in organisations to encourage ethical practice (Adams et al., 2001; Ferrell et al., 2000; Logman, 2001).

## Code of Ethics Development in Malaysia

In Malaysia, various codes of ethics were developed in the public sector, private sector and other sectors. In the public sector, the codes of conduct for civil servants were introduced in the 1980s in forms of

campaigns and policies (Siddiquee, 2007; Al-Qudsy, 2007). It was formalised into two categories of codes of ethics. The first category was general in nature, while the second category was more specific. The first category consisted of core values, which were the values shared by all officials and civil servants. The list of core values were trust, truth, wisdom, fairness, transparency and gratitude (Integrity Institute of Malaysia, 2004). The second category consisted of extended values, which were set by each institution and department specifically for its internal use (MAMPU, 2013).

Public government bodies such as the Administrative Modernisation and Management Planning Unit of Malaysia (MAMPU), the Public Service Department Malaysia (JPA) and the Malaysia Institute of Public Administration (INTAN), each established its own extended codes to cater for the services provided. The MAMPU Code of Ethics highlights 10 extended values: responsible, dedicated, disciplined, work, clean, high-minded, honest, diligent, modest and patient (MAMPU, 2013), while the JPA Code of Ethics placed great value on professionalism, acting as a team, excellence, prudence, competence and continuous learning (JPA, 2013). On the other hand, the INTAN Work Culture emphasises on their customers, the spirit of teamwork, continuous quality improvement, thrift, appreciating time, being caring and disciplined (INTAN, 2013).

In the private sector, the Code of Business Practices Malaysia was formed in 1983. Later, in 1996, the Company's Code of Conduct was introduced. It was developed on the principles of transparency, integrity, accountability and social responsibility towards the establishment of good corporate governance among directors of companies (Ministry of Domestic Trade and Consumer Affairs of Malaysia, 2013). Subsequently, the Malaysian Business Code of Ethics was formulated in 2003. It sets out six principles i.e. embracing trust in business practices, being responsible to the customers, society and the environment, being humane to all people, having simplicity of behaviour in business, being fair to customers and having a passion to succeed in business (Ministry of Domestic Trade and Consumer Affairs of Malaysia, 2013). Finally, a specific code of good corporate governance was published in March 2000, known as the Malaysian Code on Corporate Governance (MCCG), which serves as a general guideline for corporate organisations in Malaysia.

In other sectors, the code of ethics was developed by professional bodies and nongovernmental organisations (NGOs) based on the nature of the professions and their respective functions. The Certified Public Accountants Association of Malaysia, for example, came up with the Code of Professional Conduct and Ethics in 1991. The code highlights core values such as integrity, objectivity, confidentiality, independence, efficiency and thoroughness in work, obedience to the laws and technical standards and professional behaviour (The Malaysian Association of Certified Public Accountants, 2013). Another non-government body, Life Insurance

Association of Malaysia (LIAM), also created a Code of Ethics and Conduct for the Insurance Industry, especially for insurance practitioners, to avoid conflicts of interest and abuse of information and to ensure the accuracy of records, confidentiality of communications and transactions, equity services, fairness and integrity (Life Insurance Association of Malaysia, 2014).

#### Research Needs

As Malaysia is established as an Islamic country, ethical practice is very much emphasised, according to Islamic religious teaching. Therefore, the establishment of ethical codes is perceived as an initial effort towards ethical practices to fulfil both economic and religious interests. Looking at the ethical codes in the three different sectors, each epitomises economic and religious core values. Despite the establishment of ethical codes, misconduct at work still happens; hence, ethical work culture still manages to be unfulfilled even in basic moral issues (Dobson, 2003). Malaysia is no exception in this regard. Even though many Malaysian government agencies and corporate entities such as MAMPU (2013), JPA (2013), INTAN (2013), The Malaysian Association of Certified Public Accountants (2014) and Life Insurance Association of Malaysia (2014) have codes of ethics, the incidence of misconduct are often reported. For example, MACC revealed that in the last five years, a total of 4,693 reports of misconduct involving civil servants were reported (Utusan Malaysia, 2015). In addition, the Anti-Corruption Commission

(MACC) found misuse of petrol and diesel involving syndicates in the country with neighbouring countries. Distortion is carried out in a planned manner and involves syndicates. It was found that this deviation reached a serious level as elements of corruption involving civil servants from various agencies were apparent (Sinar Harian, 2014). Apart from corruption, civil servants were also found performing their duties negligently. In this regard, the National Audit Report revealed that cases of malpractice and corruption were not a major factor in the disclosure of the audit report. Instead, the problem stemmed from public servants who violated the trust placed in them and who were negligent in performing their duties. The majority of reported cases involved the purchase of goods at a steep cost, creating the perception of prevailing corruption and misconduct among civil servants. In some instances, civil servants did not make purchases carefully because they did not have a sense of responsibility. This attitude has led to wasteful use of public funds (Utusan Malaysia, 2015). Chief Secretary to the Government Tan Sri Dr Ali Hamsa also revealed that the Auditor General's Report gave five strikes involving 46 civil officers. These officers were identified and disciplinary proceedings against them were initiated (Harian Metro, 2015).

Among Malaysian corporate entities, the former CEO of the National Container Company was accused in the Sessions Court on charges of criminal breach of trust involving company funds amounting

to RM 9.9 million (Berita Harian, 2014). In other cases, a former account executive was sentenced to nine years in addition to eight strokes of the cane and a fine of RM 4.6 million after being found guilty in the Sessions Court of Johor Bahru on charges of breach of trust. The former account executive was accused on 20 charges under Section 409 of the Penal Code of criminal breach of trust involving a total of RM 6,525,930 and US\$ 435,000 belonging to a welding company in Pasir Gudang (Sinar Harian, 2012). The Daily Sun (2014) reported that the parents of three children were sentenced to time in prison after pleading guilty to two charges of Criminal Breach of Trust (CBT), which was amended in the Shah Alam Sessions Court. The judge sentenced the wife to 16 years in jail and her husband to 16 months in jail after both pleaded guilty to the charge of CBT involving RM 643,897 (The Sun Daily, 2014). These reports of corruption and misconduct show that the breach of ethics among employees and workers in Malaysia is at a high level.

The management of Islamic affairs in the country is still considered weak by many parties. Therefore, it requires a change either in terms of branding, restructuring or reorganisation to improve employee professionalism and quality of services delivered (Berita Harian, 2012). The former Chairman of the Institute of Islamic Understanding Malaysia, Tun Ahmad Sarji Abdul Hamid pointed out that Islamic administrative institutions should improve on the weaknesses of the administration to

create an efficient system and a seamless administration. The move aims to boost the development of the Islamic administrative institutions so that it is parallel with the development of the Muslim community in this country (Utusan Malaysia, 2008).

Chief Secretary to the Government, Tan Sri Dr. Ali Hamsa, is hoping that officers and staff of the Islamic administrative institutions are grounded in ethics and integrity as they become role models for employees in other services. According to him, small mistakes made by them would be viewed as a serious offence by customers and society. The Chief Secretary also called on the workforce in Islamic adminstrative institutions to take extra care over corruption because it can occur in many forms. He was hopeful that symptoms of corruption were non-existent among Islamic administrative institutions in Malaysia (Speech text of the Chief Secretary of State, 2012).

Nevertheless, corruption and misconduct still exist in Islamic administrative institutions. For instance, two Lembaga Tabung Haji employees were jailed and fined RM 100,000 for "fast tracking" pilgrims by hacking the pilgrimage fund's database. The Kuala Lumpur Sessions Court judge convicted a clerk for graft who had accepted RM 6,750 to allow 27 pilgrims to "jump queue" in the 2010 Haj list. The judge also found a research and development division and systems analyst guilty of three counts of using a special computer programme to access the Tabung Haji database to add the pilgrims' names to the system (The Star, 2014). In another case,

the assistant registrar of a Syariah Court was charged in the Sessions Court here today with bribery involving RM 3,500. The money was an inducement to revoke a marriage (Bernama, 2015). Meanwhile, a former Perak Syariah High Court judge was sentenced by the Court of Appeals to a six-year jail term for corruption. He was accused of soliciting and receiving bribes from two persons pertaining to marriage that ignored correct procedure and for the return of bail monies related to alcohol consumption and for encouraging vice offences at several locations in Perak in 2006-2007 (The Sun Daily, 2015).

This list of crimes shows that Islamic administrative institutions also have to deal with issues of misconduct and corruption among its employees. This raises questions about the level of awareness and understanding among Islamic administrative institutions employees of ethical codes that exist in their respective institutions.

Thus, the real challenge is with implementation rather than with just the formulation of ethical codes. As past research has proven a code of ethics cannot warrant responsible behaviour among employees (Matthews, 1987; Weller, 1988; Nijhof et al., 2003; Ibrahim, 2012), but rather, has to be embedded in an organisation's culture and processes, which involve the precept of the employees (McDonald & Nijhof, 1999; Nijhof et al., 2003; Ibrahim, 2012). Based on the above reasons, this paper attempts to measure the practical mechanism of implementing ethical codes

in Islamic administrative institutions in two steps, firstly, the level of code awareness and understanding among employees as well as the code of enforcement by top management, and secondly, the level of ethical practice among employees as a result of the above factors.

### **Ethics and Islamic Ethics**

Scholars define ethics in various ways. Some interpret ethics as the rules of conduct, regulation and religious beliefs that are commonly accepted habits or even systematic codes dealing with moral principles (Baumhart, 1968; Webber, 1975; International Encyclopaedia of Social Sciences, 1968; Encyclopaedia Americana, 1991) while others perceive ethics as a philosophy of moral values that answers the definition of good life, the dilemma of good and bad and the objectives in right and wrong, either in general or specific scope (MacKinnon, 2004). However, most scholars acknowledge ethics as a set of values, norms and moral standards that determine the right or wrong, good or bad of an action. It concerns moral judgement, common action and societal norms and values, and this justifies the reason for the more common use of ethics compared to norms, values or morals (Kamri, 2010).

In Islam, ethics is generally known as 'al-Akhlaq', the plural form of 'al-Khuluq' (Beekun, 2006) which is also associated with the word 'al-Khalq', which means 'creation' (Din, 2007). The term 'akhlaq' refers to human nature, attitude and habits

(Ibn Manzur, 1990) that actually concern an individual's spontaneous natural attitude (al-Ghazali, 1990; Ibn Miskawayh, 1961). In its general content, 'akhlaq' suggests 'haya' which means good deeds and ideal conduct that commands respect from action (Jalil et al., 2010). As God has placed man in the highest place and with complete features together with the gift of appetition, intellect, nature and wisdom (al-Razi, 1969), man should ultimately preserve his superiority through ethical and sensible behaviour to sustain the standards of being human.

The values of Islamic ethics are universal and consistent and do not separate into human, physical and spiritual values but are determined by Allah, the Almighty. These values remain unaffected by changes in external conditions and circumstances of life (al-Maududi, 1978). Thus, the role of Islamic ethics does not concentrate on the worldly only as a guideline to employees in order to ensure their conduct is in accordance with ethical standards and regulations. More important is that their conduct must comply with 'Shariah' requirements to seek the pleasure of God for achieving happiness in the Hereafter, 'al-falah' (al-Maududi, 1978; Salamon, 1989).

To see the relation between the codes of work ethics and religion that we are discussing in this paper, we should look at the Islamic unitary aspect of human life, where work and worship are not distinguished from one another, but do in fact, influence one another. Economy and ethics are not separated in the Islamic worldview, but

instead, they are interconnected with the idea that profit maximisation is not solely for personal interest but also for social interest (Pramanaik, 1994; Jalil et al., 2010). The intensity of faith and responsibility towards God creates a sense of fearing his wrath, and thus avoiding committing the forbidden. This initiates the need to fulfil work obligations as stipulated in the agreement contract between employee and employer, besides striving to satisfy the employer with good performance in the workplace (Nasr, 1984). Furthermore, it is a societal responsibility that when carrying out his work, the employee does not only reflect his personality but also the religion he advocates (Rauf, 1987).

## **Significance of Ethics**

The significance of work ethics is recognised through its role of defining the individual's action and behaviour (Hofstede, 1980; Ali & Al-Kazemi, 2005). As work ethics are the gist of any culture, it inevitably represents the communal culture that is based on a dominant societal or religious belief. Work ethics allow practitioners and scholars to rectify the weakness and the strength of an organisation's working culture, for further improvising and advancing progress.

In addition, work ethics function as a moral system that governs the conduct of employers and employees to encourage compliance with requirements for achieving goals and avoiding possible misdeeds and cultivating good values that are profitable such as loyalty. This value will prevent betrayal of the organisation, thus attracting faithful customers (Reichheld, 1993). In addition, loyal employees are willing to strive for the interest of the organisation, go the extra mile to achieve organisational goals and remain attached to the organisation, especially during difficult times. They will also welcome any organisational changes, maintain good relations with colleagues and superiors and minimise absence from work (Ali, 1993; Ali & al-Kazemi, 2005).

Work ethics are also the key foundation of professionalism in all its philosophical and psychological attributes (Larson, 1977; Langford, 1978; Eraut, 1994; Hyland, 1996). This is due to the fact that work ethics deal with the harsh realities of human labour as it addresses the employee-employer psychology through values that connect their effort and aspirations. Moreover, work ethics help to transform work into meaningful action and develop ideas and experiences (Herman, 2002). Therefore, the cultivation of ethics in the work context will ensure the continuation of work flow, while either maintaining progress or moving towards improvement.

## **Code of Ethics**

Decisions arising from human behaviour are usually based on one's ethical notions or moral consideration. However, the notions, if not based on a reliable source, such as religious teaching or proper moral education, may cause one to deviate from the common understanding and conduct of actions related to good and bad. In the

context of work, organisations usually set expectations on employees' sensible and morally responsible behaviour to fulfil their interests and objectives. To unite employees of different moral backgrounds and standardise moral decision-making and behaviour, a code of ethics is perceived to be the ideal instrument (Bricknell & Cohen, 2005). This is due to its nature of being a 'steering' mechanism to navigate the ethical decision-making process or enforcement of ethical conduct (Vee & Skidmore, 2003). Codes of ethics are particularly helpful when an individual's self-interest is incompatible with his or her ethical standards (Ibrahim, 2013).

Code of ethics is defined as a document of ethical principles ratified by and ideally adhered to by a certain community (Bull et al., 2012). Some researchers such as Singhapakdi and Vitell (1990), McCabe et al. (1996) and Pierce and Henry (1996) have discovered that the codes influence ethical behaviour, perception and intention. However, other researchers such as Ford et al. (1982), Brief et al. (1996) and Cleek and Leonard (1998) have debated this, having found no significant relation; hence, its efficacy has not been proven. In this regard, Helin and Sandstrom (2007) argued that there was a lack of solid evidence on whether codes ethics were effective or not. The authors added that there is a knowledge gap in what is known of whether corporations behaved more ethically in terms of being socially responsible, avoiding corruption and so on, as the result of having implemented a code of ethics.

# Factors of Ethical Behaviour at the Workplace: Enforcement, Awareness and Understanding

In the organisational context, code enforcement refers to the upper management's effort to encourage, promote and ensure that the ethical code is implemented and practised by employees in their daily work conduct. It has been suggested that enforcement through monitoring and surveillance, as well as the threat of punishment and sanctions, must exist to guarantee compliance with the ethical codes (Kelman, 1961; Brief et al., 1996; Nijhof et al., 2003; Aydinlik, 2008). It must be noted that codes of ethics have a limit because they cannot anticipate every situation that may arise. Their effectiveness depends heavily on whether they are current and robust, whether they are strictly implemented and how employess who break the codes are treated (Ibrahim, 2012). In this regard, previous authors such as Whyatt et al. (2012) and Aydinlik et al. (2008) have suggested that the organisation has a procedure for breach of the code because the procedure is to signal to employees the significance of the need to abide by the code for both their own sake and that of the organisation.

In addition, enforcement by the upper management would not create total positive awareness of the ethical codes without the employees being engaged themselves. Thus, the awareness of employees is needed. This refers to an employee's knowledge of the existence and whereabouts of the code as well as the knowledge that it should be

consulted when the employee encounters a problem of moral or ethical significance (Bricknell & Cohen, 2005). In this regard, Beeri et al. (2013) found that employees who were aware of the organisation's ethics coped better with ethical dilemmas, did the right thing and supported values such as fairness. The author further recommended that organisations adopt a strategy aimed at cultivating ethics, a strategy that actively raises the awareness of ethics and encourages involvement in ethical decision-making.

In support of enforcement and employees' awareness, employees' understanding of the process is also important. Understanding refers to comprehension of the content of the code (Wotruba et al., 2001). Whyatt et al. (2012) argued that it is not enough to have the artefacts of an ethical culture, such as codes, without ensuring that all employees are assisted in understanding what is required of them in relation to the ethos of codes. In this regard, Wotruba et al. (2001) said that it is possible that an employee can be aware of a code and yet not know anything about the issues it addresses. According to Jalil et al. (2010), the code provides the chance to internalise the ethical codes, develop priority towards organisational interests and strengthen personal qualities. Therefore, understanding assists employees in implementing an ethical code by knowing in greater detail the content of the ethical code, recognising its logical reasoning, and hence, absorbing the values and transmitting work values to personal values. In addition, understanding the code helps employees to distinguish between right and wrong, not

only for personal interest, but in line with organisational and social interests. This is the stage where common sense is developed, thus misconduct that results in losses to an organisation can be prevented.

#### METHODOLOGY

## **Questionnaire**

This study employed the quantitative approach using the questionnaire survey as the method for collecting data. The questionnaires were prepared in printed format. The questionnaire was a modified version of Bricknell and Cohen's (2005) instrument. Instead of 18 items originally, the questionnaire was expanded to 26 items focusing on the respondents' enforcement, awareness and understanding of ethical codes. A sample of the items include 'Action will be taken by the organisation if there are employees who violate the work ethics of the organisation', 'I refer to the organisation's work ethics when I encounter any problems', 'I have read fully the work ethics of this organisation', etc.

Nominal, ordinal and interval scales were employed to obtain information on the respondents' demographic background. To measure the enforcement, awareness and understanding of ethical codes among the respondents, a 5-point Likert scale was used to describe the respondents' opinions of a statement ranging from 'strongly disagree' (1) to 'strongly agree' (5).

The questionnaires were distributed to 221 employees of three Islamic institutions located in Kuala Lumpur and Putrajaya,

Malaysia as shown in Table 1. Of that number, 165 were collected, equivalent to an initial response rate of 74.7%. After careful review, 15 surveys were disqualified due to incomplete responses for more than three items in every construct's list of questions. This resulted in only 150 usable responses. Islamic institutions involved in this study consisted of administrative, legislative and financial institutions.

Table 1
Distribution of respondents based on institution

Institution	Frequency (%)
Institution 1	43 (28.7)
Institution 2	71 (47.3)
Institution 3	36 (24.0)
Total	150 (100.0)

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

## **Demographic Background**

The respondents' demographic background is shown in Table 2.

Table 2
Respondents' demography

Profile of Res Demography	pondents'	Frequency (%)
Gender	Male	59 (39.3)
	Female	91 (60.7)
Age	19 years and below	0 (0.0)
	20-29 years old	62 (41.3)
	30-39 years old	61 (40.7)
	40-49 years old	24 (16.0)
	50 years and above	3 (2.0)
Marital	Single	28 (18.7)
Status	Married	121 (80.7)
	Widow/Widower	1 (0.7)

Table 2 (continue)

Profile of Res	spondents'	Frequency
Demography		(%)
Education	PMR/SRP/LLE	0(0.0)
Level	SPM/MCE	15 (10.0)
	STPM/HSC	6 (4.0)
	Diploma	27 (18.0)
	Bachelor's Degree	82 (54.7)
	Master's Degree	18 (12.0)
	PhD	2 (1.3)
Category of	Managerial and	83 (55.3)
Designation	Professionals	67 (44.7)
	Support Personnel	
Monthly	RM 1,000 and below	2 (1.3)
Income	RM 1,001-2,000	34 (22.7)
	RM 2,001-3,000	61 (40.7)
	RM 3,001-4,000	35 (23.3)
	RM 4,001-5,000	8 (5.3)
	RM 5,001 and above	10 (6.7)
Work	5 years and below	91 (60.7)
Experience	6-10 years	28 (18.7)
	11-15 years	6 (4.0)
	16-20 years	8 (5.3)
	21-25 years	14 (9.3)
	26 years and above	3 (2.0)

The respondents were of different ages and educational backgrounds. Most of them were 20-39 years old; of the total number

of 123 respondents (82.0%), 82 respondents (54.7%) were bachelor's degree holders. Being bachelor's degree holders, a majority of the respondents were managerial and professional staff (55.3%). Designations such as officer and manager, for example, require higher academic qualification.

In terms of experience, a majority of the respondents had worked for less than five years (60.7%) and were, therefore, rather young, and in need of greater work exposure. Pertaining to salary, most of the respondents fell in the category of middle income with 40.7% of them earning between RM 2,001 and RM 3,000. This showed that on average, the respondents were neither too lowly paid nor too highly paid. The salary paid the could be associated with their qualifications and experience.

## Score on the Factors of Enforcement, Awareness and Understanding

The 26 items in the questionnaire were divided into three main aspects: enforcement (8 items), awareness (7 items) and understanding (11 items). The findings are shown in Table 3.

Table 3
Respondents' feedback based on the enforcement, awareness and understanding codes

Aspect	Item	Mean	Average Mean
Enforcement (8 items)	The workers are sent to attend courses/training on Islamic work ethics.	3.71	
	Each employee must sign a statement indicating they have read and understand the work ethics of the organisation.	3.69	
	In the event of moral misconduct, matters arising will be discussed with reference to Islamic work ethics.	3.81	
	Action will be taken by the organisation if there are employees who violate the work ethics of the organisation.	3.78	3.47

## Table 3 (continue)

	The organisation does not have to do monitoring to ensure that employees work ethically.*	2.75	
	If not monitored, we do not need to work ethically because no one knows.*	2.63	
	Superiors practise good work ethics to be followed and set a good example for subordinates.	3.89	
	I always adhere to the work ethics of the organisation for fear of disciplinary action by my superiors.	3.51	
Awareness (7 items)	Organisational work ethics can be seen clearly on the website of the organisation.	3.59	
	Organisational work ethics are displayed on the notice boards of the organisation.	3.58	
	The organisation's work ethics are not included in their printed materials such as annual reports, newsletters, brochures etc.*	2.81	3.39
	The organisation's work ethics are not explained to new employees.*	2.64	
	I refer to the organisation's work ethics when I encounter any problems.	3.61	
	I know where I can get the work ethics of the organisation.	3.69	
	I am aware of the importance of organisational work ethics in the work performed.	3.80	
Understanding	I have read fully the work ethics of this organisation.	3.68	
(11 items)	I do not quite understand the contents of the work ethics of the organisation.*	2.51	
	I am able to explain the organisation's work ethics to other employees.	3.45	
	I often discuss with my colleagues to understand the content of the work ethics of the organisation.	3.19	
	I do what is required by the work ethics of the organisation.	3.90	
	I am pleased to be able to help solve the problem of the public (customers).	4.31	3.76
	I do not need to comply with the ethical rules of the organisation because it is not the regulation of the organisation.*	3.17	
	I comply with the organisational work ethics on my personal responsibility as a member of the organisation.	4.12	
	I am sure the work I do is ethical as I realise that my job is trust given by God.	4.47	
	I always carry out organisational work ethics as required by Islam.	4.43	
	I always comply with the work ethics of the organisation to improve work performance.	4.16	

<sup>\*</sup> Negative items which were adversely valued

All the items in the questionnaire recorded a mean value between 2.51 and 4.47, which was within the 'somewhat agree' to 'agree' range. These values were very satisfactory because even though the questionnaire combined positive and negative items, the respondents were able to respond accordingly. This showed that they had actually read and understood the items.

Meanwhile, the average mean values for all the three aspects were not significantly different, which was about 3.39 to 3.76. The understanding aspect recorded the highest average mean value of 3.76, followed by the enforcement and awareness aspects, which recorded 3.47 and 3.39, respectively. The value that was relatively good reflected that the code enforcement was implemented well by the organisation to realise its existence (the awareness factor) and also could be understood (the understanding factor) by the respondents. This situation, of course, to some extent contributed to the implementation level of ethics among the respondents, as explained in the next table.

## Implementation Level of the Ethical Code

Table 4 shows the implementation level of the ethical code among the respondents.

Table 4
Implementation level of ethical codes

Implementation Level	Frequency	Percent
High (88-130)	101	67.3
Moderate (44-87)	49	32.7
Low (43 and below)	0	0.0
Total	150	100.0

On average, the respondents showed a high level of adherence to ethical values, where 101 respondents (67.3%) achieved a score of around 88-130. Therefore, the remaining respondents showed a moderate level of adherence to ethical values (32.7%). The high score reflects a high commitment to ethics and associates with the aspects of enforcement, awareness and understanding as discussed earlier. The high mean values for all the three aspects contributed to the implementation of ethics that was also high. This indicates that these three aspects of code enforcement, awareness and understanding need to be inculcated together to ensure effective implementation of ethics.

The findings indicate that the organisational management needs to take serious measures in relation to code enforcement to raise awareness and increase understanding of ethics among employees. Related policies should be formulated in line with formal and informal activities to encourage ethical behaviour among employees. At the same time, employees should also embrace the efforts undertaken by their management to create an ethical work culture within the organisation.

## Implementation Level Based on the Demographic Factor

Table 5 indicates the implementation level of the ethical code based on selected demographic factors.

Overall, with regards to the total number of respondents, the findings indicated a mix of ethical implementation

Table 5
Adherence level of ethical codes based on respondents' demography

Profile of Res	spondents' Demography		Adherence Level		
		Low (%)	Moderate (%)	High (%)	_
Gender	Male	0	16 (27.1)	43 (72.9)	59
	Female	0	33 (36.3)	58 (63.7)	91
Age	19 years and below	0	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0
	20-29 years old	0	29 (46.8)	33 (53.2)	62
	30-39 years old	0	15 (24.6)	46 (75.4)	61
	40-49 years old	0	4 (16.7)	20 (83.3)	24
	50 years and above	0	1 (33.3)	2 (66.7)	3
Work	5 years and below	0	30 (33.0)	61 (67.0)	91
Experience	6-10 years	0	8 (28.6)	20 (71.4)	28
	11-15 years	0	1 (16.7)	5 (83.3)	6
	16-20 years	0	3 (37.5)	5 (62.5)	8
	21-25 years	0	6 (42.9)	8 (57.1)	14
	26 years and above	0	1 (33.3)	2 (66.7)	3
Category of	Managerial and Professional Staff	0	17 (20.5)	66 (79.5)	83
Designation	Support Staff	0	32 (47.8)	35 (52.2)	67
Institution	Institution 1	0	19 (44.2)	24 (55.8)	43
	Institution 2	0	21 (29.6)	50 (70.4)	71
	Institution 3	0	9 (25.0)	27 (75.0)	36

levels i.e. high and moderate. In terms of gender, male respondents showed a higher ethical implementation level than female respondents i.e. 72.9%. The result also indicated that the majority of the respondents aged 30-49 years old showed a high level of ethical adherence (75.4 and 83.3%).

In terms of working experience, those within 6 and 15 years of working experience were the highest total number of respondents that embraced high level of ethical adherence i.e. 71.4 and 83.3%. In terms of respondents' designation, it was found that more than one third of the overall respondents who were managerial and professional staff showed

high ethical adherence i.e. 66 respondents (79.5%).

From institutional perspective, the result also indicated a mix of ethical implementation levels. All three institutions showed high and moderate ethical adherence with quite an equal ratio of respondents. Thus, it is hard to specify which institution is more ethical than others.

In order to verify to what extent the demographic factors showed significant differences with ethical adherence levels, a chi square test for independence was conducted. The results of the test as shown in Table 6 indicated that only two demographic factors had a significant relationship with

the adherence level of the ethical code i.e. age and category of designation factors. The p values recorded for age and designation

were 0.017 and 0.000 respectively, which was less than 0.05.

Table 6
Adherence level of ethical codes based on respondents' demography

Demographic Factors	Adherence Level		
	chi square value	df	p-value
Gender	1.361	1	0.243
Age	10.213	3	0.017**
Work Experience	1.662	5	0.894
Category of Designation	12.543	1	0.000**
Institution	3.864	2	0.145

<sup>\*\*</sup>Significant at the 0.05 level

Table 5 earlier showed that a high level of ethical practice was more favourable among respondents aged above 30 years old. This means that older respondents were seen as being more ethical in their work behaviour. Similarly, respondents in the managerial and professional category were also more likely to have high ethical adherence compared to respondents who were support staff. This shows that respondents in high positions were more ethical in their work. This was probably dues to the fat that the nature of their task as being part of the management team encouraged them to understand the importance of ethics and be more concerned about ethical practice in their work, especially in organisational decision-making.

These findings were different from the results of previous studies such as Ismail (1996) and Ghani (2000), who found that age had no influence on perception and ethical behaviour of the respondents. The

findings also disagreed with those of Hassan (2002) and Amnah (1998) in that there was no relationship between ethical practices and designation of respondents.

## **Suggestions for Managerial Implementation**

The above findings demonstrated the significance of code enforcement, understanding and awareness as important mechanisms to impart ethical codes to employees. Effective enforcement (3.47), dynamic awareness (3.39) and deep understanding (3.76) contributed to higher adherence of ethical practice among employees (67.3%). These findings involved 'two dimensional management', where both the employer and the employee commit on the same benchmark of ethical behaviour, hence generating effort from both parties.

In addition to Bricknell and Cohen's discussion (2005) on the enforcement code, a punishment-and-reward system

should be implemented in the process. The former should be set as a warning against the breaching of ethical codes, while the latter should be awarded to employees who faithfully comply with the codes while fulfilling their work tasks. On the other hand, an awareness code assists in raising ethical concerns among employees. This can be disseminated through talks, seminars, open discussions, training and any other possible venues to familiarise employees with the content of ethical codes (Sims, 1991; Dean, 1992; Chonko et al., 2003), and this contributes simultaneously to the code of understanding.

Therefore, the findings could directly address the issue of negligence of ethical codes, especially among Muslim employers and employees who might ignore the importance of work ethics (Al-Attas, 1978; Wan Husin, 2012). Moreover, the same issue is shared by other organisations in the world. By focusing on the technical aspect of work ethics and tackling the crux of the issue i.e. how to create an ethical culture, the issue of work misconduct can be finally resolved.

#### CONCLUSION

There is no doubt that ethical behaviour among employees is very much emphasised in organisations. This article identified three important factors that contribute towards implementing ethical codes: enforcement, awareness and understanding. These three mechanisms integrate the effort of employers and employees. Therefore, both parties must synergise to ensure that ethical

codes are successfully practised in reality, and are not just recorded in documentation. The practice of ethical codes is not only to create an ethical work culture, but also to assist in developing a positive image and hence, in building the reputation of the organisation. It is hoped that this article will shed some light on managerial issues and enhance the ethical work culture among managers and employees regardless of religious, ethnic, national and educational backgrounds. Furthermore, more studies should be conducted in cross-cultural settings by using a different methodology.

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# Prevention of Terrorism: An Initial Exploration of Malaysia's POTA 2015

#### Saroja Dhanapal\* and Johan Shamsuddin Sabaruddin

Faculty of Law, University of Malaya, 56300 Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

#### **ABSTRACT**

The threat posed by terrorism, a world-wide phenomenon, is not easy to address. Contributing to the difficulty of the task are the changing motivation of terrorist activities, their diverse sources of financing, the increasingly more destructive and dangerous methods of attack as well as their varied targets. Terrorism, thus, seems to require special measures to prevent and curb. Many countries have enacted new laws or have amended existing ones and these have common features relating to the investigation, apprehension and prosecution of suspected terrorists. A notable feature of such legislation is the detention of suspects without charge or trial and without the other constitutional safeguards accorded to a criminal. One such piece of anti-terrorist legislation is Malaysia's recent Prevention of Terrorism Act 2015 (POTA). This paper espouses the view that POTA is necessary to curb terrorism in Malaysia and analyses the new Act to identify its strengths and weaknesses in curbing acts of terrorism in the country with the view of recommending amendments that would enhance its effectiveness as a piece of anti-terrorist legislation.

Keywords: Internal security, Malaysia, Prevention of Terrorism Act, terrorism, terrorists

#### INTRODUCTION

The term 'terrorism' comes from the French word *terrorisme*, which is based on the Latin verb *terrere* (to cause to tremble) <sup>1</sup>. In modern times, 'terrorism' usually refers to the killing of innocent people by a private

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E-mail addresses: saroja.dhanapal@um.edu.my (Saroja Dhanapal), johans@um.edu.my (Shamsuddin Sabaruddin) \* Corresponding author <sup>1</sup> The Jacobins cited this precedent when imposing a Reign of Terror during the French Revolution. After the Jacobins lost power, the word "terrorist" became a term of abuse.

group<sup>2</sup> in such a way as to create a media spectacle. In 2005, a United Nations Panel Report described terrorism as any act that causes death or serious bodily harm to the public with the end aim or forcing a government or an international organisation to do or abstain from doing an act. The Institute for Economics and Peace (2014) defined terrorism as both the actual use of unauthorised force and violence or the threat to use such force in furtherance of either political, economic, religious or social goals. It went on to add that these goals are achieved through the use of fear, coercion or intimidation.

The 2015 Global Terrorism Index reported that there is a very high increase in terrorist incidents leading to more deaths and in 2014 alone, 32,000 people were killed as a result of terrorist acts (VOH, 2015). As clearly revealed, 9/11 witnessed the most destructive terrorist assaults in recorded history and the attacks led to far bloodier conflicts as part of the subsequent war on terror (Silke, 2014). The Institute for Economics and Peace (2014) identified two factors that are linked closely to terrorist activities. Firstly, political violence within the nation and secondly, the conflicting environment of the nation. History has proven that 92% of all terrorist attacks that

occurred between 1989 and 2014 were in countries that were experiencing political violence initiated by the government, while 88% of these attacks took place in countries experiencing or involved in violent encounters (IEP, 2014). As a result, it has been advocated that there is a need to implement policies that address the social and political factors that foster terrorism (Killelea, citied in VOH, 2015). The same source also recommended some changes such as to reduce state-sponsored violence, disperse group grievances and cultivate practices that respect human rights, freedom of religion and different cultural nuances. According to the Institute of Peace and Conflict Studies (2004), using the law as a tool to improve national security is an inept practice in democracies as it leads to major conflict between security interests and civil liberties.

Despite this, there are numerous Acts of Parliament, regulations, rules and orders that provide for special counter-terrorism powers and offences in countries around the world. According to Liberty (2015), while some of these new laws and specific terrorism offences may be necessary, many others are not. It further added that most recent counter-terrorism legislation is dangerously overboard and has affected vast numbers of people, in particular peaceful protesters and ethnic minority groups, thereby undermining civil liberties and fundamental human rights (Liberty, 2015). A list of common concerns raised against such laws include issues related to indefinite detention without charge, unsafe

It must be noted here that this definition is questionable for in certain states such as Israel, the state itself can be considered terrorist for its actions in Palestine. Further, military actions of a country (statism) are not deemed as terrorist activities but private group actions are labelled as terrorist activities.

and unfair control orders imposing severe and intrusive prohibitions, allowing stop and search without suspicion and that are disproportionately used against peaceful protesters and ethnic minority groups, the dangerously broad definition of 'terrorism' and the banning of non-violent political organisations amounting effectively to censorship of political views, which has the potential to drive debate underground.

In Malaysia, one of more recent encounters with terrorists took place in 2013 when a militant group under the leadership of Sultan Jamalul Kiram III, tried to claim territorial rights by invading Lahad Datu in Sabah. The duration of the incident, which lasted 43 days, caused the deaths of 56 militants, six civilians and 10 Malaysian Security Force members. Fortunately, the intrusion was defeated and charges were brought against the perpertrators who were apprehended. In 2014, as reported by the Institute for Economic and Peace (2014), four cross-border kidnapping for ransom operations took place in eastern Sabah3. Although there is specific legislation to counter terrorism in Malaysia, it must be

noted that terrorist incidents continue to occur. Anti-terrorist legislation in place in Malaysia are the Security Offences (Special Measures) Act 2012 (SOSMA) and the newly enacted Prevention of Terrorism Act 2015 (POTA). The need for new legislation that specifically aims to address militant activity in the country arose due to the spread of aggression, which continues to increase and threaten many nations such as France, leading to collaboration among countries like Malaysia and Australia to counter the threat (Hansard, 2015, April 6). According to police records up to 31 March, 2015, 75 persons who were suspected for involvement in the Islamic State have been arrested. Of them, 24 have been convicted under SOSMA 2012, another six were convicted under the recently amended Prevention of Crime Act 1959 (POCA), 13 were banished, 24 were released and four are still under investigation (Hansard, 2015, April 6). Despite these claims, questions are raised as to the necessity for a new act since the reported statistics are not large enough to justify the enactment of more repressive legislation that can open the door for abuse, leading to the violation of the rights of persons and organisations. However, supporters to this new Act claim that despite the small number, the destruction that can occur if terrorist activities are successful could be devastating and, therefore, harsher laws are required.

Notwithstanding the concerns raised, the new Act, POTA 2015, was passed. It must be noted that the passing of POTA 2015 has raised great concern. It must be

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> This is inclusive of the kidnapping of a Chinese tourist and a Philippine hotel employee in April by armed men from a diving resort off the coast of Semporna, the kidnapping of the Chinese manager of a fish farm from an island near Lahad Datu in May, the abduction of a Philippine and a Malaysian national from another fish farm in Kunak in June and the killing of a Royal Malaysian Police (RMP) officer and another officer, who remained in captivity at year's end in July, by armed men at a diving resort on Mabul Island.

conceded that the Act came into place with Parliament adjourning only at 2.26 a.m. after the last motion to amend the POTA 2015 Bill was defeated with 79 votes for and 60 votes against (Hansard, 2015, April 6). POTA 2015 faced considerable disapproval and criticism because it is claimed that in essence, the Act contains provisions for detention without trial, similar to the infamous Internal Security Act 1960 (ISA). However, supporters of POTA 2015 asserted that it is not similar to the ISA, claiming that the power of executive has been removed and placed under the Prevention of Terrorism Board (POTB) elected by the King (Hansard, 2015, April 6). It is also argued the 60 days' detention without judicial review under the ISA has been removed and the current 60 days' detention under the new Act is through court process (Hansard, 2015, April 6). However, it must be acknowledged that detention without trial was not the only feature of POTA that was attacked. The provisions immunising decisions of the POTB created under POTA from judicial review (Section 19) also drew heated criticism. Section 6 (1) POTA 2015, which enables detention of suspects for a maximum of 59 days (including the initial remand period) before being brought to the POTB, and Section 13 (1) POTA 2015, which gives powers for further detention of up to two years, which can be renewed if the POTB decides there are reasonable grounds, were also criticised. These provisions, which allow the POTB to detain the suspect without any judicial review and further, to detain them up to

two years, appear to contravene principles in the rule of law, especially the principles of natural justice, the right to a fair hearing, the courts' power to review the way in which the other principles are implemented and that the courts should be accessible for no man should be denied justice. Since there are concerns with regards to the sections of POTA 2015, the authors aimed to examine the Act in terms of the historical context of its enactment as well as to identify the particularities and the peculiarities of its implementation. Further, the authors will also analyse POTA 2015 to identify the strengths and weaknesses with a view to identifying whether there is room for concern as to its provisions with regards to any breach of basic human rights.

#### **BACKGROUND OF POTA 2015**

POTA 2015 was initiated as a new legislation by the Prime Minister, Datuk Seri Najib Tun Razak, in Parliament in November 2014. A White Paper entitled "Towards Addressing Threats of Islamic State (IS) Groups" was used as a foundation for the legislature to introduce the Bill in the House of Parliament. In the presentation of the White Paper, the continuous threats of violence both within and outside the country were raised as a serious concern<sup>4</sup>. Further, in the presentation, the Prime Minister emphasised on the Malaysian Government's commitment to combat

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Speech on Presentation of White Paper to address the threat of the Islamic State (2014, November 26), Office of the Prime Minister (website).

threats by IS alongside the international community and he advocated for new legislation. Paragraph 59 of the White Paper recommended new legislation to be enacted to address in specific the threat posed by IS. The White Paper called for specific anti-terrorism legislation to be adopted and for the current relevant laws, the Security Offences (Special Measures) Act 2012, the Prevention of Crime Act and the Penal Code, to be reinforced (Para 23 and 24, White Paper 2014). POTA 2015 Act 769 received the consent of the King on 28 May, 2015 and came into force officially on 1 September, 2015. Besides the enactment of the new Act, four amendments were enacted comprising the Penal Code (Amendment) 2015 (PC), Security Offences (Special Measures) Act (SOSMA) (Amendment) 2015, the Prevention of Crime Act (POCA) (Amendment) 2015 and the Prisons Act 2015.

#### **ANALYSIS OF POTA 2015**

POTA 2015 is divided into five distinct parts, as follows:

Part 1: Preliminary

Part II: Powers of arrest

Part 111: Inquiries

Part IV: Detention and Restriction Orders

and

Part V: General.

Each is considered in turn. Section 2 in Part 1 is the interpretation. It defines a total of nine expressions either directly or by reference to other provisions of

POTA 2015 or to definitions in other statutes. The only expression relevant for our purposes is 'terrorist act', which the section says "has the same meaning assigned to it by the Penal Code [Act 574]". In the Penal Code, 'terrorist act' is defined very comprehensively in Section 130B (2), (3) and (4) as:

- (2) For the purposes of this Chapter, 'terrorist act' means an act or threat of action within or beyond Malaysia where—
  - (a) the act or threat falls within subsection (3) and does not fall within subsection (4);
  - (b) the act is done or the threat is made with the intention of advancing a political, religious or ideological cause; and
  - (c) the act or threat is intended or may reasonably be regarded as being intended to—
    - (i) intimidate the public or a section of the public; or
    - (ii) influence or compel the Government of Malaysia or the Government of any State in Malaysia, any other government, or any international organisation to do or refrain from doing any
- (3) An act or threat of action falls within this subsection if it—
  - (a) involves serious bodily injury to a person;
  - (b) endangers a person's life;

- (c) causes a person's death;
- (d) creates a serious risk to the health or the safety of the public or a section of the public;
- (e) involves serious damage to property;
- (f) involves the use of firearms, explosives or other lethal devices;
- (g) involves releasing into the environment or any part of the environment or distributing or exposing the public or a section of the public to—
  - (i) any dangerous, hazardous, radioactive or harmful substance;
  - (ii) any toxic chemical; or
  - (iii) any microbial or other biological agent or toxin;
- (h) is designed or intended to disrupt or seriously, interfere with, any computer systems or the provision of any services directly related to communications infrastructure, banking or financial services, utilities, transportation or other essential infrastructure:
- (i) is designed or intended to disrupt, or seriously interfere with, the provision of essential emergency services such as police, civil defence or medical services;
- (j) involves prejudice to national security or public safety;
- (k) involves any combination of any of the acts specified in paragraphs(a) to (j), and includes any act or

- omission constituting an offence under the Aviation Offences Act 1984 [Act 307].
- (4) An act or threat of action falls within this subsection if it—
  - (a) is advocacy, protest, dissent or industrial action; and
  - (b) is not intended—
    - (i) to cause serious bodily injury to a person;
    - (ii) to endanger the life of a person;
    - (iii) to cause a person's death; or
    - (iv) to create a serious risk to the health or safety of the public or a section of the public<sup>5</sup>.

That the very wide definition of 'terrorist act' may encompass many innocent actions has drawn much criticism (Hansard, 2015, April 6). There was also much debate on the definition in POTA 2015 for it refers to the definition in the Penal Code, which is seen to be contradictory. The Penal Code 1976 under Section 130B (2) defines terrorist acts to include "threat made with the intention of advancing a political, religious or ideological cause" but Section 4 (3) POTA 2015 states that "No person shall be arrested and detained under this section solely for his political belief or political activity".

Despite these controversies and the criticism made against POTA 2015, it must be noted that Malaysia is not the

Parts are highlighted for emphasis.

only country in the world to cast a wide net to snare anti-terrorist acts. Many of the phrases used in POTA 2015 appear in anti-terrorism legislation around the world. For instance, Section 1 of the United Kingdom's Terrorism Act 2000 enacts that 'terrorism' means:

- (1) In this Act 'terrorism' means the use or threat of action where—
  - (a) the action falls within subsection (2),
  - (b) the use or threat is designed to influence the government or an international governmental organisation or to intimidate the public or a section of the public, and
  - (c) the use or threat is made for the purpose of advancing a political, religious or ideological cause.

A similar definition appears in Section 15 of India's Unlawful Activities (Prevention) Amendment Act (UAFA) 2008, where it is stated that terrorists include "Whoever does any act with intent to threaten or likely to threaten the unity, integrity, security or sovereignty of India or with intent to strike terror or likely to strike terror in the people or any section of the people in India or in any foreign country." Although the researchers are indicating there are other countries whose legislations have wide definition for the term 'terrorists', they are not contending or condoning that it is acceptable to have such wide definitions.

That POTA is limited to terrorist acts seems to make it less draconian than the Internal Security Act 1957 (ISA), which permitted detention without trial for not only terrorist acts but also other activities<sup>6</sup>. However, Stephen Thiru, the President of the Malaysian Bar, has denounced POTA 2015 as a shameless revival of the ISA, stating that it is of the same ilk as the Prevention of Crime Act 1959 (POCA), which was extensively amended and expanded in 2014, to allow detention without trial and restricted residence or internal banishment. Another of his objections is that while POTA 2015 purports to be directed at persons who are "engaged in the commission or support of terrorist acts involving listed terrorist organisations in a foreign country or any part of a foreign country," the failure to define "engaged," "commission," "support" and "involving" invests the legislation with an extremely wide reach, rendering it susceptible to abuse; almost anyone could be targetted under POTA 2015 (Thiru, 2015).

Part II of the Act lists the powers of arrest and remand. Section 3(1) allows for arrest without warrant if a police officer has reason to believe that grounds exist that would justify holding an inquiry under this Act. In such a situation, the suspect can be retained for not more than seven days, after which he has to be referred to the Public Prosecutor for direction. Sections 4(1) and (2) adds to

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> See Part II, Chapter 1 of ISA 1960.

the period of detention possible under this Act. Terrorist suspects may be detained by the police for an initial investigation period of 21 days, which may be extended by an additional 38 days. Detainees are denied the right to counsel except during the formal recording of statement by the investigation officer. Based on the initial investigation, the POTB appointed by the King (acting on the advice of the minister) may order the suspect to be detained for up to two years without trial. The initial two-year detention may be extended by an unlimited number of two-year detention terms. The law denies detainees the right to challenge the POTB's decision through a judicial review other than on questions of compliance with procedural requirements. Additionally, POTA 2015 under Section 13(3) empowers the same board to restrict a suspect's place of residence, travel, access to communication facilities and the use of the Internet for renewable periods of up to five years. POTA 2015 relates much more directly to terrorism and extends the power of the already established Security Offences (Special Measures) Act 2012 (SOSMA) that replaced the ISA. While the ISA allowed initial detention of 60 days with unlimited renewals based solely on the will of the Home Minister, SOSMA 2012, on the other hand, limits the detention period for up to 28 days after which the Attorney-General can decide to prosecute on specific charges. Under POTA 2015, there is also no provision for bail as provided for under Section 13(1) SOSMA 2012, indicating a backward

movement because SOSMA 2012 was supposedly enacted to remove the negative application of law under the ISA, which did not have any provision for bail. POTA 2015 has the same 60-day initial detention period as the ISA but with possible extensions of up to two years at a time relying not on the Executive (Prime Minister) *per se* but on the executive powers of the POTB. Under Section 13(3)(1), there is also the inclusion of an electronic monitoring device that will be used to keep track of a suspect's location.

Section 3(1) and (2) are the most debated provisions of the Act. The major concern over POTA 2015, as with the earlier ISA, is that it gives police and the appointed POTB the power to detain suspects without warrant for an extended period of time and immunises the exercise of this power from judicial review (Soon, 2015). POTA 2015 has, as we have seen, been denounced as a reincarnation of the repealed ISA but the Deputy Home Minister, Datuk Seri Dr Wan Junaidi Tuanku Wan Jaafar, has denied this charge. According to him, POTA differs from the repealed ISA in a crucial way in that unlike the ISA, which conferred the power to detain a suspect by executive fiat, the power to detain is now vested in the appointed POTB rather than in the police or a minister. The current Prime Minister, Datuk Seri Najib Razak, has stated that the executive has no say in the decision to detain an individual. The POTB, according to the Prime Minister, is a "credible body" that ensures that only those truly involved in terrorism can be

detained and, therefore, guarantees the safety of Malaysia (Syahir Ashri, 2015). However, it is worth considering whether a board that is, ultimately, appointed by the government (the King acts on the advice of the Prime Minister in appointing the board) is truly independent of the government. Section 4(4) provides that no person shall be arrested or detained ... for his political belief or activity." Critics see the exclusion of "political belief and political activity" as a ground for detention as providing false comfort. This is because Section 4(6) enacts that "...political belief or political activity means engaging in a lawful activity through-

- (a) the expression of an opinion or the pursuit of a course of action made according to the tenets of a political party that is at the relevant time registered under the Societies Act 1966 [Act 335] as evidenced by—
  - (i) membership of or contribution to that party; or
  - (ii) open and active participation in the affairs of that party;
- (b) the expression of an opinion directed towards any government in Malaysia; or
- (c) the pursuit of a course of action directed towards any government in Malaysia."

The foregoing means that no person shall be arrested and detained solely for his/ her political belief or political activity unless the stipulated political activity is unlawful. The problem is that it is the government who decides whether a political belief or activity is lawful or unlawful. After all, if the government does not allow a political activity and organisers of that activity to go ahead and hold it, nothing prevents the government from labelling it as 'terrorism'. It has been argued that in reality, there is no difference between this law and the ISA that was originally enacted to curb the activities of the Malayan Communist Party, but was later extensively used by the government on its political dissidents. There is also concern that organisations not registered as political parties under the Societies Act 1966 or not registered under the Societies Act 1966 at all, may be subjected to the wide powers of POTA 2015. Proponents of this view point out that in the past, politicians and political activists had been detained under the ISA for ordinary criminal activities that were nonetheless viewed as prejudicial to national security or public order (Thiru, 2015). Others see a conspiracy afoot. The latter see both the introduction of POTA 2015 and the proposed amendments to the Sedition Act 1948 as part of an all-out attempt by the Malaysian government to silence critics and dissent, a move that has already seen more than 150 individuals, including opposition politicians, journalists and human rights defenders being arrested, investigated and charged under the Act (Asian Forum for Human Rights and Development, 2015).

Part III of the Act details the inquiry process starting with Section 8, which

delineates the setting and composition of the POTB, while Section 9 deals with the appointment of the Inquiry Officer, which proscribes a police officer from being appointed as such. Section 10 spells out the extensive powers of the Inquiry Officer, Section 11 gives details on the Inquiry Officer's access to detainees/prisoners and, lastly, Section 12 gives information about the Inquiry Officer's report. These sections are criticised heavily as conferring draconian powers on the Inquiry Officer, who is not expressly defined in POTA, and is tasked with investigating the allegations against the accused person and presenting the evidence to the POTB (Thiru, 2015). Thiru stated that in this regard, the normal rules of evidence and criminal procedure are excluded and the Inquiry Officer may procure evidence by any means and in the absence of the suspect. The Inquiry Officer then presents his/her report to the POTB; there is no provision for the POTB to inquire into the report or require further investigation. Moreover, a suspect is not legally represented before the POTB. The POTB has extensive powers i.e. it may issue a detention order of up to two years or a restricted residence order of up to five years. These periods of detention or restricted residence may be subsequently renewed for an indeterminate period. These orders are made by the POTB without due process, in as much as the accused person is denied the right to make legal or any representation to the POTB (Thiru, 2015).

Part IV of the Act provides for detention and restriction orders. Under Section 13(1) (b), the POTB can impose detention of up to a period not exceeding two years or under Section 13(3), the POTB can also impose a restriction order for any period not exceeding five years with all or any restrictions and conditions listed in Section 13(3)(a) to (l). Further under Section 17(1), the POTB can extend the duration of the detention order by not more than two years and restriction order by not more than five years. Section 19(1) excludes judicial review in any court in respect of any act done or decision made by the POTB. Section 19(2) defines judicial review to include proceedings by way of:

- (a) an application for any of the prerogative orders of *mandamus*, prohibition and *certiorari*;
- (b) an application for a declaration or an injunction;
- (c) a writ of habeas corpus; and
- (d) any other suit, action or legal proceedings relating to or arising out of any act done or decision made by the Board in accordance with this Act.

The Human Rights Commission of Malaysia has described these sections as lacking sufficient safeguards against abuse of power. The deficiency in question includes lack of provision for ensuring transparency and accountability. The concerns of the Commission include the following:

- a) The lack of legal representation of an accused person during the Inquiry (Section 10(6)) as well as the provision for indefinite detention without trial (Section 13) are of serious concern and in breach of the right to a fair trial according to Article 5 of the Federal Constitution as well as Article 10 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR).
- b) The absence of a right to judicial review, save for the review of procedural matters is an affront to the right to a fair hearing and the right to have the legitimacy of one's detention determined by an independent and competent Court of Law.

The Commission asserted that the right to a fair trial is absolute and cannot be limited. Furthermore, arbitrary detention is a serious threat to liberty and to the enjoyment of all other fundamental rights. The Commission is also concerned by the lack of procedural safeguards necessary to prevent unlawful detention and is, therefore, of the opinion that their absence directly violates the Federal Constitution and International Human Rights Law (Hasmy Agam, 2015).

Concern that the Act contravenes principles of human rights are unlikely to go away. However, against such criticism can be pointed out the fact that similar provisions are found in anti-terrorism statutes in other countries. Such provisions, designed to combat the increasing number of terrorist events in the world are to be found in the US' Patriot Act 2001, Canada's Antiterrorism Act 2001, the UK's Prevention of Terrorism Act 2005 and India's POTA 20027. Similar provisions found in POTA 2015 are also seen in the Gujarat Control of Terrorism and Organised Crime Bill (GCTOC), which was passed on 31 March, 2015<sup>8</sup>.

Compared to the UK's terrorism legislation, POTA 2015 can be considered the lesser evil. Table 1 gives a brief analysis of some of the UK's Acts enacted as a counter measure against terrorism.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> After POTA was passed in March of 2002, the Indian media and Indian human rights groups observed and criticised frequent abuses of the law, including hundreds of questionable and prolonged detentions with no formal charges filed. The most visible of these involved political figures arrested by rivals in control of state law enforcement machinery (Gagn, 2015). It must be noted that this Act was repealed in 2004.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> The bill seeks to give police far reaching powers to make arbitrary arrests, present confessions in custody as evidence as per clause 16, which is currently inadmissible as such and to even intercept phone calls as per clause 14. Further, the bill provides for extending the period of investigation from the stipulated 90 days to 180 days. It makes offences under the bill non-bailable. It also grants immunity from legal action to the state government and its officers against suits, proceedings and prosecutions for anything they do in 'good faith in pursuance of the Act' as indicated in Section 25 (Shezhad Poonawalla, 2015).

Table 1 UK's Terrorism Prevention Acts

ACT	CONTENTS	
Terrorism Act 2000	The Terrorism Act, (2000) (HM Government, 2000), widened the definition of terrorism to apply to domestic terrorism and included, "any political, religious or ideological" cause that uses or threatens violence against people or property; creates new offences of inciting terrorism; enhances police powers, including stop and search and precharge detention for seven days; outlaws terrorist groups (including Al-Qaeda)	
Anti-Terrorism, Crime and Security Act 2001	Initially authorised indefinite detention of foreign nationals suspected of terrorism without charge or trial – a system now replaced with control orders after the House of Lords' ruling in A and Others; extended executive powers over freezing bank accounts and assets of suspected terrorists	
Prevention of Terrorism Act 2005	Introduced control orders, which allowed the government to restrict the activities of individuals it suspects of "involvement in terrorist-related activity," but for whom there is insufficient evidence to charge	
Terrorism Act 2006	Extended the pre-charge detention period from 14 to 28 days	
Counter-Terrorism Act 2008	Enabled post-charge questioning of terrorist suspects; allows constables to take fingerprints and DNA samples from individuals subject to control orders; amends the definition of terrorism by inserting a racial cause	

The common feature between POTA and the UK statutes cited above is that they suspend constitutional or human rights by vesting in the executive the extraordinary power to detain a suspected terrorist without charge or trial (Soon, 2015). Although there are similarities it does not rule out the fact that the provisions in the Acts undermine basic human rights.

Having analysed the key sections of POTA 2015, it is crucial to analyse if there are any strengths and weaknesses to identify whether critics are right in their claims that the law is a further slide toward authoritarianism in Malaysia and a definitive reversal of personal freedoms that the Prime Minister, Najib Razak, vowed to introduce soon after assuming power in 2009 (Fuller, 2015).

### STRENGTHS AND WEAKNESSES OF POTA 2015

The following have been submitted as strengths of POTA 2015:

(1) That the power to order the detention of a suspect is now vested not in the executive but in a body independent of the executive, the POTB. It is said that the POTB is an independent body because it is appointed by His Majesty, the King. The government has, it is said, no say in the decision to detain a suspect. From this, supporters of POTA 2015 conclude, "only those truly involved can be detained and therefore, POTA 2015 guarantees the safety of Malaysia" (Soon, 2015; Faidhur Rahman Abdul Hadi, 2015; Bilveer Singh,

- citied in Faidhur Rahman Abdul Hadi, 2015).
- (2) The inclusion of the provision against detention on the grounds of political belief and activity fortifies the safeguard mentioned in (1) (Faidhur Rahman Abdul Hadi, 2015). It is also noteworthy that the Prevention of Crime Act 1959 (POCA) is also to be amended again to streamline the mechanism therein to be in tandem with POTA. Amendment was made to Section 4 of POCA 1959 to include that "No person shall be arrested and detained under this section solely
- for his political belief or political activity (2A)."
- (3) Detention without charge or trial is also defended precisely because it precedes and prevents a crime. It is argued that rather than wait for a horrific terrorist act to be committed before detaining the terrorists, it is better to have preventive laws such as POTA in place (Soon, 2015; Bilveer Singh, citied in Faidhur Rahman Abdul Hadi, 2015).

Table 2 shows some of the strengths of POTA 2015.

Table 2 Strengths of POTA 2015

Sections	Content
8. (1)	A Prevention of Terrorism Board is establishedappointed by the [King].
25.	Any registered person who is convicted of any offence committed after the date of the entry of his name in the Register under any written law shall be liable to imprisonment for a term of twice as long as the maximum term for which he would have been liable on conviction for that offence, and also to whipping.
27. (1)	Any person who knowingly harbours or conceals any person who enters any State, district, mukim, town or village in contravention of any order under Section 13 commits an offence and shall be punished with imprisonment for a term not exceeding five years or to a fine not exceeding ten thousand ringgit or to both: provided that this subsection shall not apply to the case of a wife harbouring or concealing her husband or a husband harbouring or concealing his wife.

The above sections have been seen as some of the strengths of the Act. For example, under Section 8 (1) of POTA 2015, the POTB is to be set up by the King, and this provision removes the power to detain from one person as was allowed under the ISA. However, a detailed analysis would

indicate that there is not much change in essence for the election of the POTB still depends on advice from the executive i.e. the Prime Minister. Another strength is seen in the existence of Section 25 on Double Penalties, which is very effective as this will instil fear in those who have been

arrested under suspicion for involvement in terrorists activities for he/she shall be liable to imprisonment for a term of twice as long as the maximum term for which he would have been liable on conviction for that offence and also to whipping. Thus, the Act can effectively save lives that could have been lost as a result of the activities of the person charged through these sections (Section 13 (1) and (3) as well as Section 25 of POTA 2015). Further, Section 27 (1) is also commendable as it will instil fear among those who intend to assist a terrorist for he/she can be punished with imprisonment for a term not exceeding five years or to a fine not exceeding ten thousand ringgit or both. It must be noted that although the Act discusses situations where the harbouring is committed between a married couple under this section, it is silent with regards to the parent-children relationship. In addition, it is worthy to bear in mind that despite passing such stringent laws with the intention of deterrence in mind, the effectiveness of the laws is still questionable for history shows that terrorists do not fear punishment or death as a result of strong belief in their ideologies and the conviction of the 'rightness' of their actions. While imposing sanctions, however, it must also be noted that any punishments imposed on terrorists should not be excessive nor should it breach any principles in the rule of law.

Despite the strengths attributed to POTA 2015 by its supporters, it is not free of criticism. The Malaysian Bar has shown discontent with the loosely-defined provisions of POTA 2015, especially the definition given for the term 'terrorism' and other vague provisions as discussed. The Malaysian Bar also asserted that POTA 2015 is a repressive piece of legislation that is an affront to the rule of law and it is repugnant to the principles of natural justice (Thiru, 2015). For example, Thiru cited a scenario where a person can initially be remanded for investigative detention for a maximum of 60 days, with the Magistrate having no discretion to refuse a request by the police for remand, and therefore, reduced to being but a rubber stamp. In addition, he asserted that there is no provision for the person remanded to be informed of the grounds of arrest nor is there any guarantee that legal representation would be permitted. Amnesty International (2015) Malaysia executive director Shamini Darshini has harshly criticised POTA 2015 (and also the recently amended Sedition Act 1948) for its serious violations of human rights. Among some of her criticisms are that the provisions deny a detained person's access to a lawyers and that POTA 2015 allows suspects to be detained for a maximum of 59 days before they are brought to face the POTB, which could further order an extension of the detention up to two years.

Detractors have pointed out that POTA 2015 might be used on political rivals of the ruling government as POTA 2015, although similar to the Security Offences (Special Measures) Act 2012 (SOSMA) before it had stated that "No person shall be arrested

and detained solely for his political belief or political activity," it only refers to parties registered under the Societies Act (Soon, 2015). This is indicated under Section 4 (6) of POTA 2015. According to Spiegel (2012), even this much-applauded provision stating that "No person shall be arrested and detained...solely for his political belief or political activity" is less helpful than it appears due to SOSMA 2012's definition of political activity and belief as opinion or action reflecting the views of a political party that is legally registered under the Societies Act. Spiegel went on to add that the Registrar of Societies, a political appointee, has unassailable power to refuse or delay registration ad infinitum, a power that has been used repeatedly for political ends such as denying registration to a newly formed political party. He concluded that this may make those holding demonstrations for or against certain legislation to be committing a security offence. The researchers are of the opinion that this criticism, although aimed at SOSMA 2012, can be taken to apply to Section 4 (6) of POTA 2015 too.

The Asian Human Rights group stressed that POTA 2015 contains key elements of the now-repealed ISA, including allowing detentions without trial for up to two years with indefinite extensions (Asian Forum for Human Rights and Development, 2015). Even before this Act came into force, Evelyn Balais-Serrano, Executive Director of FORUM-ASIA, claimed that POTA 2015 is a blatant reincarnation of the ISA where it attempts to bring back the most

draconian elements of the ISA that had been heavily abused by successive Barisan Nasional (majority party within the ruling coalition) governments to stifle dissent. She went on to add that the reintroduction of detention without trial through POTA is a clear indication of the government's return to authoritarianism despite its promise of democratic reform (Asian Forum for Human Rights and Development, 2015). Prior to the passing of this Act, she also urged the Upper House to reject POTA and ensure that the bill was not passed as it would have far-reaching and severe consequences on the fundamental rights of all Malaysians (Asian Forum for Human Rights and Development, 2015). Along the same lines, Wong Chen, a member of parliament from Kelana Jaya, said that there are severe restrictions of civil liberties under POTA and it can be seen as a threat to the very fragile fundamental liberties allowed in this country. He had urged the government to at least lengthen the time given to debate the new bill, given its importance. Wong also said that he found little difference between the ISA, a colonialera preventive detention law which the Prime Minister, Najib Razak, had abolished in 2012, and the new bill (cited in Prashanth Parameswaran, 2015).

Using this as a basis, the authors analysed POTA 2015 to identify its seeming weaknesses to evaluate if there is justification to the criticism raised by concerned parties. Table 3 lists some of the sections that can be interpreted as weaknesses of the Act.

Table 3 Weaknesses of POTA 2015

Sections	Content
3. (1)	A police officer may without a warrant arrest any person if he has reason to believe that grounds exist which would justify the holding of an inquiry into the case of that person under this Act.
4. (1)	Whenever any person is taken before a Magistrate under subsection 3(3), the Magistrate shall remand the person in police custody for a period of twenty-one days; or
4. (2)	Any person remanded under paragraph (1)(a) shall, unless sooner released, on or before the expiry of the period for which he is remanded, be taken before a Magistrate shallorder the person to be remanded in custody for a period of thirty-eight days
8. (1)	A Prevention of Terrorism Board is established which shall consist of the following members to be appointed by the Yang di-Pertuan Agong:  (a) a Chairman, who shall be a legally qualified person with at least fifteen years' experience in the legal field;  (b) a Deputy Chairman; and  (c) not less than three and not more than six other members.
8. (5)	The quorum for any sitting of the Board shall be three members.
9. (1)	The Minister may in writing appoint any person by name or office, and either generally or for any particular case, to be an Inquiry Officer for the purposes of this Act.
10. (3)	An Inquiry Officer may, for the purpose of any inquiry under this Act—  (a) procure and receive all such evidence, in any form and whether the evidence be admissible or not under any written law for the time being in force relating to evidence or criminal procedure, which he may think necessary or desirable;  (b) summon and examine witnesses on oath or affirmation, and may for those purposes administer any oath or affirmation;
10. (6)	Neither the person who is the subject of the inquiry nor a witness at an inquiry shall be represented by an advocate and solicitor at the inquiry except when his own evidence is being taken and recorded by the Inquiry Officer.
10. (8)	The Minister may by regulations prescribe the allowances to be paid to witnesses summoned under subsection (3).
12. (1)	An Inquiry Officer shall submit his report in writing to the Board within such period as may be prescribed by the Minister by regulations made under this Act
14.	<ul> <li>(a) that the person to whom it relates— <ul> <li>(i) was immediately before the making of the detention order detained in any place other than a place of detention referred to in subsection 13(2);</li> <li>(ii) continued to be detained immediately after the making of the detention order in the place in which he was detained under Section 3 before his removal to a place of detention referred to in subsection 13(2); or</li> <li>(iii) was during the duration of the detention order on journey in police custody or any other custody to a place of detention referred to in subsection 13(2); or</li> </ul> </li> <li>(b) that the detention order was served on him at any place other than the place of detention referred to in subsection 13(2), or that there was any defect relating to its service upon him.</li> </ul>
19. (1)	There shall be no judicial review in any court of, and no court shall have or exercise any jurisdiction in respect of, any act done or decision made by the Board in the exercise of its discretionary power in accordance with this Act, except in regard to any question on compliance with any procedural requirement in this Act governing such act or decision.

Sections 3 (1), 4 (1), 4 (2) and 19 (1) have been criticised by various groups and as such they will not be discussed for the authors share the same concerns. However, the authors would like to highlight some sections that could lead to ambiguity and subjectivity and be areas of concern. Two crucial sections are 8 (1), 8 (5) and 9 (1). Section 8 (1) stipulates the composition of the POTB. Here, the Act has not given clear details as to the requirement or qualification of those to be elected. It states that only the chairman needs to have 15 years' legal experience. The Act fails to stipulate any such requirement for the Deputy Chairman and the other members of the POTB. The question that begs asking concerns the lack of legal background. How can the members not be required to have a legal background when the nature of the offence is so serious that it allows arrest without warrant and detention without judicial review? Further, if the government wants the Act to be seen as neutral and devoid of political influence, then the power to appoint the Inquiry Officer should not be given to one person as stated by Section 9 (1). It would be better if a committee was set up to appoint a panel of persons who are eligible to act as an Inquiry Officer, from which one is selected when the need arises. Selection power could be vested in the King.

Section 8 (5) is also questionable. The quorum is limited to three members; this is rather a small number of officials. In addition, the presence of the Chairman is not made compulsory; this can be seen as a

flaw as he is the only one who has at least 15 years' legal experience. Without making his attendance compulsory, decisions will end up being made by people without a legal background. Further, Section 10 (3) (a) can be seen to blatantly contradict the rules related to admissibility of evidence in criminal procedures. Section 10 (6) also contravenes the principles of the Rule of Law, especially those of natural justice for it disallows legal representation for the accused as well as the witness. Further, Section 10 (8) allows the Prime Minister to prescribe allowances to be paid to witnesses summoned under Section 10 (3) (b). This section raises some concern for it can be misused as there is no criteria put in place on how such allowances are to be made in terms of amount and who qualifies. Section 12 (1) again reiterates executive intervention by allowing the Minister to determine the period for the submission of the report. Section 14 also leaves room for criticism as it vetoes judicial review even when there is an error in the due process of the detention order. Lawyer Syahredzan Johan voiced his skepticism via Twitter saying, "We are not questioning the need to combat terrorism. But safeguards must be put in place to ensure that the laws enacted are not abused. Ousting jurisdiction of the Courts via ouster section takes away a very important safeguard (cited in Syahir Ashri, 2015). Thus, it can be stated that given the trenchant criticism levelled against it, POTA needs to be amended.

#### **CONCLUSION**

Recent trends in terrorist activities around the world has made it crucial for nations to develop preventive detention measures. However, these measures tend to ride roughshod over constitutional and human rights. The question that needs to be addressed is whether such laws that legalise violation of human rights can be acceptable since they allow serious abrogation of human rights. Thus, as a conclusion, it is advocated that the government take note of the criticism that has been voiced against POTA 2015 for the benefit of the nation. The Human Rights Commission of Malaysia, for instance, conveyed its regret that the Prevention of Terrorism Act 2015 (POTA) was passed by Parliament despite uncertainty in several of its provisions and particularly for its formulation, which was done without consultation with the Commission which, under its founding Act, is mandated, inter alia, "to advise and assist the Government in formulating legislation and administrative directives and procedures and recommend the necessary measures to be taken" with respect to human rights. The Commission believes many provisions within POTA are not in line with international human rights standards (Hasmy Agam, 2015). In addition, the Asian Forum for Human Rights and Development (2015) criticised the Malaysian government for reintroducing detention without trial through the hasty passing of POTA by the Lower House of Parliament on 6 April, 2015 and for proposing amendments to the Sedition Act that were tabled for first reading at Parliament on 7 April, 2015. According to Balais-Serrano (2015), it is crucial for the "international community to recognise that Malaysia is clearly not the moderate and democratic country the government purports itself to be." He added that "the latest developments demonstrate that a fullblown authoritarian state is re-emerging in Malaysia, with deeply entrenched repressive laws and practices and a government that is absolutely intolerant of any form of dissent and criticism." Further, Stephen Thiru (2015) claimed that by introducing POTA, Malaysia has also violated its international commitment to abide by United Nations Security Council Resolution 2178, passed unanimously on 24 September, 2014, which provides that:

[The Security Council reaffirms that] Member States must ensure that any measures taken to counter terrorism comply with all their obligations under international law, in particular international human rights law, international refugee law, and international humanitarian law, [and underscores] that respect for human rights, fundamental freedoms and the rule of law are complementary and mutually reinforcing with effective counterterrorism measures, and are an essential part of a successful counter-terrorism effort and notes the importance of respect for the rule of law so as to effectively prevent and combat terrorism,

and [notes] that failure to comply with these and other international obligations, including those under the Charter of the United Nations, is one of the factors contributing to increased radicalization and fosters a sense of impunity...

However, despite these criticisms, in the new millennium, Malaysia is facing the very real and increasing prospect of regional aggressors, third-rate armies, terrorist groups and even religious cults seeking to wield disproportionate power by acquiring and using weapons of mass destruction (Nagl, 2010). As a result, despite human rights violations, Acts like POTA 2015 are here to stay. This is supported by the Home Minister Dato' Seri Dr Ahmad Zahid Hamidi, who, in debating POTA 2015, asserted that terrorism is a real threat and preventive measures must be carried out (The Khilafah, 2015). However, according to Robertson (2015), prevention of terrorism is important but it needs to happen in line with and not in contradiction of international human rights law. Datuk Saifuddin Abdullah (cited in Syahir Ashri, 2015) believes in a counter-terrorism plan that takes into account democracy, liberty and human rights and already existing entities like the Asean Institute for Peace and Reconciliation (AIPR) and Counter Violent Extremism (CVE). He went on to argue that aligning all of these agencies and groups with a command centre that reports directly to the Prime Minister would be a better alternative that does not infringe on

the rights of citizens.

Political analyst Dr Chandra Muzaffar (citied in Soon, 2015) asserted that the government should focus upon the indoctrination of the young generation with a set of positive beliefs. The role played by ulamas (Muslim scholars) is of utmost importance when it comes to fighting the emergence of militant activity. According to him, tougher laws such as POTA 2015 and other serious punishments will not help very much when it comes to preventing violent extremism. He stated, "Instead of imposing new laws and harsh penalties, it is important for the government to identify the root causes of any terrorism activities in the country which could have been linked to Al- Qaeda and Abu Sayyaf" (cited in Soon, 2015). He also asserted that Malaysia should have laws but it should not depend on the law as the ultimate way to combat extremism but rather, focus should be given to the drivers of such extreme acts while parties concerned should find other effective solutions to combat terrorism. He concluded succinctly that criminals of any type, including terrorists, should be given a fair trial before being detained (Soon, 2015). This view is further supported by Eric Paulsen, Executive Director of Legal Rights Group, Lawyers for Liberty, who warned that while security concerns were legitimate, the approach (enactment of the new Act) was far too heavy-handed. According to Wong Chen, "While the safety and security of Malaysia must be of paramount concern, the answer will not be found in the reintroduction of oppressive and outdated preventive laws like ISA 1960 that provide for wide and arbitrary powers to detain suspects for up to two years, renewable indefinitely, and without recourse to due process and a fair trial" (cited in Prashanth Parameswaran, 2015). Going forward, as political analyst Chandra Muzaffar aptly put, "If the government is serious in fighting the growing threat of terrorism, they should pay more attention to identifying the causes and address them accordingly, not by using force or violence to contain militant activity" (citied in Soon, 2015).

The authors conclude on a note that strict laws are needed to combat the increasing terrorist acts that are real and imminent worldwide. They concede that POTA 2015, despite being enacted to keep Malaysia safe from the threat of terrorism, which would undermine national security, raises grave concern. This is seen from historical evidence starting from the ISA, where the Malaysian Government resorted to the practice of using preventive detention measures to suppress political dissent and human rights activities.

The heated opposition to this Act highlights the need for serious thought and more research before any Acts are passed. Views of interested parties should be taken into consideration prior to the passing of an Act, especially one that seeks to counter terrorism. Representatives from around the world could gather and offer ideas to design an Act that can cater for all countries, bearing in mind that there must be a balance between protecting the security of the nation

against terrorism and upholding human rights at the same time.

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### Re-structuring the Revised Two-Factor Study Process Questionnaire (R-SPQ-2F) in the context of pre-service teachers in Malaysia

Goh, P. S. C.\*, Wong, K. T. and Mahizer, H.

Department of Educational Studies, Faculty of Education and Human Development, Universiti Pendidikan Sultan Idris, 35900 Tanjong Malim, Perak, Malaysia

#### **ABSTRACT**

The Revised Two-Factor Study Process Questionnaire (R-SPQ-2F) is a 20-item questionnaire used to measure higher education students' deep and surface approaches to learning. The purpose of the present study was to validate the Malay language version of the R-SPQ-2F factor structure, based on two data sets of Malaysian pre-service teachers. The methods used were: (a) an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) with an oblique rotation with the first data set (n = 221), and (b) a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) with the second data set (n = 231). The factor analytic results showed a four-factor model of the scale data which supported the scale's original factor structure but marked differences were found in terms of the relationships between items and factors (items had moved to different scales). Based on the EFA, the scales were renamed to better reflect the meaning of each factor, but the two main constructs of deep and surface approach remained the same. In the crossvalidation study, the results of the CFA suggested that out of three structural models, the best fit was achieved by a first-order four-factor model. Explanation of the Malay language R-SPQ-2F re-specified factor structure for Malaysian pre-service teachers are discussed as it is important that researchers do not blindly import measures used in another culture without adaptation. Included are implications for the Malay language R-SPQ-2F.

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E-mail addresses: goh.sc@fppm.upsi.edu.my (Goh, P. S. C.), thomas@fppm.upsi.edu.my (Wong, K. T.), mahizer@fppm.upsi.edu.my (Mahizer, H.) \* Corresponding author *Keywords:* Approaches to learning, deep and surface learning, Malaysian pre-service teachers, Revised Two-Factor Study Process Questionnaire (R-SPQ-2F) cross-validation, teacher education

#### **INTRODUCTION**

In recent years, there has been increased interest in improving teacher education

in Malaysia (The World Bank, 2013). An understanding of pre-service teachers learning processes is deemed important in the context of recent criticism that pre-service Malaysian teachers who have graduated from teacher education institutions are graduating with deficits in how to teach, either due to the teacher education curriculum or learning processes within teacher preparation (World Bank: Worsening Obstacle to Malaysia's high income hopes, 2013). These have made new demands on teacher educators to improve the learning of their pre-service teachers. Learning styles of students have been touted as an important area of investigation into the learning processes used by students in higher education (Abd Rahman & Scaife, 2012). One of the learning styles research that is well documented among higher education students in Malaysia, but less developed in teacher education, is the examination of students' approaches to learning (e.g., Roziana et al., 2011; Chan & Mousley, 2005). In response to the call for an enhanced teacher preparation, teacher educators are also faced with the challenge of measuring the approaches to learning of their pre-service teachers – i.e., whether the approaches to learning practiced by pre-service teachers would enhance their learning.

Martön and Saljo (1976) initiated the first qualitative study into approaches to learning. They examined how learners read academic texts and then they were asked to describe what had been learnt. The interaction of the learners with the

text showed that there were differences in intentions as they approached the reading tasks. The analysis of the study indicated that if the intentions of the learners were to seek out the deeper meaning of the text, then the learning processes would entail them looking for "meaning in the matter being studied" and relate it to "other experiences and ideas with a critical approach" (Duff, 2004, p. 57). Such intentions and processes were termed as deep approach to learning. On the other hand, if the intentions of the learners were to categorise important facts or isolate ideas which were thought to be important to complete the reading exercises and they failed to appreciate the deeper meanings in the text, these learners would most likely be surface approach learners. Such learning patterns would have learners focused on superficial aspects of the text with an over dependence on "rote-learning and memorization in isolation from other ideas" (Duff, 2004, p. 57).

Understanding how students approach their studying is important as approaches to learning have been found to be related to their performance and other educational outcomes (Gijbels, van de Watering, Dochy, & van den Bossche, 2005). For example, students who are deep approach learners tend to be more confident and persistent when difficulties are encountered, have greater resilience in overcoming academic challenges and are more independent in their everyday work. On the other hand, students who are surface learners are less self-reliant or have less capacity to be independent in their learning. Lack of motivation, slow

academic engagement and difficulties in adjusting to the learning context have also been reported with surface approach learners (Biggs, 2001; Case & Gunstone, 2003; Goh, 2008; Gijbels D, van de Watering, Dochy & van den Bossche, 2005). Skills associated with learning such as critical thinking, self-directed learning, adaptability, problem solving and communication are essential to pre-service teachers if they are to become productive members of the teaching profession based on life-long learning that have been shown to require a deep-level approach to learning (Kember & Leung, 2005). The instrument that is widely used to measure deep and surface approaches to learning is the Revised Two-Factor Study Process Questionnaire (R-SPQ-2F) developed by Biggs, Kember, and Leung (2001).

The 20-item R-SPQ-2F has two main scales: deep and surface approaches to learning. The deep approach main scale has deep strategy and deep motive as subscales, while the surface approach has surface strategy and surface motive subscales. The 'strategy' subscale measures the learners' way of learning, while the 'motive' subscale gauges the reasons a particular strategy are used. Students who are motivated with an intrinsic interest or seek to understand the learning task will use strategies such as relating ideas or deep comprehension learning to seek meaning. On the other hand, if students who are motivated to simply pass examinations or have fear of failing and have a desire to work with minimal effort (extrinsic motivation) will adopt strategies such as selective memorisation and have an attitude which is bounded by what is required to learn only (Biggs, 2001). Each subscale has five items with responses ranging from 1 ("Never true or only rarely true of me") to 5 ("Always true or almost always true of me"). Scores are calculated by adding up the items from each subscale and the scores may range from five, as the lowest, to 25 as the highest. Higher scores on a particular approach to learning indicates a higher adoption of that particular approach.

Validation of the R-SPQ-2F was carried out by Biggs, Kember and Leung in 2001. The authors used a group of 495 undergraduate students from a variety of disciplines from a Hong Kong university. Reliability coefficients were considered reasonable for the main scales and its subscales. The two main scales, deep approach had a Cronbach alpha of 0.73, surface approach had a Cronbach alpha of 0.64, while deep motive and deep strategy subscales had Cronbach alpha values of 0.62 and 0.63, respectively. The surface motive subscale had a Cronbach alpha value of 0.72 while the surface strategy subscales had a Cronbach alpha value of 0.57. In the study, Biggs, Kember and Leung (2001) hypothesised that there were two different ways that the instrument could be used. First, their confirmatory factor analysis showed a clear four-construct pattern (four subscales and its corresponding items). Correlations were found between the deep approaches subscales on one hand and between the surface approaches subscales on the other. The second model showed a

clear two main constructs (deep and surface) with the four subscales as indicators. Biggs, Kember and Leung (2001) posited that the R-SPQ-2F had appropriate psychometric qualities to be used as a two-factor form or to have clearly identified strategy and motive subscales. Since then, the R-SPQ-2F has been translated into various languages to be used to investigate the approaches to learning of students in higher education around the world and subject areas. However, there have been criticisms (e.g., Stes, De Maeyer, & van Petegem, 2013; Justicia, Pichardo, Cano, Berbe'n, & De la Fuente, 2008; Fryer, Ginns, Walker, & Nakao, 2011) that the dimensionality of the translated versions did not correspond to that of the original version.

When a Dutch version was administered to 2023 university students from various disciplines and the data submitted to a confirmatory factor analysis, the two-factor form for which Biggs, Kember and Leung (2001) had posited was not found (Stes et al., 2013). Instead the Dutch version was adapted to be suitable to the Dutch learners' context and had items which formed the motive/strategy subscales renamed in the instrument validation process. Similarly, in an empirical study of a Spanish version, which used two data sets of Spanish students, the authors (Justicia et al., 2008) could not differentiate between a motive and a strategy sub-components even though it could provide some empirical support for a two-factor structure. A qualitative study of a Japanese language version (Fryer et al., 2011) found that Japanese students were confused with some of the surface approaches wording and could not respond to the requirement of the items. When the original English version was used with first-year undergraduates in the United States of America, the analysis of the confirmatory factor analysis failed to provide empirical support for a two-factor structure (Immekus & Imbrie, 2010). Immekus and Imbrie (2010) cautioned whether the R-SPQ-2F represented the posited structures when tested with students with dissimilar cultural backgrounds.

Closer to home, Seri Bunian, Goh, Mohd Yusof, and Saemah (2010) tested the two factor model of a Malay language version of the R-SPQ-2F with 160 Malaysian Engineering students at a university in Malaysia. A forced two-factor analysis was conducted through an exploratory factor analysis. This forced two-factor analysis revealed a two-factor structure as hypothesised by Biggs, Kember and Leung (2001). However, it had to have two items deleted. Wan Shahrazad, Wan Rafaei, Mariam Adawiah and Wan Samhanin (2013) conducted a confirmatory factor analysis with 312 Malaysian university students and found that only 14 items within the Malay language version R-SPQ-2F achieved acceptable fit. It appeared that the items in the translated Malay language version were not quite consistent with those found in the original R-SPQ-2F. This article contended that there were some concerns with both the analyses. Seri Bunian et al. (2010) focused on analysing the Malay language R-SPQ-2F structure at the two main-scale level only. An

examination at item-level was not conducted and neither was an analysis carried out separately at the subscale level. On the other hand, Wan Shahrazad et al. (2013) made an assumption to assess the factor structure through a confirmatory factor analysis for measurement models without first testing the translated scales for content validity. The integrity of each item and subscale were assumed to be valid and then going directly to explore first order and second order factor structures. In addition, many of the items were found interweaved within other factors in the validation process. However, instead of re-looking at the reasons the items did not load into the delineated factors, the authors fitted the model to the four subscales but had to delete 14 items.

Since the two investigations made claims to validate a culturally sensitive instrument for use by Malaysian higher education students, it is advisable that an exploratory factor analysis should be carried out first on the translated version. Conducting an exploratory factor analysis first allows the testing of items for internal consistency and content validity. Then, to further test for rigour, a confirmatory factor analysis for measurement model is conducted to allow an assessment of the quality of the factor structure by testing the significance of the overall model (or models), which is not possible by exploratory factor analysis alone (Floyd & Widaman, 1995; Hinkin, 1998; Justicia et al., 2008). Owing to the result contradictions of other translated versions of the R-SPQ-2F and underpinned by the limitations of previous validation process of the Malay language R-SPQ-2F, the purpose of this present study is firstly to analyse the underlying structure of a Malay language R-SPQ-2F with both an exploratory factor analysis and a confirmatory factor analysis on two different data. In addition, pre-service teachers have always been a rather neglected group of higher education students when it comes to their approaches to learning (Goh & Matthews, 2011). Darling-Hammond (2010) has frequently written about the complexity of pre-service teachers' learning processes as they may be influenced by the behaviours of their own teachers who taught them in schools. Researchers tend to have overlooked the learning environment of pre-service teachers which contains learning strategies such as project work and practical school based experiences and differs from the other typical full-time undergraduate university students (Darling-Hammond, 2010). Hence, although the current study sets out to determine if a Malay language R-SPQ-2F has the capacity to measure preservice teachers learning processes (through approaches to learning), it also aims to determine if it needs to be adapted to be sensitive to be used by pre-service teachers in Malaysia.

#### **METHODOLOGY**

#### **Participants**

A total of 452 pre-service teachers from a Malaysian teacher education institution, who were in their second, third and fourth year of studies, participated in the study. The mean age was 21.86 with a standard deviation of 0.60. They were from various subject specialisations, wherein 82.3% of the sample belonged to the Arts and Humanities specialisations (preparing to teach subjects such as History, Geography, and the languages); 3.2% to the Business and Economics specialisations (preparing to teach subjects such as Business studies, Economics and Accounting); and 13.4% to the Science and Technology specialisations (preparing to teach subjects such as Information Technology, Pure and Applied Sciences, and Mathematics). Nonetheless, the specialisation for 0.8% of the respondents was unknown.

#### **Procedure**

As the teacher preparation programmes used the Malay Language in most of their courses, and to control for low English proficiency of the participants, the original English version of the R-SPQ-2F was translated into Bahasa Melayu (Malay language). The translation, interpretation and verification processes, according to Brislin (1980), were carried out by two professional certified translators. The first translator had the R-SPQ-2F into Bahasa Melayu, and then the second translator had it back translated into English for verification. In the translation process, the first author coordinated the process and made minor wording adjustments to the final version so as to make it suitable to the context of Malaysian pre-service teachers. A small qualitative pilot study involving 12 pre-service teachers were given the final translated versions. Spaces

were given in each item for comments. They were requested to complete the survey and also to write down aspects of any words or sentences they felt confusing in the spaces provided. These 12 pre-service teachers did not find any misleading items and were able to understand the meanings of each item. The Bahasa Melayu version of R-SPQ-2F was then administered at the end of the 2014/2015 semester. Data were collected during normal class hours. In certain classes, the lecturer of the class or a research assistant administered the questionnaire. In all circumstances, the participants were briefed on the purpose of the study and the instrument. It was important that they knew that answering the questionnaire was on a voluntary basis and confidentiality of all the information collected was assured.

#### Analysis of data

In a preliminary analysis, the Cronbach's alpha for each scale and subscale was calculated. To conduct both an exploratory factor analysis and a confirmatory factor analysis, the data were randomly divided into two sets. The first set (n = 221) was used to test the factor structure through an exploratory factor analysis. Exploratory factor analysis was used to test the theoretical structure of the Bahasa Melayu R-SPQ-2F and to assure that the items were associated with the respective scales or subscales. Subsequently, the second set of data (n =231) was used to test relevant hypothesised models using a confirmatory factor analysis for measurement models.

#### RESULTS

#### Internal consistency coefficients

Foremost, to ensure that the sample was appropriate for the analysis, two indicators were used. First, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy index was conducted and presented an index of 0.78. The second test, the Bartlett's test of Sphericity, had a significant result of  $x^2 = 935.22$ , p < 0.0001. These two indicators revealed that the sample and correlation

matrix were within an acceptable range for the analysis (Snedecor & Cochran, 1989). Subsequently, the Cronbach's alpha coefficients of the *Bahasa Melayu* version of the R-SPQ-2F were conducted and are shown in Table 1. The internal consistency of the motive and strategy subscales were somewhat lower for surface motive and surface strategy when compared with the reliability coefficients obtained by Biggs, Kember and Leung (2001).

Table 1
Internal consistency coefficients of the Bahasa Melayu R-SPQ-2F (n=452)

Scale	Number of Items	Cronbach's alpha (current study)	Cronbach's alpha (Biggs, Kember & Leung, 2001)
Deep motive	5	0.62	0.62
Deep strategy	5	0.67	0.63
Surface motive	5	0.55	0.72
Surface strategy	5	0.48	0.57
Deep Approach (deep motive+deep strategy)	10	0.80	0.73
Surface Approach (surface motive+surface strategy)	10	0.71	0.64

#### **Exploratory Factor Analysis**

An exploratory factor analysis was applied at the item level to investigate the internal structure of the Bahasa Melayu version with the first set of data (n=221). A principal factor analysis with an oblique rotation, which had been done by Biggs, Kember and Leung (2001), was used to extract factors to facilitate the interpretation of the dimensions obtained. The factor loading criteria for inclusion was set at 0.50.

There were five underlying factors which showed an eigenvalue value of

greater than one and a total variance of 50.98 percent (refer to Table 2). According to Gorsuch (1983), if the extracted variance contributes 40 to 50%, then "they are of definite interest" (p. 253). All items were loaded on one factor, except for item 4 ("I only study seriously what's given out in class or in the course outlines") which did not load on any factors. However, from the five factors, only four were detained as the final factors not detained had an eigenvalue of 1.1 but Cronbach's alpha of only 0.19 (refer to Table 2) which was deemed too

unreliable, and thus, item 2 ("I find that I have to do enough work on a topic so that I can form my own conclusions before I am

satisfied") and item 3 ("My aim is to pass the course while doing as little work as possible") were deleted.

Table 2
Exploratory factor analysis and Cronbach Alpha value of the 20-item Bahasa Melayu R-SPQ-2F

		Factors				
Items	1	2	3	4	5	— Alpha
DS18	.75					0.75
DS6	.67					
DS14	.66					
DM13	.65					
DM17	.59					
DM5	.54					
SM15		.64				0.66
SS12		.62				
SM19		.61				
SS16		.60				
SM7		.60				
DM9			.74			0.64
DS10			.71			
DM1			.50			
SM11				.77		0.54
SS8				.72		
SS20				.56		
DS2					.69	0.19
SM3					.58	
Eigenvalue	3.95	2.61	1.31	1.21	1.10	
Percentage explained	19.74	13.06	6.56	6.04	5.58	
Cumulative percentage explained variance	19.74	32.80	39.36	45.40	50.98	

Note: DM (deep motive), DS (deep strategy), SM (surface motive), SS (surface strategy)

In the development of the R-SPQ-2F, Biggs, Kember and Leung (2001) proposed a motive/strategy model of learning and noted that each motive/strategy combined together to define a distinct approach to learning. Examination of the factor analytic results showed the relationships

between motive and strategy items, but not the posited constituent four-factor structure (motive/strategy subscales). A clear motive/strategy factors could not be labelled from the present data. Items had moved to a different scale. Differences were found in terms of the relationships between items and factors compared to the study reported by Biggs, Kember and Leung (2001). Nevertheless, an examination of the structure matrix (refer to Table 3) revealed that although items had moved to different scales, Factor 1 and Factor 4 were still interpretable to correspond to a deep approach to learning, while Factor 2 and Factor 3 still supported a surface approach construct. As shown in Table 3, Factor 1 and Factor 4 were correlated (r = 0.55, p<0.01), as were Factor 2 and Factor 3 (r = 0.36, p<0.01).

Table 3
Interfactor correlation matrix of the renamed Bahasa Melayu R-SPQ-2F

	1	2	3	4
Learning with Interest	1.00			
Learning with Minimal Effort	0.11	1.00		
Learning with Satisfaction	0.55**	0.09	1.00	
Learning through Memorizing	0.06	0.36**	0.03	1.00
** p < 0.01				

On the basis of these findings, it is suggested that the items should be adapted to make them meaningful to the Malaysian pre-service teacher respondents. Hence, the new scales were renamed as Factor 1 (6 items) 'Learning with Interest'; Factor 2 (5 items) as 'Learning with Minimal Effort'; Factor 3 (3 items) as 'Learning with Satisfaction' and Factor 4 (3 items) as 'Learning through Memorising'. The internal consistency estimates for the Deep Approach scale (Cronbach alpha = 0.80) and

Surface Approach scale (Cronbach alpha = 0.70), shown in Table 4, were aligned, if not higher, with those reported by Biggs, Kember and Leung (2001). The four new subscale score alpha ranged from 0.54 to 0.75 with a median of 0.65, which exceeded the threshold of 0.60 set by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994) as being acceptable reliability for research purposes. In addition, Schmitt (1996) proposed that the use of any cut-off value (including 0.70) is shortsighted and argued that an alpha value of 0.50 would not attenuate validity coefficients.

Table 4
Scale and subscale reliabilities of the re-structured Bahasa Melayu R-SPQ-2F

Scale	Number of items	Cronbach's alpha
Learning with Interest (LInt)	6	0.75
Learning with Minimal Effort (LMinEFF)	5	0.66
Learning with Satisfaction (LSatis)	3	0.64
Learning through Memorizing (LMem)	3	0.54
Deep Approach (LInt + LSatis)	9	0.80
Surface Approach (LMinEFF + LMem)	8	0.70

#### **Confirmatory Factor Analysis**

The testing of the model using a confirmatory factor analysis for the Bahasa Melayu R-SPQ-2F was based on the current exploratory factor analysis result and guided by insights into approach to learning presented by Biggs (1987) and Biggs, Kember and Leung (2001). In a confirmatory factor analysis, goodness-of-fit indices were used for analysis derived from maximumlikelihood and also to reduce sensitivity to distribution (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). They include the goodness-of-fit index (GFI), adjusted goodness-of-fit (AGFI), comparative fit index (CFI), standardised root mean square residual (SRMR) and Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA). The GFI, AGFI and CFI values, equal to or greater than 0.90, and SRMR and RMSEA values equal to or smaller than 0.05 were indicators of a good model fit in a confirmatory factor analysis (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004).

The hypothesised first-order four-factor model with 17 items, similar to the model suggested in Biggs, Kember and Leung (2001), was subsequently fitted to data from the second set of sample (n=231). The model contained the four factors as

its latent variable (Learning with Interest, Learning with Minimal Effort, Learning with Satisfaction and Learning through Memorising) and each factor corresponded to the indicators (items) extracted by the exploratory factor analysis. The model, named Model A, showed reasonable fit (refer to Table 5),  $x^2 = 127.7$ , df = 84, GFI = 0.93, AGFI = 0.91, CFI = 0.93, SRMR = 0.05, RMSEA = 0.05.

Subsequently, Model B, a simple two correlated factors model, which is also similar to the model posited in Biggs, Kember and Leung (2001), was fitted to the data. The first latent variable contained the items from Learning with Interest and Learning with Satisfaction as indicators, while the other contained the items from Learning with Minimal Effort and Learning through Memorising as the indicators. Model B did not quite show adequate model fit,  $x^2 = 212.3$ , df = 118, GFI = 0.90, AGFI = 0.88, CFI = 0.87, SRMR = 0.06, RMSEA = 0.06.

To test whether the deep and surface constructs were needed, a hierarchical second-order (latent variables of Deep and Surface), four-factor model was again fitted to the sample. Model C almost replicated

Table 5 Goodness-of-fit of the Bahasa Melayu R-SPQ-2F

Model	$x^2$	df	GFI	AGFI	CFI	SRMR	RMSEA
Model A	127.7	84	0.93	0.91	0.93	0.05	0.05
Model B	212.3	118	0.90	0.88	0.87	0.06	0.06
Model C	191.0	84	0.95	0.92	0.91	0.06	0.05

*Note:* GFI, goodness-of-fit index; AGFI, adjusted goodness-of-fit; CFI, comparative fit index; SRMR, standardised root mean square residual; RMSEA, root mean square error of approximation

the fit data in similar ways as Model A,  $x^2 = 191.02$ , df = 84, GFI = 0.95, AGFI = 0.92, CFI = 0.91, SRMR = 0.06, RMSEA = 0.05. The difference between Model A and Model C was that Model A had a lower standardised root mean square residual (SRMR) and the  $x^2$  difference between the two models was statistically significant at 63.32, p < 0.05, indicating that Model A fitted the data slightly better.

#### DISCUSSION

As mentioned earlier in the paper, previous researchers have extensively tested various translated versions of the R-SPQ-Q and also alerted some concerns about non-loading and cross-loading of some of the items. Similarly, previous studies to validate a Malay language R-SPQ-2F revealed some unsatisfactory results, partly due to some questionable decisions in conducting the various factor analyses. The Bahasa Melayu translation of the R-SPQ-2F, to the best knowledge of the authors, has never been tested in the Malaysian preservice teachers' context, and given that response-context "... is an important point to be borne in mind when using the questionnaire" (Stes et al., 2013, p. 5), this study focused on analysing the underlying structure of the Bahasa Melayu R-SPQ-2F by using both an exploratory factor analysis and a confirmatory factor analysis for measurement models on two different sets of pre-service teacher data. The first step was to measure the internal consistencies of the Bahasa Melayu R-SPQ-2F through the alpha reliability coefficients (n=452) so as to determine if the scales within the R-SPQ-2F were representatives of the constructs suggested by Biggs, Kember and Leung (2001). The pre-service teachers' perceptions of their approaches to learning and the variation in their responses to the R-SPQ-2F items were then captured through a common factor model using the first data set (*n*=221). Finally, goodness-of-fit for confirmatory factor analysis for measurements models for the *Bahasa Melayu* R-SPQ-2F, which reflected the final exploratory factor analysis results, were constructed and analysed using the second data set (*n*=231).

Coefficient alphas of the scales with the original R-SPQ-2F were generally acceptable as reported by Biggs, Kember and Leung (2001). However, the study was done in Hong Kong and with undergraduate Chinese students. This original finding of the present study used the Bahasa Melayu version of the R-SPQ-2F in the context of pre-service teachers in Malaysia, and thus deemed an important contribution to the R-SPQ-2F literature. Although the coefficient alphas of the Bahasa Melayu R-SPQ-2F had satisfactory alphas for subscales of the deep approach to learning (motive/strategy subscales), it was somewhat flawed for the subscales of the surface approach to learning which had lower alphas compared to the original version. It indicated that, in some probability, the transferability of the Bahasa Melayu R-SPQ-2F could be compromised, and moreover, some of the constructs were not valid in a different response context, specifically the preservice teachers' learning environment in Malaysia. The lower alphas required a need to admit some changes in the structure to best capture the variations as hypothesised by the constructs.

The integrity of the Bahasa Melayu R-SPQ-2F underwent an exploratory factor analysis. It used a principal factor analysis with an oblique rotation, using an eigenvalue greater than one rule to determine the number of domains to be extracted. The Bahasa Melayu R-SPQ-2F did not provide evidence to support the clear differentiation between the motive and strategy components as posited by Biggs, Kember and Leung (2001) (that is, there were no clear factor patterns on the intended subscales), instead there were conceptual overlap between the motive and strategy components which made up the four new factors (refer to Table 4) at least for this particular group of preservice teachers. Although the items in the current study did not fall onto the scales they were theorised to load, as posited by Biggs Kember and Leung (2001), the four new re-structured factors in this study could still explain the motive/strategy intent of the original instrument. The re-structured subscale, Learning with interest showed that those pre-service teachers, who were motivated to work hard because they have interest (deep motive) in their learning, used strategies (deep strategies) such as "looking at most of the suggested readings", "spend extra time trying to obtain more information" or "finding out more about interesting topics which have been discussed in different classes". However, Learning

with Minimal Effort indicated that if the preservice teachers perceived that the learning did not arouse interest (surface motive), but probably still did not want to get into trouble for not studying, then their strategy (surface strategy) was to spend as little time as possible in their studies as in the statement "restrict my study to what is specifically set". This was hardly surprising as in any classroom situation, students would exhibit differences in their level of interest in the class topics and task. For those students who learned from interest would tend to devote more attention and effort to the academic task and for those who lacked interests would not expand additional energy towards their learning task. Such a phenomenon is not surprising since interest is an aspect of intrinsic motivation, that is, students seem to have energy or drive that come from within (Biggs, 1987; Ramdsen, 2003; Hidi & Renninger, 2006). The subscale Learning with Satisfaction implied that pre-service teachers who derived satisfaction (for example: "I find that at times studying gives me a feeling of deep personal satisfaction") from their learning (deep motive) were those who would use strategy (deep strategy) that could enable them to fully understand their academic topics such as the statement "I test myself on important topic until I understand them completely". In contrast, the subscale Learning through Memorising have revealed that those pre-service teachers who wanted to "get-by" or "pass examinations" (surface motive) would use memorisation as their strategy (surface strategy). Satisfaction is an intrinsic motivation that is able to drive students' commitment and the use of beneficial strategies towards their learning and the inverse is true, that is, the lack of it can undermine their enthusiasm for their studies (Biggs, 1987; Chiou & Liang, 2012; Ramdsen, 2003).

The correlations of the factor structure of the new factors were examined and importantly, found strong correlations between Learning with Interest and Learning with Satisfaction; and that Learning with Minimal Effort strongly correlated with Learning through Memorising (refer to Table 3). The items of 'Learning with Interest' and 'Learning with Satisfaction' were observed to belong to a deep approach learning, while the 'Learning with Minimal Effort' and 'Learning through Memorising' both contained items subsumed under the surface approach construct. However, item 2 ("I find that I have to do enough work on a topic so that I can form my own conclusions before I am satisfied") and item 3 ("My aim is to pass the course while doing as little work as possible") were deleted after the exploratory analysis phase as they had low reliability and seemed difficult to interpret as a factor. It would seem that some interweaving of understanding and learning with minimal effort is possible in this case and will require further investigation. In the case of item 4 ("I only study seriously what's given out in class or in the course outlines"), pre-service teachers might have interpreted it to mean that only important materials distributed by their lecturers were to be studied for examination. These could be due to the fact that students in Malaysia have been accustomed to a 'spoon feeding' type of teaching that embraced photocopying notes for students and a drill and practice approach for examination (Raja Musa & Nik Yusoff, 2000; "UPSR and PMR may be abolished", 2010; Goh, 2012).

The reliabilities for each of the new subscales and the overall deep and surface scales produced acceptable levels of reliability. The reliability of the overall approaches to learning scale was equivalent to the reliability shown in the study using the original R-SPQ-2F by Biggs, Kember and Leung (2001). A confirmatory factor analysis for measurement models was finally used to formally compare model-data fit between three models (refer to Table 5). The model parameter matrices generally supported the scales' re-structured factor structure as either a first-order four factor form (the four new subscales expressed as latent constructs with their corresponding items as indicators) or a higher order two factor model (the four new subscales as indicators of the two learning approaches). The present findings somewhat corroborated some previous studies of the translated version which supported either the fourfactor model (Stes et al., 2013; Immekus & Imbrie, 2010) or a second order factor model (Justica et al., 2008).

#### **CONCLUSION**

Whilst more works need to be carried out to further confirm the psychometric properties of the re-structured *Bahasa Melayu* R-SPQ-2F, the instrument has demonstrated that it is still a useful means of evaluating pre-

service teachers' approaches to learning. However, the next important question for teacher educators or pre-serivce teachers is 'how to use this instrument?' Some of the uses have already been discussed in the literature on studies involving approaches to learning, however, the use for teacher education and pre-service teachers may vary slightly. From the point of view of pre-service teachers themselves, the Bahasa Melayu R-SPQ-2F can be used to self-evaluate their own approaches to learning. The instrument provides an avenue for them to self-reflect upon their effort towards developing their learning so as to be congruent with their course expectations and learning environment. Pre-service teachers, who possess deep approaches to learning, will also have a strong sense of teaching self-efficacy and will perceive that all pupils are teachable leading to the application of adaptive problem-solving strategies and high academic achievement (Chiou & Liang, 2012; Gordon, Simpson & Debus, 2001; Mahinay, 2014). Therefore, it would be in the interest of teacher educators to use the instrument to examine the quality of their pre-service teachers' approaches to learning and make necessary changes to the learning environment (for example, aligning teaching curriculum, teaching strategies and assessment strategies) to encourage deep approaches to learning. In addition, teacher educators can also use the instrument to raise awareness among their pre-service teachers of appropriate approaches to learning and examine the impact of their training during their internship experiences

in schools. On the part of educational administrators, the instrument can be used to gauge the successes (or otherwise) of educational policies and innovations in teaching environment related to pre-service teachers' approaches to learning.

All the pre-service teachers in this study came from one teacher education university, and were non-randomly chosen as the first-year candidates were not included. In addition, the extent to which this group of pre-service teachers differs from other pre-service teachers from other institutions limits the generalisability of the results. For these reasons, the usual limitations about generalising to other groups of preservice teachers or to other higher education students need caution. Nevertheless, establishing the validity of this translated version is important especially in the recent climate of criticism that student teachers' learning have deteriorated and teacher education have been questioned about its teacher preparation program. Therefore, the translated version is essential for future applications by teacher educators who hope to improve teacher education and pre-service teacher learning in Malaysia. In addition, the validation conducted in the present study can be used for comparison with earlier research and for future use by higher education institutions.

Although the initial qualitative pilot study did not indicate any confusion in the items among the pre-service teachers, the need to re-structure the *Bahasa Melayu* R-SPQ-2F indicated that the learning processes of pre-service teachers in

Malaysia might be constituted differently to that of Hong Kong undergraduate students. Nevertheless, the re-structuring exercise showed improvement in the approaches to learning scales. Therefore, while broadly supporting the *Bahasa Melayu* R-SPQ-2F instrument in informing the quality of learning processes among pre-service teahers, the findings do suggest the need for further development of the instrument for use, particularly in the pre-service teacher context.

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## Russian Writers with Bimental Thinking and the Formation of Readers' Multicultural Competence

Orazbayeva, N.\* and Nurgali, K.

Department of Russian Philology, L.N. Gumilyov Eurasian National University, Astana 010000, Kazakhstan

#### **ABSTRACT**

Literature, as a reflection of the writer's private and stereotyped representations about different cultures, influences readers' worldview. Authors with bimental thinking model in their oeuvre of situations based on a multicultural behaviour or perception. The objective of this paper is to analyse the personality of bimental writers and features of their poetics, to determine conditions under which the works of an author generate multicultural competence among readers and to build a technique of studying literature within multicultural education. The social and political situation in the country of residence, as well as biographical facts, directly affects an author's bimental thinking. The author is able to identify a lyrical character with members of other ethnic groups, as he or she is familiar with situations involving customs, traditions and other languages. The readers choose the literature based on these criteria and which can in turn influence their perception of other cultures contributing to multicultural education.

Keywords: Bimental thinking, multicultural competence, national identity, Russian literature

#### INTRODUCTION

An author's bimental thinking occurs when he or she has been immersed in a second culture and reflects regularly the elements of this culture in his or her oeuvre. In

theory and teaching methodology. This term refers to an approach that analyses the character traits, behavioural reactions, principles of training and education of the individual, which combine two mentalities in his or her mind. Mukhametshina and Galimullina (2014) consider 'bimentality' to be the 'organic transition from bilingual and bicultural competence to bimental

self-consciousness, particularities of which

recent years, the term 'bimentality' has been used in political science, sociology,

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E-mail addresses:
narkes\_orazbaeva@mail.ru (Orazbayeva, N.),
Nurgali\_KR@enu.kz (Nurgali, K)
\* Corresponding author

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can be determined by ethnic, confessional and historical determinants'. The bimental thinking of a writer must find its bright and creative expression semantically, as well as artistically and linguistically. Based on the identification and analysis of works of bimental writers, the inclusion of the term with all its related features in the analysis of fiction literature and development of a systematic approach can help to justify artistic features that contribute to the objective representation of another culture.

The bimental consciousness of a writer is the synthesis of two cultures, languages and show examples of multicultural behaviour or the tendency for it. This demonstrates the identification process of an author and the writing's lyrical character with other ethnic groups. The effort of teachers to implement multicultural education and to promote the understanding of a text by students or readers of varying degrees of competence is facilitated by literary writings.

The objective of this paper is, first of all, to justify the choice of a material that can be demonstrated to be an example of multiculturalism. The second objective is to determine the conditions under which the work of chosen Russian writers is able to develop a multicultural perspective among readers. This is achieved based on the analysis of the bimental author's identity and by highlighting features of his or her poetics. Third, the prospects of practical application of the obtained results in pedagogics are reviewed. From these, we develop a method for selecting relevant literature to impart multicultural knowledge.

## THEORETICAL BACKGROUND AND STATEMENTS

For a proper analysis of the chosen material, the theoretical foundations needs to be defined. First of all, we analyse the works used in forming readers' multicultural competence. Then we justify the use of the term 'bimentality' in literary studies, as well as the conditions for bimental thinking. Finally, based on the theoretical foundations, we identify the basic research methods and criteria according to which one can choose books that maximise one's understanding of a target culture.

## Role of literature in developing multicultural competence

Martin and Vaughn (2007) identify several steps for an individual to achieve multicultural competence. One of it is cross-cultural skills that represent not only the knowledge of another culture, but also to identify with other people and the ability to understand world perception of another culture. This is best described by Byram (1997). According to him, intercultural communicative competence includes the knowledge that develops the skills of interpretation, the ability to form relationships, develop interaction skills and discover new ideas and ways of being. A combination of these will lead to a positive attitude towards other cultures by creating awareness and acceptance of other cultures to result in better communication between them.

Literature is a way of developing multicultural competence and is considered in pedagogics, theory and methodology of training and education, where art is defined as 'a means of communication between generations, between nations, between people of different cultures'. So, the main function of art, in addition to educational or aesthetic influence on the person, is the possibility of a dialogue of cultures' (Fioktistova, 2012).

Researchers emphasise the use of additional structured methods in teaching literature in multicultural society. Funke (1989) considers the relations between the writer, the text he or she writes, and the real world, as vital in understanding another culture.

To a large extent, this topic raises the question of identity. According to Gómez Rodríguez (2013), the author of an article entitled 'Enhancing intercultural competence through U.S. multicultural literature in the EFL classroom', the 'individual of a cultural community needs to be willing to analyse their own meanings from the viewpoint of others in order to engage in cross-cultural communication'. With the acquisition of these three aspects, as proposed by Byram, individuals not only prepare to deal with other ethnic groups, but become more critical in their understanding of why differences between cultures exist. As Gómez Rodríguez explains when referring to Byram, through the process of developing critical understanding, a participant of intercultural communication acquires a

'rational and explicit standpoint from which to evaluate' (Gómez Rodríguez, 2013).

Attempts at getting to know another culture therefore lead to self-recognition and self-identification because the knowledge of features, specific to another culture, requires comparing them with one's own culture. This psychological aspect is used as a conceptual starting point for many works, researching the teaching of literature and its connection with intercultural communication. Matos (2011) writes about establishing 'a parallel between interculturality and the interaction of a reader with the literary text because understanding a foreign culture requires a continual negotiation of meaning and the ability to put the foreign culture in relation with one's own' (Matos, 2011).

Golikova et al. (2016), referring to Mukhametshina (2006), discuss teaching literature in a multi-ethnic environment and claim that 'the comprehension of the artistic content accompanies the "mental community" of the reader and the author'. Referring to bilingual students, the authors note how students' self-understanding can emerge through literature classes that incorporate dialogue between the cultures. This helps 'to see the common things in both literatures, and to realize the national identity of each of them, allows to overcome the defects of the traditional literary education of students in the bilingual education associated with a low level of awareness of their native literature and culture' (Golikova et al., 2016).

# Justification of the term 'bimentality' in literary criticism and criteria of the formation of writers' bimental consciousness

Much of our work is based on the analysis of the works of Russian writers who were born or raised in Kazakhstan. By the beginning of the 20th century, this social and historical background led to the arrival of a number of writers prone to binary perception of the world because a permanent cultural dialogue facilitates the natural combination of the two mentalities. Mukhametshina and Galimullina (2014), who wrote on the theory and methodology of training and education, argue that 'bimental personality is inculcated through the dialogue of cultures' and influences the degree of self-identification with a particular culture.

The academicians of Kazan Federal University, developing the idea of bimentality in the theory and methodology of training and education, study the 'organic transition from bilingual and bicultural competence to bimental self-consciousness, particularities of which can be determined by ethnic, confessional and historical determinants' (Mukhametshina & Galimullina, 2014)". According to political analyst Vydrin (2014), bimental people may often be 'dampers and intermediaries between submental zones'. Thus, bimentality is the highest level of perception of two cultures. At the same time, bilingualism can be a factor that may accelerate the transition to bimentality, but it is not necessary for its occurrence.

In literary studies, the term 'bimentality' is defined as the ability of a writer to fully

perceive the features of two cultures, reflect this perception throughout his/her entire career and create situations in his or her works, demonstrating examples of a multicultural perception. These are discussed in the selected literature and methods of teaching literature, but the use of a specific term, in our view, can help to systematise the features of such authors' poetics and prospects of teaching, which is what we will attempt to prove in this research.

Thus, this research focused on the literature at the junction of Russia and Kazakhstan, which is characterized by a permanent blending of two different cultures (Turkic and Slavic, European and Asian, Eastern and Western). In the works of one author, it is easier to identify the system of images that influenced the work on both sides. Therefore, dual consciousness that constitute bimentality can be clearly demonstrated. According to Madanova (2003, p. 23), 'the emergence of cultural and historical West-East antithesis is due primarily to the need for self-identification and self-determination through the attitude to other holistic value'. Speaking further on the Eastern and Western cultures, it should be pointed out that depending on the context, the understanding of 'borders' between East and West will be formed either on a geographical basis or on the basis of a set of certain cultural specificities that are traditionally associated with the East or West.

By bringing this problem to the level of the relationship with other ethnic groups, we will find examples among the works of poets and writers that will allow us to characterise their world perception as a bimental perspective. We analyse the works of certain Russian emigrant poets and writers, but not others for two reasons. First, the portrayal of culture, people or natural landscape of another cultural space may be called a theme or a constant motif rather than the world perception of bimental thinking. Second, in case of forced relocation to another country due to social and political reasons, a foreign culture is often not fully accepted. The feeling of 'homesickness' imposes certain constraints on a writer's works and in most cases, excludes the positive process of identification with other people, which adversely affects the 'honesty' and objectivity of the literary text.

Works of Russian émigré demonstrate the difference of perception about cultures, in a natural versus forced way. Social and political settings in a society, which form the identity of an author, represent **the first factor** that determines the author's dual consciousness (Orazbayeva, 2016).

It should be noted here that when choosing materials, we relied on the fact that the author's childhood experiences are effectively reflected on his or her biography, as well as artistically – in an autobiography and writings, which contain the author's digressions or where the character of a lyrical hero is close to the author's reality. An in-depth discussion of the selected material is important and allows us to discover the environment in which a writer spent his or her childhood. The factors affecting an

author's child perception (place of birth, ethnic and linguistic environment, duration of stay in another cultural setting) clearly contribute to the development of a bimental personality and represent **the second factor** of its formation (Orazbayeva, 2016).

With the combination of these factors, the inclusion of the other culture's components in the artistic world of an author manifests throughout his or her career. That is why these factors are also the criteria for the selection by an author of the relevant literature in teaching courses related to intercultural communication or taught in a multicultural environment, generally aimed at the development of students' crosscultural skills.

#### METHODOLOGY

The solution of assigned tasks involves the use of methods of literary studies and teaching literature. Literary analysis includes the following: a method of holistic analysis of literary texts, a comparative method using an intertextual analysis and a contextual and hermeneutic method.

The contextual and hermeneutic method consists of searching for hidden historical and literary dialogues caused by 'a single spiritual and cultural continuum of artistic consciousness of the era where writers communicate' (Zamanskaya, 2002). The contextual and hermeneutic method provides an interpretation of any literary fact or event in the system of contexts, which, according to their nature, include a literary work in the maximum possible number of cultural, philosophical and

ethnographical issues. Consequently, the resolution of these issues is broader than in the analysis of similar texts using the comparative-historical method. According to Zamanskaya (2002), the most important task of this method is a 'reconstruction of a single continental cultural space of one era that reveals the specificity and dynamics of artistic consciousness of a national culture in the context of European and world culture'.

This approach is relevant for our study because it examines the cultural and sociological environment that combines the conditions of formation of a particular author at a particular historical moment. Thus, we are able to interpret the literary work by means of literary analysis in the light of different issues. In that way, the consideration of the history of the relations between different national literary works in a variety of contexts leads to an integral character.

A detailed description of methodology, promoting teaching literature in multicultural classes, is provided in the section "Teaching prospects".

## FEATURES OF POETRY OF WRITERS WITH BIMENTAL THINKING

In light of a writer's biography and the criteria above, it is clear the artistic style of such authors is characterised by a set of features as follows:

(1) A considerable degree of identifying themselves and their lyrical characters with another culture that affects the general attitude towards intercultural communication.

- themes of works and system of images.
- (2) Bimental thinking combines realities of different cultures, uses words, phrases and comparisons, typical for the "secondary" language.
- (3) The denial of spatial and temporal boundaries often finds its artistic reflection, because, for the consciousness, open at least for the two cultures, all boundaries are conventional and affect the perception of the world as a whole.

## Bimental world perception of Russian authors raised in Kazakhstan

There is a relationship between Kazakh and Russian nations, a common historical past and a rich cultural heritage that predetermines binary perception of the world by Russian poets who grew up in Kazakhstan. Two Russian poets of the 20th century, Leonid Martynov and Pavel Vasiliev, represent objective and multifaceted images of Kazakhstan, which is illustrated in their biographies. Pavel Vasiliev (1910-1937) was born and grew up in Kazakhstan; Leonid Martynov (1905-1980) was born in Omsk, a city at the boundary of two countries, and his childhood was spent in the Kazakh steppes. Kazakhstan was a multinational and multilingual country during that period. Therefore, their worldview, demonstrated in their in art, reflects bimental consciousness. We will also provide an analysis of Olzhas Suleimenov's oeuvre, who is a Russian speaking Kazakh poet, to highlight the contrast.

The distinctive feature of Leonid Martynov and Pavel Vasiliev's works lies in the fact that the interest in another country, Kazakhstan, has fully shaped the consciousness of the poets, marked by a particular perception of the world and displayed in their poetry. The authenticity of this interest shows not only the artistic and multifaceted description of Kazakhstan, but also the desire to learn and understand the customs and traditions of the Kazakh people, their everyday life, to use Kazakh words and elements of traditional Kazakh genres in literary works to make a story more vibrant and credible.

As we have already pointed out, child perception, subsequently recast in poetic works, is of particular importance in shaping the authors' bimental thinking. This is particularly captured in the legends of Leonid Martynov's family described in the autobiographical novel Air frigates. His grandfather, a pedlar, used to travel across the Kazakh steppes and sell books that eventually gave birth to a poem titled Seeker of Paradise. The life of the poet's maternal grandfather, a military engineer who used to work in Vernyi (now Almaty) and who collected water in the desert for the locals, inspired the poem Story of a Russian engineer. Family traditions enriched the creative material of the poet, which he used as an example of cross-cultural interaction, of the recognition and acceptance of other people.

Details of Leonid Martynov's work, referring readers to the characteristics of the Kazakh people, are important for intercultural skills. For example, describing an encounter with the Kazakhs in the steppe, Leonid Martynov says: 'After the formal mutual salutation: "Are your cattle and yourself in good health?" – "Thank you! Thank you! Are your cattle and yourself in good health?" – the guests having come down from their horses, agreed to participate in the tea party' (Martynov, 1977, p. 319). The lines introduce the traditional greeting, bata, common to Turkic people in general, and continues to be used in solemn welcoming ceremonies.

There is a similar passage in Pavel Vasiliev's work. The use of Kazakh words and realities specific to the Kazakh culture follows the traditional genre of Kazakh folklore and used in the Russian text. For example, Ulkun-louse (Cheerful drinking song) is included in the cycle Songs of the Kirghiz Cossacks, which is a collection arising from the mixing of elements of Kazakh folklore with Pavel Vasiliev's original poetry. The song, as in the example above, begins with bata: 'Let the host have many sons // And have even more guests // And have even more camels // Than guests and sons combined' (Vasiliev, 2011, p. 6). This introduction shows that the poet was familiar not only with bata, but also with the traditional construction of Kazakh folk songs, which akyn, an improvising poet and singer in the Kazakh culture, often used to begin with wishes to welcome listeners.

These poets' biographical facts raise the question of self-identity. History determined the absence of abrupt changes in the transition from one culture to another. Thus, in our case, the question is contained in the degree of self-identification with a particular culture. Also, the question of self-identity receives an interesting solution in the perception of spatial and temporal borders. According to Georgiou (2010), space is 'a central category in relation to identity and representation in the context of diaspora, migration', and Martynov's representations of borders' conventionality fully comply not only with the nature of a lyrical character, but also with the author's personal self-determination.

In the autobiographical story Aksakal from Kokchetau, Leonid Martynov, who supported the idea of conventionality of borders between Asia and Europe and nations' kinship, wrote: 'I did not become an aksakal, mainly just because I shave with an electric razor...' (Martynov, 1977, p. 251). The poet sees himself as a Kazakh aksakal and mentions the literal meaning of the Turkic word 'aksakal' translated as 'white beard' that he shaves off, leaving 'for himself' all of the other meanings of the word (old and wise man in the Central Asian and Caucasian communities).

## The features of poetry of Russian émigré authors

First of all, it should be said that the criterion that determined our choice of emigrant poets for this research was their belonging from birth to at least two cultural communities that can foster bimental consciousness. Thus, we wanted to show the difference between the natural perception of different

cultures and perception in emigration, which was forced for many Russian writers in the first half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century. This can be shown most clearly using the example of works written in different periods of time by the same authors with a disposition to bimentality. This emerged out of living as an émigré that prevents the author from perceiving the world objectively.

Dovid Knut (1900-1955) was born in a Bessarabian town not far from Kishinev (Moldova), on a land, which from ancient times had been home to representatives of numerous nations. With the first wave of Russian writers' emigration, he settled in France. The question of self-identification in his oeuvre is solved in his poem My millennia (Shrayer, 2007), where his lyrical character clearly identifies his attitude to the motherland and shows his openness to different cultures caused by living on the territory of Bessarabia, a place of constant intercultural communication:

I

Dovid-Ari ben Meir,

Son-of-Meir-Enlightener-of-Darkness,

Born by the foothills of Ivanos, <...>
I see it all:

The deserts of Canaan,

The sands and date trees of parched Palestine,

The guttural moan of Arab camel trains, The cedars of Lebanon, and bored ancient walls

Of my Holy Yerushalaim.

The author associates his lyrical character with himself as much as possible and says that the main feature of his motherland is its multi-ethnicity, which is the root cause of his disposition toward multicultural perception.

We can see complex perception of the outland caused by forced displacement and in the rejection of emigration in those poems that are reflected in the lines about Paris: 'Ah! I would not like to rot in this fog of Paris now' (Livak and Ustinov, 2014, p. 578), 'My Careless Lamplighter, // Why have you lit me up? // And put me open wide // In the wind of four roads?' (Livak and Ustinov, 2014, p. 679).

Another Russian poet who emigrated to France, Georgy Evangulov (1894-1967), had a dual perception of the world because he was born in Georgia and had sustained interactions with Russian culture. Georgy Evangulov naturally combined his Georgian origin and culture with Russian culture, the language of which he used, but rejected emigration and opposed its influence. To him, Paris was associated not with the homeland, but with escape and forced relocation; but on the other hand, it was a symbol of freedom and hope: 'Paris! Where of the Eiffel Tower'//Iron and slender dream // Ascended as a mast - // Paris! There will be a solution!' (Livak and Ustinov, 2014, p.503).

Thus, from these examples, we show the difference between 1) bimental thinking, which is inherent in these poets' oeuvres due to their origin and influenced by their cultures, and 2) the results of forced relocation, whereby a country of emigration becomes a generalised symbol of exile or hope.

#### TEACHING PROSPECTS

The contextual and hermeneutical method considered above is an important strategy for forming bimental personality. This analysis allows us to reveal the particularities of the historic era, when authors referenced in this study lived and created literary and historical dialogues, thus developing readers' cross-cultural skills.

For the poetry of Leonid Martynov, such an analysis is considered to be a sum of features allowing for development of intercultural communication. The analysis can be free, holistic, and contextual or based only on studying necessary situations and images. Let us suggest a possible system of contexts and aspects that can interpret a text to the fullest extent. Thus, the method of reading literature, based on the principle of authors' bimental world perception and aimed at forming multicultural competence, may consist of three stages.

The first stage. According to the criteria mentioned in the theoretical section above, we discuss writers whose works contribute to the development of multi-cultural competence.

(1) Social and political conditions of personality formation: Leonid Martynov, born in 1905, had all the opportunities to experience the main stages of Soviet state building, all reforms and outcomes of historic interconnectedness of two

countries. What emerges from this experience is his perception of the Kazakh and Russian cultures at the same time.

(2) Factors influencing child perception: place of birth (Omsk, on the border of Russia and Kazakhstan), length of residence in the country (childhood and, consequently, many business trips as a journalist), ethnic environment (multinational), family traditions and legends (stated above) – all these elements of his biography contributed to building the dual consciousness of Leonid Martynov.

The second stage involves an analysis of the selected artworks or a passage in the system of contexts. The following example contains an excerpt from the conversation with Leonid Martynov, recorded by the Russian poet Mark Yudalevich, who wanted to represent Martynov's typical artistic style, so the excerpt can be adopted as his literary text: '— Here, on this bridge, said the poet [Martynov], I once saw how Asia and Europe met — a Bactrian camel, dusty because of roads of the steppe, and a brand new shiny car. <...> The camel and the car examined each other with interest...' (Yudalevich, 1989, p. 23).

From a literary perspective, it is necessary to make an analysis of the text revealing features of a poem, namely metaphors connecting the camel with Asia, train with Europe, bridge with cross point of two cultural spaces and different periods of time.

"Culturological" context represents Central Asian and European cultures, interaction between traditional Turkic and modern Western elements in a narrative.

Philosophic context connotes borders between Europe and Asia and shows that the poet considered them conditionally, enabling two continents to meet 'on the bridge'.

In the third stage, following the concept of Byram, we define why works of a chosen author with bimental thinking can boost the multicultural competence in a reader:

- Knowledge: stereotyping the camel is a symbol of Asia and the car is a symbol of Europe.
- Interpretation skills: revealing the metaphoric meaning of the words 'camel' and 'train' that can be associated with realities of certain continents.
- Skills of defining relation, connectedness: comparing received information with a reader's culture, defining characteristic features and analysis of interaction between cultures on his or her own territory.
- Discovering skills: realising particularities of development of history and culture of Kazakhstan, which is situated in Central Asia and open to interaction with cultures of other nations and continents.

• Positive attitude to another culture: raising the level of intercultural competence is based on understanding a broad issue of interaction between Europe and Asia in Kazakhstan that defines characteristic features of culture in many areas: social and cultural, political, industrial, ethnographical and others.

Thus, the choice of authors here is based on their disposition toward bimental thinking. Their belonging to another nation allows us to talk about the credibility of the author's interpretation. Moreover, choice of the theme in this example, based on intercultural interaction, is directly connected with development of multicultural competence that 'doubles' efficiency of applying the Byram concept.

#### DISCUSSION

In multiple works devoted to teaching of multicultural literature, choosing the right literary text is important. Edmondson discussed the challenges faced in in using literature to teach a second language. Literature is written from a single individual's perspective and thus has an unclear relationship with the culture of the whole community (Hanauer, 2001). In this regard, students / readers may mistakenly generalise the situation and cultural factors and ascribe them to the worldview of an entire community. For this reason, Hanauer believes that teaching culture should involve the presentation of multiple individual

viewpoints, including the viewpoint of a representative from the target culture, an individual studying this culture, and a moderator (a teacher) leading a discussion. This method, according to Hanauer, helps to avoid false generalisation. As can be seen, the fear of mistaking the worldview of an individual author as representing the entire community results in attempts to create methods of teaching and interpretation, to avoid mistakes as much as possible in understanding another culture through a literary text.

Our suggestion is to select books firstly by authors who avoid wrong interpretation of specific cultural features. Bimentality can demonstrate facts of target culture to readers to enable them to understand the differences. Reading of such literature implies the presence of a competent participant, as a teacher in educational system, who will lead students to the correct interpretation of books. But even outside the educational system, the work of a bimental writer is open to a reader because such a writer is inclined to reinterpret the perception of other cultures in a literary text, as it will be shown in the examples below.

Mullin's (2012) book titled "Using literature to promote cultural competence" contains guidelines for choosing literature for appropriate students. She suggested choosing literature based on social, psychological, pedagogical factors, including artistic style and its importance for intercultural communication. These refer to an author's mentality. What we suggest is highlighting the writers' world

perception and opportunities for developing multicultural competence.

The ultimate goal of our research is practical application of the material for developing methods of reading, studying and teaching literature. In the case of amateur reading or in the context of teaching literature, these methods should promote the development of skills for identifying certain criteria to find authors with bimental thinking that are aimed at creating truthful image of another ethnic group or country.

In this context, a great number of works written by authors who are not prone to bimental perception of the world, can generate readers' interest in another culture and can be used in pedagogics while learning about another culture. Using the above-mentioned examples, we showed that an author with bimental thinking demonstrates differences between two nations to the utmost degree thanks to self-understanding through another culture. That means such authors are prone to demonstrating and explaining cultural phenomena and elements that can give rise to misinterpretation without appropriate guidance. This is the justified fear of misinterpretation that gives birth to such methods like Hanauer's method based on the need of several opinions that will lead to the right common denominator. In this case, authors with bimental consciousness are an ideal guide for readers and students learning the target culture though literature.

#### **CONCLUSION**

This research uses the terms 'bimentality' and 'bimental thinking' in literary studies to refer to authors who integrate two or more cultures into their worldview. In the education system, it is important to use relevant and appropriate literature that can boost multicultural competence of students. The bimental thinking of an author defines his or her credibility and, in turn, provides an opportunity to make an analysis of characteristic features of bimental thinking as a notable example of multicultural competence. In other words, in teaching literature, the category of 'bimentality' can be used as a characteristic feature of authors chosen to form multicultural competence of students.

Thus, the proposed method has three stages:

- (1) The first stage is preparatory work for a teacher in the form of searching for literature contributing to multicultural competence in accordance with criteria that can be used for determining disposition of an author to bimental thinking.
- (2) The second stage includes work by a teacher with students and provides for analysis of a literary text in a number of contexts that can fully represent cultural characteristics of a target culture.
- (3) Joint assessment of the results: summing up, i.e. translation

of perception of an author into perception of the world of the target culture; comparing with his or her own culture. General assessment of the results is related to the experience of multicultural communication using the example of literature, which builds bimental our and contains standards of literary language based on dual consciousness of an author.

Thus, the terms 'bimentality' and 'bimental thinking' in literary studies makes systematic the characteristic features of poetic manners of certain authors, determines perception of another culture, and, in a wider and practical application, opens new dimensions in implementing the ideas of multicultural education.

#### Footnote:

All translations are our own, except the poem by Dovid Knut *My millennia*.

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#### Self Help Group: A Strategic Tool for Women Empowerment

#### Mathur, P.\* and Agarwal, P.

Research Scholar, School of Management, JECRC University, Ramchandrapura, IS-2036 to 2039, Tuwariyan Ki Dhani, Vidhani, Jaipur, Rajasthan 303905, India

#### **ABSTRACT**

In a patriarchal society, like India, women live a very underprivileged life. In order to improve the condition of women, the government of India has adopted the strategy of Self Help Groups(SHGs). In this study, an attempt is made to analyse the role SHGs play in the empowerment of Indian women. The SHG is the association of 15-20 members of the same socioeconomic background working collectively to solve problems on the principle of self-help, harmony and mutual coordination. In this study research was conducted on 125 respondents from SHG group and Non-SHG group to facilitate comparison. The results indicate that SHG strategy helps in the empowerment of women.

Keywords: Empowerment, Self Help Groups, women

#### INTRODUCTION

The socioeconomic improvement of any country is not possible without the progress of women. For the sustainable development of any economy, it is essential women has equal participation in its progress. Any economy which neglects the equal role of women can move forward with its strategy for growth. India is passing through

the worst crisis after independence; the growth rate is increasing combined with the increased debt burden. The investments have decreased and the consumption has reduced. It is going through a phase of poverty, unemployment, retrenchment and misery. Today, more than ever before, we badly require fundamental changes so that stable development and harmony are ensured.

The total female population in India is 587.47 million. Women constitute nearly 48.5% of the total population (Census, 2011). However, we find that women lag behind men in terms of their participation in the development of the economy. The latest

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E-mail addresses: mathurpallavi67@gmail.com (Mathur, P.), parul.agarwal@jecru.edu.in (Agarwal. P)

\* Corresponding author

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employment and unemployment survey of the National Sample Survey organization, 68th Round, (2011-12) reveals that 22.5 percent of women are in the labour force as compared to 55.6 percent of men. Among the female workers, about 63 per cent are engaged in the agricultural sector, while about 56 per cent of the male workers are engaged either in the secondary sector and tertiary sector. This shows the seasonal nature of work the women undertake in India. Another limitation women face with respect to employment is the overburden of domestic responsibilities. Women are supposed to assume the household tasks such as taking care of the children and elderly. Women are designated as "grahinis" which mentally prepare them that the world outside their home is not their concern (Statistical Yearbook for Asia and the Pacific, 2011). Cranney (2001) while comparing the working hours spent by men and women across geographical boundaries of India provides the details that women work longer hours than men. Moreover, only 65.46% of adult women are known to be literate in India (Census, 2011). In addition to that, India has the largest population of non-school-going girls. The girl child is treated as helping hand of mother and is not sent to the school. Lack of knowledge has excluded women to participate in the economic, social and political power but also in building knowledge (Sangh and Kumar, 2004). Furthermore most of the women lack ownership of immovable assets like land. Where they do have their ownership, the men make decisions

(Achanta, 2013). Statistics as per India's National Crime Records Bureau Report (2015) reveal that, a total of 7634 dowry deaths were reported in 2015. It is therefore very essential that necessary impetus be given to women empowerment.

The world was confronted for the first time with this buzzword "empowerment" at the UN Conference on Women in Beijing in 1995 and the World Population Conference in Cairo in 1994. By including the concept of empowerment, the direction for the developmental programmes are set in favour of instituting gender justice and gender equality. Welfare and development were the prior standards in the innovation of the term "empowerment" (Batliwala, 2015).

Promotion of gender equality and empowerment of women is also an important goal at the Millennium Summit of the UN Nations in 2000. In July 2010, "UN Women" was created by the United Nations General Assembly, for working on Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women. The UN Guidelines (2001) on women empowerment has five major components, namely women's sense of self-worth, their right to have and to determine choices, their right to have access to opportunities and resources, their right to have power to control their own lives, both within and outside home, their ability to influence the direction of social change, to create more than just social and economic order, nationally and internationally.

Kabeer (2001) offers a definition of empowerment as "The expansion in people's ability to make strategic life choices in a context where this ability was previously denied to them" This is a strategic question for India, a patriarchal society. Various schemes have been launched by the government for the empowerment of women such as Rashtiya Mahila Kosh and Mahila Samrighi Yojana. The establishment of a National Women Commission and State Women's Commissions are important milestones for Women Empowerment in India (Chishti, 2013) In spite of the various measures taken up by the government after independence, the situation of women has not seen much improvement.

Analysing the constraints faced by the women in India the government initiated Self Help Groups(SHGs). SHG is the registered or non-registered association of 15-20 members belonging to the same socioeconomic background, usually women, who work collectively to solve their problems on the principles of self-help, harmony and mutual coordination. They have:

- Definite rules and bylaws, hold normal meetings and maintain thrift and credit discipline.
- SHGs are self-managed and regarded by the process of participatory and combined decision-making and pooling of their savings.
- iii) The groups create a mutual fund where each member contributes an equal amount of savings regularly.
- iv) The members to whom the loan is to be given is determined by consensus and are simple and adjustable

v) The group determines the rate of interest to be paid/charged on the savings/credit to members and the repayment process (National Bank for Rural and Agriculture development (NABARD, 2005).

The SHG strategy has become an important module of the Government of India, and is included in every annual plan since 2000 (Singh, Ruivenkamp, & Jongerden, 2011). The question is: how significant has SHG been in the empowerment of women in Sanganer and Amer blocks of Jaipur district of Rajasthan state. The specific research questions are:

Are you the earning member of the family? Do you have the right to spend? Do you agree to have land ownership in your name? Do you have decision making power? Do you have mobility? What are your savings? What is your mode of savings? Do you have a social forum representation? Can you raise your voice against rape, dowry, molestation etc.? Do you have the authority to use your rights?

To construct the SHG Programme in the blocks, women SHG training cum resource centres have been set up by the state government to act as training hubs for the area. Skills such as gradation, capacity building, trainings, mental mathematics, vocational trainings, etc. are provided in these hubs. The government also assists in marketing SHG products with the help of different agencies/ local markets/ haat bazaars (Rajasthan Government, Economic Review, 2012-13).

#### LITERATURE REVIEW

Dasgupta and Rao (2003) found that SHG approach is the best strategy for women empowerment and poverty alleviation. The scope of savings, autonomy, self-reliance is much higher in the formation of SHG. Banerjee (2004) on the basis of his study of the Nari Bikash Sangha, an association of women SHGs in Bankura district of West Bengal, India engaged mainly in natural resource management, opines that if women need to be empowered than the best strategy is to work- collectively. The woman gets her inherent strength while working with the other women. Individual empowerment is best achieved when women get a sense of solidarity while associations with other women. Kabeer (2005) on the basis of her study done in South Asia has cited that women mostly joins SHG for savings. Women cite SHG a safe place to keep their savings. The author also concluded that joining SHG not necessarily means building up of a new social relationship, but it helps in diversifying associational life within the community and facilitate in taking collective decisions and enhancing leadership skills. The author has also raised the concern that access to financial resources is not a "magic bullet" and does not lead to economic empowerment, but other developmental areas like education, political quotas and other interventions should also to be considered.

Acharya, Yoshino, Jimba and Wakai (2007) while studying SHG's in Nepal found that functional literacy programme is a good initiative done by the government. At the

same time savings and credit help the women in initiating their own business and become independent. Contrary to this, Arya (2007) on the basis of her study of women SHGs in watershed development programmes in India argued that the government must not only take into account the number of women working and judge it as a step for women empowerment, but must also integrate the women in the decision-making process of the developmental programme. Karmakar (2009) stated that women empowerment is the major outcome of SHG movement. The village micro-enterprises have developed and the level of the income of the villagers has also increased. This has led to the overall development of the rural infrastructure. Wagh (2009) on her study on Mahila Sarvangeeudn Utkarsh Mandal in Maharashtra, India concluded that the provision of financial opportunities for women should not be the sole concern of SHGs. The SHGs must also focus on gender issues, health and nutrition and other developmental issues in addition to practising e citizenship and work towards empowerment and capacity building. Sathiabama (2010) reported that micro entrepreneurship in Tamil Nadu, India has had a positive effect on women's self-confidence, economic empowerment, improved standard of living, sense of achievement, decision making and other capabilities. The women are already skilled in agriculture and allied activities and SHG members do the same task with an innovative mind and motivation, thereby improving the entrepreneurial skills of

women in Tamil Nadu. Kavitha, Jiji and Rajkamal (2011) studied 300 women SHG members of Kudumbashree in Thrissur District of Kerala State, India, who were engaged in goat farming for a period of one year. She stated that the working procedure of the SHGs requires the attention of the policy makers. Three quarter of the respondents found the SHG to be mediocre, only 10 % of the respondents found the SHG to be highly effective. Wale and Deshmukh (2011) suggested that the success of any strategy relating to women empowerment depends on the level of education, social participation, hard work of women. Informal SHGs have helped women to avoid "Top-down management". However, red-tape has contributed to the failure of many schemes and policies of the government. Khan and Bibi (2011) who studied a government project named Pat Feeder Command Area development in Nasirabad area of Balochistan (a province of Pakistan) concluded that women's' access to capacity building, micro credit and participation in the economic activities has increased. However, the positive effects of the project were not sustainable due to poor functionality of women's development groups on the grounds of institutional and cultural factors. Shanti and Ganaphati (2012) carried out their research on 500 women of SHG operating in Coimbatore district, Kerala, India and suggested that the government boost the entrepreneurial skills of women by providing training programmes. Awareness building programmes, encouragement and support

should be provided by the government to increase women's motivational level, which in turn will help in rural employment generation. Again, Vanithamani and Menon (2012) on the basis of the research conducted on 400 women of Coimbatore district in Kerala found 67% of the respondents to whom trainings were provided by the government, have stated that the trainings were very relevant for their business. Through skill development trainings, the women have developed special skills which have motivated them to start their own business. The author has suggested that trainings should be made an integral part of the development of SHG and should be adopted with a proper plan of action. On the basis of discussions held with women members of SHG it was found women did not have much say in the financial matters of their households. Credit was the first resort for rural people in cases of an emergency. Women perceive SHG as providing an economic opportunity and accordingly their income has increased and so having savings and sense of independence.

#### RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

To study the role of SHG, Sanganer and Amer block of Jaipur district, Rajasthan, India, were chosen.

#### Area of Study

Sanganer block is the most famous among the 13 blocks of Jaipur district. The total population of this block is 174,893 persons with 84,595 female population. The sex ratio of the block is 937(per 1000 males) which is below the national average of 940(Census,2011).

Amer was also the capital of the state of Rajasthan, India before Jaipur being declared as the state capital. With a total population of 319,630, it is the third most populous block of Jaipur district. The female population is 153,279 and the sex ratio is,921(Census,2011).

## Table 1 Demographic characteristics of the respondents

#### MATERIALS AND METHODS

Questionnaire was posed to 125 women belonging to SHG and 125 women not belonging to SHG using Likert Scale. Due to the social background of the women, the authors had to first establish a rapport with the women by engaging in social talks. Inquires were made either at their homes or under the shade of the tree. Out of 125 questionnaires, 102 women belonging to

		S	HG	Non-SHG		
Parameters	Categories	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	
Caste	Scheduled Caste (SC)	29	28.4	28	26.7	
	Scheduled Tribe (ST)	17	16.7	23	21.9	
	Other Underprivileged Classes	17	16.7	24	22.9	
	General	26	25.5	18	17.1	
	Minority	13	12.7	12	11.4	
	Total	102	100	105	100	
Marital	Married	85	83.3	80	76.2	
Status	Unmarried	2	2	7	6.7	
	Divorced	1	1	6	5.7	
	Widowed	14	13.7	12	11.4	
	Total	102	100	105	100	
Family Size	NIL	3	2.9	10	9.5	
	2-3 children	41	40.2	42	40	
	3-4 children	49	48	43	41	
	5-6 children	9	8.8	6	5.7	
	More Than 7 children	0	0	4	3.8	
	Total	102	99.9	105	100	
Level of	Primary Level	26	25.49	38	36.19	
education	Secondary Level	34	33.33	28	26.67	
	Senior Secondary Level	22	21.57	15	14.29	
	Graduation	9	8.82	3	2.86	
	Post GraduaPost-Graduation.95					
	Illiterate	9	8.82	20	19.05	
	Total	102	100.00	105	100.00	

SHG and 105 Non-SHG women responded. Convenient sampling was done for the purpose of exploratory research. However, the SHG women chosen for the study had been members of the group for more than five years. Ten most prominent variables have been selected to test the role of SHG in the empowerment of women, and the Chi Square test undertaken to check for significance between SHG and Non-SHG women. The significance level of  $\alpha$ =0.05 was chosen, with a 95% confidence interval.

Table 1 shows that 28.4 percent of SHG women belonged to ST category, 16.7 percent, respectively belonged to ST and Other Underprivileged Classes, 25.5 percent belonged to General category and 12.7 percent belonged to the Minority Class. Among Non-SHG women, 26.7 percent belonged to Scheduled Caste, 21.9 percent belonged to ST, 22.9 percent belonged to Other Underprivileged Classes, 25.5 percent belonged to General category and 12.7 percent belonged to the Minority Class. Of the 102 SHG women, 14 were widowed and 1 was divorced while among 105 Non-SHG women, 12 were widowed and 6 women were divorced. None of the SHG women had more than 7 children while among Non-SHG women, 4 women had children more than 7. If we look at the level of education, we find that while the maximum number of SHG women, i.e. 33.33 percent have education till secondary level, only 26.67 percent of Non-SHG women have done their education till secondary level. However, only 2 women in the SHG group and 1 in the Non-SHG group have post graduate qualifications.

#### RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Table 2
Earning members of SHG and non-SHG

	Yes (n=102)	No(n=105)
SHG	59 (57.8%)	43(42.2%)
Non-SHG	42(40%)	63(60%)

Source: field survey, 2014

Ho: There is no significant difference between SHG and Non-SHG women in their decision to be the earning member of the family.

The p value is approximated to be .007. Since p< .05, the Null hypothesis is rejected. There is no evidence to conclude that there is no significant difference in the decision-making of the SHG and the Non-SHG women in being the earning member of the family. The data shows that SHG women can make a decision to be the income earners as long as they are provided with the required skills and training. Table 2 shows that the women of SHG provide economic benefit to their family and at the same time enhance their role and position in the family and the community. 57.8 percent of SHG women are contributing to household expenditure in contrast to 40 percent for Non-SHG women.

Do you have the right to spend?

Ho: There is no significant difference between SHG and Non-SHG women in their right to spend.

Here the p value is approximated to be .499. Since p>.05, the Null hypothesis is accepted

Table 3
Distribution of factors affecting SHG and non-SHG members

Variables		Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Disagree
Do you have the right to spend	SHG (%)	59.8	27.5	11.8	0	1
	Non-SHG (%)	53.3	26.7	17.1	0	2.9
Do you agree that women as	SHG (%)	0	0	0	52.9	47.1
daughters should have a right to claim partition in the joint family properties	Non-SHG (%)	0	0	7.6	57.1	35.2
Do you have decision-making	SHG (%)	76.5	9.8	4.9	2	6.9
power	Non-SHG (%)	39	16.2	22.9	14.3	7.6
Do you have mobility	SHG (%)	31.4	51	2	7.8	7.8
	Non-SHG (%)	18.1	36.2	18.1	14.3	13.3

Source: field survey,2014

stating that there is no significant difference between SHG and Non-SHG women in their right to spend. Women, whether they belong to SHG or not, have no significant difference in their right to spend in spite of the fact that whether they are earning that money or their family members are earning for them. A significant number of women agree that they spend the money as per their discretion as per Table 3.

Do you agree that women as daughters should have a right to claim partition in the joint family properties?

Ho: There is no significant difference between SHG and Non-SHG women in their agreement to have ownership of land.

Here the p value is approximated at.008. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected (p<.05). Moreover, none of the SHG and Non-SHG women agreed in being the owner

of the land. However, we may conclude that there is a significant difference in the opinions of SHG women and Non-SHG women with regards to daughters having the right to joint family properties. However, while 52.9 percent of SHG women "strongly disagree", a substantial number of Non-SHG women (57.1 percent) "strongly disagree" with their entitlement of lands (see Table 3). This is the biggest bottleneck in the development of the nation since women still, perceive the role of males as superiors. This research shows that none of the SHG women agree with the concept of their right to claim their share of their parents' property. Though, Article 14 of the Constitution of India secure "Equality before law", women do not wish to break the ice in the male dominated society and the major reason why women in India are not interested in property rights. SHG, as a strategic tool, though, has increased their awareness level allowing them to perceive

themselves superior or at least at par with men.

Do you have decision making power?

Ho:There is no significant difference between SHG and Non-SHG women in decision making.

There is a significant difference in the decision-making power of women of SHG in comparison with that of non-SHG women as p<.05; p value has been approximated at .000. SHG women are more vocal in their voices in the community as well as groups. 76.5 percent of SHG women "strongly agree" in attaining decision making power after joining SHG while only 39 percent Non-SHG women have decision -making power as shown in Table 3.

Do you have mobility?

Ho:There is no significant difference between SHG and Non-SHG women in their mobility.

Here, the P value is being approximated at .000. So, we may conclude that there is a significant difference in the mobility of SHG women and Non-SHG women as p<.05. Women of SHG are more free to go to market, to attend the group meeting and community gatherings. 31.4 percent of women move freely in their village and community while only 18.1 percent of Non-SHG women have access to mobility. In a patriarchal society like Inida, this is the biggest advantage the women have attained after joining SHG (See Table 3).

Table 4
Savings trends of SHG and non-SHG members

In Rs.	Below 50	50-100	100-500	500-1000	Above 1000	NIL
SHG (%)	0	7.8	24.5	45.1	14.7	7.8
Non-SHG (%)	47.6	2.9	5.7	16.2	6.7	21

Source: field survey,2014

Ho:There is no significant difference between SHG and Non-SHG women in their savings.

There is a significant difference in the savings of the SHG women in comparison with Non-SHG women. The SHG women save more than the Non-SHG women. The p value in this hypothesis is 0.000, which is

lower than the alpha value of 0.05 indicating the rejection of Null hypothesis. 45.1 percent of SHG women save between Rs.500-1000 whereas only 16.2 percent of Non-SHG women save between Rs. 500-1000. None of the SHG women's savings are below Rs. 50 while 47.6 percent of Non-SHG women save below Rs. 50.SHG women's groups are more prone to savings as shown in Table 4.

Table 5
Mode of savings of SHG and non-SHG members

	Cash In Hand	Post Office	Bank	Friends & Relatives		Internal Lending	NIL
SHG (%)	9.8	4.9	11.8	0	2.9	57.8	12.7
Non-SHG (%)	14.3	8.6	16.2	1	0	1	59

Source: field survey,2014

Ho:There is no significant difference between SHG and Non-SHG women in their mode of savings.

There are significant differences in mode of savings between SHG and Non-SHG members with p<.05; p value has been approximated at .000. As per Table 5, 57.8 percent of SHG women save money through internal lending. This is the biggest achievement of SHG formation as women save money through the process of internal lending by earning interest and also the borrower of the money can use that extra money borrowed, for some income generation activity or for any of the community functions. The added advantage of the rotation of the money within the group

is that now, the women do not have to go to moneylenders during an emergency and be subjected to exorbitant interest rates.

Do you have a social forum representation?

Ho: There is no significant difference between SHG and Non-SHG women in their social forum representation.

Here, the p value is being approximated at .000. Since p<.05, we find that there is a significant difference in the social forum representation of SHG and Non-SHG women. SHG women enjoy the more social space. Women meet in groups, in the community. They also raise their voices, when required. Collectively, they solve each

Table 6
Distribution of factors affecting the social representation of SHG and non-SHG members

Variables		Always	Very Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Do you have a social forum	SHG (%)	26.5	21.6	2	10.8	39.2
representation	Non-SHG (%)	0	0	0	20	80
Can you raise your voice	SHG (%)	46.1	43.1	3.9	5.9	1
against rape, dowry, molestation, etc.?	Non-SHG (%)	36.2	15.2	1	22.9	24.8
Do you have the authority to	SHG (%)	0	0	2.9	27.5	69.6
use your rights	Non-SHG (%)	0	0	1	35.2	63.8

Source: field survey,2014

other problems. They find their strength in the group. 26.5 percent SHG women have a social forum representation, whereas none of the Non-SHG women represent themselves in meetings, society etc. as shown in Table 6

Can you raise your voice against rape, dowry, molestation etc.?

Ho: There is no significant difference between SHG and Non-SHG women in their mode of savings.

In this hypothesis, the p value is approximated at .000. The p value being less than .05, we may say that there is a significant difference among women of SHG and Non SHG. SHG women are more vocal and raise their voice whenever they witness any problems relating to rape, dowry, molestation. Women discuss these problems in the group and collectively sought action against the

culprits. 46.1 percent SHG women always raise their voice when they see some inequity in the society, whereas 36.2 percent of Non-SHG women have the courage to raise their voice against gendered violence towards women as shown in Table 6

Do you have the authority to use your rights?

Ho: There is no significant difference between SHG and Non-SHG women in their mode of savings.

With p value been approximated at .314, we find that p value is more than the alpha value. Hence, the Null hypothesis is accepted. There is no significant difference between women of SHG and Non-SHG in terms of their authority on the use of rights. As per Table 6, only 2.9 percent of SHG women and 1 percent of Non-SHG women have the authority to use their

Table 7
Summary of results

Variables	Chi-square	df	p value	Decision
Are you the earning member of the family	6.593	1	0.007	Reject H0
Do you have the right to spend	2.371	3	0.499	Fail to reject H0
Do you agree to have land ownership in your name	9.698	2	0.008	Reject H0
Do you have decision making power	35.739	4	0.000	Reject H0
Do you have mobility	22.982	4	0.000	Reject H0
What are your savings	86.684	5	0.000	Reject H0
What is your mode of savings	95.061	6	0.000	Reject H0
Do you have a social forum representation	69.709	4	0.000	Reject H0
Can you raise your voice against rape, dowry, molestation etc.	49.735	4	0.000	Reject H0
Do you have the authority to use your rights	2.319	2	0.314	Fail to reject H0

Note: df=Degree of Freedom

rights "sometimes". At the same time, 69.6 percent of SHG women and 63.8 percent of Non-SHG women "never" use their rights. This clearly shows the inability of the government to not provide adequate training, support, to the women so that women can imbibe confidence in them and are able to use their constitutional as well as fundamental rights (See summary of results in Table 7).

### **CONCLUSION**

Results of this study show e that SHG has not been able to change patriarchal norms imbibed in society. It also shows SHG plays a significant role in the empowerment of women. It also shows the need for improving education among women and female literacy programmes across the country.

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### Social Determinants of Linear Growth among under Five Years Children in Nepal

Kattel, S., McNeil, N.\* and Tongkumchum, P.

Departments of Mathematics and Computer Science, Faculty of Science and Technology, Prince of Songhkla University, Pattani Campus, Thailand

### **ABSTRACT**

Linear growth faltering is a chronic form of malnutrition which is more serious in children due to its irreversible nature. The aim of this study is to investigate socioeconomic and demographic determinants of linear growth among children under the age of five in Nepal. The 2011 data were obtained from the Nepal Demographic Health Survey (NDHS). The linear growth (Height for Age Z score) of 2,330 children was examined. Multiple linear regressions were used to determine associated factors of linear growth. Results indicated that the children's linear growth was affected negatively due to various contextual factors including varied socioeconomic status, the mother's educational attainment and height, geographical region and place of residence. The poorest households, older children, mother's illiteracy and living in a rural area were found to be negatively associated with linear growth.

Keywords: Height for Age Z score, Linear growth, Nepal, Under-five years of age

### INTRODUCTION

Malnutrition is a major public health concern which is threatening the world's sustainable development goals (Osborn et al., 2015). Children's nutritional status is

one of the key indicators in achieving this goal. In developing countries, malnutrition is commonly regarded as undernutrition (World Food Program, 2005). Undernutrition in children is one of the leading causes of morbidity and mortality, especially in developing countries (Egata et al., 2013). About 90% of growth retarded children in the developing world are found in Asia and Africa (UNICEF, 2009).

Nepal has one of the highest growthfaltered child populations in the world. It

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E-mail addresses: sumitrakattel@gmail.com (Kattel, S.), nittaya.ch@psu.ac.th (McNeil, N.), phattrawan@gmail.com (Tongkumchum, P.) \* Corresponding author

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was ranked in the top 20 countries with the highest burden of linear growth faltering among children under five years of age (UNICEF, 2009). Nepal has the third highest child linear growth faltering among South Asian countries after India and Afghanistan (United Nations Children's Fund, 2015). Linear growth faltering affects 41% of children below the age of five in Nepal in 2011 (MOHP & New ERA, 2011). Though Nepal has achieved the Millennium Development Goal target for child mortality its target to reduce infant mortality has not been achieved, mainly due to the high prevalence of malnutrition (Malla et al., 2011).

Nepal is one of the poorest countries in the world. More than 25% of the population live under the poverty line with earnings of less than USD1 a day. The hunger index score of Nepal is also very high, especially in remote regions (Hollema & Bishokarma, 2009; UNICEF, 2010). Socio demographic determinants play an important role in human development and may also affect linear growth.

There are various measures for calculating anthropometric indices. Height for age Z (HAZ) score shows linear growth, weight-for-height Z (WHZ) reflects body proportion, and weight-for-age Z (WAZ) represents combination of both linear growth and body proportion (Onis et al., 1993; Onis & Blossner, 1997). The aim of this study is to explore whether social determinants have any association with of children under age five in Nepal.

#### **METHODOLOGY**

Data were retrieved from the 2011 Nepal Demographic Health Survey, a two-stage stratified cluster survey. In the first stage, primary sampling areas were selected with probability proportionate to size and in the second stage, households were randomly selected. A total of 1,780 households were selected for anthropometric measurement of children under age five and out of that 2,392 children were selected.

The outcome was HAZ score which was calculated using Anthro software (WHO, 2006). Based on the definition provided by WHO, HAZ score conveys a child's height in terms of the number of standard deviations above or below the median height of healthy children from a reference group. Children whose HAZ score is below two standard deviations and below three standard deviation of the median of the reference population are classified as moderately or severely linear growth faltered respectively.

HAZ score is calculated using the following:

$$HAZ\,score = \frac{Observed\ value\ -\ median\ reference\ value}{Standard\ deviation\ of\ reference\ population}$$

The determinants included characteristics of the child, mother, household, and geographic location. Household wealth index was calculated as a score of household property such as having means of transport, durable goods, and other facilities in the household. Household index was divided into quintiles. Child's size at birth was based on the mother's estimation at the time of birth and categorised as very large, larger than average, average, smaller than average and very small.

### Statistical methods

The outcome of the study is continuous and determinants are categorical. T- tests and Analysis of variance (ANOVA) were used to compare the mean of the outcome. Multiple linear regression models were used to assess the independent association between all determinants and HAZ score. A stepwise backward elimination method was used for the selection of the best model. The normality assumption of the model was also checked. The linear model takes the form:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \beta_3 x_3 + \dots, \beta_n x_n + \varepsilon$$
 [1]

Where Y is outcome variable,  $\beta_0, ..., \beta_n$  are the regression coefficients,  $x_1, ..., x_n$  are the determinants and  $\varepsilon$  is the error term. Sum contrasts were used to compare and interpret the results (Tongkumchum & McNeil, 2009). R language and environment version 3.1.1 was used for analysing data (R Core Team, 2012).

### RESULTS

Among the 2,392 children, 32 were excluded from the study due to their mothers' refusal to allow measurements; 27 twins were also excluded while three children were omitted due to missing outcomes. The final sample size was down to 2,330 children.

The mean and standard deviation of HAZ scores was  $-1.73 \pm 1.48$ , (range -9.71

to 5.61). Table 1 shows the distribution of the demographic and socio-economic characteristics of the study sample. About 52% of boys and 48% of girls were aged less than 5 years. Approximately, 62% of children were of average size whereas 14% were smaller than average and 17% were larger than average. More than half (56%) of the mothers were aged between 15 and 24 years at delivery, and 8% of the mothers were aged above 35. About half (46%) of the mothers had no formal education and among the educated group, about one fifth (19%) had only primary education and one third (34%) had secondary and higher education. More than one fourth (30%) were from the poorest households according to their wealth index. About 40% of children were from secure households followed by 39% from moderately insecure households. The majority (80%) of children were from rural areas.

Child- related factors associated with linear growth included gender, age and size at birth while mother-related factors included age at delivery, education, and height. Household factors included household wealth index, household food security, region and place of residence.

Table 2 shows the results of the multiple linear regression model assessing the association of all determinants with HAZ score. Older children had a negative growth coefficient compared with younger children. Perceived small child size at birth had greater negative coefficient compared with the other groups. Non-educated mothers had a negative coefficient while educated

Table 1
Distribution of children by socio-demographic characteristics and geographic affiliation, Nepal Demographic Health Survey-2011 (n=2,330)

Determinants	Number	Percent
Child's gender		
Male	1,210	51.94
Female	1,120	48.06
Child's age		
0-11 months	452	19.39
12-23 months	444	19.10
24-35 months	491	21.07
36-47 months	496	21.29
48-59 months	447	19.18
Size at birth		
Very large	52	2.23
Larger than average	393	16.87
Average	1,447	62.10
Smaller than average	342	14.67
Very small	96	4.12
Mother's height		
<= mean height	1,117	47.94
> mean height	1,213	52.06
Mother's age at child birth		
15-24 years	1,306	56.05
25-34 years	843	36.18
35+years	181	7.76
Mother's education		
No education	1,075	46.13
Primary school	454	19.48
Secondary school and higher	801	34.37

Table 1 (continue)

Determinants	Number	Percent
Wealth Index		
Poorest	715	30.68
Poorer	473	20.30
Poor	438	18.79
Richer	355	15.23
	349	14.97
Household food security		
Secure	921	39.52
Mild	147	6.30
Moderate	909	39.01
Severely	353	15.15
Place of residence		
Urban	472	20.32
Rural	1,858	79.67
Region		
Eastern Mountain	147	6.30
Central Mountain	107	4.58
Western Mountain	194	8.31
Eastern Hill	190	8.15
Central Hill	151	6.48
Western Hill	177	7.60
Mid-western Hill	217	9.31
Far western Hill	215	9.22
Eastern Terai	200	8.57
Central Terai	230	9.86
Western Terai	153	6.56
Mid-western Terai	210	9.04
Far western Terai	139	5.96

mothers had a positive coefficient. Similarly, children from poor households had negative coefficients compared with those from richer households while children from rural areas had a negative coefficient compared

with those from urban areas. Children from the Western Mountain region had the highest negative coefficient compared with the other regions.

Table 2
Results from multiple linear regression model of linear growth among under five children, Nepal Demographic and Health Survey-2011

Characteristic	Coefficient	Standard error	P-value
Child's age			
0-11 months	0.97	0.05	0.00
12-23 months	0.06	0.05	0.23
24-35 months	-0.38	0.05	0.00
36-47 months	-0.44	0.05	0.00
48-59 months	-0.21	0.00	0.00
Size at birth			
Very large	0.41	0.14	0.00
Larger than average	0.21	0.07	0.00
Average	0.03	0.05	0.49
Smaller than average	-0.23	0.07	0.00
Very small	-0.42	0.11	0.00
Mother's height			
<= mean height	-0.26	0.02	0.00
> mean height	0.26	0.02	0.00
Mother's education			
No education	-0.09	0.04	0.02
Primary school	-0.05	0.05	0.27
Secondary school and higher	0.14	0.04	0.00
Wealth index			
Poorest	-0.27	0.06	0.00
Poorer	-0.14	0.05	0.01
Poor	0.04	0.05	0.37
Richer	0.16	0.06	0.00
Richest	0.20	0.07	0.00
Place of residence			
Urban	0.12	0.03	0.00
Rural	-0.12	0.03	0.00
Region			
Eastern Mountain	0.03	0.10	0.72
Central Mountain	-0.06	0.11	0.56
Western Mountain	-0.31	0.09	0.00
Eastern Hill	-0.09	0.09	0.28
Central Hill	0.27	0.11	0.00
Western Hill	0.20	0.09	0.02
Mid-western Hill	-0.11	0.08	0.19
Far western Hill	-0.23	0.08	0.00
Eastern Terai	0.20	0.09	0.02

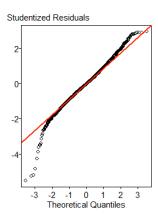


Figure 1. Normal scores plots of residuals from the linear regression model

A normal scores plot of residuals from the multiple linear regression model is shown in Figure 1. Most of the HAZ values lie on the diagonal line except some values at the extremes of the distribution.

The mean HAZ scores with corresponding 95% confidence intervals by age of child, child's size at birth, mother's height, mother's education, household wealth index, place of residence and region obtained from the model is presented in Figure 2. The horizontal line symbolises

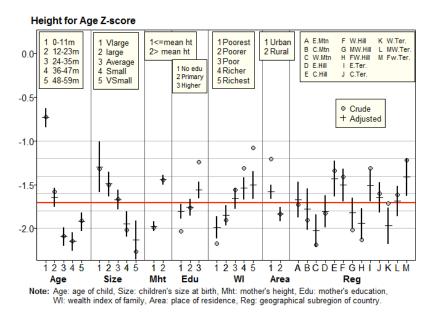


Figure 2. 95% confidence interval of linear growth of under five children in Nepal by associated variables

the overall mean HAZ score. Children in age groups 24-35 months, 36-47 months and 48-59 months had significantly lower HAZ scores than the overall mean. Children who, at birth, were perceived by their mother to be small and very small or children whose mother was non-educated or children

from poorer and poorest socioeconomic households had lower HAZ scores than the overall mean. Children from rural areas or from the Western Mountain, Eastern Terai, Western Terai and the Far western Hill had lower HAZ score than the overall mean.

### DISCUSSION

The mean value of HAZ score of children from Nepal was -1.73. The negative value shows that the distribution of HAZ score was below the mean which signifies that in the majority of children, linear growth has been adversely affected. Use of the mean HAZ score as an index of malnutrition in the children's population instead of using a cut off value (below -2SD) facilitates easier interpretation, i.e. if more than half of the children's linear growth is faltered, then an urgent intervention is needed for the whole community, not only for the growth faltered children.

This study explored the association of demographic and socio-economic factors with HAZ score among children under five years of age in Nepal. Older aged children (age > 24-35 months) had a higher risk of linear growth falteration than those in the age group (0-23 months). A similar finding was reported in a recent study on linear growth faltering (Tiwari et al., 2011) in Nepal. This could be related to improper timing and variety of food during weaning (Khanal et al., 2013; Marquis et al., 1997). However, one study revealed that linear growth faltering starts from infancy, not only when the child is older (Espo et al., 2002). This might due to differences in socio-economic conditions, geographic locations, breastfeeding and other health related practices (Khanal et al., 2013; Marquis et al., 1997; Rayhan & Khan, 2006).

Children who, at birth, were perceived by their mother to be small had negative linear growth and this finding was supported by previous studies conducted in Bangladesh and Brazil (Rayhan & Khan, 2006; Vitoloet al., 2008). Non-educated mothers had children with negative linear growth and this result is also consistent with the findings of a study from Bangladesh (Rayhan & Khan, 2006). Genetic factors of the mother such as height also had an impact on linear growth. Small height of the mother was also associated with negative linear growth which is similar to a finding from a study conducted in Thailand (Mongkolchati et al., 2010).

Children from poorer households had a negative linear growth. A possible explanation for this is that 69% of Nepalese children are severely deprived of at least one basic necessity (sanitation, information, water, shelter, food, education, health) and 38% are severely deprived of one or more basic necessities, which is an indicator of poverty (UNICEF, 2010). Previous studies confirm that lower socioeconomic status of the household is one of the causes of linear growth faltering in children (Hien & Hoa, 2009; Vitolo et al., 2008; Zottarelli et al., 2007; Egata et al., 2010).

Children from the Western Mountain region had lower HAZ scores. This has a probable association with Hunger Index scores in those sub-regions of Nepal. Hunger Index scores of children from the Far Western and the Mid-Western Mountain regions are very high compared with the national average (Hollema & Bishokarma, 2009). A similar finding was reported by a previous study that there is geographical inequality in children's nutritional status (Cesarea et al., 2015; Rader et al., 2012).

### CONCLUSIONS

In conclusion, individual characteristics such as child's age, mother's height, household characteristics such as wealth index, mother's education and geographic area including region and place of residence are associated with linear growth of children. Faltered linear growth will have an adverse effect on the affected children throughout their lives. Hence, appropriate interventions are vital to prevent linear growth faltering among children under the age of five in Nepal.

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# Structure Shifts of Conjunctive Relations in the Translation of *Animal Farm* from English into Hausa

### Muhammad Sulaiman Abdullahi1\* and Kulwindr Kaur Gurdial Singh2

<sup>1</sup>Department of Languages, Faculty of Humanities, Northwest University, Kano, Nigeria <sup>2</sup>Department of English Language, Faculty of Languages & Linguistics, University of Malaya, 50603 Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

### **ABSTRACT**

The aim of this study is to find out if structure shifts exist in the translation of the intersentential conjunctive relations in the novel, *Animal Farm*, from English into Hausa, based on Catford's (1965) notion of shifts in translation. The two novels used as the sources of data for this study were the source text in English, *Animal Farm*, and its target language translation in Hausa, *Gandun Dabbobi*. Two hundred and fifty-two sentences containing inter-sentential conjunctive relations were extracted from each text, making the total number of 504 sentences from both texts. Halliday and Hasan's (1976) Table of Conjunctive Relations was used to identify the different conjunctive relations. The effects of the shifts on the target language were also studied and explained in the data. This was done using Nida's (1964) theory of formal and functional equivalence. The study found that there are seven forms of structure shifts in the translation of conjunctive relations from English into Hausa. This study also revealed that all the categories of conjunctive relations i.e. additives, adversatives, causal and temporal were shifted in the translation but their shifts differed between one class of conjunction to another.

Keywords: Animal Farm, conjunctive relations, English translation, Hausa translation, shifts, structure shifts

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E-mail addresses:

muhammadunfagge@yahoo.com (Muhammad Sulaiman Abdullahi), kulwindr@um.edu.my (Kulwindr Kaur Gurdial Singh)

\* Corresponding author

INTRODUCTION

This study analyses the structure shifts in the translation of cohesive conjunctive relations that are found in the novel, *Animal Farm* (*AF*), by George Orwell from English into *Gandun Dabbobi* (GD) in Hausa. *AF* was published on 17 August, 1945 by Secker and Warburg in London, England. *AF* 

is a famous novel written in the English language by the author, who was a prolific writer and had written many literary texts during his lifetime. The book, perhaps because of its satirical nature, has obtained wide recognition and has been translated into different languages, of which, Hausa is one. George Orwell was the pen-name of Eric Arthur Blair, who was born on 25 June, 1903, in Motihari Bihar, British India. According to Lazaro (2001, p.7) Orwell is considered to be one of the most influential writers of the 20th century. Many years after his death, he is still recognised and generally considered by many as a leading figure in terms of English prose writing in the 20th century. Not only that, he is also regarded by many to be the most prominent and influential satiric writer whose books generated voluminous academic analysis and wide scholarly attention from around the world. He wrote many books, among which were the famous Nineteen Eighty Four and Shooting an Elephant.

# Animal Farm Translated into the Hausa Language

According to Newman (2000, p.1), Hausa is a language that is spoken predominantly in northern Nigeria and some parts of Niger. It is a minority language dispersed across the West African sub-continent. *Animal Farm (AF)* was translated into Hausa (*Gandun Dabbobi, GD*) by Bala Abdullahi Funtua in 1975 and published by Ibadan University Press, Nigeria. The translator of the Hausa version of *AF*, Funtua, was a Nigerian

translator from Katsina State. He wrote the Hausa translation in 1975, exactly 30 years after the first publication of the English version. Funtua noted in the epilogue of his translation that it "resets the story in a Hausa context without losing any of the liveliness and pungency of the original. Gandun Dabbobi will be invaluable both as a secondary level reading text for students of Hausa and as an aid to students studying Animal Farm..." (back cover). GD has been widely accepted in Hausa society, and has been included in the secondary school syllabus. The book is studied at the university level in some literary classes in different universities where Hausa language and linguistics are taught.

### RELATED STUDIES

Shift is one of the most interesting features of translation. Though translation is ordinarily expected to convey an equal message (equivalence) of the SL to the TL, it is found that, sometimes, the message must be shifted from its original features in order for it to be conveyed effectively to properly suit the cultural, linguistic and structural properties of the TT. According to Fauzanah (2009, cited in Farrokh, 2011) and Farrokh (2011), applying shifts does not always result in a total distortion of meaning. Azadmanesh (2007) observed that shifts are used to avoid loss of meaning. Without such shifts, the intended message may not be natural to the native speakers of the target language. This may be based on the linguistic and structural differences between the two languages of

the texts. Thus, shift is the only solution in some forms of translations and for particular contexts.

Mohammed (2013) examined the shift of cohesion in GD and AF. The study discussed how different kinds of shift of cohesion are identified in the translation of AF into GD. He argued that these changes occurred as a result of differences that exist between the two languages. The study was able to identify various forms of shift relying on Halliday and Hasan (1976) and Catford (1965). However, the study did not properly link its findings to the frameworks which the researcher claimed to have depended upon. With regards to the forms of shift of conjunctive relations, his findings were not solidly and properly discussed according to Catford's (1965) categorisation of shifts. Mohammed (2013) found 22 forms of cohesion shift, which include shifts of conjunctions such as structure shifts, intrasystem shifts, class shifts and level shifts. Finally, Mohammed (2013) looked at the whole concept of cohesion, including other cohesive devices such as reference, substitution, ellipsis and lexical cohesion. However, in the current research, emphasis is given to conjunctive relations and how their translation results in a structure shift in the Hausa language.

Retnomurti (2012) discovered how Indonesian noun phrases are translated into English and the kind of problems encountered during such translation. The study discussed the types of equivalence that exist in the translation of Indonesian noun phrases into English and what kinds of shift exist in the English translation of the Indonesian noun phrase. The study used a descriptive qualitative method. An Indonesian novel titled Ponggeng Dukuh Paruk written by Ahamad Tohari and its English translation The Dancer, translated by Rene T. Alysloff, were used as the sources of the data for analysis. The researchers categorised the data into two main categories, which were equivalence and shifts. Equivalence contains three divisions, which are textual equivalence, linguistic equivalence and dynamic equivalence. The findings of the study revealed that there were three types of shifs found in the translation of Indonesian noun phrases to English. These were: 1. Structure shifts in word order - the SL head word initial was translated in the TL head final. 2. Unit shift, where the SL phrase was translated into a TL word, the SL phrase was translated into a TL compound word, the SL phrase was translated into three words in the TL, and 3. Intra system shifts, where phrases with no determiners were translated with phrases with determiners. The overall finding of the study showed that shifts occurred more than equivalence with 58% shifts and 42% of equivalence.

Various studied have been conducted using Catford's (1965) notions of shifts. For instance, in his paper titled "Equivalence in Translation Theories: A Critical Evaluation", Panou (2013) summarised Catford's contribution to the field of translation, where he mentioned how equivalence is related to shifts in Catford (1965). Although the paper relied greatly on equivalence, Catford's (1965) contribution and categorisation of

shifts were not discarded. In his words, Panou (2013, p. 3), while explaining shifts in translation, asserted that, "Shifts refer to the changes that take place during the translation process." Panou (2013) concluded his discussion on Catford's (1965) views by mentioning some heavy criticism directed at Catford's (1965) views by Snell-Hornby, especially where Catford maintained that the deepest relation of translation lies only with linguistic studies. Snell-Hornby (1988, pp.19-20, cited in Panou 2013, p.3) maintained that apart from linguistic factors, other factors which include historical, cultural and situational factors must also be considered. She regarded Catford's views as "circular", "hopelessly inadequate," and "isolated and even absurdly simplistic" (p.3). However, other scholars applauded and supported Catford's effort. Malmkjaer (2005, p.24 cited in Panou, 2013, p. 3), "insightfully" observed that "one should bear in mind that when Catford (1965, p.20) defines translation as the replacement of SL textual material by TL equivalent textual material he does not mean equivalent in meaning."

Farroukh (2011) used and applied Catford's (1965) categorisation of shifts while assessing the most frequent feature between equivalence and shifts in the Persian translation of English complex sentences with wh-subordinate clauses. The study, which was a qualitative study, used both the English source text and the Persian target text translations as the sources of data for the study. The study identified four

kinds of shift, which were all categorised according to Catford's (1965) classification. These shifts were word shifts, structure shifts, rank shifts and intra-system shifts. Similarly, the findings showed that shifts occurred more frequently than equivalence. The occurrence of shifts was estimated to be 86.25% as against equivalence, which was estimated to be only 13.75%. This suggests that in the Persian to English translation of complex sentences with whsubordinate clauses, shift is considered to be more common than equivalence, especially when the genre under study is fiction. The study found that in the Persian translation of English complex sentences containing wh-subordinate clauses, the position of the main and subordinate clauses, especially in subordinate clauses with wh-words like "when" and "what", is reversed. Similarly, a structure shift was also found. It occurs in the addition of the Persian conjunctive word "ke" between clauses starting with whwords like "where", "which" and "who".

However, Dewi, Indrayani and Citraresmana (2014) studied equivalence and shift in the translation of English adjective phrases into Indonesian. The study found that equivalence had overshadowed shift at a high percentage of 72% of equivalence. Only 28% of shifts were identified in the Indonesian translation of English adjective phrases. The main aim of the study was to find the shifts and equivalence in the Indonesian translation of English adjective phrases. The data were collected from *National Geographic* magazine articles.

With respect to the form of a shift found in the study, only class shift was identified. This shows that not all forms of shift as categorised by Catford (1965) are identified concurrently in all studies on shifts.

In contrast to past studies, the current study focussed on shifts in conjunctive relations at inter-sentential level only. The main difference between Mohammed's (2013) study and the current study lies in the fact that the current study went deep into linking every section of the study to the framework of Halliday and Hasan's (1976) Table of conjunctive relations solidly. Equally, the current study focussed on all the conjunctive relations found in the SL English text at inter-sentential level and how they are translated into the Hausa TT with the possible effects of the shifts found.

### The Concept of Conjunctions in Translation

Conjunctions fall under the general concept of cohesion. Cohesion goes with coherence. Conjunctions help in maintaining cohesion of a text and thus, their proper translation helps to maintain equivalence in translation. Coherence and cohesion maintain textual organisation, which subsequently help in maintaining the textual equivalence of texts. Attaining equivalence is the uppermost and highest aspiration of every translator. This makes pairs of translated messages to achieve some degree of textual equivalence, which in the end, results in bringing the

desired goal of maintaining equivalence in the whole translation. This is illustrated in Figure 1.

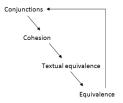


Figure 1. Position of conjunctions in translation

### THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The study used the table of conjunctive relations of Halliday and Hasan's (1976) notion of conjunctions. This was used together with Catford's (1965) categorisation of shifts in translation. The study focussed on the shifts found in the inter-sentential cohesive conjunctive relations from English into Hausa based on the two novels under study only.

For this study, the Summary Table of Conjunctive Relations by Halliday and Hasan (1976, pp.242-243), as shown in Table 1 above, is used as the researcher's theoretical framework of study. The conjunctive relations as classified by Halliday and Hasan (1976) are additive, adversative, causal, temporal and continuatives. The conjunctions that appear in *AF* that will be extracted will be those that appear at inter-sentential level only and the study will investigate how these are translated to *GD* in Hausa.

Table 1 Summary of conjunctive relations

	External/internal	Internal (unless otherwise specified			
Addictive	Additive, simple: Additive and, and also Negative nor, and not not Alternative or, or else	Complex, emphatic: Addictive furthermore, in addition, besides Alternative alternatively Complex, de-emphatiac: Afterthought incidentally, by the way	Apposition: Expository that is, I mean, in other words Exemplificatory for instance thus	Comparison: Similar likewise, similarly, in the same way Dissimilar on the other hand, by	
Adversative	Adversative 'proper': Simple yet,though, only Containing but 'and' Emphatic however, nevertheless, despite this	Contrastive: Avowal in fact actually, as a matter of fact Contrastive (external): Simple but, and Emphatic however, on the other	Correction: Of meaning instead rather, on the contrary Of wording at least, rather, I mean	Dismissal: Closed in any case, in either case, whichever way it is Open ended in any case, anyhow, at any rate, however it it	
Causal	Causal, general Simple so, the hence therefore Emphatic consequently, because of this  Causal, specific: Reason for this reason, on account of this Result as a result, in consequence Purpose for this purpose, with this in mind	Reversed causal: Simple for, because Causal, specific: Reason it follows, on this basis Result arising out of this	Conditional (also external): Simple  Emphatic in that case, in such an event, that being so being so circumstances otherwise, polarity under other circumstances	Respective: Direct in this respect, in this regard with reference to this Reversed otherwise, in Polarity other respects, aside from this	
Temperal	Temporal, simple (external only); Sequential then, next, after that Simultaneous just then, at the same time Preceding previously, before that Conclusive: Simple finally, at last Correlative forms: Sequential first then Conclusive at first in the end	Complex (external only): Immediate at once, thereupon Interrupted soon, after a time Repetitive next time, on another occasionr Specific next day, an hour later Durative meanwhile Terminal until then Punctiliar at this	Internal temporal Sequential then, next, secondly Conclusive finally, in conclusion Correlative forms: Sequential first next Conclusive finally	'Here and now': Past up to now, hitherto Present at this point, here Future from now on, hence- forward  Summary: Summary: Summarizing to sum up, in short briefly Resumptive to resume, to return to	

Summary Table of Conjunctive Relations (adopted from Halliday and Hasan 1976 pp. 242-243)

### **Research Objectives**

The study aimed to investigate how the translation of conjunctive relations results in shifts in the target language. The study had the following objectives:

- 1. To identify the forms of structural shifts found in the translation of conjunctive relations in the English *Animal Farm* to *Gandun Dabbobi* in Hausa
- 2. To explore the effects of these shifts on the translated message of the target text in Hausa

### **Research Questions**

The research questions for the study were as follows:

- 1. What are the forms of structural shift found in the translation of conjunctive relations in the English *Animal Farm* to *Gandun Dabbobi* in Hausa?
- 2. What are the effects of these shifts on the translated message of the target text in Hausa?

### Significance of the Study

Based on the researchers' review of past studies, this study is probably the first of its kind to look thoroughly at the structure shifts that are found in the translation of inter-sentential conjunctive relations in the novel *Animal Farm* from English into its Hausa translation, *Gandun Dabbobi*.

The findings from this study may help both students and researchers to undertake future research in this area and to have points of reference when doing other research that is related to the study of inter-sentential conjunctive relations in other novels.

Moreover, the overall significance of the study is to enhance the academic field of translation studies, as it will help researchers keen on conducting research into the translation of shifts of inter-sentential conjunctive relations using other pairs of languages besides English and Hausa.

### FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

#### Structure Shifts

These are the first forms of shifts found in the study. Structure shifts are found to take effect within the structure of the target language after a source text is translated. It is more or less a shift in the position of lexical items from its original place in the source language to another position in the target language. Shifts of position normally affect the original structure of the conjunctive relation from its initial position in a sentence to another position within the sentence. There are many examples of such shifts found in the data, which include:

Structure shift of additive conjunctive relation "and" (kuma) + pronoun, into pronoun + additive conjunction "and". Consider the following examples extracted from the data:

62a. <u>And you</u> hens, how many eggs have you laid in this last year, and how many of those eggs ever hatched into chickens?

- 62b. <u>Ku kuma</u> waxannan kajin, qwai nawa kuka saka a bana, kuma nawa ne aka bar muku ku qyanqyashe?
- BT: <u>You and</u> these hens, eggs how many you laid this year.....,
- 63a. <u>And you</u>, Clover, where are those four foals you bore, who should have been the support and pleasure of your old age?
- 63b. <u>Ke kuma</u>, ina'yan duqushi huxu da kika tava haihuwa, waxanda zasu riqa taimakonki, suna sanyaya miki zuciya idan tsufa ya zo?
- BT: <u>You and</u>, where foals four you bore, who should have been helping you, and put pleasure to you when old age comes?
- 64a. <u>And I</u> was a long way away, but I am almost certain I saw this he was talking to you and you were allowing him to stroke your nose.
- 64b. <u>Na kuma</u> tsinkayeku, kodayake dai tsakaninmu da nisa, amma na tabbata na ga yana hira da ke, har ma yana shafarki a hanci.
- BT: <u>I and</u> watched you, however between us there was a distance,
- 65a. <u>And thereafter, he</u> declared, so much labour would be saved that the animals would only need to work three days a week.

- 65b. <u>Ya kuma</u> ce musu idan an gama, za a samu sauqi qwarai, har ma zai zama sau uku a sati kaxai za a riqa yin aiki.
- BT: <u>He and</u> said, when it is finished, there would be relief much,

In the above four (4) sentences, 62a-65b, the English sentences that come with a structure of additive + pronoun, have been shifted to pronoun + additive in their translation into the Hausa language. This is a structure shift according to Catford (1965), as can be seen in the explanation of the types of shift found in the study. In the Hausa language, both structures of pronoun + additive and additive + pronoun can be used and the same meaning can be attained. However, based on the native language knowledge of the researcher, pronoun + additive conjunction has an additional emphasis in certain contexts especially when someone is talking in an interrogatory manner. It is better emphasised than in the former. In the above examples, it is clear that the English structure of additive + pronoun has been shifted to pronoun + additive, as can be seen in the illustration below:

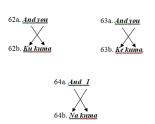


Figure 2. Structure shift of additive conjunction "and" + pronoun from English to pronoun + "and" in Hausa

Figure 2 above clearly shows how the structure of the English *additive* + *pronoun* is changed and shifted to *pronoun* + *additive* in all the instances where the additive is "and" in the Hausa sentences. Despite the fact that had the translator translated it the way it appears in the SL, that is, *pronoun* + *additive*, it would have also been accepted and considered appropriate in the TL, he still chose to make the shift because it sounded better in the given context. It may also have been as a result of his effort to domesticate the language to suit the natural and cultural setting of the target readers.

Structure shift of additive conjunctive relation "not" (ba a) from the beginning of the sentence to the middle of the sentence. Another form of structure shift found in the data is the shift of the additive conjunction "not" from its initial position in the sentence to another position. This can be seen in the example given below:

- 67a. Since Jones had left the farm, until today, no animal had killed another animal. *Not* even a rat had been killed.
- 67b. Tun lokacin da aka kori Nomau, har ya zuwa yau, babu wata dabbar da ta tava kashe yar uwarta.Ko gafiya ba a tava kashewa ba.

Ko gafiya <u>ba a</u>tava kashewa ba.

BT: Even a rat <u>not</u> has been killed.

**Not** even a rat had been killed



The additive conjunctive relation "not" in the above sentence has been translated properly. However, its position has been shifted from the sentence initial position to the sentence medial position. "Not" is an additive conjunctive relation that shows negation in the English language. Newman and Newman (1977, p.8) justified that in Hausa "ba" is explained as a "general negation marker."

Structure shifts of adversative conjunctive relation "only" (kawai/kadai) from the beginning of the sentence to the middle of the sentence. According to Ma Newman (1997, p.190), the English "only" is primarily translated into Hausa as "kawai" followed by "kadai" and some other extended meanings in the Hausa language, which sometimes refer also to "alone". This meaning is strictly maintained in all the translations of the cohesive "only" as it appears in the SL and its TL translation. The sentences extracted from the English AF and its Hausa GD translation, are as follows:

158a. Is it not crystal clear, then, comrades, that all the evils of this life of ours spring from the tyranny of human beings? *Only* get rid of Man, and the produce of our labour would be our own.

158b. Ya 'yanuwana shi wannan bai isa aya ba a garemu? Wane ne mafarin wannan mummunar azaba da muke sha in banda Xan adam? Mu kori xan adam<u>kawai</u>, don mu samu mu ci moriyar wahalarmu.Kusan a dare xaya sai ku ga mun azurt idan mun kori mutum.

Mu kori xan adam<u>kawai</u>, don mu samu mu ci moriyar wahalarmu. Kusan a dare xaya sai ku ga mun azurt idan mun kori mutum.

# BT: We get rid of man <u>only</u>, for us to get the benefit of our labour.

- 159a. Even the hens and ducks came, and were at pains not to tread on the chalk marks. *Only* Napoleon held aloof.
- 159b. Hatta agwagi da kaji su ma sukan zo, amma sai sun yi taka-tsan-tsan don kada su taka zanen.Maitumbi ne <u>kaxai</u> ba ya zuwa.

Maitumbi ne **kaxai** ba ya zuwa.

### BT: Napolean only not come.

160a. In their spare moments the animals would walk round and round the half-finished mill, admiring the strength and perpendicularity of its walls and marvelling that they should ever have been able to build anything so imposing. *Only* 

old Benjamin refused to grow enthusiastic about the windmill.....

160b. Sauran dabbobin kuwa suka zo lokacin da ba su aikin komai su riqa zagaya ginin, suna sha'awarsa, balle ma yadda ya tafi sak. Aura ne <u>kaxai</u> bai damu da wannan aiki ba....

Aura ne **kaxai** bai damu da wannan aiki ba....

### BT: Old Benjamin *only* never cares with the work.

- 161a. They were always cold, and usually hungry as well. <u>Only</u> Boxer and Clover never lost heart.
- 161b. Akawal ne <u>kaxai</u>da Goxi ba su tava yanke qauna ba.

# BT: Boxer <u>only</u> and Clover never lost heart

- 162a. For some time nobody spoke. *Only* Boxer remained on his feet.
- 162b. Dabbobin nan babu mai iya cewa komai. Akawal ne kaxai a tsaye......

# BT: Animals here not who is able to say anything. Boxer <u>only</u> remained standing.

It can be noted that in all the sentences where the adversative conjunction "only" appears,

a shift occurs in the Hausa translation. In other words, the structure of all the sentences containing "only" were shifted in the Hausa translation to the middle position. In the English examples, the conjunctive relation "only" appeared at an inter-sentential level but in the Hausa translation, "only" never appears in the beginning of any of the sentences. It can be established thus, based on the data analysed, the conjunctive relation "only", which occurs in an intersentential level and is translated into Hausa as "kawai/kadai", does not appear at the beginning of a Hausa sentence, especially from what has been found in the data and in the standard form of the Hausa language. Similarly, the words "kawai/kadai" are not used cohesively in an inter-sentential level in the Hausa language as the data showed.

Structure shift of temporal conjunctive relation "at last" (a qarshe/daga qarshe) into kai + temporal. The prepositional phrase "at last" is used as a temporal conjunctive relation, as it appears in the table of conjunctive relations by Halliday and Hasan (1976, pp.232-234). "At last" is translated into Hausa as "daga qarshe" or "a qarshe". It is used between sentences to show the relationship between a previous sentence and the current sentence. In some Hausa translations, there is an addition of a particle "kai", as can be seen in the example below:

226a. At last they could stand it no longer.

226b. <u>Kai daga qarshe</u>dai sai suka kasa jurewa.

### BT: <u>Indeed at last</u> they could not endure.

The Hausa word "kai" is originally a noun, which means "head", and is commonly used as a pronoun, which refers to "you" in English. However, according to Newman and Newman (2006, p.60), the word "kai" has some other extended meanings when used in different tones that show emphasis, doubt or surprise. Therefore, in the translation of the temporal conjunctive relation "at last", the word "kai" is added at the beginning of the sentence followed by "daga qarshe" or "a qarshe" to show emphasis of what is being said.

Structure shift of temporal conjunctive relation "at first" (da farko) from the beginning of the sentence to the middle of the sentence. Although the temporal conjunctive relation "at first" has been translated appropriately at its inter-sentential level, there is a shift in one of the translated sentences into the Hausa language, where the temporal conjunctive relation was translated intra-sententially (see 234b). Therefore, it lost its cohesive value as shown in the following example:

234a. <u>At first</u> it was a little difficult to see how this fitted in with his being on Jones's side.

234b. Wannan ya sa <u>da farko</u> suka kasa fahimta da yadda za a ce wai Xantulu ya haxa kai da Nomau.

### BT: This makes it <u>at first</u> they did not understand

Structure shift of temporal conjunctive relation "hitherto" (a da) from the beginning of the sentence to the middle of the sentence. The temporal conjunctive relation "hitherto" has been appropriately rendered into the TL as "a da", which aptly captured its real meaning in the TL. However, its position in the translated text has been shifted from its sentence initial position to medial position (see 247b), which clearly showed an obvious change or shift from its SL structure, as shown in the example below:

- 247a. He did not believe, he said, that any of the old suspicions still lingered, but certain changes had been made recently in the routine of the farm which should have the effect of promoting confidence stiff further. *Hitherto* the animals on the farm had had a rather foolish custom of addressing one another as 'Comrade.'
- 247b. Baya zaton har yanzu da kwai irin tsohon zargin nan da ake yi da, amma duk da haka irin canje-canje da aka yi a Gandun, za su qara sa samun jituwa. Ya ce**a da**, dabbobin suna da wata al'adar banza ta ce wa junansu Xan'uwa. Za a hana wannan ko ta halin qaqa.

Ya ce**a da**, dabbobin suna da wata

al'adar banza ta ce wa junansu Xan'uwa. Za a hana wannan ko ta halin qaqa.

BT: He said hitherto, the animals have a foolish custom of calling themselves comrades.

Structure shift of temporal conjunctive relation "here" (nan/a nan) from the beginning of the sentence to the middle of the sentence. Like the other temporal conjunctive relations, "here" is translated properly with its temporal and to some extent spatial sense of "nan" (temporal) or "a nan" (spatial), respectively, into the Hausa language. However, the structure of the sentence has been changed and the position of "here" has been shifted to the middle position in the Hausa translation, as seen in the example below:

- 249a. *Here*, in the evenings, they studied blacksmithing, carpentering, and other necessary arts from books which they had brought out of the farmhouse
- 249b. Aladu sai suka mayar da wani xaki nan ne matattararsu,Bne suke koyon sana'o'i kamar su qira, sassaqa da dai sauran san'o'in da suka koya daga cikin littattafan da suka xebo daga gidan Gandun.
- BT: Pigs converted a room into their meeting place, <u>here</u> they learn arts such as blacksmithing, carving and other forms of arts.

### **CONCLUSION**

For research question 1, where structure shifts were concerned, this study found seven types of structure shifts in the translation of *Animal Farm* (SL – English) to *Gandun Dabbobi* (TL – Hausa), which have been discussed in the section above with appropriate examples given as support from the data of this study.

For research question 2, on the effects of the shifts found in the translated message, the research aimed at discovering some possible effects of the shifts found in the TL. The research question was answered using Nida's (1964) theory of formal and dynamic/functional equivalence in order to see how shifts play a role in transferring meaning in the target text. The answers to the research question are also based on the researcher's inductive and intuitive native speaker knowledge and his ability of perfectly speaking and communicating in the Hausa language.

Based on Nida's (1964) formal and dynamic equivalence theory, the effects of these shifts on the translated message of the target language can be categorised under two broad sub-headings, which are related to either formal or dynamic equivalence in the target text. These two categories are as follows:

- 1. Message conveyed appropriately.
- Message conveyed not quite appropriately.

Concerning the message conveyed in an appropriate sense, consider the following example from the data:

- 62a. <u>And you</u> hens, how many eggs have you laid in this last year, and how many of those eggs ever hatched into chickens?
- 62b. <u>Ku kuma</u> waxannan kajin, qwai nawa kuka saka a bana, kuma nawa ne aka bar muku ku qyanqyashe?

In the above example, although there is clearly a shift in the translation as shown in the illustration below (67b), the message is appropriately conveyed and the shift plays a vital role in making the message more natural to the target readers. This validates the findings of Azadmanesh (2007), who asserted that shifts are used in order to avoid loss of meaning. This shows that sometimes shifts serve as the only option for the translator in certain contexts.

Another example is:

- 67a. Since Jones had left the farm, until today, no animal had killed another animal. *Not* even a rat had been killed.
- 67b. Tun lokacin da aka kori Nomau, har ya zuwa yau, babu wata dabbar da ta tava kasha yaruwarta. Ko gafiya ba a tava kashawa ba.

Ko gafiya <u>ba a</u> tava kashewa ba.

### BT: Even a rat not has been killed.



Ko gafiya <u>ba a</u> tava kashewa ba

In the above example, if not because of the shift, the flow of the message could not have been achieved.

On the other hand, sometimes the message is conveyed, however, not in the most appropriate manner as a result of the shift. This can be seen as in the following example:

- 226a. <u>At last</u> they could stand it no longer.
- 226b. <u>Kai daga qarshe</u> dai sai suka kasa jurewa.

## BT: <u>Indeed at last</u> they could not endure.

The message in the above sentence is conveyed but not in the most appropriate manner suitable to the comprehension of the target readers.

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# Tertiary Students' Learning Practices using Information and Communication Technology to Promote Higher-Order Thinking

Ganapathy, M.1\*, Manjet Kaur1 and Kaur, S.2

<sup>1</sup>English Language Studies Section, School of Languages, Literacies and Translation, Universiti Sains Malaysia, Penang, Malaysia, 11800 Penang, Malaysia

<sup>2</sup>English Language Studies Section, School of Humanities, Universiti Sains Malaysia, Penang, Malaysia. 11800 Penang, Malaysia

### **ABSTRACT**

The National Education Blueprint (2013-2025) is grounded based on high-performing systems which promote a transformation of the Malaysian education system in line with the vision of Malaysia's National Philosophy in achieving educational outcomes which are of world-class status. Information and Communication Technology (ICT) impacts on the efficiency of promoting higher-order thinking skills (HOTs) as it provides a platform for educationists with clear educational objectives to share ideas and collaborate on ways to enrich the learning experiences of students. Now, the important question, how is this integration working out for Malaysian university students and educators? This exploratory study aims at gaining deeper insights into the current learning practices used by both university teachers and students, the types of ICT used in their classes, their views on the integration of these skills into the curriculum and also the application methods of teaching and learning using ICT to promote HOTs. Data were collected using purposive sampling where 199 participants were selected to take part in the study. These respondents were a group of English major undergraduate students from several faculties in a public university in Malaysia. This study shows that the students' experience in their degree programmes have revealed several successes, as well as poignant challenges, related to the use of ICT

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E-mail addresses:
malinik@usm.my (Ganapathy, M.),
manjeet@usm.my (Manjet Kaur),
sarjit@usm.my (Kaur, S.)
\* Corresponding author

in inculcating higher order thinking skills among learners. The implications of this study suggest several important insights on the potential opportunities of technologies in facilitating higher order thinking but success lies on the tasks that are appropriately designed for higher order thinking in the content.

Keywords: English major students, higher-order thinking skills, information and communication technology

### INTRODUCTION

While educators may recognise the importance of critical thinking in the educational curricula, many may become disillusioned because of the difficulties in implementing and motivating non-native English-speaking students to become involved in critical thinking strategies and activities in the classroom. The major shift, as a result of explicitly including the development of critical thinking skills in a course curriculum, is not an addition of new materials or activities, but an alteration of the current practice (Stroupe, 2006). The gap between the intentions of lecturing staff and the reliance on assessment strategies that focus on the reproduction of knowledge rather than its manipulation or transformation, raises the question of whether higher order learning is in fact being assessed (Moir, 2013). The reason for this might be that in the classroom, an immersion approach is used. In order to make students more conscious critical thinkers, it is suggested that lecturers should make students more aware of the skills and dispositions that are required in different tasks and activities by directly making references to them (Orszag, 2015).

The twin forces of globalisation and internationalisation have put a critical demand on the higher education system in Malaysia to transform dynamically in measuring up to the global needs of the 21st century and achieving the advanced nation status vision by 2020 (Ganapathy & Kaur, 2014). According to the Malaysian Education Blueprint 2015-2025 (Higher Education), the Ministry of Education hopes to construct a system that is less focused on traditional academic pathways and intends to transform the mass product delivery model of teaching to technology-enabled innovations that delivers and tailors education for all students.

The Malaysian education system needs to undergo comprehensive transformation if it is to rise to meet the nation's ambitious visions and aspirations (Ganapathy, 2016). The learning culture in the university should be aligned with the national education aim to create students who are critical and active in the process of gaining knowledge. Therefore, this study aims to investigate the perceptions of university students on the success, challenges and importance of ICT utilisation in promoting higher-order thinking skills in the English as a second language (ESL) classroom. This study will be able to provide deeper insights into the current teaching and learning approaches used by both university teachers and students, the types of ICT used in their classes, their views on the integration of these skills into the curriculum and also the application methods of teaching and learning using ICT to promote Higher Order Thinking Skills (HOTs).

### LITERATURE REVIEW

It has been a major challenge for educators in the higher education sector to develop and

improve students' HOTs as it is something more abstract than developing students' knowledge or language proficiency. However, in a Singapore based study, Chan (2002) reported that schools could do more than just promoting recall (misleadingly called knowledge), comprehension and application to improve students' HOTs. As indicated by the Head of UNESCO-UNEVOC International Centre, there must be some foundational changes in the traditional pedagogical approach, role of education participants, as well as curricula (Majumdar, 2015) before any effects can really take place. The results of this shift from the traditional pedagogical approach should take into consideration the current industry needs, where learning trends in the 21st century should nurture students to be able to think, reason, analyse, evaluate evidence and communicate effectively. Ali (2012), in his Malaysian context study, has also supported that these critical thinking tools are vital survival skills that every student must have to be effective in the 21st century classroom.

The application of ICT in teaching and learning to promote HOTs is a good start to change traditional pedagogical approaches and design a more effective and functioning learning environment. The Ministry of Education is committed in its efforts to promote thinking skills in Malaysian educational institutions (Ali, 2002) by implementing the *i-Think* programme in collaboration with Agensi Inovasi Malaysia (AIM) to develop students' thinking skills

and cultivate lifelong learning in primary and secondary schools in 2013 (Tenth Malaysia Plan, 2011).

### ICT Utilisation in a Constructivist Learning Approach

Constructivism is built on the proposition that learning is a result of mental construction where new and old information is pieced together as we reflect on our experiences rather than being passively receptive towards all that was taught to us. Constructivism is a theory about learning, not a description of teaching (Fosnot & Perry, 1996). Learning, in this context, is an active process of constructing rather than acquiring knowledge, whereas instruction is a process of supporting that construction rather than communicating knowledge (Cunningham & Duffy, 1996).

The learning environment should provide the learner with opportunities to test and try out new conceptual understanding in various applied circumstances like problem solving (Chan, 2002). Under these circumstances, it is the educators' responsibility to model these constructivist approaches to engage with students in experiential learning, reflection, and selfexamination (Abdul-Haqq, 1998). ICT may seem to be the solution towards transforming the traditional pedagogical approach. According to Derry & LaJoie (as cited in Chan, 2002, p. 34), these cognitive tools are unintelligent as it is merely relying on the user to key in the intelligence. The learner, instead of the computer, is responsible for self-regulating her own learning and thinking, a situation totally opposite in reality.

When computers are used as partners in learning, learners are liberated from the unproductive task of memorising while the software should facilitate the students in extending and expanding their thoughts on what they are studying (Chan, 2002). When this happens, it would be an accurate projection of what the educators want in the integration of ICT and constructivist learning – generating authentic learning where students explore answers as autonomous learners. By harnessing the power of ICT, we can facilitate the development of students' mental capacity of learning and thinking actively.

It is understandable that educational institutions in developing countries are passing through the phase of mixing old and new technologies in their classrooms (Kundi & Nawaz, 2010). But relating constructivism as a theory of learning to the practice of instruction would be crucial to identify the current central principles in learning and understanding (Savery & Duffy, 2001). Summing up by quoting Petko (2012, p. 43), "We need a better understanding of whether constructivist beliefs are associated with more intensive actual use of digital media, or alternatively, if digital media would be equally likely to find use today in traditional instructional settings".

### **Bloom's Taxonomy**

Bloom's taxonomy comprises three overlapping domains, namely the cognitive (knowledge-based), the affective (attitudebased) and the psychomotor (skills-based) consisting of five to six levels in each, which are believed to be crucial in the process of learning (Forehand, 2010). Originating from Bloom's taxonomy of learning, HOTs is defined by three upper levels of cognitive skills in the learning hierarchy: analysis (the lowest), synthesis and evaluation (the highest). Analysis refers to the ability of learners being able to deconstruct the structure of knowledge and categorise them into their respective groups, as well as identifying the relationship among the components of the knowledge structure (Marzano & Kendall, 2006). Synthesis can be illustrated using the following verbs: assemble, design, formulate and develop (Narayanan & Adithan, 2015). Evaluation requires learners to justify the value of a certain statement or piece of information for its relevance and consistency. Often, higher-order skills that occur late in the hierarchies are not introduced until after pre-requisite skills have been mastered. This is due to the traditional concept of learning being sequential and linear. The set back of this traditional concept of learning is that students never get to the point where they have the opportunity to engage in higherorder skills (Zohar, Degani, & Vaaknin, 2001).

### **Related Past Studies**

Researchers such as Schacter a Fagnano in their American study (1999) and Wegerif and Dawes (2004) have indicated that the use of ICT is appropriate for university students because it can lead to enhanced students' engagement and achievement when teachers use it effectively. Similarly, Lincoln (2008) stated that by putting greater emphasis on using ICT, it motivates and excites students' interest. In Lincoln's Australian study, ICTs were used to engender effort and persistence for sustained engagement in thinking and learning. According to Lincoln (2008, p. 56), "it was found that students expect to acquire clear educational or social values when incorporating technologies in their learning".

Furthermore, Costello and Chapin (2000) supplemented that Web-based instruction associated with hands-on activities promotes students' problemsolving skills by increasing their understanding of subject matter, learning motivation and HOTs. Similarly, Green's (2001) study to assess the effectiveness of the use of the wireless laptop at Latrobe High School, Australia found that the use of ICT could stimulate the classroom climate and improve collaborative learning and inquiry learning among students. In addition, analysing the students' desire from insider's perspective, Weaver, Spratt and Nair (2008) indicate that Australian students also appear to be discerning users of new technologies in education.

Research by Majumdar (2015), in collaboration with UNESCO-UNEVOC

International Centre, illustrated the fact that ICT changes the traditional educational approach (teacher-centred learning) into a more interactive and engaging environment to facilitate authentic knowledge transmission where students become producers of knowledge under the guidance from the lecturers (student-centred learning). ICT impacts the interactive aspect of learning. The change brought about by ICT was discussed by Razak and Lee (2012) in their study involving respondents from a tertiary level institution in Malaysia, which examined the impacts of a technological application called Wiki in relation to the promotion of HOTs within the teaching and learning of literary text. The study reports that Wiki can be very helpful in fostering HOTs for the following reasons: a) it possesses an open-editing feature which allows lecturers to further expand their instructions on the students' work whenever necessary and provide positive feedback, b) it has a structured layout of discussion posts which enables students to review others' texts and have successive in-depth interaction with the teacher, and c) it comes with multimedia embedding to stimulate evaluation reviews from the students.

Furthermore, the following two Malaysian based studies researched on the effectiveness of Web 2.0 and the perception of students toward HOTs. Subran (2011) mentioned three main components of Web 2.0 that would support interactivity among users and allow people to collaborate and share information online: Blogs, Wikis and Social Networks. In this context, students

may develop a wide range of HOTs through the use of carefully designed learning tasks in an ICT based- environment. A study by Heong, Yunos, Hassan, Othman, and Kiong (2011) analysed the views of students of a technical and vocational faculty at a higher education institution in Malaysia towards HOTs. In this study, the researchers found that students did not think they possess high levels of thinking skills as they had rated themselves as 'moderate' for investigation, experimental inquiry and invention and 'poor' for decision making and problem solving.

Literature review presented in this study highlights the importance of HOTs and ICT in promoting meaningful learning among students at all levels such as primary and tertiary. However, the literature presented focussed individually on either HOTs or ICT. In summation, the current study has taken a step further to investigate the promotion of HOTs through ICT among English major undergraduates in their daily learning experiences.

### METHODOLOGY

This study is part of a larger longitudinal research study that compares the practices of a selected group comprising of 199 tertiary English majors in a Malaysian university. The study aimed to analyse the students' perceptions about promoting HOTs while using ICT in their curricula. The quantitative data were collected using survey methodology which relates to the students' experiences on the application

of ICT in their learning process to engage with HOTs.

### **Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this study was to investigate tertiary English majors use of ICT to learn, tertiary English majors engagement with HOTs learning activities, the extent to which tertiary English majors use ICT to promote HOTs in their learning practices and the challenges experienced by tertiary English majors in engaging with HOTs using ICT.

### **Research Questions**

The following research questions were posed in order to investigate the students' practices regarding the use of ICT in the learning process in promoting HOTs:

- 1. How often do tertiary English majors use ICT to learn?
- 2. To what extent do tertiary English majors engage in HOTs learning activities during their lessons?
- 3. To what extent do tertiary English majors use ICT to promote HOTs in their learning practices?
- 4. What are the challenges experienced by tertiary English majors in engaging with HOTs using ICT?

### Sampling

Purposeful sampling was utilised to select 199 university students who are from different

years of study and faculties at Universiti Sains Malaysia (USM). A questionnaire was administered to these students enrolled in the English for Professionals (145 students), English Language and Literature Studies (23students) and English Language Studies degree programmes (31 students).

#### **Instruments**

The questionnaire was adapted from Ali (2012) for its relevance towards the study. The reliability of the questionnaire was determined using the Cronbach's alpha test, which has a 0.93 overall consistency score. The questionnaire consisted of 71 items in five sections. The questionnaire was validated through a pilot study that was carried out at Universiti Malaya among English major students. Section A consists of 7 items which ask for the demographic information of the students. Section B comprises two sub-sections. Part I asks for the students' experiences in using ICT, while Part II asks for their exposure towards ICT in their classroom. Both parts have 8 identical items respectively. Section C consists of 25 items relating to the types of learning activities that the students engage in during classes. Section D consists of 13 items that questions the students about their frequency in using ICT tools to promote HOTs learning. Section E consists of 10 items that intends to reveal the challenges faced by students in using ICT to engage in HOTs learning.

#### Data analysis

The research questions are directed at understanding the practices of a selected group of Malaysian university English majors on the importance of promoting HOTs, while using ICT in their curricula. In order to gain a better understanding of the situation, descriptive statistics such as frequency, mean score and standard deviation were generated through the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 20.

#### **RESULTS**

In relation to the tertiary English major students' usage of ICT in their academic degree programme, the mean scores of most of the items in this construct (Table 1) show that in general, the students habitually do use ICT. On the contrary, a significant number of students are only sometimes in the practice of using certain ICT applications. A significant showcase (M=2.0) of mean scores reflect students' high engagement with learning activities that promote HOTs (Table 2). A positive trend was also recorded in terms of students using ICT tools and resources to engage in activities that facilitate HOTs (Table 3). An average mean score in Table 4 shows some of the challenges that students are confronted with when they learn HOTs using ICT.

The results presented in Table 1 show that students frequently use desktop applications (73.4%) for their academic studies as English

Table 1
Students' ICT activities

Usage of ICT to learn English	1 (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	5 (%)	Mear
Desktop Application (Word, Excel, Publisher etc.)	41.2	32.2	15.1	9.0	2.5	1.99
Databases (Access, Open Educational Resource etc.)	12.1	25.6	32.7	23.1	6.5	2.86
Presentation Software (Power Point, Prezi etc.)	51.3	28.6	10.6	7.0	2.5	1.81
Hypermedia/Multimedia Software/ Web Design	11.1	19.1	26.1	30.2	13.6	3.16
Internet (Google, Bing, Yahoo etc.)	83.4	12.1	3.5	0.5	0.5	1.23
E-learning Portal	39.2	35.7	15.6	6.0	3.5	1.99
Digital telecommunication (Computer- mediated communication, telegraphy, computer networks etc.)	23.6	34.2	25.1	9.5	7.5	2.43
Web 2.0 (Blogs, Wikis, YouTube etc.)/ Social Network (Facebook, WhatsApp, Instagram etc.)	65.3	23.1	9.5	0.5	1.5	1.50

Scale: 1- Always 2- Often 3- Sometimes 4- Seldom 5- Never

majors at the university. Most students often use various software (M=1.81) for presentation and internet (M=1.23) for reference. Digital telecommunications (57.8%) and Web 2.0 applications (88.4%) are very popular among students too. However, students are only sometimes in the practice of using databases (M= 2.86) and Hypermedia software (M= 3.16). A significant proportion (2.43) of the students seemed to use digital telecommunication (Computer-mediated communication, telegraphy, computer networks, etc.) in their courses. About 30.2% of the students seldom and a proportion of 13.6% never engaged in Hypermedia/Multimedia Software/ Web Design. The most popular ICT activity carried out by students are Hypermedia/ Multimedia Software/ Web Design, with a mean score 3.16. These results are not surprising in view of the fact that young people in the 21st century are dealing with a myriad of technological tools to interact with others. Due to the vast growth of internet technology in the 21st century, e-learning via the use of ICT tools is increasingly used in many learning environments to enhance teaching and learning activities.

The results in Table 2 display an interesting trend which indicates that a significant proportion of students undertake various activities that promote HOTs when learning English courses in their degree programme at the university. Quite a high proportion (66.9%) of students have the opportunity to discuss higher level questions, while 27.6% of students sometimes experience it. Another 4.5% seldom engage in it and only 1% never do it at all. Although majority of the students

Table 2 *HOTs activities* 

Learning Activities that promote HOTs	1 (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	5 (%)	Mean
Brainstorming	36.2	41.2	19.1	3.5	0	1.90
Problem solving	41.2	39.7	13.6	4.0	1.5	1.85
Interactive lectures	27.1	43.7	22.1	7.0	0	2.09
Project-Based Learning	26.1	39.7	24.6	9.5	0	2.18
Discuss higher level questions	36.2	30.7	27.6	4.5	1.0	2.04
Engage in oral presentations	44.2	37.2	13.6	5.0	0	1.79
Reflect on their experiences	24.6	32.7	35.7	7.0	0	2.25
Participate in small group activities	25.1	34.7	33.2	5.5	1.5	2.24
Engage in idea exploration	25.6	38.7	27.1	8.0	0.5	2.19
Sequence questions from concrete to abstract	17.1	28.1	37.2	13.6	4.0	2.59
Engage in thinkingbeyond reading	30.2	40.2	23.1	6.0	0.5	2.07
Make hypotheses	20.1	33.7	29.1	16.1	1.0	2.44
Debate analytically to challenge pre-existing beliefs	15.1	32.2	35.2	11.6	6.0	2.61
Apply newly taught skills in varying contexts	18.6	44.2	28.6	6.5	2.0	2.29
Analyse functionally (to understand the purpose of something)	22.6	51.3	21.1	4.0	1.0	2.10
Analyse critically (to understand the consequences/implications of something)	31.2	41.7	22.1	4.5	0.5	2.02
Synthesise information	23.1	43.2	26.1	6.5	1.0	2.19
Evaluate information	27.1	46.7	20.6	3.5	2.0	2.07
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Scale: 1- Always 2- Often 3- Sometimes 4- Seldom 5- Never

engage in idea exploration, only 27.1% sometimes experience it. Students who seldom have the chance to make hypotheses comprise of 16.1%. The HOTs activity "debate analytically to challenge pre-existing beliefs" seems to be students' most practised activity with a mean score of 2.61 but 6% never had the opportunity to engage in it. A significant mean score reflects students' activities that enable them to analyse functionally (M=2.10) and analyse critically (M=2.02). With regard to students' activity pertaining to applying newly-taught skills in varying contexts, 28.6% of them

only sometimes have the opportunity to practise this activity that promotes HOTs. Similarly, for making hypotheses, 29.1% of the students only sometimes have the opportunity to apply HOTs related to this activity. In terms of synthesising information, 26.1% sometimes engage in this learning activity that promotes HOTs and 20.6% too are only sometimes given the chance to evaluate information.

The general trend in Table 3 highlights that the majority of English major students use ICT in their activities which promote HOTs. However, 20.6% of students only

Table 3
ICT activities that promote HOTs

Usage of ICT tools and Resources to:	1 (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	5 (%)	Mean
Analyse information	38.7	41.7	18.1	1.5	0	1.82
Interpret information	40.7	39.2	19.1	1.0	0	1.80
Present information	58.3	30.2	11.1	0.5	0	1.54
Synthesise information	34.7	38.7	20.6	5.0	1.0	1.99
Evaluate information	33.2	41.7	20.1	4.0	1.0	1.98
Report on group activities/assignments	53.8	35.7	10.1	0.5	0	1.57
Facilitate problem solving	34.2	38.7	20.1	6.5	0.5	2.01
Facilitate critical thinking	30.2	39.7	23.6	6.0	0.5	2.07

Scale: 1- Always 2- Often 3- Sometimes 4- Seldom 5- Never

Table 4
Challenges faced by English majors in learning HOTs using ICT

Challenges in learning HOTs using ICT	1 (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	Mean
I lack ICT skills.	6.0	30.2	48.2	15.6	2.73
I lack technological guidance from the lecturers.	4.5	39.2	45.2	11.1	2.63
I find it difficult to change from my current learning practice to integrate ICT tools in learning.	6.0	20.6	55.3	18.1	2.85
Extra time and effort is spent after integrating ICT tools in learning.	5.5	42.7	42.7	9.0	2.55

Scale: 1- Always 2- Often 3- Sometimes 4- Seldom 5- Never

sometimes use ICT tools to synthesise information. An almost similar proportion (20.1%) of students only sometimes use ICT tools to evaluate information and facilitate problem solving activities. The highest mean score of 2.07 highlights that the students have the opportunities to use ICT tools and resources to facilitate critical thinking skills.

The challenges that students experience when learning HOTs using ICT is much of a surprise according to Table 4. Although the majority have no problems in using ICT because they have sufficient skills, quite a

high proportion (36.2 %) of the students conveyed their lack of ICT skills. Similarly, 43.7% highlighted that they lack technology guidance from their lecturers. The greatest challenge seems to be that students find certain software difficult to use and it affects their learning of HOTs (78.4 %). Almost the same number of students (42.7%) agree and disagree that extra time and effort is spent after integrating ICT tools in their learning. On the other hand, 41.2% of the students reported that they do not really need to depend on ICT to learn HOTs.

#### **DISCUSSION**

While the findings of this small-scale study in one public university cannot be generalised to the learning practices of the entire population of tertiary English majors in Malaysia, the students' report of ICT practices suggests that Malaysian tertiary students generally do use a variety of ICT activities in their learning environment. The students reported frequently using desktop applications, softwares for enhancing their learning, digital technologies and Web 2.0. This is indeed encouraging and reflects a common trend of learning in other global tertiary contexts. Such tools provide avenues for tertiary learners to engage with each other for learning activities as such activities motivate students and increase their enthusiasm (Stroupe, 2006). Students' practices of using ICT to promote their HOTs is vital in relating to constructivism as a theory of learning to the practice of instruction which is an important factor in terms of identifying the current central principles in learning and understanding (Savery & Duffy, 2001).

With regard to commonly used HOTs activities in their degree programmes, it was encouraging to note that a majority of the tertiary English majors (66.9%) reported having the opportunity to discuss highlevel questions, as well as explore ideas in their academic learning context. Such participation and engagement with learning seems to be consistent with the findings of other researchers (Zuraina, 2009; Razak & Lee, 2012), where it concurs with the constructivism theory as to learning, in this

context, is an active process of constructing rather than acquiring knowledge. The use of learning spaces, e-learning activities and the collaboration with other peers in the degree programme proved to be activities that were reportedly enjoyed by a majority of the English majors. Flexibility and connectivity appeared to be significant factors that promoted higher usage of ICT tools among the learners. In a similar vein, a majority of students stated that they used a wide range of ICT tools in their learning activities in the university and affirmed that these tools promoted the development of their HOTs Students acknowledge that such skills aid their problem solving and critical thinking skills.

The findings of the study also raised numerous challenges that have to be considered when inculcating HOTs using ICT tools. A significant percentage of students admit that they lack ICT skills (M=2.73) and they lack technological guidance from their lecturers (M=2.63). According to the tertiary English majors, their greatest challenge was changing from their current learning practice to integrate ICT tools (M=2.85). Several researchers point out that learning and technology can take time depending on students' prior learning experience (Stroupe, 2006; Moir, 2013; Orszag, 2015). As such, this can have an impact on the time available in the contact learning environment and lecturers need to factor this into their planning time. In order to accommodate learning activities using ICT in tertiary classrooms, care needs to be taken to ensure that the learning activities promote successful higher order thinking skills among learners.

The findings of this small-scale study have some implications for effective teaching and learning environments of the current and future tertiary English majors. Without being prescriptive, course lecturers in similar BA degree programmes can use ICT tools to foster quality learning. It is essential for tertiary course lecturers to engage learners in meaningful learning experiences towards further developing students' critical and higher order thinking repertoires in various linguistics and literature courses offered in the degree programme. Besides increasing their own use of technological tools during lectures, course lecturers can also encourage their students to use various technological tools when searching for information for their academic courses. Indeed, many public universities in Malaysia have e-learning portals which are frequently used by course lecturers to communicate a range of learning functions such as sharing of lecture notes, discussion questions and posting of assignment topics among other functions.

While such recommendations are made, it is also incumbent on educators and university educators to realise that altogether teachers, students and university administrators play important roles in creating a quality learning context that fosters HOTs among learners. The role of the teacher can include raising awareness in terms of making available activities using a variety of ICT tools when designing course assignments, semester essays and oral presentations. Teachers too can role

model such technological behaviours in their course lectures so students can head along the path towards becoming more knowledgeable about learning in such a medium.

#### **CONCLUSION**

Today's learners exist in a digital world where access to and range of social web tools and software technologies provide gateways to a multiplicity of interactive sources for information, learning, interaction and communication. There are indeed many benefits for tertiary learners to hone their learning practices using ICT tools. Among others, one clear benefit is that students who are adept at learning by using a range of ICT tools become more open-minded, active and strategic when they engage in academic learning. This study shows that the students' experiences in their degree programmes have revealed several successes, as well as poignant challenges, related to the use of ICT in inculcating higher order thinking skills among learners. In other words, student learning experience through the facilitation of a constructivism paradigm has the potential of yielding positive learning outcomes once challenges in using and integrating technology in the learning environment can be tackled by course lecturers and university administrators.

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# The Effect of Risk Management and Student Characteristics on Life Skills of Higher Education Students

Thanomwan, P.1\*, Keow Ngang, T.2, Prakittiya, T.1 and Sermpong, P.3

<sup>1</sup>Faculty of Education, Khon Kaen University, Khon Kaen 40002, Thailand

#### **ABSTRACT**

The purpose of this research was to examine the fixed and random effects of risk management on higher education students' activities at the student and faculty levels of analysis on their life skill development. It aimed to examine the relative impacts of the variables at the micro and macro levels. This study utilised the quantitative survey design using two types of questionnaire. A total of 588 samples consisted of 142 at the macro level and 446 at the micro level. The hierarchical linear model (HML) analysis was utilised to test the fixed effect and random effect of the null model, simple model and hypothesis model. The findings indicated that all the faculties had implemented their risk management higher than the average level. Findings of HML analysis indicated the total mean score of the students' life skills differed from one faculty to the other to another and could be used to explain the students' life skills. In addition, there were three independent variables, namely, gender, being a first-year student and being a Fine and Applied Arts student that could explain the prediction coefficient of the first level at 5.18%. At the micro level, the fixed effect analysis showed that the students' life skills parameter was 3.902, which was significant at 0.01. The macro-level independent variable in risk management of providing knowledge and skills as well as gender had a prediction coefficient of 48.6% and 18.2% to

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E-mail addresses: thapra@kku.ac.th (Thanomwan, P.), tangkeowngang@yahoo.com (Keow Ngang, T.), parkittya@gmail.com (Prakittiya, T.), sermphong@kku.ac.th (Sermpong, P.) \* Corresponding author

students' life skills, respectively. In addition, the variable for first-year students and third-year students had a negative prediction coefficient of 18.2% and 19.6% to their life skills, respectively. Finally, the independent variable of risk management on providing knowledge and skills had an impact on the students' life skills at 77.77%. The findings contribute significantly to the body of

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>International College, Khon Kaen University, Khon Kaen 40002, Thailand

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>Faculty Management Science, Khon Kaen University, Khon Kaen 40002, Thailand

knowledge and propose a more accurate estimation of life skills development thus promote better policies and practices at the university level.

*Keywords:* Risk management, student characteristics, life skills

#### INTRODUCTION

Higher education students need the assistance of life skills to navigate the challenges of daily life and develop into healthy, responsible and productive individuals (Hanbury & Malti, 2011). Life skills will enhance their capability to take greater responsibility for themselves by making vigorous choices, acquiring greater resistance to negative pressures, avoiding risk behaviours and being able to deal effectively with the challenges of daily life (Hassan & Al-Jubari, 2016). The desirable characteristics of future Thai human capital must encompass all areas of life: emotional stability, moral uprightness, virtuous living, healthy lifestyle, learning skills, love, strong family bonds and knowing one's rights and duties (Office of National Economic and Social Development Board, 2007).

Higher education is recognised for establishing and directing trends, exploring new knowledge, promoting new ideas and transforming innovation that can be turned successfully and practically to opportunities for business, industry and community (Md. Ariff, Zakuan, Mohd Tajudin, Ahmad, Ishak, & Ismail, 2014). According to Tufano (2011), higher education leaders are encouraged to implement and advance risk

management programmes. Tufano further emphasised that risk management can be beneficial for higher education institutions for addressing key areas of risk and for managing risks that hamper the institution's efforts to achieve its key performance indicators. As a result, risk management can minimise the consequences of unfavourable events and at the same time motivate the decision-making process to ensure specified organisational performance is met.

One best practice model for contributing to the healthy development of higher education students is a life skills approach. A key aspect of human development that is important for basic survival is the acquisition of life skills such as self-adjustment, creative thinking, self-reliance and responsibility. This has been shown to have an impact on behaviour. According to Pooja and Naved (2009), research into interventions that address these specific skills has shown their effectiveness in promoting desirable behaviour such as sociability, improved communication, effective decision-making, conflict resolution and avoidance of negative or high-risk behaviour.

Essentially, life skills are important particularly to higher education students. Without proper skills to adapt to and deal with life, higher education students may face problems in later life such as making wrong decisions and being isolated by society, among others (Mofrad, 2013). In other words, life skills are all the skills and knowledge students experience in addition to academic skills that are essential for effective living. This means that excellence

in academic skills alone cannot determine survival in life if one does not have other skills necessary in life such as effective communication, decision-making, selfawareness, problem-solving and so on (World Health Organisation, 2009).

#### LITERATURE REVIEW

Kijtorntham (2013) developed and validated a causal relationship model between life skills and risk behaviour of undergraduate students in Thailand. Kijorntham's results illustrated that the related factors to the risk behaviour of undergraduate students encompassed internal factors related to their bio-social characteristics and external environmental factors. The development model was properly fitted with empirical data  $\chi^2/df = 3.21$ , GFI = 0.99, RMR = 0.022, CFI = 0.99, and AGFI = 0.98. The model disclosed that the strongest factor affecting risk behaviour of undergraduate students was life skills at a negatively directed effect of 20%. The perception of health promoting factors had a 72% positively directed effect on health behaviour. Kijorntham's study concluded that life skills would be one way to lessen the risk behaviour of undergraduate students by generating more awareness of practical health behaviour practices and developing emotional control that would lead to minimising or eliminating risk behaviours that might lead to road accidents, violence, cigarette smoking and risky sex.

Mofrad (2013) investigated life skills among 500 undergraduate students from five universities in Subang Jaya, Malaysia. Mofrad utilised the LifeSkills Development Inventory College to measure four domains of life skills, namely, interpersonal communication, decision making, health maintenance and identity development. Mofrad's findings revealed a significant gender difference regarding health maintenance. Mofrad also suggested that educators should provide opportunities to undergraduate students to practise social skills to enable them to be better prepared to face challenges in daily life.

Haas, Mincemoyer and Perkins (2015) examined the effects of age, gender and 4H involvement in clubs on life skill development of youth aged 8 to 18 over a twelve-month period. Regression analysis showed that age, gender and 4H involvement significantly influenced life skill development. Haas et al.'s (2015) findings showed that females had higher levels of competencies in life skills at the beginning of the programme and were more likely to change in these areas during the year than their male counterparts. Therefore Haas et al. suggested that changes in programme design may be needed to better engage, retain and affect males in life skill development.

### CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK AND RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS

The main aim of this research was to investigate the effect of risk management in student activities and students' characteristics on their life skills in a public university in Khon Kaen province, Thailand. This study was based on the premise that risk management in student activities

and students' characteristics influenced higher education students' life skills at macro and micro levels. In particular, researchers evaluated the relative impact of risk management that exists at the student and faculty levels of analysis on their life skills development.

The variables in this study included risk management, students' characteristics and students' life skills. Risk management refers to the process in order of reducing the opportunity to cause loss and damage while implementing student activities in the university. Risk management of student activities was investigated according to the internal quality assurance (Office of the Higher Education Commission OHEC, 2014). Student activities were extra-curricular activities organised either by the higher education institutions or student organisations in which participants had an opportunity to develop themselves intellectually, socially, emotionally, physically and morally based on the five desirable qualifications, which are (i) morality and ethics, (ii) knowledge, (iii) intellectual skills, (iv) interpersonal skills and responsibility and (v) skills in quantitative analysis, communication and information technology usage, in addition to other desirable characteristics specified by professional councils or organisations and graduate employers.

Risk management is measured according to the following eight components, namely, objective setting, event identification, risk assessment, avoidance risk, acceptance risk, controlling risk, distributing risk and monitoring the risk. Objective setting refers to the identification of needs to deal with the likelihood of damage due to student activities. Event identification refers to factors that indicate risks that affect the chance of damage occurring from student activities. Risk assessment is defined as evaluation and ranking of risks by comparing with selected criteria and arranging the priorities of the likelihood of the damage caused. Avoidance risk means to stop or take evasive action or reduction action. Acceptance risk is defined as managing risk up to an acceptance level. Controlling risk refers to reducing the probability of chance occurrence or reducing the damage. Distributing risk is defined as diversification of risk that is likely to occur. Finally, monitoring the risk refers to the collection of information on how to deal with the likelihood of losses that would occur while implementing student activities.

Life skills are abilities that enable students to behave in healthy ways, given the desire to do so and given the scope and opportunity to do so. Life skills in this study comprised self-adjustment, creative thinking, self-reliance and responsibility, all of which acted as dependent variables. Self-adjustment refers to students' ability adjust their behavioural change or certain features to their living environment. Creative thinking refers to the generation of new ideas within or across domains of knowledge, drawing upon or intentionally breaking with established symbolic rules

and procedures. Self-reliance is defined as the ability to depend on oneself to get things done and to meet one's own needs. Responsibility refers to the moral obligation to behave correctly towards or in respect of universal values.

The proposed conceptual framework is shown in Figure 1 below.

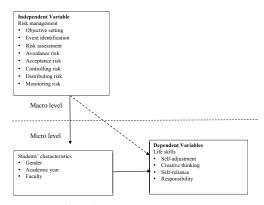


Figure 1. Conceptual framework

The first model to test was a null model that was conducted on the dependent variables without taking into account any independent variables. Null hypothesis 1 was tested to discover the extent to which the fixed effect and random effects influenced students' life skills.

Hypothesis 1: There are no fixed effect and random effects of the null model.

The micro-level variables could be used to explain the students' life skills, allowing researchers to test the effects on a simple model. Null hypothesis 2 was tested to discover the extent to which the fixed effect and random effects influenced students' life skills.

Hypothesis 2: There are no fixed effect and random effects of the simple model.

Finally, the multi-level analysis was utilised to discover the extent to which the fixed effect and random effect of the hypothesis model influenced students' life skills.

Hypothesis 3: There are no fixed effect and random effects of the hypothesis model.

#### RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The researchers employed the survey questionnaire as a method to collect quantitative data. A total of 7,432 subjects were engaged for this study comprising 191 personnel at the organisational level (macro) including administrators and officers for student activities, students' organisations and student union committees and 7,241 students (micro) from the seven faculties of humanities and social sciences groups in a public universities located in Khon Kaen province, Thailand. Multistage sampling technique followed by proportional simple random sampling technique was administered to select samples according to the two levels. A large sample size was needed to find an accurate group variation using Hierarchical Linear Modelling (HLM). The required sample size was 118 samples for the macro level and 364 samples

for the micro level according to Krejcie and Morgan's Table at 95% confidence level and fulfilled Hair, Back, Babin and Anderson's (2013) suggestion that sample size should not be less than 100 subjects.

Two types of survey questions in the form of a questionnaire were utilised in this study at the macro level and micro level. The questionnaires were administered in the Thai language to ensure that the respondents understood the statements. This method allowed for efficient gathering of data, minimising time, energy and costs (Wyse, 2012) and providing an excellent means of measuring attitudes and orientations in a large population that could be generalised to a larger population (Gay, Mills, & Airasian, 2012).

The macro-level questionnaire consisted of three sections and 91 questions. Section A of the questionnaire was intended to gather demographic details of the respondent at the organisational level and included information pertaining to gender, age, working experience, academic educational level and faculty. Section B was specifically designed by the researchers to gauge risk management application in student activities. A total of eight risk management components relevant to student activities were evaluated, consisting of 63 items all together. Section C was related to five desirable qualifications in student activities with 23 items. These five desirable qualifications comprised morality and ethics, knowledge, intellectual skills, interpersonal skills and responsibility and skills in quantitative analysis, communication and information technology usage.

The micro-level questionnaire consisted of two sections and 29 items. Section A of the questionnaire was planned to gather demographic factors of the respondents at micro levels such as gender, academic year and attached faculty. Section B was specifically designed to evaluate students' life skills including self-adjustment, creative thinking, self-reliance and responsibility. There were 26 items in Section B.

The two questionnaires were then sent to a panel of experts for comments and feedback. The panel of experts was selected for their expertise. The three experts were a former administrator in the Faculty of Education, a deputy director of the Office of Quality Management and an expert from the department of educational research and evaluation for validation purpose. The panellists included professionals, administrators and practitioners. From the feedback returned by the panel, some modifications were made to the original instrument.

Pilot testing of the instruments was carried out on 42 participants consisting of seven personnel at the macro level and 35 students at the micro level. All the panellists in this pilot study were excluded from the actual study. They were chosen as their structure and population were the same as those of the panellists selected for the actual study. To improve the quality of the items in the instrument, they were also asked to give suggestions and comments on the items in

the instrument. Revisions were made based on the suggestions and feedback from the 42 participants. It could be concluded that the instruments were reliable and good to use as the Cronbach alpha value indicated that all the research variables had high Cronbach alpha values i.e. 0.989 and 0.872 for risk management and life skills, respectively.

Descriptive statistics utilised in this study were mean scores and standard deviation while inferential statistics HLM was used. HLM was utilised in this study to analyse variance in the outcome variables when the predictor variables were at varying hierarchical levels. The purpose of utilising HLM in this study was to explain the relationship of the variables at the same level and interaction between the different levels of each dependent variable. The results were high accuracy and low tolerance, which could be used to determine the suitability of the model (adequacy of model) as well.

The data were analysed with a multilevel structure that would reduce the problem of a biased summary of the crossing level (aggregation bias) error in calculating the standard error and reducing the variability of the regression coefficients as well. In this study, data were analysed from two levels, namely, the micro and macro level, which can be summarised into three steps as follows:

 Analysis of the Null Model, which is a multilevel model analysis that is unqualified (Fully Unconditional Model) and is a unique multilevel analysis of model variables. This was to determine which variables are variations within the unit or units sufficient to analyse and identify the influence of independent variables for the next step.  $\beta_{0j}$  of the equation was the value that can be changed and was expected to move around between the faculties. The following equation was formed:

Level 1 Model (Within-Unit Model)  $Y_{ij} = \beta_{0j} + r_{ij}$ 

Level 2 Model (Between-Unit Model)

$$\beta_{0j} = \gamma_{00} + u_{0j}$$
(Fixed Effect) (Random Effect)

where  $Y_{ij} =$  dependent variable

 $\beta_{0j}$  = the intercept of the faculty, j

 $\gamma_{00}$  = total mean score or average of dependent variable

 $r_{ij}$  = standard deviation analysis within the unit

 $u_{ij}$  = the discrepancy between the unit of analysis

2) Analysis of the Simple Model is a multilevel model analysis that is unconditional (Unconditional Model) with the only variable, namely, students' characteristics. This was micro level data by inductive analysis collected to investigate how the variables were

analysed and caused the variance between the attached faculties. The t-test was used to check the fixed effect, while the  $\chi^2$  test was used to check the random effect. The variability of parameters was used to form the following equation:

Level 1 Model (Within-Unit Model)

$$Y_{ij} = \beta_{0j} + \beta_{1j} X_{ij} + r_{ij}$$

Level 2 Model (Between-Unit Model)

$$\beta_{0i} = \gamma_{00} + u_{0i}$$

$$\beta_{1i} = \gamma_{10} + u_{1i}$$

(Fixed Effect) (Random Effect)

where  $Y_{ij}$  = Students' life skills variable of the faculty

 $_{ii}$ , = Student i of the faculty, j

 $X_{ij}$  = Students' characteristics, Student i of the faculty, j

 $\beta_{0j}$  = constant (Intercept) student of faculty variable, j

 $\beta_{1j} = \text{the regression coefficient of}$ X display on the Y faculty, j

 $\gamma_{00} = \text{constant of } \beta_{0i}$ 

 $\gamma_{10}$  = constant of  $\beta_{1i}$ 

 $r_{ij}$  = the error in students to predict  $Y_{ii}$ 

 $u_{0j}$  = the error or residual in predicting the  $\beta_{0j}$  faculty, j

 $u_{lj}$  = the error or residual in predicting the  $\beta_{lj}$  faculty, j

3) Analysis of the Hypothesis Model is a multilevel model analysis of all the independent variables and dependent variable based on the hypothesis formed involving the micro and macro levels. The t-test was used to test the fixed effect ((Ho:  $\gamma_{10}=0$ ), while the  $\chi^2$ -test was used to test the random effect of the parameter variance (Ho: Var ( $\beta_{01}$ ) = 0, Ho: Var ( $u_{0j}$ ) = 0). This was similar to the testing of the simple model.

Level 1 Model (Within-Unit Model)

$$Y_{ij} = \beta_{0j} + \beta_{1j} X_{1j} + ... + r_{ij}$$

Level 2 Model (Between-Unit Model)

$$\beta_{0j} = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01} Z_{1j} + \ldots + u_{0j}$$

$$\beta_{1j} = \gamma_{10} + \gamma_{11} Z_{1j} + \ldots + u_{1j}$$

$$\beta_{ki} = \gamma_{k0} + \gamma_{k1} Z1j + \ldots + u_{ki}$$

$$R_1^2 = \frac{Var(r_{ij})(null\ model) - Var(r_{ij})(simple\ model)}{Var\ (rij)\ (null\ model)}$$

where, Var  $(r_{ij})$ (null model) = composition of the variability of  $r_{ij}$  to analyse the null model

 $Var(r_{ij})$ (hypothesis model) = the variable component of the analysis  $r_{ij}$  simple model

$$R_1^2 = \frac{(0.193) - (0.183)}{(0.193)} = 0.0518$$

#### RESULTS AND DATA ANALYSIS

A total of 600 questionnaires were distributed to 150 respondents at the macro level and 450 respondents at the micro level, respectively. There were 142 and 446 distributed questionnaires successfully collected, giving a total of 588, with a response rate of 98.0%. The results of this study are presented in accordance with the research hypothesis indicated above. The initial finding was the descriptive findings related to the three variables, namely, students' characteristics, risk management and life skills. This is followed by results from the HML analysis for null hypothesis testing. Table 1 below shows the identification of the level of variables proposed by Glass and Hopkin (1984).

Table 1
Interpretation of variable level based on mean score

Mean score range	Interpretation
4.50 - 5.00	Highest
3.50 - 4.49	High
2.50 - 3.49	Medium
1.50 - 2.49	Low
1.00 - 1.49	Lowest

#### Findings – Students' Life Skills

A total of 446 students who had completed questionnaires were considered as actual participants at the micro level. Table 2 shows the mean scores and standard deviations of students' life skills. The result of this study revealed that all the four life skills were high. Considering each of the life skill in order, it was found that the highest level was self-adjustment ( $\bar{x} = 3.90$ , SD = 0.526).

This was followed by responsibility ( $\bar{x} = 3.84$ , SD = 0.543) and creative thinking ( $\bar{x} = 3.83$ , SD = 0.561). The life skill with the lowest mean score was self-reliance ( $\bar{x} = 3.79$ , SD = 0.599). The overall mean score for life skills of students was high ( $\bar{x} = 3.89$ , SD = 0.557).

Table 2
Results of life skills

Life skills	$\bar{x}$	SD	Interpretation
Self- Adjustment	3.90	0.526	High
Responsibility	3.84	0.543	High
Creative thinking	3.83	0.561	High
Self-Reliance	3.79	0.599	High
Overall	3.89	0.557	High

Students' characteristics were measured accordingly to their gender, academic year and attached faculty. All the three measured characteristics were found to be quite equally distributed as shown in Table 3. The results showed that males' life skills  $(\bar{x} = 3.99)$  were better than females'  $(\bar{x} =$ 3.77). Table 3 shows that the mean score, standard deviation, skewedness and kurtosis of each group did not differ much. Students from the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Management Science, Faculty of Fine and Applied Arts and the College of Local Administration showed negative skewedness. This implies that most of the students possessed life skills above the average score. However, students from the Faculty of Education, the Faculty of Law and the International College showed positive skewedness. This indicated that

Table 3
Results of mean score, standard deviation and kurtosis of life skills according to students' characteristics

Students' characteristic	$\bar{x}$	SD	Skewedness	Kurtosis
Gender				
Male	3.99	0.440	-0.839	1.957
Female	3.77	0.454	-0.146	0.160
Academic year				
First year	3.80	0.521	-0.268	-0.453
Second year	3.90	0.436	-0.452	2.193
Third year	3.91	0.432	-0.383	0.010
Fourth year	3.93	0.431	0.394	1.100
Fifth year	4.07	0.402	-0.371	-0.484
Attached faculty				
Faculty of Education	3.80	0.398	0.011	-0.457
Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences	3.71	0.503	-0.537	-0.131
Management Science	3.86	0.424	-0.304	2.276
Faculty of Fine and Applied Arts	4.30	0.434	-1.892	3.588
Faculty of Law	3.72	0.354	0.299	0.492
College of Local Administration	3.99	0.558	-0.952	0.471
International college	3.94	0.390	0.144	-0.836

the majority of the students had lower than average mastery of life skills.

Risk management was measured according to student activities, namely, planning, promoting learning development and providing knowledge and skills. All the three components were evaluated according to the standard criteria of Thailand's Internal Quality Assurance for Higher Education Institutions (Office of the Higher Education Commission OHEC, 2014).

All the seven faculties showed negative skewedness for risk management in planning student activities. This indicates that all the faculties had a higher than average level of risk management in planning student activities. The results revealed that there were three faculties found to have the highest level of risk management in planning student activities, namely, Management Science, the Faculty of Fine and Applied Arts and the College of Local Administration ( $\bar{x} = 0.94$ ), as shown in Table 4.

All the seven faculties showed negative skewedness for risk management except for the Faculty of Fine and Applied Arts in terms of promoting learning development of student activities. This indicated that the majority of the faculties had a higher than average level of risk management in promoting learning development of student activities. The result revealed that the College of Local Administration had

the highest level of risk management in promoting learning development in student activities ( $\bar{x} = 0.86$ ), as shown in Table 4.

All the seven faculties showed negative skewedness for risk management in providing knowledge and skills for student activities. This indicated that all the faculties had a higher than average level of risk management in providing knowledge and skills for students' activities. The result revealed that the College of Local Administration had the highest level of risk management for providing knowledge and skills for student activities ( $\bar{x} = 0.94$ ), as shown in Table 4.

Table 4
Results of risk management in planning, promoting learning development and providing knowledge and skills for student activities

Risk Management	$\bar{x}$	SD	Skewedness	Kurtosis
Planning				
Faculty of Education	0.86	0.266	-2.309	5.527
Faculty of Humanities & Social Science	0.86	0.172	-1.287	1.460
Management Science	0.94	0.098	-1.894	3.747
Faculty of Fine & Applied Arts	0.94	0.165	-1.836	4.313
Faculty of Law	0.83	0.194	-1.479	2.959
College of Local Administration	0.94	0.073	-1.149	0.514
International College	0.50	0.348	-0.239	-1.310
Promoting learning development				
Faculty of Education	0.85	0.245	-2.713	8.320
Faculty of Humanities & Social Sciences	0.80	0.221	-0.624	-1.300
Management Science	0.85	0.190	-1.162	0.111
Faculty of Fine & Applied Arts	0.75	0.148	0.751	-1.017
Faculty of Law	0.70	0.265	-1.959	3.561
College of Local Administration	0.86	0.124	-0.420	-0.803
International College	0.49	0.312	-0.557	-0.625
Providing knowledge and skills				
Faculty of Education	0.89	0.254	-2.892	8.812
Faculty of Humanities & Social Sciences	0.83	0.276	-1.703	2.384
Management Science	0.82	0.243	-1.331	0.876
Faculty of Fine & Applied Arts	0.80	0.242	-1.462	1.760
Faculty of Law	0.75	0.324	-1.445	1.246
College of Local Administration	0.94	0.132	-2.394	5.459
International College	0.41	0.353	-0.031	-1.615

#### Findings – HML

The micro-level analysis was conducted in two steps. The first model (null model) was conducted on the dependent variables without taking into account any independent variables. As indicated in Table 5, the results of the fixed effect test showed that the total mean score of the students' life skills was 3.899, which was statistically significant at 0.01. The test of random effect showed significant variations of difference among

students  $(r_{0j})$  and difference among faculties  $(u_{0j})$  at 0.01 ( $\chi^2 = 58.53$ ). This means the total mean score of the students' life skills  $(\gamma_{00})$  differed from one faculty to another, with a difference in the total means of students' life skills from different faculties. The variance in approximating the parameter was 0.193. In other words, the micro-level variables could be used to explain the students' life skills. Therefore, the researchers were able to perform Step 2 (Simple Model).

Table 5
Results of null model from fixed effects and random effects

Fixed effects	β	Standard Error	t-test	df	p-values
INTRCPT, γ <sub>00</sub>	3.899*	0.074	52.36	6	< 0.001
Random Effects	SD	Variance Component	$\chi^2$	df	p-values
Difference among faculties (U <sub>0j</sub> )	0.186*	0.034	58.53	6	< 0.001
Difference among students $(r_{0j})$	0.440	0.193			

<sup>\*</sup>p<0.001

As presented in Table 6, the results of fixed effect test showed that the total mean of the students' life skills was 3.881 ( $\gamma$ 00= 3.881), and therefore, statistically significant at 0.01. The independent variable of students' characteristics, which was positive and significant at 0.001 towards the students' life skills, was masculinity (gender). The regression coefficient was found to be 0.177, indicating that masculinity (gender) made the students possess life skills. The independent variables that had negative effects on the students' life skills were being a first-year student, which was significant at 0.001, with a regression coefficient of -0.200 and being a third-year student, with statistical significance at 0.05 and a

regression coefficient of -0.119, indicating a decrease in students' life skills.

The independent variables of students' characteristics, namely, masculinity (gender), being a first-year student and being a Fine and Applied Arts student could together explain the prediction coefficients of the first level at 0.0518. The three independent variables could explain the variance of students' life skills at 5.18%.

The macro-level analysis based on the hypothesis model is demonstrated in Table 7. The results of the fixed effects analysis and the random effects are explained below.

At the micro level, the fixed effect analysis showed that the students' life skills parameter was 3.902 ( $\gamma_{00} = 3.902$ ), which

Table 6
Results of simple model from fixed effects and random effects

Fixed effects	β	Standard Error	t-test	df	p-values
INTRCPT, γ <sub>00</sub>	3.881**	0.057	66.93	6	< 0.001
BOY slope, $\gamma_{10}$	0.177**	0.046	3.78	435	< 0.001
FIRST slope, γ <sub>20</sub>	-0.200**	0.057	-3.51	435	< 0.001
THIRD slope, γ <sub>30</sub>	-0.119*	0.051	-2.31	435	0.021
FA slope, $\gamma_{40}$	0.450*	0.137	3.27	435	
Random Effects	SD	Variance Component	$\chi^2$	df	p-values
Difference among faculties (U <sub>0j</sub> )	0.095**	0.099	20.48	6	0.003
Difference among students $(r_{0j})$	0.428	0.183			

<sup>\*\*</sup>p<0.01, \*p<0.05

was significant at 0.01. The macro-level independent variable in risk management of student activities, for example providing knowledge and skills for quality assurance to students (KHOWN), had significant positive effects on the students' life skills at

0.05, with a regression coefficient of 0.486, indicating that providing knowledge and skills for quality assurance to students made the students to possess life skills.

At the macro level, the variable of masculinity (gender) had significant positive

Table 7
Results of simple model from fixed effects and random effects

Fixed effects	β	Standard Error	t-test	df	p-values
INTRCPT, γ <sub>00</sub>	3.902**	0.077	50.67	2	< 0.001
Macro level	0.177**	0.046	3.78	435	< 0.001
PLAN, slope, γ <sub>01</sub>	-0.101	1.657	-0.061	2	0.957
DO, slope, $\gamma_{02}$	-1.810	1.736	-1.042	2	0.407
KHOWN slope, $\gamma_{03}$	0.486*	1.626	2.299	2	0.033
EVAL slope, $\gamma_{04}$	1.243	1.254	0.991	2	0.426
Micro level	0.095**	0.099	20.48	6	0.003
BOY slope, $\gamma_{10}$	0.182**	0.047	3.860	435	<.001
FIRST slope, $\gamma_{20}$	-0.196**	0.058	-3.385	435	<.001
THIRD slope, γ <sub>30</sub>	-0.132*	0.052	-2.499	435	0.013
FA slope, $\gamma_{40}$	0.377	0.202	1.863	435	0.063
Random Effects	SD	Variance Component	$\chi^2$	df	p-values
Difference among faculties (U0j)	0.150**	0.022	13.13	2	0.002
Difference among students (r0j)	0.427	0.183			

<sup>\*\*</sup>p<0.01, \*p<0.05

effects on the students' life skills at 0.01, with the regression coefficient at 0.182. This means that masculinity (gender) made the students' life skills increase at 0.182. The variable of being a first-year student had significant negative effects on the students at 0.01, with a regression coefficient of -0.196. This means that being a first-year student lessened their life skills at -0.196. Being a third-year student also had a significant negative effect on the students' life skills at 0.05, with a regression coefficient of -0.132. This showed that being a third-year student reduced their life skills at -0.132. The macro level independent variable of a provision of knowledge and skills in quality assurance for students had an impact on the dependent variable or the students' life skills at 77.77%.

#### **DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION**

The result of this research showed that students who had different characteristics consisting of gender, academic year and faculty had different life skills. In Thai culture, men and women have different role and duties and they grow up from young in a cultural environment that makes them familiar with practices specific to gender (Kijtorntham, 2013). Therefore, the effect of masculinity (gender) on life skills was found either at the micro or macro level. According to Prasertcharoensuk, Somprach and Tang (2015), life skills are learnt and become more automatic through demonstration, modelling and practice. Furthermore, change in a vital stage of life and growth, the period of transition from school to university and from their parental influence to peer

influence, cause them to learn and develop life skills in a different way from girls.

The variable of student characteristics that had significant negative effects on life skills at the significant level of 0.01 was being a first-year student. First-year students need to adjust to the new learning system in university (Fallahchai, 2012). The variable of student characteristics that had significant negative effects on their life skills at a significant level of 0.05 was being a third-year student. This finding implies that third-year students had taken a longer period to develop life skills as they had to attend to more pressing compulsory subjects. These students had already gained complete activity credits according to Khon Kaen University's Regulations on Undergraduate Students for 2012. Therefore, their focus was on passing their compulsory courses in order to complete the programme successfully (Khon Kaen University, 2014).

The findings indicated that risk management, particularly in providing knowledge and skills, had a significant effect on students' life skills in accordance with Md. Ariff et al.'s (2014) findings. Md. Ariff et al. found that higher education institutions that had implemented systematic risk management practices enjoyed a high level of organisational performance. Hence Md Ariff et al. proposed a framework for risk management practices for managing risk in the Malaysian higher education setting. In addition, good understanding and awareness among staff on critical situations that they may face are required in risk management process. On top of that, the findings related that students' characteristics like academic year had significant negative effects on students' life skills. This may be caused by the university's Regulations on Undergraduates Students of 2012, where third-year students have to undergo more compulsory subjects and gain more activity credits.

The researchers believe that HLM is an important statistical tool for investigating the relationship between risk management, students' characteristics and life skill development. By taking into account the hierarchical nature of educational data, HLM separates variation in life skills between students and risk management of faculties and then analyses each component in relation to the other. Thus, HLM can offer better statistical adjustments and more accurate estimations and promote better policies and practices.

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# The Marketability of UKM Chemistry Students from Industrial Training Perspective

Abd Karim, N. H.<sup>1\*</sup>, Nor, F. M.<sup>1</sup>, Arsad, N.<sup>2</sup>, Hassan, N. H.<sup>1</sup>, Baharum, A.<sup>1</sup>, Khalid, R.<sup>1</sup>, Anuar, F. H.<sup>1</sup>, Abu Bakar, M.<sup>1</sup> and Othaman, R.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>School of Chemical Sciences and Food Technology, Faculty of Science and Technology, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, 43600 UKM Bangi, Selangor, Malaysia

<sup>2</sup>Department of Electrical Electronic and Systems Engineering, Faculty of Engineering and Built Environment, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, 43600 UKM Bangi, Selangor, Malaysia

#### **ABSTRACT**

Industrial training is a compulsory subject that has to be taken by all chemistry students in the School of Chemical Sciences and Food Technology, Faculty of Science & Technology, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia. The objective of the study is to identify the marketability of UKM Chemistry students from three different programmes based on the perception of industrial training supervisors. One hundred and eighty industrial supervisors evaluated the students at the end of the training by means of a set of questions that covered attitude, managerial skills and technical skills. SPSS and the Rasch model were used to analyse the data from two consecutive years. Overall, all the students from three different programmes did well and met the evaluation criteria in both years. However, innovation and problem-solving skills need to be improved. Therefore, subjects to improve soft skills should be introduced into the curriculum.

Keywords: Chemistry students, industrial training, marketability, UKM

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E-mail addresses:
nurulhuda@ukm.edu.my (Abd Karim, N. H.),
farhanmnor@gmail.com (Nor, F. M.),
norhana@eng.ukm.my (Arsad, N.),
syareeda@ukm.edu.my (Hassan, N. H.),
azeiss@ukm.edu.my (Baharum, A.),
rozida@ukm.edu.my (Khalid, R.),
farahhannan@ukm.edu.my (Anuar, F. H.),
muntaz@ukm.edu.my (Abu Bakar, M.),
rizafizah@ukm.edu.my (Othaman, R.)

\* Corresponding author

INTRODUCTION

Graduating from a university with good academic results is not a guarantee of a job in the open market in Malaysia. Every year, tens of thousands of students graduate from universities all over the country. Add to this number the graduates from overseas and the numerous university colleges in Malaysia. The increasing number of graduates every year has now led to the rise

of unemployment among graduates from public and private institutions in Malaysia (Ahmad et al., 2012).

Unemployment is a problem related to the marketability of graduates. Marketability or employability has been defined as a set of skills, knowledge and personal attributes that enhance individual likelihood of gaining employment and being successful in one's chosen occupation(s) to the benefit of oneself, the workforce, the community and the economy (Samuel & Ramayah, 2016). Graduates must possess certain skills in order to be able to compete with others in the open market. The service sector in particular, requires graduates who possess the right soft skills such as communication and interpersonal skills. Thus, it is important for undergraduates to acquire these soft skills during their time in higher learning (Krish et al., 2012; Hanafi et al., 2014). The Prime Minister has emphasised the need to create new generations of Malaysians endowed with creative and innovative minds, as well as the ability to think out of the box and resolve problems. The Prime Minister's concern is also shared by many stakeholders, particularly employers who have to deal with the thousands of graduates pouring out of the numerous higher education institutions every year, who do not seem to fit the criteria listed by the Prime Minister (Singh et al., 2014). These concerns are not new (Pianin, 2014; Lau, et al., 2015).

The objective of this study is to determine the marketability of chemistry students from Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia based on the perception of potential employers. Survey forms were given to supervisors of undergraduates during their internship. This survey consisted of questions about crucial sets of skills required in the working environment. The scale was from 1 to 4, with 4 being the highest score. The results of the survey were analysed and compared between the three courses taught in Chemistry.

#### METHODOLOGY

The survey forms were distributed to the 180 respondents (industrial training supervisors) throughout Malaysia. The samples came mostly from the private and government sectors.

The subjects of the survey were students from the Chemistry Programme, the Chemical Technology Programme and the Oleochemistry Programme, all of which are taught in the School of Chemical Sciences and Food Technology, Faculty of Science and Technology of UKM. The survey was conducted in the period from 2013 to 2014.

In 2013, the students who underwent industrial training were from the Chemistry, Chemical Technology and Oleochemistry Programmes. There were 47 students from the Chemistry Programme, 36 from the Chemical Technology Programme and 34 from the Oleochemistry Programme. The total number of students involved was 117.

In 2014, there were no students from the Chemical Technology Programme. Hence, the total number of students who underwent industrial training in 2014 was 63, with 36 coming from the Chemistry Programme

and 27 from the Oleochemistry Programme. The percentage of students involved in the industrial training by programme in 2013 and 2014 is represented in Figure 1 and Figure 2.

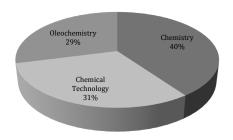


Figure 1. Percentage of students involved in industrial training in 2013

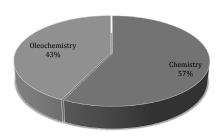


Figure 2. Percentage of students involved in industrial training in 2014

The survey was assessed using a 4-point Likert scale. The questions were on their perception of several aspects; these were intended to assess their mastery of generic and technical skills. Generic or soft skills are complementary to technical skills and include attitude, management and communication skills (Table 1). Under attitude, several aspects were evaluated, namely, punctuality (A1), independence/

self-reliance (A2), interest and responsibility towards the work (A3), attire (A4) and ability to work in a group (A5).

Meanwhile, two aspects were evaluated under management, namely, ability of students to perform assigned tasks accordingly and systematically (M1) and their innovation and ability to solve problems (M2). Under technical skills, the aspects evaluated included knowledge of the activity undertaken (T1) and ability to understand instructions from supervisors (T2). Verbal and writing skills were evaluated under communication skills (C1). These factors were chosen because job opportunities and marketability are influenced by the traits possessed by job seekers (Hussin et al., 2000).

The collected surveys were analysed using the Rasch model and SPSS. Comparisons were made between the students from different programmes and different years. Data were tabulated and represented in a graph for clear viewing statistically. The outcome of this survey was also analysed to establish the ranking of the factors according to potential employers in order to align outcome-based education (OBE) with real-world needs.

#### RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

#### Perception of Attitude of Students

The analysis showed that a high percentage of students had scored 'good' and 'very good' for attitude. The first aspect rated by industrial supervisors was punctuality (A1). Punctuality is a very important indicator of an employee's commitment

Table 1
Survey item coded based on required skills

Criteria	Code	Aspects
Attitude	A1	Punctuality
	A2	Independence/Self-reliance
	A3	Interest and responsibility towards the work
	A4	Attire
	A5	Ability to work in a group
Management Skills	M1	Ability to perform task systematically
	M2	Innovation and solving-problem ability
Technical skills	T1	Knowledge of activity
	T2	Ability to understand instructions
Communication skills	C1	Communication skills

to his or her work. As shown in Figure 3, Chemistry students showed the highest score in punctuality compared to students in the other two programmes, with 63.8% of them scoring 'very good' in 2013. The second highest percentage was achieved by Chemical Technology students (58.3%), followed by Oleochemistry students (55.9%). About 20.6% of the Oleochemistry students scored 'bad' for punctuality, making them the biggest group for this negative scoring, followed by Chemical Technology students (11.1%) and Chemistry students (6.4%). None of the Chemical Technology students was rated normal for this aspect and only 4.3% and 2.9% of the students from Chemistry and Oleochemistry programmes, respectively, were rated 'normal'. In 2014, the percentage of students who scored 'very good' for punctuality increased. Oleochemistry students had the highest percentage (81.5%), followed by Chemistry students (97.8%). No Chemistry student was rated 'bad' or 'normal' for punctuality in the year 2014.

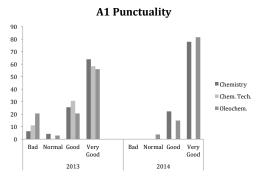


Figure 3. Student's scores on punctuality

For the aspect independence and self-reliance (A2), most of the students were rated 'good' by their supervisors (Figure 4). In 2013, 58.3% of the Chemical Technology students were rated 'good', which was the highest percentage, followed by Chemistry students (46.8%) and Oleochemistry students (41.2%). Although most of the students were rated 'good', Chemistry students recorded the highest percentage of 'very good' in 2013 and 2014. Students who were rated 'very good' in the aspect of independence in 2013 made up 42.6% of

students from the Chemistry Programme, 32.4% from the Oleochemistry Programme and 25% from the Chemical Technology Programme. One student from each programme was rated 'bad' for this aspect. In percentage, this amounted to 2.1% for the Chemistry Programme, 2.8% for the Chemical Technology Programme and 2.9% for the Oleochemistry Programme.

Meanwhile in 2014, 50% of the Chemistry students were rated as 'very good' for the aspect of independence, followed by Oleochemistry students (37%). However, the majority of the Oleochemistry students were rated 'good' (51.9%), followed by Chemistry students (47.2%). No student was rated 'bad' in 2014 while the rest were rated 'normal'.

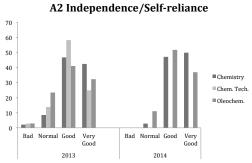


Figure 4. Student's scores on independence and self-reliance

Another aspect evaluated under attitude was the student's interest in and responsibility towards their work (A3). As shown in Figure 5, in 2013, more students from the Chemistry and Oleochemistry Programmes were rated 'very good' under this aspect. A total of 48.9% and 44.1% of students from both programmes, respectively, were rated

'very good', followed by students from the Chemical Technology Programme (38.9%). Most of the Chemical Technology students were rated 'good' (44.4%). Some students were rated 'normal', with the highest percentage made up by the students from the Oleochemistry Programme (29.4%). Only one student from Chemical Technology was rated 'bad' for this aspect, bringing the percentage to 2.8%, the lowest.

In 2014, most of the students were rated 'very good' for the aspects of interest and responsibility. Chemistry students once again scored the highest percentage with 69.4% of them rated 'very good' while 55.6% of Oleochemistry students rated 'very good'. This is a clear increase in the perception of the industrial training supervisors as no student was rated 'normal' or 'bad' as was done the year before.

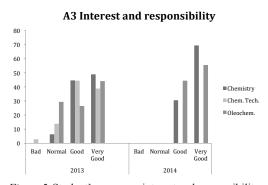


Figure 5. Student's scores on interest and responsibility

Students' attire during their industrial training was also an important aspect included in the survey. Attire (A4) is important as it captures the first impression of an employer of an employee. Figure 6 represents the score of students for this

aspect. In 2013, no student was rated 'bad' for the aspect of attire. Most of the students were rated 'very good', with students from the Chemistry Programme scoring the highest (61.7%), followed by Chemical Technology students (50.0%) and Oleochemistry students (44.1%). A total of 33.3% of students from the Chemical Technology Programme were rated 'good' for this aspect, followed by 31.9% of students from the Chemistry Programme and 29.4% from the Oleochemistry Programme. Some students were rated 'normal' in this aspect. However, the percentage was below 30%. In 2014, an improvement was seen as no student was rated 'bad' or 'normal' in the aspect of attire. More than 60% of the students were rated 'very good' in this aspect, with 69.4% of the students from the Chemistry Programme and 70.4% students from Oleochemistry Programme. The rest were rated 'good'.

The last aspect evaluated under attitude was the ability of students to work in a group (A5). Working in a group is very important in the working environment. Students must be able to work with others and hold group

discussion to look for solutions to problems. Thus, being able to work in a group is a crucial aspect of student marketability. In 2013, no student was rated 'bad' in their ability to work in a group (Figure 7). Most of the students were rated 'very good' by their industrial supervisors, with the highest percentage obtained by the students from the Chemistry Programme (53.2%), followed by Chemical Technology students (47.2%) and Oleochemistry students (44.1%). The rest of the students were rated 'good' and 'normal' with students from the Oleochemistry Programme having the highest percentage of 'normal' (32.4%), while only 11.1% and 8.5% of the students from Chemical Technology and Chemistry Programmes, respectively, were rated 'normal'.

In 2014, only one person from the Chemistry Programme was rated 'normal' for this aspect (2.8%). The rest of the students were rated 'good' and 'very good', with the majority receiving the latter. A total of 61.1% of Chemistry students were rated 'very good', which was the highest, followed by Oleochemistry students with 59.3% while 40.7% of Oleochemistry

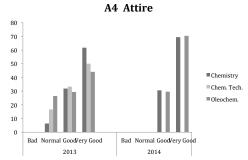


Figure 6. Student's scores on their attire to work

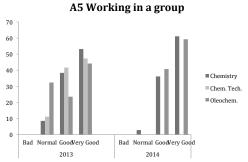


Figure 7. Student's scores on their ability to work in a group

students and 36.1% of Chemistry students were rated 'good'. These trends showed that the perception of industrial supervisors had increased from 2013 to 2014.

From the employer's point of view, almost all aspects under attitude were greater than 3 on the scale, and this implied overall satisfaction with the students' performance. Chemistry students received the highest rate for punctuality, followed by attire, interest and responsibility, working in a group and independence. Most employers are satisfied and content with students/ potential employees who display good attitude at the workplace (Muda et al., 2012).

# **Perception of Management Skills of Students**

Under management, the first aspect evaluated was the ability of students to perform the assigned tasks accordingly and systematically (M1). This is an important aspect in the working environment as an employee must be able to perform any tasks assigned to him or her in the best way possible to achieve the desired outcome. From the graph shown in Figure 8, the highest percentage of students rated 'very good' for this aspect were the students from Chemical Technology (44.4%), followed by Chemistry students (36.2%) and Oleochemistry students (32.4%). Most of the Chemistry and Oleochemistry students were rated 'good' (53.2% and 35.3%, respectively). Some students were rated 'normal'; the biggest group was the Oleochemistry students (32.4%), followed by the Chemical Technology students

(22.2%) and Chemistry students (10.6%). One student from the Chemical Technology Programme was rated 'bad' for this aspect (2.8%). A good attitude leads workers to do their very best in completing assigned tasks.

In 2014, the majority of the Chemistry students were rated 'very good' (60%), while 40.7% of Chemical Technology students were rated 'very good' and the rest of them (59.3%) were rated 'good'. One student from the Chemistry Programme was, however, rated 'normal'; thus, the percentage rated as 'good' was 33.3%.

#### M1 Performing task systematically

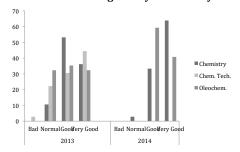


Figure 8. Student's scores on their ability to perform assigned tasks systematically

Another aspect included under management that was evaluated by the industrial supervisors was the student's innovation and ability to solve problems (M2). Innovation is the ability of a person to translate an invention or idea into something valuable. In the industrial world, it is crucial for a person to be innovative and to be able to solve problems by thinking outside the box (Singh et al., 2014). As shown in Figure 9, in 2013, most of the students from the Chemistry and Chemical Technology Programmes were rated 'good' instead

of 'very good'. A total of 74.5% of the Chemistry students and 44.4% of Chemical Technology students were rated 'good'. The majority of the Oleochemistry students scored 'normal' (44.1%). Students rated 'very good' in this aspect numbered less than 20% for all programmes; they were led by Chemical Technology students (19.4%), followed by Oleochemistry (17.6%) and Chemistry (14.9%) students. One student from Chemical Technology was rated 'bad' for innovation and problem solving (2.8%). The data suggested that the employers thought the student could complete a given task but this was not the case.

In the year of 2014, the trend was about the same as in 2013. The majority of the students from the Chemistry and Oleochemistry Programmes were rated 'good' instead of 'very good' for innovation and problem solving (66.7% and 40.7%, respectively). Oleochemistry students rated 'normal' in this aspect at a percentage (33.3%) much higher than for Chemistry students (5.6%). However, compared to the year 2013, a slight increase was observed in the percentage of students rated 'very good'.

### M2 Innovation and problem-solving ability

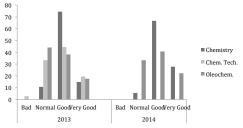


Figure 9. Student's scores on their innovation and problem-solving ability

As shown in the graph, 27.8% of Chemistry students were rated 'very good' followed by 22.2% of Oleochemistry students.

# Perception of Technical Skills of Students

Technical skills comprise the knowledge and capability of a person to perform specialised tasks related to a specific field. From the point of view of this study, technical skill is the measure of a student's capability to complete tasks related to Chemistry and how the student communicates to understand the tasks given. The first aspect evaluated under this aspect was knowledge of students regarding the activity undertaken during their internship (T1). It is important for an employee to understand what he/she is doing while working. This is because when an employee does not understand his/her work based on the standard operating procedure (SOP), he/she will be apt to make mistakes.

According to Figure 10, in 2013, the majority of the students from all programmes were rated 'good'. The highest number of 'good' students were from the Chemistry programme (63.8%), followed by Oleochemistry (55.9%) and Chemical Technology (52.8%). No student was rated 'bad' for this aspect. Students rated 'normal' came from the Oleochemistry programme as being the group with the highest number of 'normal' (26.5%), followed by Chemical Technology and Chemistry (22.2% and 14.9%, respectively). The rest were rated 'very good' (25.0% from Chemical Technology, 21.3% from Chemistry and 17.6% from Oleochemistry).

Compared with 2014, the percentage of students rated 'very good' had increased compared to 2013 (30.6% from Chemistry and 29.6% from Oleochemistry). However, the majority of the students were still rated 'good'. The percentage of students rated 'good' was led by the students from the Chemistry Programme (63.9%), followed by those from the Oleochemistry Programme (59.3%). A small percentage of students were rated 'normal', with more students from the Oleochemistry Programme at 11.1% compared with those from the Chemistry Programme at 5.6%.

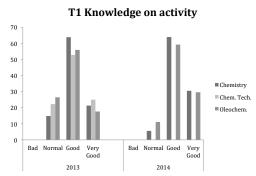


Figure 10. Student's scores on their knowledge of the activity undertaken

The ability of students to understand instructions from the supervisor (T2) is considered important as employees must be able to understand orders given in order to complete work on time and with the expected results. The evaluation of supervisors for this aspect is represented in Figure 11. From the figure, most of the students from all the programmes were rated 'very good' for both years. In 2013, students rated 'very good' were mostly from the Chemistry

Programme (57.4%), followed by the Oleochemistry Programme (52.9%) and the Chemical Technology Programme (52.8%). Chemistry students received the highest number of 'good' rating (31.9%), followed By Chemical Technology students (27.8%) and Oleochemistry students (23.5%). Four students were rated 'bad' for the aspect of understanding instructions from supervisors. Two of them were from the Chemical Technology Programme (5.6%), while the other two were from Chemistry (2.1%) and Oleochemistry (2.9%). The rest of the students were rated 'normal'.

As mentioned earlier, similar to the year 2013, the majority of the students in 2014 were rated 'very good' with the highest number of the rating collected by Chemistry students (69.4%), followed by Oleochemistry students (59.3%). Some of the students were rated 'normal'. Of them, 29.6% were Oleochemistry students, while 27.8% were chemistry students. No student was rated 'bad' in 2014, while the rest were rated 'normal'. Looking at the trend, the percentage of students rated 'very good' had increased by the year.

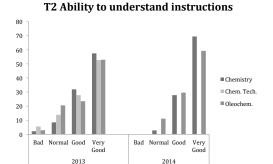


Figure 11. Student's scores on their ability to understand instructions from the supervisor

The data suggested that the potential students were marketable based on their technical skills. Several studies, however, indicated that Science students did not lack in technical competency but lacked rather in soft skills that would enable them to use their technical skills most effectively (Idrus et al., 2014). This emphasises the fact that higher learning institutions must produce graduates who are prepared for the working world.

### Perception of Communication Skills of Students

The last aspect evaluated was communication skills (C1). Communication skills are soft skills that include verbal and writing skills. Being able to communicate with others in the working environment and elsewhere is vital for any employee. Employers are likely to evaluate communication skills during job interviews as they are considered primary workplace skills. Thus, if students possessed good communication skills, it is possible that their marketability would increase and it would be easier for them to get hired.

Figure 12 illustrates the rating for the students' communication skills by the industrial supervisors. For 2013, the majority of students were rated 'good' and 'very good'. The majority of Chemistry and Chemical Technology students were rated 'good' at 48.9% and 44.4%, respectively. A percentage of 35.3% of Oleochemistry students were rated 'good', while the majority of them (38.2%) were rated 'very good'. Although the majority of

the Chemistry students did not achieve 'very good', they still gained the highest percentage at 40.4%, followed by Chemical Technology students at 36.1%. Fourteen students were rated 'bad' in communication skills, with half of them being from the Oleochemistry Programme (20.6%), followed by the Chemical Technology Programme, with four students being rated 'bad' (11.1%) and three students from the Chemistry Programme being rated 'bad' (6.4%). The rest were rated 'normal' for communication skills.

In 2014, an improvement was seen as no student was rated 'bad' in communication skills. The Chemistry Programme showed the best improvement as it had no student who had been rated 'normal'. The majority of the students were rated 'very good' for both the Chemistry and Oleochemistry Programmes at 55.6% and 48.1%, respectively. Both programmes gained the same percentage of 44.4% for 'good', while two students from the Oleochemistry Programme were rated 'normal' (7.4%).

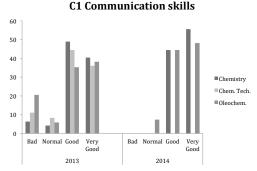


Figure 12. Student's scores on their communication skills

 Table 2

 Independent t-test between criteria studied in industrial training in 2013 and 2014

		Levene's Test for Equality or Variances	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-tes	t-test for Equality of Means	ty of Means		95% C Inter Dif	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference
		Ĭ,	Sig.	t t	df	Sig. (2-tailed	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
SMean (A1)	Equal variances assumed	32.176	000	-3.387	183	.001	-44790	13225	70884	18697
	Equal variances not assumed			-4.145	177.895	000	44790	10806	66114.	23467
SMean (A2)	Equal variances assumed	14.361	000.	-2.258	183	.025	24904	11039	48885	03123
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.432	161.191	.016	24904	10241	45128	14680
SMean (A3)	Equal variances assumed	14.361	000	-3.472	183	.001	36580	10537	57369	15791
	Equal variances not assumed			-3/966	179.538	000	36580	09223	54780	18381
SMean (A4)	Equal variances assumed	30.782	000	-3.171	183	.002	32110	10125	52088	12133
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.632	180.037	000	32110	08840	49555	14666
SMean (A5)	Equal variances assumed	14.287	000.	-2.521	183	.013	26181	10384	46670	05692
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.794	171.271	900.	26181	09369	44676	07686
SMean (M1)	Equal variances assumed	4.894	.028	-3.477	183	.001	37219	1-7-5	58340	16097
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.874	172.986	000	37219	09607	56182	18256
SMean (M1)	Equal variances assumed	.681	.410	-1.950	183	.053	20069	10294	40378	00240
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.981	137.530	.050	20069	10131	40101	00037
SMean (T1)	Equal variances assumed	.151	869.	-2.164	183	.032	20890	09655	39939	01841
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.252	147.220	.026	20890	09275	39218	02562
SMean (T2)	Equal variances assumed	10.567	.001	-2.109	183	.036	25360	12024	49084	01636
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.336	171.051	.021	25360	10856	46789	03931
SMean (T3)	Equal variances assumed	4.417	.037	-3.181	183	.002	41506	13049	67252	15761

## Difference between Industrial Training in 2013 and 2014 (Independent T-Test)

An independent t-test was employed when the samples were collected independently of one another to compare two small sets of quantitative data. Using 0.05 as the  $\alpha$ -value, the null hypothesis,  $H_0$ , is more likely to be rejected when the p-value is less than 0.05 (p<0.05) and the alternative hypothesis,  $H_{\alpha}$ , is accepted. On the contrary, the null hypothesis is accepted if the p-value is greater than 0.05 (p>0.05).

To identify the differences between the industrial training data in 2013 and 2014, an independent t-test analysis was used. The most likely hypotheses inferred in this research were:

- $H_0$ = There is no difference between the industrial training in 2013 and the industrial training in 2014.
- $H_{\alpha}$ = There is a difference between industrial training in 2013 and the industrial training in 2014.

Based on Table 2, the value of equal variances assumed was considered in this research. The p value is shown in the significance (two-tailed) column. For all criteria except for M2, the p values were less than 0.05 (p<0.05). Thus, the null hypothesis,  $H_0$ , was rejected for all ten aspects. It can be concluded that there was a significant difference between the industrial training in 2013 and the industrial training in 2014. However, for section M2, as the

p value was 0.053, which was higher than 0.05, the null hypothesis,  $H_0$ , was accepted. Thus, there was no significant difference between the industrial training in 2013 and the industrial training in 2014.

#### **CONCLUSION**

A survey was conducted to investigate the marketability of Chemistry students from the School of Chemical Sciences and Food Technology, Faculty of Science & Technology, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia based on their performance during industrial training. The Chemistry Programmes surveyed were the Chemical Sciences, Chemical Technology and Oleochemistry. A 4-point Likert scale was used and the results were evaluated using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) and Rasch analyses. The results of the three programmes were also compared. Overall, the Chemistry students were found to be marketable as they obtained mostly 'good' (Likert scale level 3) and 'very good' (Likert scale level 4) scores for attitude, management, technical skills and communication skills. The performance of the students from all three programmes was almost the same within the two-year investigation period. However, there were aspects that they needed to improve; these were innovation and problem-solving ability. Thus, the syllabus should be improvised 1) to introduce more generic skill subjects, 2) to apply problem-based and query-based learning that focusses on student-centred learning and 3) to boost the students' skills through the introduction of extra-curricular activities that require engagement with the community and the industry.

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## The Morphosyntax of Causative Construction in Sudanese Arabic

Taha, M.\*, Sultan, F. M. and Yasin, S. M.

School of Language Studies and Linguistics, Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, 43600 Bangi, Selangor, Malaysia

#### **ABSTRACT**

This paper explores the morphosyntax of causative construction in Sudanese Arabic. The theoretical framework of this study was based on the Minimalist Programme (Chomsky, 1993, 1995). This construction is projected by the causative verb, which is itself derived via a particular morphological process. It is universally assumed that all predicates fulfil their lexical-semantic requirements e.g. displaying their argument/thematic structure, in their syntactic structure (e.g. VP shell). The analysis of causative construction involves the presence of the head CAUSE, which is morphologically realised on the verb. The presence of CAUSE requires the obligatory presence of an external argument (causer). Semantically, CAUSE is a functional head that signifies the meaning of the causative to that particular linguistic expression. Overall, Sudanese Arabic projects use the causative morphologically via germination of a second consonant. The derived causative is a lexical causative with respect to many syntactic examinations. Therefore, the typological difference between Sudanese Arabic and other languages is due to the implications of Universal Grammar theories, in particular principles and parameters.

Keywords: Causative construction, minimalist programme, morphosyntax, Sudanese Arabic

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E-mail addresses: tahaderbat@yahoo.com (Taha, M), fazal@ukm.edu.my (Sultan, F. M.), subakir@ukm.edu.my (Yasin, S. M.) \* Corresponding author INTRODUCTION

Languages differ with regard to causative construction. For example, in languages like English, Spanish and other Romance languages, the productive causation is derived via the supporting verb e.g. to *make* in English, whereas languages like Japanese, Finnish and Hiaki, have the causation morphologically derived via the same

base form (Blanco, 2010). In the literature of generative linguistics, the Japanese language was the first language to receive much attention in terms of morphological affixation of causative morphemes (Harley, 2008). Thus, the typological variances between Japanese and English were seen as the first explanation of the hypothesis raised in the study of the Universal Grammar, wherein unrelated language families share important resemblances in terms of grammatical structure (Harley, 2008). In contrast, Standard Arabic derives the causative in two different ways: either by germination of the second consonant or ablaut of the second vowel to /a/ (Hallman, 2006; Mousser, 2010; AlRashed, 2012). Moroccan Arabic, on the other hand, projects the causative through germination, where the derived causative can be analysed either as lexical or syntactic (Benmamoun, 1991), while Juba Arabic derives causation by adding the verb ámulu "make, do" before the main verb (Manfredi & Petrollino, 2013). Consequently, the analysis of causative predicates has had a major influence on many fundamental aspects of syntactic theory such as control, case marking, clause structure, theta theory and argument structure and the morphology-syntax interface.

Syntactically, different instances of CAUSE properties are applicable crosslinguistically and within a language itself (e.g. lexical causative vs syntactic causative) in certain languages (e.g. Japanese). However, causative-inchoative alterations are a common property across languages (Blanco, 2010). Consider the following

English sentence for causative-inchoative alteration of the verb *melt*.

- (1) a. Inchoative
  The ice melted
  Melt: V: <DP>
  <theme>
  - b. Causative
    John melted the ice.
    Melt: V: <DP<sub>1</sub>, DP<sub>2</sub>>
    <agent, theme>

The sentence in (1) is an illustration of causative-inchoative alteration in English. The verb *melt* is an alternating verb because it has two usages; intransitive (1a) and transitive (1b). Thus, verbs with two variant usages alternate if the transitive usage means CAUSE while the subject of the intransitive variant and the object of transitive variant receive the same theta role (Levin and Rappaport Hovav, 1993). Therefore, the verb *melt* in (1b) contributes to the causative alternation because it has a paraphrased form as *John caused the ice to melt*. Similarly, the subject of (1a) receives an identical theta role to the object in (1b) as a theme.

Conventionally, the category of verbs with causative-inchoative alternation is described as lexical causative (Levin & Rappaport Hovav, 1995; Song, 2014; Piñón, 2001; Alexiadou et al., 2004; Schäfer, 2007). The common debate about causative construction among scholars was whether the causative alternation was derived from its inchoative counterpart or not. Among them, Fodor (1970) and Cruse (1972) argued

that causative alternation was not derived from inchoative alternation. In most recent models, Borer (1991), Harley (1995, 2006), Piñón (2001), Pylkkänen (2002, 2008), Ramchand (2008) and Schäfer (2007) maintained that the root verb signifies the elementary lexical meaning while the syntactic structure determines whether the resulting structure is causative or inchoative. Despite this, the typological survey of Haspelmath (1993) identified different language categories in relation to causativeinchoative alternation e.g. in French, the inchoative is the basic and the causative is morphologically derived from it. In Russian on the other hand, the causative is the basic form and the inchoative is derived. Japanese, in comparison, restricts neither form from being derived from the other. Accommodating these variations, the model developed by Pylkkänen (2002, 2008) significantly contributed to the study of discrepancy in causative structures by predicting the behaviour and properties of the pieces contributing to causative constructions.

#### METHOD AND PROCEDURES

This paper analysed the morphosyntax of causatives in Sudanese Arabic, and aimed to identify how such construction is derived in terms of morphology and how it is syntactically analysed. A group of 15 Sudanese Arabic speakers were given a questionnaire that contained sample sentences and were asked to make grammaticality judgements. This observational method is adapted from (Brown, 2009); data were

collected via the open-response questions on the questionnaire. The importance of the observational method is that it gives informants the option to provide a range of possible answers, which may reflect their own views on the formation of sentences in relation to causative formation in Sudanese Arabic. Similarly, Culicover (1997), Dikken et al. (2007) and Featherston (2005) stated that the methodology that has proven most productive in the development of linguistic theory has been that of closely examining selected sentences and phrases that native speakers of a language judge to be possible, impossible and marginal.

Therefore, speakers' perception of their language tests their ability to make grammaticality judgement for sentences presented to them in form of a questionnaire. Thus, data collected by a corpus are not considered to be more reliable than the use of a questionnaire. There are two main reasons for this claim: first, it is not possible to ensure that a large corpus of informal speech can offer sufficient data regarding causative formation; second, data collected by corpora can trace and keep a record of the correct and the most common structures that the native speakers use. This type of data is not sufficient as a corpus does not capture grammatical/ungrammatical structures. The questionnaire was based on grammaticality judgements, where the informants were given sentences and asked to decide whether or not the sentences in their native language were grammatical based on intuition. The questionnaire involved both closed-response questions, to which the informants chose

'right' or 'wrong', and open-response questions that asked the informants to supply written answers in the space provided in their own words.

#### THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The Minimalist Programme assumes that the derivation of any syntactic structure is built upon successive cyclicity: phase by phase (Chomsky, 1999, 2000, 2001, 2004, 2005, 2007, 2008), whereby a phase is a syntactic element in which the complement of its head is checked for convergence at logical and phonological forms (Hornstein, Nunes, & Grohmann, 2005). Consequently, Chomsky identified two fundamental phases by virtue of being strong: vP and CP. vP displays the argument/thematic structure (the constituents of the VP shell) and CP provides information about clause force (e.g. whether it is declarative, interrogative, imperative or exclamatory). Chomsky further argued that strong phases are spelt out cyclically, where syntactic derivation and spell-out has implication for the derivation of lexical items (Lomashvili, 2010). In relation, the conceptual allomorphy model of Embick (2009) argued that the morphological processes, which define the phonological form, are controlled by the cyclic organisation of the grammar.

In his proposal, Chomsky (2001) maintained that vP is a phase peripheral in the syntactic structure where the v complement is sent for interpretation at the interface level and is further impenetrable to later syntactic operation. Thus, in lexical

causative, the v complement selects the root as its complement (Harley, 2008). In relation, Pylkkänen (2002) identified three categories of complement that the functional head CAUSE could take. They are the root, vP and VP. The root-selecting cause is closely associated with the lexical causative whereas vP and VP-selecting causatives are usually associated with the syntactic causative. Adopting these ideas, this study aimed to discuss the morphosyntax of causative construction in Sudanese Arabic.

#### The Causative in Sudanese Arabic

In Sudanese Arabic, causativisation is a productive morphological process. The causative affix is inserted in the root of the intransitive or transitive verb. However. the process does not involve insertion of the independent morpheme common to all the verb classes, e.g. -(s)ase in Japanese; rather, it involves doubling of the second consonant in the root verb. The resulting causative alternation entails the presence of the obligatory causer argument and consequently, increases the thematic/argument structure of the verb. This phenomenon of argument-increasing is one of the common features of causative constructions across languages. In terms of morphology, causation in Sudanese Arabic involves causative morphology, which is overtly realised through germinating the second radical of the root, which is articulated as two identical segments, as in the following table:

Table 1
Derivation of causative verb

(2) the derivation of causative verb				
Intransitive verb	Inchoative	Causative	Root gloss	
Transitive verb	tala?	talla?	to exit	
	dakhal	da <b>khkh</b> al	to enter	
	masha	ma <b>shsh</b> aa	to go	
	waga?	wa <b>gg</b> a	to fall	
	simi?	samma?	to hear	
	shirib	sha <b>rr</b> ab	to drink	
	gara	garraa	to read	
	gasam	gassam	to divide	
	gata?	ga <b>tt</b> a?	to cut	

Notice the change in the verb root in the causative column: the second consonant is reduplicated to obtain the causative reading. The combination of root verbs and germination exhibits similar morphophonological properties that specify the indivisible nature of the single phonological word. This category of the causative is the lexical causative with respect to different syntactic tests. First, the derived causative verb heads a single verb phrase and the clause involves such a verb phrase. It behaves typically like a mono-clause in the syntactic tree of such construction. Second, the process alters the argument structure of the verb; therefore, the process must be analysed as lexical, otherwise it violates the projection principle, which states that lexical information must be presented categorically at every syntactic level (Chomsky, 1985, p. 84). Consider the following intransitive (3 and 4) and transitive (5 and 6) causatives.

#### Intransitive causative

- (3) Idris talla? Laila
  Idris exit.CAUSE.Past Laila
  Idris made Laila go out
  Tatta?: V: <DP<sub>1</sub>, DP<sub>2</sub>>
  <agent, theme>
- (4) Humma da**khkh**alu malaabisahum juwwa
  They enter.CAUSE.Past clothestheir inside
  They moved in their clothes dakhkhal V: <DP<sub>1</sub>, DP<sub>2</sub>>
  <agent, theme>

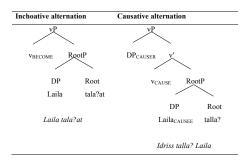
Transitive causative

- (5) Nora samma?a-t Ahmed al-ughniya
  Nora hear.CAUSE.Past-Fem Ahamed the-song
  Nora made Ahmed listen to the song
  Samma?: V: <DP<sub>1</sub>, DP<sub>2</sub>, DP<sub>3</sub>>
  <agent, experiencer, theme>
- (6) Ana gassamata lai-hu alwaraqa
  I divid.CAUSE.Past for-him thepaper
  I divided the paper for him
  gassama: V: <DP<sub>1</sub>, DP<sub>2</sub>, DP<sub>3</sub>>
  <agent, goal, theme>

In relation to the debate on whether causative alternation is derived from its counterpart inchoative or not, we adopted Harley's (2006) proposal that the lexical root provides significant information about

construction (e.g. semantic interpretation) and the syntactic structure specifies whether the resulting construction is causative or inchoative, depending on the constituents of the VP shell. Consider the following structure of (3) along with its inchoative counterpart.

#### (7) Inchoative and causative VP shell



In the structure of the causative in (7), the presence of v<sub>Cause</sub> entails the presence of the obligatory external argument, the causer. Therefore, many theoretical frameworks maintain that light verbs with CAUSE features always host external causer arguments (see for example Harley, 2006; Chomsky, 1995; Folli & Harley, 2003, 2007). Second, in relation to case licensing, only the single accusative (Acc) case and the nominative (Nom) case are possible for the arguments of the causative verb. The abstract accusative case is assigned to the CAUSEE by the root verb via a head-complement relationship between the root verb and the internal argument while the abstract nominative case is assigned to the CAUSER by finite T via spec-head relationship between the specifier and the functional head T. Evidence for case marking comes from Standard Arabic ,which morphologically marks the case, as in the following:

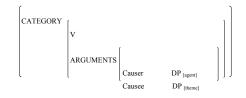
(8) Nawwam-a al-umm-u walad-a-ha
Sleep.CAUSE.Past-Acc the-motherNom child-Acc-her

The mother made her child sleep

As the sentence in (8) shows, the nominative case is assigned to the CAUSER (the mother), and the accusative case is assigned to the CAUSEE (her child). However, morphological-case-marking is one of the formal distinctions between Sudanese Arabic and Standard Arabic, although both share the same protolanguage.

From close examination, all the evidence proves that Sudanese Arabic is a lexical causative language. Therefore, we propose the following feature specification schema for causative construction in Sudanese Arabic.

#### (9) Feature specification of causative verb

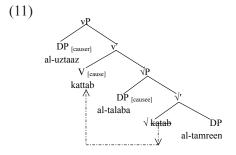


The schema does not fully represent the structure of causative construction; rather, it captures the common property of all causatives. Accordingly, this category of the predicate obligatorily selects dual arguments, with the subject always being the CAUSER and bearing the agent theta role, while the object is the CAUSEE that bears the theme theta role. Transitive causative alternation, on the other hand, requires an additional indirect object as in (10) below, but still shares the schema proposed in (9) in the sense that they both require causer and causee arguments.

(10) Al-uztaaz kattab al-talaba al-tamreen
The-teacher write.CAUSE.Past the-students the-assignment
The teacher made the students write the assignment

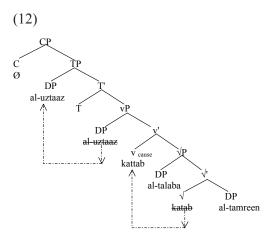
Kattab: V: <DP<sub>1</sub>, DP<sub>2</sub>, DP<sub>3</sub>> <agent, theme, theme>

The syntactic structure of (10) proceeds as follows: first, the root  $\sqrt{\mathbf{katab}}$ , "write," is merged with its complement al-tamreen, "the assignment," which receives the thetarole as theme to form  $\sqrt{\ }$  katab al-tamreen "write the assignment." The resulting  $\sqrt{\phantom{a}}$  is then merged with al-talaba, "the students," to form  $\sqrt{P}$ . The lexical  $\sqrt{\mathbf{katab}}$  then rises to a high position, leaving a trace behind and adjoining the light causative affix in v, which carries [cause] features to form v'. The adjunction of the root to the causative affix results in the causative reading kattab altalab katab al-tamreen, "made the students write the assignment." At this point, the causative affix on the verb changes the state of the event. The sequential v with causative reading entails the compulsory presence of a CAUSER (i.e. entity originating the change of state) and CAUSEE (i.e. entity affected by the change of state). To fulfil this requirement, the resulting v' is then merged with the causer **al-uztaaz**, "the teacher," to form the complete vP phase, with full semantic representation as in the following:



Since the structure involves a double object, a new case-assignment needs to be checked in a proper checking domain. Radford (2004, 2009) offered a solution for this issue. Claiming that the light causative v assigns the accusative case to direct object and the lexical root assigns the same case to indirect object, the resulting vP in (11) is then merged with T to check and value its voice, tense and agreement features, thus, forming T'. This T' then merges with the causer that was initially raised from [Spec, vP] to check and value its nominative case and to fulfil the EPP requirements, thus, forming TP. This TP is then merged with a null declarative affix to form the CP. The derivation of the causative predicate is built upon the successive application of the fundamental syntactic operations of numeration, select, merge, move and adjoin of the lexical items to construct large

syntactic structure. Numeration selects the lexical items and combines them with other lexical items until the derivation of the causative structure is converged at LF, as shown in the following:



Each application of the syntactic operation merge moves the derivation a step forwards (Adger, 2003) until it converges at LF because no further syntactic operation can be applied. The interpretation given to the derivation at this stage is a conceptual and semantic interpretation. However, the derivation involves many sub-derivations such as  $\sqrt{P}$ , vP, TP and CP. Therefore, the computational system selects the numeration as its input and the derived syntactic objects as its output. Thus, the first step in the derivation of any syntactic structure is to select the lexical items from numeration, wherein the syntactic operation, select, is applied to introduce another object. The syntax merges or adjoins these objects to form new objects.

#### CONCLUSION

This study analysed and discussed the morphosyntax of causative constructions in Sudanese Arabic within the framework of Chomsky's Minimalism. The study aimed to identify how the causative is morphologically derived, and it was syntactically analysed. To accomplish this, grammatical judgements were obtained from a group of 15 Sudanese informants. The causative in Sudanese Arabic is derived via the functional head CAUSE that attaches to the root, which requires an obligatory external argument. Many works in syntaxsemantics of the argument structure assume the notion that verbs express different eventualities, where the members in an event are the arguments. We extended this assumption further and claimed that the relations between verbs and their arguments and between the arguments were built from the event structure. Therefore, the causative event links the causer to the event of causing, whereas the inchoative involves only the event without any causing effect. Overall, we concluded that the functional head CAUSE in Sudanese Arabic introduced the CAUSER argument, which is significantly contributed to the semantic interpretation of causative construction. The implication of this conclusion significantly calls for further research to investigate the typology of causative constructions cross linguistically and within Arabic languages.

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# The Outcomes of Work-Integrated Learning Programmes: The Role of Self-Confidence as Mediator between Interpersonal and Self-Management Skills and Motivation to Learn

Ibrahim, H. I.1\* and Jaafar, A. H.2

<sup>1</sup>School of Management, Universiti Sains Malaysia, Minden, 11800 Penang, Malaysia <sup>2</sup>Department of Management and Human Resource, College of Business Management and Accounting, Universiti Tenaga Nasional, 26700, Muadzam Shah, Pahang, Malaysia

#### **ABSTRACT**

Work-integrated learning (WIL) is regarded as an important vehicle to assist undergraduates' employability skills, knowledge, and attributes that can add value to their learning, career aspiration and employability. There is limited research on the outcomes of WIL programmes in terms of undergraduates' personal and psychological attributes, and motivation to learn. This study examines the relationship between self-management and interpersonal skills, self-confidence, and motivation to learn through a survey of 383 business degree undergraduates from five Malaysian public universities who have participated in various WIL programmes. Results show that the students' motivation to learn is influenced by their self-management and interpersonal skills and mediated by their self-confidence. This finding provides a valuable insight into the outcomes of WIL programmes such as personal and psychological attributes and motivation to learn in order to ensure the effectiveness of WIL programmes in producing employable and lifelong learning graduates.

*Keywords:* Interpersonal skills, motivation to learn, self-confidence, self-management skills, work-integrated learning

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E-mail addresses: hazrili@yahoo.com (Ibrahim, H. I.), AHisham@uniten.edu.my; amarhishamjaafar@gmail.com (Jaaffar, A. H.)

\* Corresponding author

#### INTRODUCTION

In the 21<sup>st</sup> century, lifelong or continuous learning has been regarded as one of the important factors related to a graduate's employability and career development. Employability has been defined as a "psychological construct that embodies

individual characteristics that foster adaptive cognition, behaviour, affect, and the individual-work interface" (Fugate, Kinicki & Ashforth, 2004, p.15). Employable individuals do not only engage in their jobs and careers solely to meet demands of the environment, but they also proactively create and realise external opportunities. Fugate and Kinicki (2008) argued that individuals with a high motivation to learn will effectively identify opportunities; practise lifelong learning; and make necessary changes to enhance their employment prospects. High motivation to learn is also related to self-regulated competencies (Jackson & Wilton, 2016). Employability of graduates in Malaysia have long been a concern for the government, higher education providers, industry, and academic researchers. According to Ministry of Higher Education, majority of the 220,527 graduates in 2012 (mostly from public institutions of higher education) had not secured jobs within six months upon graduating (Ministry of Higher Education, 2013). The World Bank report in 2013 showed that one in five degree holders in Malaysia under the age of 25 were unemployed (Sander, Jalil, & Ali, 2013). Furthermore, academic achievements were no longer the main criteria for employers in recruiting fresh graduates (Selvadurai, Choy, & Maros, 2012). In order to mitigate this problem, higher education providers in Malaysia have been actively promoting student participation in work-integrated learning (WIL) programmes as a component of their curriculum to complement their theoretical knowledge and as a part of their education agenda to enhance graduate employability (Jainudin, Francis, Tawie, & Matarul, 2015; Khalid et al., 2014; Maelah, Muhammaddun Mohamed, Ramli, & Aman, 2014; Saat, Yusoff, & Panatik, 2014).

The WIL refers to a range of approaches and strategies that integrate theory with practice within a purposefully designed curriculum" (Patrick et al., 2008, p.6). The WIL is part of a curriculum that involves experience gained within a workplace setting (Cooper, Orrell, & Bowden, 2010). The WIL programmes involve a range of activities such as 1) work experience or internship or placements; 2) volunteering or community engagement; 3) professional association membership or engagement; 4) attending networking or industry information events; 5) international exchanges; 6) mentoring; and 7) engaging in extracurricular activities (Elijido-Ten & Kloot, 2015; Ferns, Campbell, & Zegwaard, 2014; Jackson, 2015; Jackson & Wilton, 2016; Rowe, Mackaway, & Winchester-Seeto, 2012). Studies that examine the benefits of WIL have primarily focused on its economic and monetary benefits for various stakeholders such as employers, higher education providers, industry, and students. However, only a few studies have examined the effect of an undergraduate's learning outcomes or certain psychological attributes after participating in WIL programmes. Also, nearly all the studies related to WIL have been conducted within developed countries, so very little is known about its utility in developing countries such as Malaysia.

The rationale for undertaking this research is to investigate whether a graduate's employability can be boosted through the outcomes of WIL programmes including enhancing personal attributes (e.g. self-management and interpersonal skills); psychological attributes (e.g. selfconfidence, self-efficacy and self-esteem) as well as learning outcomes (e.g. motivation to learn) (Drysdale et.al., 2016; Jackson & Wilton, 2016; Oliver, 2015; Smith & Worsfold, 2014; Yorra, 2014). The first objective of this study is to determine the relationship between the undergraduate's personal attributes (e.g. interpersonal skills and self-management skills) and his or her motivation to learn. The second objective is to examine the relationship between undergraduates' psychological attributes (e.g. self-confidence) and their personal attributes as well as their motivation to learn. The third objective is to investigate the influence of the undergraduates' personal attributes (e.g. interpersonal skills and selfmanagement skills) on their motivation to learn where their psychological attribute (e.g. self-confidence) is used as a mediator.

#### LITERATURE REVIEW

The WIL offers many benefits to undergraduates (Dressler & Keeling, 2011). Students who have participated in WIL tend to make informed decisions with regard to their career direction and feel more certain of their career choices (Zegwaard & Coll, 2011). In terms of academic benefits, WIL has increased students' ability to put theories into practice (Allen& Peach, 2007). The

students also tend to be more analytical in problem solving (Freudenberg, Brimble, & Cameron, 2011) and are more disciplined in their thinking (Fleming & Eames, 2005). In relation to personal benefits, WIL has increased students' confidence both in undertaking further research work and in applying for a job (DeLorenzo, 2000; Zegwaard & McCurdy, 2014). Research on WIL programmes in Malaysia have generally focused on undergraduates' industrial internship programmes. Maelah et al. (2014), Renganathan, Ambri Bin Abdul Karim, and Su Li (2012), Saat et al. (2014), Cheong, Yahya, Shen, and Yen (2014) and Jainudin et al. (2015) have analysed the perception of undergraduates with regard to benefit of internship programmes and skills developed as well as ethical awareness and experience gained. Khalid et al. (2014), Maelah et al. (2014) and Jainudin et al. (2015) have examined the firms' and universities' perception in relation to the benefits of WIL programmes. Nevertheless, those studies did not investigate in detail the outcomes of WIL's programmes such as personal attributes, psychological attributes and specific learning outcome (Drysdale et al., 2016).

### **Motivation to Learn (Specific Learning Outcomes)**

An individual's motivation to learn may be regarded as "internal, a naturally occurring capacity of human being that is enhanced and nurtured by quality supportive relationships, opportunities for personal choice and responsibility for learning, and personally

relevant and meaningful learning tasks" (McCombs, 1991, pp.120). According to McCombs (1991), motivation to learn refers to an individual's desire to participate in the lifelong learning or continuous learning activity. Motivation to learn may be considered as the most important aspect of student's employability, career selfmanagement, career development learning and work-integrated learning (Jackson & Wilton, 2016; Smith et al., 2009; Patton & McMahon, 2014). This is similar with autonomous motivation and self-regulation orientation. Undergraduates with a high motivation to learn will be more motivated to excel in their job performance, will persevere despite job-related stress, and are consistent in their actions when confronted with difficult situations. In addition, they will also pursue continuous or lifelong learning opportunities during their employment and plan their future career as well as willing to change to meet situational demand. Studies have shown that WIL programmes have increased students' motivation to learn in terms of lifelong or continuous learning, career motivation and upward mobility (Dressler & Keeling, 2004; Drysdale et. al. 2007; Freudenberg et al., 2010; Jackson, 2015; Jackson and Wilton, 2016; Kato and Hirose, 2008; Litchfield et al., 2010; Patrick et al., 2008).

### **Self-Management Skills (Personal Attributes)**

Self-management skills are related to an individual's perception and appraisal of themselves in terms of values, abilities,

interests and goals (Bridgstock, 2009). Selfmanagement is part of emotional intelligence, where a person has the maturity to gauge his strengths and weaknesses and will avoid blaming others or their environment when faced with challenging situations (De Janasz & Godshalk, 2013). Individuals with good self-management skills have the capability to curb adverse feelings and align their moods accordingly, always remain assured and confident, despite difficulty or hardships (Daft, Kendrick, & Vershinina, 2010). Self-management skills are also associated with other components such as personal drive and resilience, balancing work or life issues, self-awareness, goal setting, management, creativity and innovation, and self-confidence (Hellriegel et al., 2008).

Earlier studies have posited that prospective employers assume undergraduates acquire self-management skills including realistic appraisal of their own values, abilities, interest and goals (Bridgstock, 2009). Self-management skills are also associated with the concept of career management competencies (career self-management) which is a key factor for employability (Jackson & Wilton, 2016). Some studies have reported that WIL has intensified undergraduates' selfmanagement skills (Drysdale & McBeath, 2014; Fleming & Eames, 2005; Jackson, 2015). Individuals with self-management skills may also have a high level of motivation to learn (Bembenutty, 2011) and have high career management competencies (Jackson & Wilton, 2016). Self-management skills through self-awareness provide individuals with the ability to capitalise on their strengths while managing their weaknesses and having a balanced sense of self-confidence (Daft et al., 2010). Therefore, the first and second hypotheses are as below:

**Hypothesis 1 (H1):** Undergraduates' self-management skills affect their self-confidence.

**Hypothesis 2 (H2):** Undergraduates' self-management skills affect their motivation to learn.

### **Interpersonal Skills (Personal Attributes)**

Interpersonal skills are related to life skills people use every day to connect and relate to others, both at the personal and collective levels. Those skills include 1) verbal communication (e.g. the language we use and the manner in which we express ourselves) 2) non-verbal communication (e.g. what we communicate to others through body language, facial expressions, and gestures); 3) listening skills (e.g. our ability to interpret both the verbal and non-verbal messages); 4) negotiation skills (e.g. being congenial when working with others); 5) problem solving (e.g. overcoming challenges by involving others to find solutions that are acceptable to all); 6) decision making (e.g. weighing available options for sound decisions); and 7) assertiveness (e.g. being vocal and clear in expressing one's values, beliefs, opinions, needs or wants) (Jackson & Chapman, 2012; Syed, Abiodullah, &

Yousaf, 2014). Recent studies have shown that employers worldwide are looking for graduates with good interpersonal skills (e.g. experience within the industry) (Humburg, van der Velden, & Verhagen, 2013; Omar, Manaf, Mohd, Kassim, & Aziz, 2012; Singh, Thambusamy, & Ramly, 2014). This is because effective teamwork is important in any industry, namely collaboration and participation with co-workers. Previous studies have reported that undergraduates who participated in WIL developed good interpersonal skills such as interpersonal communication skills (Eames & Cates, 2011) and enhanced their ability to work within teams (Ferns et al., 2014). Interpersonal skills are also related to selfconfidence (Syed et al., 2014). Research has also indicated that undergraduates with good interpersonal skills have a strong motivation to learn (Lashley, 2012).

The following hypotheses are posited:

**Hypothesis 3 (H3):** Undergraduates' interpersonal skills affect their self-confidence.

**Hypothesis 4 (H4):** Undergraduates' interpersonal skills affect their motivation to learn.

### **Self-Confidence (Psychological Attributes)**

Self-confidence may be described in two categories such as state and traits. State-confidence can be defined as "in the moment" belief about being able to perform the task while trait-confidence refers to a

dispositional feeling about being able to perform a task (Vealey, 1986). The two major assumptions of self-confidence are vital in identifying a person's confidence level and the approaches required to boost his or her confidence level. The concept of self-confidence has been used interchangeably with the concept of selfefficacy. Nevertheless, Bandura (1986) argues that both concepts are quite different; self-confidence refers to the strength of the belief or conviction but it does not reach the level of perceived competence while self-efficacy is related to the level of perceived competence and the strength of the belief. Self-efficacy perspective (Bandura, 1977), competence motivation perspective (Harter, 1978) and movement confidence perspective (Griffin & Keogh, 1982) view self-confidence as a critical mediator of motivation and behaviour. Heydarei and Daneshi (2015) argued that students with strong motivation to learn have high levels of self-confidence. Previous studies have found that undergraduates who participated in WIL have higher levels of overall self-confidence (Drysdale et al., 2007). The WIL also increased student confidence in their ability to undertake further research work (Zegwaard & McCurdy, 2014), and improved confidence when applying for job (Reddan, 2008). Furthermore, according to Rao (2010), generic skills such as interpersonal and selfmanagement skills build self-confidence and increase undergraduates' motivation to learn. Varghese et al. (2012) in their model of effective WIL programmes points out

that sequencing is an important dimension in WIL because it shows the way skills and knowledge should be structured so there is value and meaning to undergraduates' learning outcomes. Therefore, we developed the research framework (see Figure 1) by sequencing the outputs of WIL's programmes (e.g. undergraduates' personal attributes, psychological attributes, and learning outcomes) based on the perspectives of the undergraduates who have already participated in the programmes. The following hypotheses were developed:

**Hypothesis 5 (H5):** Undergraduates' self-confidence affects their motivation to learn.

**Hypothesis 6 (H6):** Undergraduates' self-management skills indirectly affect their motivation to learn through self-confidence.

**Hypothesis 7 (H7):** Undergraduates' interpersonal skills indirectly affect their motivation to learn through self-confidence.

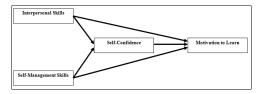


Figure 1. Research framework

#### RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

#### **Participants**

The participants selected as respondents for this study were Business degree students who have participated in various WIL

### Table 1 *Questions used in the study*

#### Motivation to Learn

- 1) When learning a new concept, I attempt to understand them.
- 2) When learning a new concept, I connect them to my previous experiences.
- 3) When I make a mistake, I try to find out why.
- 4) When I encounter something new that I do not understand, I still try to learn about them.
- 5) When a new concept that I have learned conflict with my previous understanding, I try to understand why that is so.
- When I do not understand something new, I would discuss with colleagues to clarify my understanding.
- 7) When I do not understand something, I find relevant resources that will help me.

#### Self-Confidence

- 1) I have control over my own life.
- 2) I am easy to like.
- 3) I never feel down for very long.
- 4) I am not embarrassed to let people know my opinions.
- 5) If a task is difficult, that makes me all the more determined.
- 6) I feel emotionally mature.
- 7) I like myself even when others don't.

#### Self-Management Skills

- 1) My ability to lead a project.
- 2) My ability to supervise group members.
- 3) My ability to optimise the use of resources.
- 4) Good time management.
- 5) My ability to plan, coordinate and organise a project.
- 6) My ability to plan and implement an action plan.
- 7) My ability to work independently.
- 8) My ability to work under pressure.
- 9) My ability to deliver expected results.

#### Interpersonal Skills

- 1) My ability to work & contribute to the group & team.
- My ability to understand other people's problems, emotions, concerns, and feelings, related to works.
- 3) My ability to negotiate with subordinates or colleagues.
- 4) My ability to encourage and motivate others.
- 5) My ability to network.
- 6) My ability to work in diverse environment (different ethnic group, religion & gender).
- 7) My ability to deal with superiors.
- 8) My ability to manage others.

programmes, including 1) internship/placement/practicum; 2) industrial attachment; 3) research assistantship (paid/unpaid); 4) teaching assistantship; 5) job shadowing; 6) volunteering (community service); and 7) study abroad. They are both male and female students from five Malaysian public universities.

#### **Survey Instruments**

The questionnaire contains four constructs (Refer Table 1), including 1) motivation to learn (seven items) adopted from Tuan, Chin, and Shieh (2005); 2) self-confidence (seven items) adopted from Shrauger's (1995) Personal Evaluation Inventory (PEI); 3) interpersonal skills (eight items) adopted from Abdul Hamid, Islam, and Abd Manaf (2014); and 4) self-management skills (nine items) adopted from Abdul Hamid et al. (2014). The constructs were measured based on 5-point Likert scale where 1= Strongly disagree, 2= Disagree, 3= Neutral, 4= Agree, and 5= Strongly agree.

#### **Procedure**

This study employs a purposive sampling technique as it targets a specific group of respondents. A drop and collect method was used for data collection. A total of 500 questionnaires was distributed to respondents with the cooperation of the business faculty's internship coordinator. The 383 completed sets (representing 76.7%) were collected from the internship coordinators after two months.

#### **Statistical Analysis**

The usable questionnaires met the rule of thumb whereby the minimum number of respondents was in a10 to 1 ratio of latent variables to be tested (Chin, 1998; Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2011). The SmartPLS 2.0 software was used to evaluate the relationship among the constructs of the research model by conducting partial least square (PLS) analysis. Data was analysed using the guidelines provided by Hair, Hult, Ringle, and Sarstedt (2013)based on the Partial Least Square-Structural Equation Modelling (PLS-SEM) approach. The theoretical model was analysed in a twostep process: measurement model and the structural model (Chin, 2010). In assessing the measurement model, we examined the validity and reliability of the relationships between the latent variables (LV) and any associated observable variables. In assessing the structural model, we accounted for the relationships between the theoretical constructs.

#### RESULTS

#### **Respondent Profiles**

As shown in Table 2, 89 respondents were males (23.2%) and 294 were females (76.8%). A total of 370 (96.6%) respondents did an internship/placement/practicum; 26 (6.8%) had undergone industrial attachment; 8 (2.1%) had undergone research assistantship (paid/unpaid); 12 (3.15%) had undergone teaching assistantship; 4 (1%) had undergone job shadowing; 61 (15.9%)

Table 2
Profile of respondents

Description		Frequency	Percentage	
Gen	der			
1)	Male	89	23.2	
2)	Female	294	76.8	
Trai	ning Programmes Involved			
1)	Internship/placement/practicum	370	96.6	
2)	Industrial attachment	26	6.8	
3)	Research assistantship (paid/unpaid)	8	2.1	
4)	Teaching assistantship	12	3.1	
5)	Job shadowing	4	1.0	
6)	Volunteering (community service)	61	15.9	
7)	Study abroad	7	1.8	

had undergone volunteering (community service) and 7 (1.8%) had undergone studyabroad programmes.

#### **Measurement Model**

The measurement model was evaluated by examining the reliability of the individual items, internal consistency or construct reliability, average variance extracted (AVE) analysis, and discriminant validity. A measurement model has satisfactory internal consistency reliability when the composite reliability (CR) of each construct exceeds the threshold value of 0.7 (Hair et al., 2011; Hulland, 1999); the latent variable values higher than 0.5 for convergent validity (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988; Chin, 2010; Hair et al., 2011); and has satisfactory indicator reliability when the loading of each item is at least 0.4 or higher for exploratory research and is significant at least at the level of 0.05 (Hulland, 1999). Based on Table 3, the items in the measurement model exhibited

loading that exceeded 0.6178 ranging from a lower bound of 0.6178 to an upper bound of 0.7976. The CR values for all construct were more than 0.876 while the AVE values for all constructs were higher than 0.5. Thus, based on Table 3, all the items used for this study demonstrated satisfactory indicator reliability.

#### **Discriminant Validity**

Discriminant validity describes the extent to which each construct is distinct from one another (Chin, 1998). Two measures must be checked to test discriminant validity. The AVE of each construct should be higher than the highest squared correlation of the construct with any other LV in the model, and the loading of an indicator with its associated LV must be higher than its loading with other LVs (Chin, 2010; Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 2011). Thus, to determine the first assessment of the measurement model's discriminant validity,

Table 3

Measurement model

Constructs	Items	Loading	AVE	CR
Motivation For Learning (MOV)	MOV 1	0.6864	0.564	0.9
	MOV 2	0.7348		
	MOV 3	0.7976		
	MOV 4	0.7502		
	MOV 5	0.7363		
	MOV 6	0.7624		
	MOV 7	0.785		
Self-Confidence (CON)	CON 1	0.7031	0.537	0.89
	CON 2	0.7746		
	CON 3	0.748		
	CON 4	0.7763		
	CON 5	0.7893		
	CON 6	0.6658		
	CON 7	0.6625		
Self-Management Skills (MS)	MS 1	0.7252	0.524	0.908
	MS 2	0.7695		
	MS 3	0.7076		
	MS 4	0.694		
	MS 5	0.7505		
	MS 6	0.7601		
	MS 7	0.745		
	MS 8	0.6178		
	MS 9	0.7318		
Interpersonal Skills (IS)	IS 1	0.6545	0.503	0.876
	IS 3	0.74		
	IS 4	0.6975		
	IS 5	0.7297		
	IS 6	0.6871		
	IS 7	0.7154		
	IS 8	0.7374		

*Note.* CR = composite reliability; AVE = average variance extracted

the AVE value of each construct is generated using the SmartPLS algorithm function. Then, the square roots of the AVE are calculated manually. Based on the results, all the square roots of the AVE exceeded the off-diagonal elements in their corresponding

row and column. The bold values in Table 4 represent the square roots of the AVE and the non-bolded ones represent the intercorrelation value between the constructs. Based on Table 4, all the off-diagonal elements are lower than the square roots

of the AVE (bold on the diagonal). Hence, the results confirmed that the Fornell and Larcker's criteria are met.

Table 4

Discriminant validity

	CON	IS	MOV	MS
CON	0.733			
IS	0.403	0.709		
MOV	0.504	0.437	0.7509	
MS	0.504	0.484	0.428	0.724

*Note.* Average variances extracted (AVEs) are shown (in bold) on diagonal

#### Structural Model

The following subsection discusses the tests used to assess the validity of the structural model for this study. The validity is assessed using the coefficient of determination  $(R^2)$  and path coefficients. In addition, this study also assesses the mediation relationships proposed in the research model. The coefficient of determination  $R^2$  indicates the amount of variance in the dependent variables that is explained by the independent variables. Based on Figure 2,

the coefficient of determination,  $R^2$  is 0.333 for the MOV endogenous latent variable. This means that the three latent variables (IS, MS and CON) moderately explain 33.3% of the variance in MOV while MS and IS together explain 28.7% of the variance of CON. Based on Figure 2, the inner model suggests that CON (0.338) is followed by IS (0.230) and MS (0.146). Thus, a larger  $R^2$ value increases the predictive ability of the structural model. In this study, the SmartPLS algorithm function is used to obtain the  $R^2$ values, while the SmartPLS bootstrapping function is used to generate the *t*-statistics values. For this study, the bootstrapping function generated 5000 samples from 383 cases. The results are presented in Table 5.

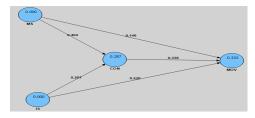


Figure 2. Path Coefficients of Self-Management and Interpersonal Skills, Self-Confidence and Motivation to Learn

Table 5
Path coefficient

Hypotheses	Beta (Path Coefficient)	Standard Error	T Value	Decision
H1-MS positively affects CON	0.4040	0.0521	7.7632	Supported
H2 - MS positively affects MOV	0.1460	0.0627	2.3300	Supported
H3 - IS positively affects CON	0.2070	0.0520	3.9775	Supported
H4 - IS positively affects MOV	0.2300	0.0548	4.1976	Supported
H5 - CON positively affects MOV	0.3380	0.0528	6.4018	Supported
H6- CON mediate the relationship between MS and MOV	0.1400	0.03	5.11	Supported
H7 - CON mediate the relationship between IS and MOV	0.0700	0.02	3.38	Supported

*Note*.\*p<.05.\*\*p<.01.

From Table 5, MS $\rightarrow$ CON ( $\beta$  = .4040, p< .01) and IS $\rightarrow$ CON ( $\beta$  = .2070, p< .01) were positively related to CON. Hence H1 and H3 are supported. MS $\rightarrow$ MOV ( $\beta$  = .1460, p < .01); IS $\rightarrow$ MOV ( $\beta = .2300, p < .01$ ); and CON $\rightarrow$ MOV ( $\beta$  = .3380, p< .01) were positively related to MOV. Thus H2, H4 and H5 were supported. Based on Table 5, the bootstrapping analysis demonstrated that the indirect effect of  $\beta = 0.1400$  was significant with a t value of 5.11 (MS  $\rightarrow$  CON  $\rightarrow$ MOV) and indirect effect of  $\beta = 0.0700$ was significant with a t value of 3.38 (IS  $\rightarrow$  CON  $\rightarrow$  MOV. In addition, as indicated by Preacher and Hayes (2008), the indirect effect of 0.14, 95% boot confidence interval (CI): [0.080, 0.19] (MS→CON→MOV) and the indirect effect of 0.07, 95% boot confidence interval (CI): [0.030, 0.110] (IS-CON-MOV)do not straddle a 0 inbetween indicating there is mediation. Thus, H6 and H7 are supported.

#### DISCUSSION

The results from structural modelling indicates that undergraduates' self-management skills obtained from various WIL activities positively influenced their motivation to learn, which supports H1. This result is consistent with previous studies, which showed that students with self-management skills are more motivated to learn (Bembenutty, 2011) and it increases their willingness to learn to achieve continual success rather than be contented with temporary success (De Janasz & Godshalk, 2013). Self-management skills also positively influence undergraduates'

self-confidence, which supports H2. This result corresponds with Daft et al. (2010) who argues that self-management skills lead to balanced self-confidence. Through WIL programmes, students enhance their selfmanagement skills such as developing high level of professionalism; time management; multi-tasking; self-awareness; managing work-life balance; and career management skills due to opportunities to directly interact with professionals and gain a better understanding of what constitutes professional behaviour and good work ethics and skills(Jackson, 2015). This will increase their motivation to learn in addition to attaining competencies and developing an understanding of expectations and responsibilities in their job as well as develop autonomy and good work practices, especially in multi-tasking and time management.

Next, interpersonal skills influence self-confidence and motivation to learn, which support H3 and H4. These results are in agreement with Syed et al. (2014) who described that interpersonal skills increased students' self-confidence and Lashley (2012) who argued that students with good interpersonal skills have high levels of motivation to learn. In terms of interpersonal skills, WIL helped undergraduates to develop their team-spirit and communication skills as well as enhanced problem-solving ability which helped build their self-confidence. Furthermore through WIL, undergraduates cemented their learning and enhanced understanding of actual organisational culture (Jackson, 2015) and enjoyed engaging with other professionals and co-workers

and being part of a community within an actual work environment (Varghese et al., 2012). The WIL also assists undergraduates in overcoming difficulties in workplace environment such as difficulties working with culturally, linguistically and ethnically diverse co-workers. Hence, the development of set of skills as a result of WIL will increase undergraduates' confidence and motivation to learn which subsequently will increase their employability.

We can conclude from this study that undergraduates' self-confidence acts as a mediating factor for the motivation to learn. This finding is consistent with Bandura (1977), Harter (1978), and Griffin & Keogh (1982) who argued that self-confidence is a critical mediator of motivation and behaviour. WIL offers experience in performing career-specific skills and tasks that will serve to boost confidence and subsequently improve student motivation to learn by continuously pursuing learning and training opportunities during their employment and continue planning for their future career as well as willingness to change to meet situational demand. Selfconfidence maybe regarded as an important psychological attribute to undergraduates in order to ensure that they engage effectively in their WIL and to be employable. This study provides valuable theoretical contributions by providing the sequencing of the output of WIL's programmes (e.g. undergraduate's personal attributes, psychological attributes, and learning outcomes) based on the perspectives of undergraduates who have already participated in the programmes.

The sequencing has been regarded as an important dimension in WIL's model because it demonstrated the way skills and knowledge should be structured so there is value and meaning to undergraduates' learning outcomes (Varghese et al., 2012). This study has shown that through WIL programmes, an undergraduate's personal attributes such as interpersonal and selfmanagement skills are boosted which in turn bolster their self-confidence and increase their motivation to learn. Interestingly, this study also shows that the psychological attributes of undergraduates (e.g. selfconfidence) play an integral role in nurturing employability skills in undergraduates and their motivation to apply these skills and to engage in lifelong learning for career development.

#### **CONCLUSION**

Employability is an issue among graduates in Malaysia. The government, higher education providers, industry and academic researchers have long been concerned over this Institutions of higher education that introduce work- integrated learning (WIL) programmes have mushroomed across Malaysia and worldwide. Although the benefits of WIL have extensively been researched (e.g. career benefits, academic benefits, personal benefits, employer benefits and higher education provider benefits), there is limited research on how WIL programmes shape undergraduates' personal and psychological attributes and increase their motivation to learn. The results of this study indicate the

outcomes of WIL programme, such as undergraduates' motivation to learn, are enhanced by their self-confidence resulting from the development of interpersonal and self-management skills. The guidance provided by their experienced colleagues during WIL programmes is important in the development of undergraduates' selfconfidence which directly boosts their desire to learn during and after participating in the programmes. The WIL programme is designed to enhance undergraduate's selfconfidence. Inadequate preparation in these areas will result in a sense of inferiority among some undergraduates and impact their confidence in exhibiting employability skills and motivation to learn. This study has its limitations as it only focused on business degree local undergraduates from five public universities in Malaysia. Therefore, the findings cannot be generalised to all the undergraduates in Malaysia or internationally. We suggest that future research should focus on undergraduates from the sciences and engineering courses and on international students. It should also examine students' personal attribute (e.g. thinking skills, communication skills, computing skills, and entrepreneurship skills) and other psychological attributes (e.g. self-esteem and self-efficacy).

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## The Perceptions and the Practices of Folk Medicines among Youths in Pakistan

Samina, R.<sup>1</sup>, Adeela, R.<sup>1\*</sup>, and Nurazzura, M. D.<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Gender Studies, Fatima Jinnah Women University, Rawalpindi, Pakistan <sup>2</sup>Department of Sociology & Anthropology, Kulliyyah of Islamic Revealed Knowledge and Human Sciences, International Islamic University Malaysia, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

#### **ABSTRACT**

The study aims to explore the relationship between the perceptions and the practices of folk medicines among youths in Pakistan. The quantitative research method was adopted to achieve its objectives. Structured questionnaires were distributed to respondents to collect data. The respondents are youths whose ages ranged from 18 to 25 years and they resided in the twin cities of Rawalpindi and Islamabad in Pakistan. The data were analysed using the Statistical Analysis Package of Social Sciences (SPSS version 13). The result shows that Pakistan youths have limited knowledge of folk medicines, and do not have a positive perception of it. A majority of them know the importance and usage of folk medicine but do not know how to prepare it and where to get it. Findings show that a lack of educational awareness about folk medicines has a strong impact on folk medicine practices. Pakistani youths mostly prefer medically specialised doctors compared to those who practise folk medicine, which they perceive to be slow in curing illnesses. It is recommended that folk wisdom about traditional healing practices be transferred to the next generation by their elders as well as via education-based awareness campaigns.

Keywords: Folk medicine, Pakistan, youths

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E-mail addresses: adanayesha@gmail.com (Samina, R.), adeela.rehman@fjwu.edu.pk; dradeelarehman@gmail.com (Adeela, R.), nurazzura@iium.edu.my (Nurazzura, M. D.) \* Corresponding author INTRODUCTION

The term 'folk medicine' is used to refer to natural products that are used as medicine for curing various illnesses. Folk medicine includes both the traditional healing practices and beliefs featuring the use of herbs as medicine for healing physical, spiritual and mental illnesses (WHO, 2008). Folk

medicine has been used over many centuries in traditional healing practices, but changed over time due to modernised and dominant alternative medical practices (Nurazzura, 2013). Traditional society's view on disease and health has evolved as a part of folk culture. For this reason, practices related to this issue are the domains of anthropology, ethnology and sociology. Traditional medicine thrives among people as part of its culture. In traditional societies, information about a disease is commonly shared. It is passed down through generations. People learn about medicine in the same way they learn about other cultural components.

The term 'folk medicine' used today more often than not infers the manifestation of observational treatment rather than that practiced by state-qualified physicians, registered pharmacists or trained nurses; however, it does not take into account an objective framework. Another and perhaps a better definition is that it is considered self-medication, which suggests the utilisation of herbal, animal or mineral components, involving a pharmacological activity that is doubtful or not acknowledged by standard specialists (Newman, 1945).

In medical anthropology, the term 'ethno-medical perspective' emphasises health beliefs, cultural values, traditional norms, ethics and social roles. Previously, anthropology was limited to the study of aboriginal folk medicine, which later developed into ethno-medicine, focussing on the health maintenance system of a society (Kleinman, 1977). The World Health Organisation (WHO) portrays

traditional remedy as the entirety based on learning, aptitudes and practices in light of the speculations, feelings and experiences indigenous to the different social orders. Since the beginning of human existence, man has held a profound association with plants, of which the majority have been utilised as medication. The natural modes of treatment have also been incorporated into Western, homeopathy and Chinese medicines.

Folk healers of the old tradition have benefited from nature in making medicines or healing patients. Hereditary traditional beliefs in herbs play an important role in shaping the lifestyles of traditional societies. Folk remedies have entrenched roots in hoarded knowledge of ancient times. Folk therapeutics uses traditional medicinal drugs prepared from plants and animals through traditional practices. WHO reports that more than 80% of individuals in Asia depend on customary drugs for the treatment of ailments. Such drugs are utilised for treating different incessant illnesses including skin diseases and other diverse contaminations. Individuals having confidence in profound healers, ministers, 'Hakeem', homeopaths or even quacks have used elective treatments (Abbasi et al., 2009). Furthermore, a home cure is a treatment to cure contaminations or sicknesses using certain flavours, vegetables or home-made herbal concoctions. Home cures may perhaps have restorative properties that treat or cure ailments or sicknesses alluded to, using methods based on the customary practices of indigenous people. According to Lopez (2005), there

are a number of medications utilised by the Mexican community. In Mexican culture, a large segment of the population practises its own particular manner of preparing customary folk medicines that are easily done at home. The Mexicans have continued to improve home-made cures and are transferring these practices to their next generation. In the Mexican Green Mountains, people prefer to use herbs as medical treatment due to their abundant availability.

However, the knowledge and practices of food having medicinal properties among the majority of the population in Pakistan is lacking. This is especially true of the vouths of the current era who do not know about medicinal food and its usage for curing illnesses. A study by Qidwai et al. (2003) explored the practice of medicinal food among patients in one of the public hospitals in Karachi, Pakistan. The findings of the study showed that very few patients were aware of the use of medicinal foods for general types of illnesses such as fever, cough, headache and stomach diseases. The medicinal foods known by a few of the patients were ginger, cinnamon, honey, lemon, black pepper, eggs, turmeric, mint, curd, etc. The majority of the patients did not use such types of food as medicine due to lack of knowledge. In addition, they would rather recover quickly by using modern medicine. Youths, particularly in Pakistan, do not have sufficient knowledge about folk medicines due to the generation gap and modernisation, which has caused

them to perceive it as an outdated method of treatment.

In order to investigate the perceptions and practices of folk medicines among youths in Pakistan, the following objectives were formulated to delve deeper into the subject matter:

- To identify the perceptions of Pakistani youths on folk medicine
- To examine the practices of youths regarding traditional home remedies
- To find the relationship between the perceptions and the practices of youths towards folk medicine

#### LITERATURE REVIEW

The term 'customary prescription' is a whole spectrum of learning, aptitudes and practices in light of the hypotheses, convictions and individual encounters indigenous to diverse societies (Babar & Juanita, 2005). In Pakistan, a large segment of the populace (66%) lives in the pastoral parts of the country. Destitution, exacerbated by ignorance, the low status of women and deficient water supplies and sanitation offices have had profound effects on the well-being of the people. Restricted information on well-being and illnesses, social and family cures, wellbeing administration and supply and social hindrances as well as expenses identified with the procurement of a successful wellbeing administration have been significant obstructions (Sheikh & Hatcher, 2005).

The population of Pakistan, especially those living in rural areas, has a very rich tradition of utilising herbal medicine. The rural areas are also rich with medicinal plants used for the "Unani" practice of curing illness. The Greek practice of using medicinal plants as an alternative treatment goes back to the Indus Valley civilisation (WHO, 2001). The northern areas of Pakistan have good climate and fertile land to cultivate various medicinal herbs that are then supplied within and outside the country for the production of herbal medicine (Hussain et al., 2004).

Rahman (2003) pointed out that a majority of the rural population in Pakistan relies on the traditional source of healthcare such as 'Hakeems' and 'Tib-e-Unani'. Unani medical practitioners are registered with the medical system of Pakistan and practise in the country both in the public and private sectors in rural and urban areas. It is estimated that approximately 52,600 practitioners are registered as Unani medical practitioners and about 360 dispensaries provide free herbal medication under the regulation of the Health Department.

The health service framework in Pakistan comprises two fundamental divisions: general society area and private area. The general society segment, which is placed under social insurance, is seriously under-used because of specific shortcomings including deficient concentration on avoidance and advancement of well-being, inordinate centralisation of administration, political impedance, absence of openness, feeble human asset improvement, absence

of coordination and absence of a general well-being approach. In the private segment, there are not many authorised outlets and clinics, yet numerous unregulated doctors, medicinal general experts, homeopaths, 'hakeems', customary/otherworldly healers, botanists, bone setters and quacks (Sheikh & Hatcher, 2005) exist. Individuals who have confidence in profound healers, ministers, 'hakeems', homeopaths or even numerous quacks have used elective treatments (Abbasi et al., 2009).

As far as the usage and benefits of folk medicine are concerned, individuals have been utilising plants as cures for different infirmities from time immemorial without knowing their viable constituents. The traditional healer cures ailments of both regular and extraordinary origins. The best of confident healers can both cure and kill, but often times serve as specialists, treating those who are ill as well as building deeper interpersonal relationships regularly associated with them (Beck, 1990).

In another study, Tareen et al. (2010) highlighted the knowledge and use of folk medicine among women in Pakistan. They stated that most women in the rural parts of Baluchistan use medicinal plants for curing digestive problems, fever, liver problems, diabetes-related ailments as well as pregnancy and post-natal matters. A few decades ago, the practice of using herbal medication was transferred from generation to generation but this has decreased in current time and traditional herbalists are no longer transferring the knowledge to the next generation.

#### **Theoretical Framework**

The theoretical background of the study draws from the field of medical anthropology, which defines 'ethno-medicine' as the study of traditional healthcare practices and knowledge. Levinson and Ember (2012) explained ethno-medicine as the study of the primitive or folk health system of any society. Ethnographers in medical anthropology study folk medicines with respect to knowledge, beliefs, values, roles of healers and health seekers. They also cover the techniques used for preparing folk medicines, the legal and economic rulings of its usage as well as the symbolic and interpersonal components of the experience of using folk medical treatment.

Arthur Kleinman, a medical anthropologist explained the concept of ethno-medicine in the "Explanatory Model" of the health system. The model describes the causes of illness, diagnostic benchmarks and treatment preferences based on cultural values and practices. The stance of the present study is related to Kleinman's theoretical idea of establishing the notion of ethno-medicine based on the 'Explanatory Model'. Knowledge about folk medicine and its practice reflects the cultural construction of curing illness (Kleinman, 1977). Medical anthropologists assert that the belief system of any culture mirrors the individual's health seeking behaviour and inclinations to seek alternative practices of healthcare (Hall, 1977).

#### **METHODOLOGY**

#### **Research Design**

This research was based on the quantitative research design. This study was done in two parts: a pilot study and the main study. A structured questionnaire was used in the pilot study.

#### Sample

The sample for the pilot study was selected from private and public colleges and universities in Rawalpindi. The sample comprised youths between the ages of 18 and 25. The sample for the eventual study was chosen from public and private higher educational institutions in Rawalpindi and Islamabad. This sample size was 120, including 60 males and 60 females using the convenient sampling technique.

#### **Instrument**

The structured questionnaire utilised the Likert scale. The questionnaire was divided into three parts: the first part asked for demographical information of respondents, the second consisted of items related to the perceptions and practices of folk medicine and the final part was based on items related to the usage and preparation of the medicine and its practices. In Section One of the questionnaire, semi-structured questions were included for any other options so information related to the respondents' demographics could be added. For Sections Two and Three, respondents were given five options, strongly disagree, disagree, neutral,

agree and strongly disagree, from which they had to select one option.

#### **Procedure and Pilot Study**

The researcher visited public and private universities in Rawalpindi and Islamabad to conduct the study. Before conducting the actual study, a pilot was done to check the validity and reliability of the instrument. The sample of this pilot consisted of 30 youths (between the ages of 18 and 25) not included in the main study's sample. After determining that the reliability of scale was satisfactory, the actual study was carried out.

#### **Ethical Consideration**

Initially, permission was sought from the heads of institutions to conduct the study. Then, informed consent was obtained from the individual respondents. The respondents were briefed about the purpose of the study and were assured that information provided would be kept confidential.

#### Analysis

Data were analysed using the SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences). Firstly, the univariate analysis (percentages and means) was employed to describe the demographic characteristics of the youths as well as their perceptions and practices related to folk medicine. Secondly, the bivariate analyses (t-test and correlation) were used to determine gender differences and relationship with the perceptions and the practices of youths in relation to folk medicine.

#### **RESULTS**

#### Part I (Pilot Study)

Part One of the study consisted of the results of the pilot study to determine the reliability of the scale as shown in Table 1 below:

Table 1 Alpha reliability of the instrument used for questionnaire (n=30)

N	No of items	Alpha Reliability
30	40	0.725

The alpha reliability of the questionnaire was found to be satisfactory for use in the final study. No changes were required on any item of the questionnaire except for the sequence of certain items.

#### Part II (Main Study)

Part Two of the study comprised the findings described below:

Table 2
Frequency and percentage distribution of respondents based on age (n=120)

Age	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
18-20	16	14.3
21-23	70	58.3
24-26	34	28.3

#### Demographics of the respondents.

Table 2 shows that the majority of the respondents belonged to the age group ranging between 21 and 23 years, which was 58.3% of the total number. It also indicates that 28% were in the age group ranging

between 24 and 26 years while only 14% were between 18 and 20 years old.

Table 3
Frequency and percentage distribution of respondents based on qualification (n=60)

Qualification	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
Bachelor's	50	41.7
Master's	62	51.7
Other Master's	8	6.0

Table 3 shows that 51% of the respondents were working towards their Master's degree followed by 41%, who were studying for their Bachelor's degree while only 6% of the respondents were doing their M.Phil. degree.

Table 4 Frequency and percentage distribution in use of folk medicine (n=60)

Use of Folk Medicine	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
Always	1	1.0
Often	11	9.2
Sometimes	96	80.0
Not at all	12	10.0

Table 4 indicates the extent of folk medicine usage among youths. It highlights that only 1% of youths always used folk

medicines, 9% used them often, 80% used them sometimes and 10% of the respondents had never used them before.

Table 5
Mean and standard deviation of perception off folk
medicine among Pakistani youths

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Perceptions	39.00	107.00	55.9500	10.25013

In Table 5, the mean of the youths' perception of folk medicines is 55.95, which is approximately closer to that of the minimum value of 39.00. As the mean value is near the minimum level, it shows that the youths had low awareness of folk medicine.

Table 6
Mean and standard deviation of the practice of folk
medicine among Pakistani youths

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Practices	47.00	75.00	53.1667	6.24138

From Table 6, we can see that the mean of practice of folk medicine among youths is 53.1667, which is approximately nearer to that of the minimum value of 47.00. This shows that Pakistani youths had minimum practice of folk medicine.

Table 7
Gender differences in perception of folk medicine among youths

Perception		Male	Female		t	p
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
	67.76	12.06	64.65	8.68	1.159	0.278

## Bivariate analysis

Table 7 presents the perception of both genders of folk medicine. The mean is 67.76 and the standard deviation is 12.06 among male respondents. As for female

respondents, the mean is 64.65 while the standard deviation is 8.68. The value of t is 1.159 and the value of p is 0.278. This shows that there was no big difference between the genders regarding perception of folk medicine

Table 8
Gender differences in perception of folk medicine among youths

Practices		Male	Female		t	p
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
	60.00	6.83	58.57	5.81	0.872	0.387

The practice of folk medicine by both genders are demonstrated in Table 8. Among the males, the mean is 60.00 and the standard deviation is 6.83. Quite similarly, the mean among females is 58.57 and the standard deviation is 5.81. The value of t is 0.872 and the value of p is 0.387. The data showed that there was no significant difference between the genders regarding the practice of folk medicine.

Table 9
Relationship between perception and practice

Perception & Practice	Number of items	r	p
	60	0.89	0.056

The correlation between perception and practice was 0.89 with 0.056. Table 9 shows that Pakistani youths had little knowledge of folk medicine. As such, practice of folk medicine was also infrequent and limited.

Table 10
Relationship between social class with knowledge and use of folk medicine

Items	Number of items	r	p
Knowledge	06	0.473**	0.000
Usage	07	0.491**	0.000

Table 10 indicates that there is highly significant correlation between social class and knowledge about folk medicine. The urban-upper class had less awareness of folk medicine compared to those living in the rural areas, who tended to belong to lower socio-economic classes. Furthermore, the table also indicates a strong and significant positive correlation between the usage of folk medicine and social class, which is also higher for rural areas. As the rural areas are rich with medicinal plants and herbs, knowledge and practice of folk medicine tended to be greater than among those living in urban residences.

#### DISCUSSION

The purpose of this research was to examine the relationship between the perception and the practice of Pakistani youths of folk medicine. Most of the respondents agreed that they had little awareness of folk medicine. These youths perceived that people belonging to the low socio-economic class used folk medicine and had strong beliefs about home-made remedies. As the findings showed, quacks mostly used folk medicine. There is, therefore, a need to educate people, especially youths, on folk medicine. Pakistani youths have insufficient awareness of folk medicine and how to prepare and use it. In this modern era of globalisation and industrialisation, youths prefer to go to hospitals rather than apply home-made remedies for their illnesses. They rely on modern medicine rather than on folk medicine, unlike in the past. As trends are changing, people's perception are also changing with time.

Prior to using folk medicine, awareness and knowledge are needed. Sometimes, it is a challenge for the young generation to prepare and apply home remedies. If they live in an extended family system, their parents and grandparents could help them to prepare and use folk medicine. Otherwise, they would have to attain the knowledge themselves. Youths have low perception of folk medicine, resulting in low practice of this type of medicine. Shaikh et al. (2009) and Hussain et al. (2012) supported the argument that youths in Pakistan exhibit little awareness of folk medicines. Using folk medicine requires special skills and

knowledge for preparing them at home, and these youths do not have such expertise. Further, the findings showed the correlation between the practice and the perception of youths regarding folk medicine.

The perception and practice of folk medicine among Pakistani youths are limited and are changing with the passage of time. The findings showed that Pakistani youths are less enthusiastic about curing illnesses using folk medicine. They responded that folk medicine was not able to expedite recovery compared to modern medicine. Most of the young respondents had no positive perception of folk medicine and instead, required more evidence. This is the reason for their minimal utilisation of folk medicine. The study's findings support the hypothesis that the perception and practice of Pakistani youths of folk medicine are changing due to modernisation. The findings of this study show that lack of knowledge of folk medicine is the cause for the insubstantial practice of folk medicine.

## CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The perception and practice of folk medicine among youths are very limited in Pakistan. The perception of folk medicine is changing and with the passage of time, biomedical practice has become more popular in this modern era. The youths responded that folk medicine is used by the lower class, who cannot afford modern medicine. The findings showed that youths disagreed with the curing of illness through use of folk medicine. They responded that folk

medicine cannot expedite recovery, unlike modern medicine. The youths had no positive perception of folk medicine and demanded evidence. This is the reason of their minimal practice of folk medicine. The findings of the study supported the hypothesis that the perception and practice of the youths of folk medicines are changing due to modernisation. The study will contribute to the existing knowledge of folk medicine and will motivate future generations to incorporate traditional treatment of illness into their daily life and health system.

Traditional knowledge of herbal medication is generally transmitted from the herbalists ('hakeem') and traditional healers. However, this group is decreasing in number by the day. Folk medicine is generally used for acute illnesses such as fever, digestive problems and acute cough. It is easy and cheap to prepare at home for the curing of acute illnesses but is not preferred for serious health problems such as cardiac diseases, hepatitis or infectious diseases.

#### RECOMMENDATIONS

Pakistani youths must be educated on folk medicine. Awareness and knowledge of folk medicine and other useful plants should be promoted through research activities. Folk wisdom in preparing medicine must be transferred to the next generation.

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# The Personal Characteristics that Influence Tax Auditors' Conciliatory Style: An Empirical Study

Zarifah Syahirah Nordin\*, Izlawanie Muhammad, Kalsom Abd. Wahab and Nor Asiah Yaakub

Universiti Sains Islam Malaysia, Bandar Baru Nilai, 71800 Nilai, Negeri Sembilan, Malaysia

### **ABSTRACT**

The way a tax auditor deals with taxpayers can give an impact on audit settlement outcomes. Qualitative studies show that tax auditors often use the conciliatory style as a strategy to resolve disputes because it expedites audit settlement and promotes long-term compliance. However, there is no study that has empirically examined the factors that influence tax auditors' conciliatory style. This study aims to examine the influence of personal characteristics i.e. attitude towards achieving goals, experience and ethical ideology on tax auditors' conciliatory style in resolving audit settlement disputes. Six hundred and thirty-six questionnaires (63.6% of response rate) were usable for data analysis. The results revealed that all the personal characteristics surveyed significantly influenced tax auditors' conciliatory style. This study can extend the literature on tax auditors' behaviour and facilitate the Inland Revenue Board of Malaysia in better understanding their auditors.

*Keywords:* Conciliatory style, dispute resolution, enforcement regulatory style, Inland Revenue Board of Malaysia, personal characteristics, tax auditors

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E-mail addresses: zarifahsyah@gmail.com (Zarifah Syahirah Nordin), izlawanie@usim.edu.my (Izlawanie Muhammad), akalsom@usim.edu.my (Kalsom Abd. Wahab), norasiah@usim.edu.my (Nor Asiah Yaakub) \* Corresponding author

## INTRODUCTION

The Inland Revenue Board of Malaysia (IRBM) is responsible for administering, assessing, collecting and enforcing direct tax. Tax audit has become a major compliance activity by the IRBM since the implementation of the self-assessment system in 2001. In 2014, the IRBM resolved 1,869,932 tax audit cases and collected RM4,472.42 million in additional taxes and

penalties from the cases (Inland Revenue Board of Malaysia, 2014).

Tax auditors are responsible for examining taxpayers' returns and verifying that taxpayers have correctly declared their tax liabilities according to law. They act as a public face and represent IRBM in enforcing tax law. The way a tax auditor deals with taxpayers can give an impact on audit outcomes and future compliance. The behaviour of tax auditors in dealing with taxpayers is particularly crucial during resolving audit settlement disputes. A tax auditor has to adopt an appropriate strategy to harmoniously resolve disputes with taxpayers (Smith & Stalans, 1994; Muhammad, 2013).

Researchers have found that the public oppose strict approaches and prefer to be persuaded to comply with the law (Mahmood, 2012). Long-term compliance as well as mutual trust between enforcers and the regulated parties can be fostered by applying the conciliatory style as it builds good relationship and cooperation between the two parties in resolving disputes (Malcolm et al., 2009; May & Winter, 2011). In the context of taxation, the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) suggests that tax administrators should move from command regulation to soft approaches, for example, the conciliatory style, when taxpayer attitudes towards compliance increases (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2004).

Researchers (Smith & Stalans, 1994; Muhammad, 2013) have found that tax auditors generally adopt the conciliatory style when dealing with taxpayers. Tax auditors' enforcement regulatory approach in dealing with taxpayers can be influenced by several factors including personal characteristics, taxpayers' characteristics and managerial control (Muhammad, 2013). However, the theory has not been tested empirically on tax auditors, particularly on IRBM tax auditors. This study aims to fill the research gap by examining the influence of personal characteristics on tax auditors' conciliatory style in resolving audit settlement disputes.

The first section of this paper discusses the literature review on enforcement regulatory theory, tax auditors' behaviour and factors contributing to personal characteristics. The researcher formulated testable hypotheses for each personal characteristic. This is followed by explanation of research methodology and data analysis process used in this study. The findings are reported in the results and discussion section. Finally, the last section of this paper concludes the study.

#### LITERATURE REVIEW

## **Enforcement Regulatory Theory**

Enforcement relates to the action of examining an event to determine the nature and degree of non-compliance and to take actions to correct it. Enforcement is vital to make sure that corrective action is taken to protect the environment or to secure compliance with the regulatory system (Abbot, 2009). Enforcement regulatory style

is an approach performed by enforcers to deal with regulated parties in performing their duties (Bardach & Kagan, 1982; Hawkins, 1984; Reiss, 1984). Under the theory, there are two major enforcement regulatory styles adopted by enforcers, the legalistic and the conciliatory style. The legalistic style is based on coercion and compulsion as the primary concern is to stick firmly to tax rules and regulations by utilising punishment for violating the regulation (Bardach & Kagan, 1982; Hawkins & Thomas, 1984; Scholz, 1984; May & Winter, 1999; Malcolm et al., 2009). Applying the legalistic style can result in short-term compliance because of immediate punishment of the public (Braithwaite & Braithwaite, 2000; Leviner, 2008).

On the other hand, the conciliatory style is based on accommodation and cooperation (McAllister, 2009). In this approach, enforcers educate, advice, persuade, negotiate and bargain with the regulated parties (Hawkins, 1984; Hutter, 1989; Winter & May, 2001; Malcolm et al., 2009). They also forgive minor offences and provide technical assistance to facilitate the regulated parties to comply with regulations (Scholz, 1991).

Different enforcement regulatory styles have been employed by enforcers and are discussed in several past studies (e.g. May & Wood, 2003; Leviner, 2006; Murphy, 2008; Mascini & Van Wijk, 2009; Mahmood, 2012). The researchers found that there is a positive influence between enforcement styles and the regulated parties' knowledge of the rules, as well as between the degree of

cooperation between regulated parties and enforcers. Studies also found several factors that influence enforcement regulatory styles, for example, individual characteristics, organisational commitment and social context. However, there are limited studies in the area of taxation that adopt this theory.

### Tax Auditors' Behaviour

A tax auditor is a person who interacts with taxpayers during the conduct of an audit and who influences the taxpayers' compliance behaviour (Isa & Pope, 2011). As a representative of the IRBM in each audit interaction with taxpayers, the tax auditor should consider the treatment that is given to taxpayers during an audit process. This is because the way tax auditors treat taxpayers can influence the public's perception towards them. The perception of the public towards tax auditors can be positive or negative depending on the tax auditors' behaviour regarding how tax auditors treat taxpayers and taxpayers' experience when dealing with tax auditors during an audit. If taxpayers have a positive perception of tax auditors, disputes can easily be resolved but if they have a negative perception of tax auditors, disputes can hardly be resolved and both parties then have to spend more time, energy and cost to resolve disputes. Given this point, tax auditors' behaviour is crucial in audit settlement disputes. However, researchers have given little attention to tax auditors' behaviour.

Smith and Stalans (1994) and Muhammad (2013) used enforcement regulatory theory in their studies to explore tax auditors' strategies in resolving disputes. They found that tax auditors applied different enforcement regulatory styles in resolving disputes such as strict enforcement, threatening, bargaining, finding new correct solutions and holding firm with their decision. There are no other empirical studies that examine tax auditors' enforcement regulatory styles.

## **Conciliatory Style and Personal Characteristics**

Tax Auditors' Conciliatory Style. The conciliatory style is also known as the accommodative, compromise, compliance, co-operative and persuasive style (Versluis, 2003; Malcolm et al., 2009; May & Winter, 2011). Enforcers who adopt this enforcement regulatory style are friendly, lenient, responsive and flexible (Kagan & Scholz, 1984; Murphy, 2008). The approach could cultivate mutual trust between enforcers and regulated parties as the enforcers trust the regulated parties and sympathise with their problems in trying to comply with the regulations. In this approach, enforcers are helpful in providing advice and they are responsive to the concerns raised by the regulated parties (May & Winter, 2011).

Tax auditors generally adopt the conciliatory style when dealing with taxpayers (Smith & Stalans, 1994; Muhammad, 2013). This is consistent with the IRBM's objective of educating taxpayers, particularly those who have lower education levels (Muhammad, 2013). The conciliatory style is also a suitable

strategy to enhance the possibility of ending disputes, expediting audit settlement, avoiding backlog audit cases and promoting future compliance (Muhammad, 2013).

Attitude towards achieving goals. Attitude plays a critical role in employee behaviour towards organisational commitment (Baldwin et al., 2013). Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) defined attitude as the positive and negative evaluative effect of individuals in performing a particular behaviour. Attitude is evaluative where it reflects a person's tendency to react favourably or unfavourably to the attitude object (Wan Sulaiman et al., 2013). Organisational commitment is a connection between employees and the organisation that comprises a strong belief and acceptance of the organisation's goals and values, willingness to put forth considerable effort on the organisation's behalf and higher desire to remain with the organisation (Mowday et al., 1982).

Gbadamosi (2003) asserted that the more favourable the individual's attitudes towards the organisation, the more the acceptance of the individual towards the goals of the organisation for they are willing to strive on behalf of the organisation. When employees are committed to their organisations, they may simply accept and adhere to the organisation's objectives and goals (Valentine et al., 2002). Meyer et al. (1993) and Baugh and Roberts (1994) found that employees who are committed have high performance expectations, and therefore would perform better. This is supported by Imran et al. (2014), who

found a positive significant relationship between organisational commitment and performance.

In tax audit, Muhammad (2013) found that tax auditors who are committed to achieving the IRBM targets i.e. revenue collection and number of completed audit cases tended to be more lenient with taxpayers. The conciliatory style is adopted by the tax auditors to protect the IRBM's good image, ensure that the disputes are settled harmoniously and promote future compliance. Therefore, the following hypothesis was developed:

H1: Attitude towards achieving goals significantly influences the tax auditors' conciliatory style in resolving disputes.

**Experience.** Enofe et al. (2014) defined experience as competency, skills and knowledge gained by someone through time. In auditing, audit experience refers to knowledge, competencies and capabilities that auditors gain from audit tasks in their profession (Intakhan & Ussahawanitchakit, 2010). In IRBM particularly, those who have more than three years of audit experience can be regarded as experienced tax auditors (Muhammad, 2013). An experienced auditor has the capacity to identify the correct information that will assist in his judgement (Bonner, 1990). He is also able to facilitate the provision of better quality audit findings and produce better recommendations (Badara & Saidin, 2014).

In tax studies, Muhammad (2013) found that experienced tax auditors have better understanding of the behaviour of different taxpayers than inexperienced tax auditors. When dealing with bad-tempered taxpayers, experienced tax auditors will avoid arguing with them, and simply listen to their explanation. These auditors understand the importance of letting the taxpayers calm down and feel respected. Experienced tax auditors are more lenient and relaxed when dealing with taxpayers as they aim to build a good relationship and resolve disputes amicably (Muhammad, 2013). Thus, the following hypothesis was formulated:

H2: Experience significantly influences the tax auditors' conciliatory style in resolving disputes.

**Ethical ideologies.** Ethical ideologies are a set of beliefs, values and attitudes that may influence one's judgement and decisionmaking when faced with complex situations and ethical dilemmas (Monga, 2001; Ameh & Odusami, 2010). There are two dimensions in ethical ideologies: idealism and relativism. Idealism refers to the extent to which an individual believes that with the 'right' action, desirable consequences can always be obtained. Idealistic individuals also accept the universal moral principles in making ethical judgement. On the other hand, individuals who repudiate universal moral principles can be termed as relativistic (Forsyth, 1980).

The combination of the two dimensions (idealism and relativism) produces four types of ethical ideology: situationism, absolutism, subjectivism and exceptionism (Forsyth, 1980). As presented in Table 1, individuals with high idealism and high relativism (Situationists) reject moral rules and believe that each situation has to be examined individually (Forsyth, 1980; Chudzicka-Czupala, 2013). Absolutists are individuals with high idealism and low relativism. They maintain rigid adherence to

universal moral principles and they believe that they should produce positive outcomes for everyone involved (Forsyth, 1992). Meanwhile, individuals with low idealism and high relativism are subjectivists who make decisions based on personal values and perspective and reject universal moral principles. Exceptionists are individuals with low idealism and low relativism who respect universal moral principles, but allow exceptions to the rules (Forsyth, 1980; Chudzicka-Czupala, 2013).

Table 1 Taxonomy of ethical ideologies

Idealism	Relativism	
	High	Low
High	Situationist Rejects moral rules; advocates individualistic analysis of each act in each situation; relativistic	Absolutist Assumes that the best possible outcome can always be achieved by following universal moral rules
Low	Subjectivist Appraises based on personal values and perspective rather than universal moral principles; relativistic	Exceptionist Moral absolutes guide judgement but pragmatically open to exceptions to these standards; utilitarian

Source: Forsyth, 1980

Forsyth (1980) developed an ethics position questionnaire, which consists of 20 items that measure idealism (10 items) and relativism (10 items) to determine individuals' ethical ideology. This ethics position questionnaire has been used in many studies such as those of Shaub et al. (1993), Douglas et al. (2001), Davis et al. (2001) and Woodbine et al. (2012). Shaub et al. (1993) found that idealism is associated with greater professional commitment, whereas relativism is associated with lower

professional commitment, organisational commitment and ethical sensitivity. Douglas et al. (2001) found that idealism is related to ethical judgment but there is no significant relationship between relativism and ethical judgment. Davis et al. (2001) found that idealism was a significant predictor of individual judgement of morality and that relativism was unrelated to moral judgement to all scenarios (retiree benefits, consumer deception, foreign labour and environmental pollution) except for one

scenario, healthcare benefits. In a more recent study by Woodbine et al. (2012), the authors found that more idealistic auditors are likely to be less lenient in judging ethical issues that involve problems of independence and objectivity, while more relativistic auditors are more likely to be lenient in judging ethical issues of independence and objectivity.

With regards to the present study, tax auditors were seen as enforcers who must adhere to rules and regulations, make correct decisions and be fair with the public. Tax auditors who adhere to rules and regulations accept universal moral principles and can be categorised as idealistic. Idealistic tax auditors encourage taxpayers to comply with the law and resolve disputes harmoniously. On the other hand, tax auditors who reject universal moral principles can be categorised as relativistic. Relativists believe that moral action depends upon the present situation and individuals involved. They tend to weigh the circumstances more than the ethical principle. Relativistic auditors also tend to take actions that yield one's personal advantage and positive outcome to particular situations (Karande et al., 2002; Kung & Huang, 2013). Elias (2002) and Mohd Mustamil (2010) stated that the relativistic individual is more lenient in judging unethical behaviour and making ethical decisions. Hence, the following hypotheses were developed:

H3: Idealism is significantly related to tax auditors' conciliatory style in resolving disputes.

H4: Relativism is not significantly related to tax auditors' conciliatory style in resolving disputes.

#### RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A survey questionnaire was used as the research instrument. The questionnaire had three sections: Section A, B and C. Section A contained the demographic profile including items such as gender, age, education level, position, grade, working experience and work place. Section B contained items for the independent variables. The items were close-ended questions using a fivepoint Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). There were six items for measuring tax auditors' attitude towards achieving goals. All the items were adopted from Md. Taib et al. (2008) and Lada et al. (2009). Ten items were adapted from Morgeson and Humphrey (2006) to measure tax auditors' experience. For tax auditors' ethical ideology, questions were adopted from Forsyth (1980) on 20 items. Finally, Section C had five items that were adopted from Lo et al. (2009) to measure tax auditors' conciliatory style behaviour. The questionnaire was written both in Bahasa Melayu and English.

The questionnaire was verified by two experts in the subject area. The first was a senior lecturer in taxation who had eight years' working experience with IRBM. The other expert was an IRBM assistant director from the Division of Statistics and Data Integrity, Department of Tax Operation in Cyberjaya. Several modifications were made based on the comments and suggestions

structure, spelling, translation, font size and format of the questionnaire. Fifty modified questionnaires were distributed to IRBM investigators in the agency's Jalan Duta branch for a pilot test. However, only 21 questionnaires were returned to the researcher. According to Nieswiadomy (2002) a sample size of about 10 participants is sufficient to conduct a pilot study. The reliability analysis was conducted and the Cronbach's alpha value for all variables was found to range from 0.766 to 0.870. Hence, no changes were made to the questionnaire (Nordin & Muhammad, 2015).

After the pilot test, 1,000 copies of the questionnaire were mailed to IRBM tax auditors in Peninsular Malaysia. The tax auditors were responsible for performing desk and field audit on small and medium enterprises (SME). The SMEs had less than RM25 million in turnover yearly and the majority of the taxpayers were not being represented by tax agents when dealing with the IRBM. Six hundred and ninetytwo questionnaires were returned by the tax auditors. However, 56 incomplete and unusable questionnaires were excluded from analysis. Thus, only 636 (a response rate of 63.6%) questionnaires were used for analysis.

## **Data Analysis**

The data were keyed in and analysed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 21 software. The data went through a screening process to identify missing data and outliers. The

researchers found 56 missing values in the dataset. Even though missing data is a common problem in many research studies (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010), the researchers chose to discard the 56 missing values as it was the safest method to deal with missing data (Allison, 2002). As for the outliers, the researchers converted the values for all cases of the variables into standard scores (Hair et al., 2006). The results showed that there were no outliers in the dataset because the scores for all cases of the variables were below 4 (Hair et al., 2006). Subsequently, further analyses such as frequency analysis, exploratory factor analysis, reliability analysis and regression analysis were performed.

### RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

### **Frequency Analysis**

Table 1

Demographic profile

Demographic profile	Categories	Frequency	%
Gender	Male	260	40.9
	Female	376	59.1
Age	20-30 years	138	21.7
	31-40 years	428	67.3
	41-50 years	41	6.4
	51 years and above	29	4.6
Education	Diploma	7	1.1
level	Degree	576	90.6
	Master's	34	5.3
	Professional Recognition (e.g: ACCA, MIA)	19	3.0

Table 1 (continue)

Demographic profile	Categories	Frequency	%
Position	Auditor (desk and field audit)	597	93.9
	Audit group leader	38	6.0
	Audit manager	1	0.2
Grade	Grade 41	537	84.4
	Grade 44	95	14.9
	Grade 48	4	0.6
Working	0-3 years	127	20.0
experience	4-6 years	107	16.8
	7-9 years	229	36.0
	10 years and above	173	27.2
Branch that	Johor	140	22.0
you are	Melaka	26	4.1
working with is located in	Negeri Sembilan	33	5.2
the state of	Selangor	97	15.3
	Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur	61	9.6
	Federal Territory of Putrajaya	18	2.8
	Pahang	18	2.8
	Perak	85	13.4
	Kelantan	13	2.0
	Terengganu	24	3.8
	Pulau Pinang	66	10.4
	Kedah	49	7.7
	Perlis	6	0.9

Table 1 shows that the majority of the respondents were female (i.e. 376 respondents at a percentage of 59.1%). In terms of the respondents' age, the majority of the respondents (67.3%) were aged between

31 and 40 years old, followed by respondents aged between 20 and 30 years old (21.7%). Only 4.6% of the respondents were aged 51 years old and above. A total of 90.6% of the respondents had a Bachelor's degree as their highest education level. Only 5.3% of the respondents had a Master's degree, while 3% had a professional accounting recognition such as the Association of Chartered Certified Accountants (ACCA) and the Malaysian Institute of Accountants (MIA).

The majority of the respondents were members of audit teams (93.9%) and were at grade 41 (84.4%). In terms of work experience, the results showed almost an even number of respondents in each group, with 36.0% of the respondents having 7 to 9 years of working experience, followed by 27.2% of the respondents, who had more than 10 years' working experience and 20.0% of the respondents, who had 0 to 3 years' working experience. The remaining 16.8% of the respondents were those who had 4 to 6 years' working experience. A total of 22% of the respondents worked in Johor, while the lowest percentage, 0.9%, worked in Perlis.

## **Exploratory Factor Analysis**

The exploratory factor analysis can be conducted using the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of Sphericity. According to Hinton et al. (2014), the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy is used to test whether the variables

are adequate for correlation. The result showed a value of 0.853, which is above the minimum value of 0.6 for good factor analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). As for Bartlett's test of Sphericity, Hinton et al. (2014) mentioned that it is used to see whether there is a relationship between the variables based on the significant p-value <0.05. The result of Bartlett's test of Sphericity for this study was 0.000, which showed significant relationships between the variables.

Direct oblimin rotation was conducted prior to the exploratory factor analysis. The results showed that there were some items that had to be discarded from the analysis. For the independent variables, three items were deleted for attitude towards achieving goals, four items were deleted for experience and 11 items were deleted for ethical ideology. As for the dependent variable, two items were deleted for tax auditors' conciliatory style.

## **Reliability Analysis**

Reliability of the research instrument can be assessed through Cronbach's alpha value. Hair et al. (2011) indicated that the minimum value for Cronbach's alpha is 0.7. Results from the reliability analysis showed that the Cronbach's alpha values for independent variables were 0.870 for attitude towards achieving goals, 0.866 for experience, 0.837 for idealism and 0.716 for relativism while the Cronbach's alpha value for the dependent variable, which was the tax auditors' conciliatory style, was

0.761. This shows that the Cronbach's alpha value for both independent and dependent variables exceeded the minimum value. Therefore, all the items for measuring the variables were considered reliable.

## **Regression Analysis**

The results of the regression analysis are presented in Table 2, Table 3 and Table 4. Table 2 presents the R square value, indicating that 27.2% of the variance in tax auditors' conciliatory style can be explained by all independent variables (attitude towards achieving goals, experience, idealism and relativism). Table 3 shows the F and p-value were 59.079 and 0.000, respectively, which concludes that the regression were statistically significant. Table 4 presents regression coefficient results for each of the independent variables. The results show that all the independent variables i.e. attitude towards achieving goals, experience, idealism and relativism significantly influenced the tax auditors' conciliatory style. All the hypotheses were supported except for H4, as the results showed that relativism was also significantly related to tax auditors' conciliatory style.

Gbadamosi (2003) and Valentine et al. (2002) agreed that employees who are committed to their organisation accept and adhere to the organisation's objectives and goals. In this regard, tax auditors who aim to achieve targets set by the IRBM tend to be lenient with taxpayers (Muhammad, 2013). This study supports prior literature that found that an attitude towards achieving

Table 2
Model summary of regression analysis

Model Summary <sup>b</sup>						
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate		
1	0.522a	0.272	0.268	0.41876		

a. Predictors: (Constant), RELATIVISM, ATAG, EXP, IDEALISM

b. Dependent Variable: TACS

Table 3
ANOVA Results

Model Summary <sup>b</sup>								
	Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.		
1	Regression	41.440	4	10.360	59.079	0.000b		
	Residual	110.652	631	0.175				
	Total	152.093	635					

a. Dependent Variable: TACS

b. Predictors: (Constant), RELATIVISM, ATAG, EXP, IDEALISM

Table 4
Regression coefficient for the independent variables

	Coefficients <sup>a</sup>									
	Model	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig. Collinearity Statistics		ty		
		В	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF		
	(Constant)	1.450	0.187		7.759	0.000				
	ATAG	0.084	0.026	0.121	3.273	0.001	0.847	1.181		
1	EXP	0.282	0.041	0.261	6.859	0.000	0.795	1.257		
	IDEALISM	0.183	0.034	0.209	5.342	0.000	0.753	1.328		
	RELATIVISM	0.114	0.025	0.161	4.507	0.000	0.907	1.103		

a. Dependent Variable: TACS

goals is significantly related to tax auditors' conciliatory style in resolving disputes.

The results also showed that experience influenced the tax auditors' conciliatory style. Experienced tax auditors have dealt with different taxpayers' behaviour (Muhammad, 2013). For example, taxpayers who do not want to present their business

records and documents perceived that record keeping was a waste of time and did not want to agree with the audit findings. In dealing with these taxpayers, experienced tax auditors were more prepared, calm and lenient when resolving disputes as they could use their prior experience and knowledge to build good rapport with the taxpayers and

at the same time, disputes could be resolved harmoniously (Muhammad, 2013).

In terms of ethical ideology, the results showed that both characteristics of idealism and relativism influenced the tax auditors' conciliatory style in resolving audit settlement disputes. As has been explained, idealistic tax auditors accept universal moral principles, aim to have positive outcomes, adhere to rules and regulations and encourage taxpayers to comply with the law. Tax auditors must have idealism as a characteristic to avoid bribery and corruption. The results support the respectable image of IRBM officers, who have had no charges of corruption levelled at them by the Malaysian Anti-Corruption Commission (MACC). Relativistic tax auditors, on the other hand, feel that the ethics of a particular action depends upon the nature of the situation and the taxpayer's actions can be accepted when they yield a positive outcome in a particular situation (Karande et al., 2002; Kung & Huang, 2013). Relativism as a characteristic can be associated with other factors such as managerial control, achieving audit targets, audit settlement deadlines and the different behaviour of taxpayers. These factors require tax auditors to use their best judgement in managing mixed responsibilities (Muhammad, 2013); tax auditors are not only responsible for striving to fulfil their responsibilities to their management (i.e. deadlines, audit targets) but also to the public (i.e. correct decision, fairness to taxpayers). Relativistic

tax auditors use their best judgement, for example, excluding insignificant tax issues, to resolve disputes amicably and expedite audit settlement.

#### **CONCLUSION**

As enforcers of law, tax auditors have to adhere to the rules and regulations and be fair to taxpayers. To resolve audit settlement disputes, tax auditors are usually confronted with difficult situations and ethical dilemma (e.g. incomplete records, managerial pressure and unique cases in taxpayers' business operations). In handling these situations and issues, tax auditors have to consider various factors before making a right decision. They also have to use a suitable enforcement style to avoid backlog cases and ensure long-term compliance. This study focussed on the personal characteristics and conciliatory style of tax auditors.

The conciliatory style is the preferred enforcement regulatory method in dealing with the public to promote long-term compliance. Tax auditors who adopt the conciliatory style will educate, advice, persuade, negotiate and bargain with taxpayers. They also forgive minor offences and provide technical assistance to facilitate taxpayers in complying with regulations. The findings of this study revealed that attitude towards achieving goals, experience, idealism and relativism significantly influenced the tax auditors' conciliatory style in resolving audit settlement disputes. Ethical ideology as a factor (i.e. idealism

and relativism) indicated that tax auditors' ethical ideology may change according to situation and issue.

This is among the first empirical study that examined personal characteristics and the conciliatory style adopted by tax auditors. The results not only improve the limited number of published studies on tax auditors' behaviour but can also help IRBM to better understand tax auditors' behaviour. This study, however, only focussed on tax auditors in Peninsular Malaysia and used the purposive sampling technique. Hence, generalisation of the findings from this study need to be treated with caution. This study also did not focus on different stages of dispute resolution in audit settlement. It is recommended that future studies expand the sample size to Sabah and Sarawak and examine other factors such as taxpayers' cooperation, tax agents' behaviour, difficulty of audit cases and stages of the dispute resolution process.

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## **SOCIAL SCIENCES & HUMANITIES**

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## Special Issue Paper

# Impact of Staff Efficiency on Impaired Financing of Islamic Banks, MENA Countries

## Alias M. Nor<sup>1</sup>, Nor Hayati Ahmad<sup>2</sup>\* and Mohd A. Ahmad<sup>3</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Kolej Universiti Islam Perlis (KUIPs), 02100 Padang Besar, Perlis, Malaysia <sup>2</sup>Islamic Business School, Universiti Utara Malaysia, 06010 Sintok, Kedah, Malaysia <sup>3</sup>School of Technology Management and Logistic, Universiti Utara Malaysia, 06010 Sintok, Kedah, Malaysia

#### **ABSTRACT**

This paper reports evidence to support the insight that the impaired financing problem is highly likely connected to low staff efficiency in MENA country Islamic banks. Several macro and micro factors widely used in banking research are used along the measure of staff efficiency as the intervening factor to identify banking performance under impaired financing conditions. It is reasonable to assume that if staff do not work efficiently (for example for lack of skill), bank performance ought to be seriously affected; hence, staff efficiency would have a moderating effect when this factor is added to eight bank-specific factors. Impaired financing to total financing, as a ratio, is a proxy for impaired financing condition. Financial data are accessed for 22 banks from MENA countries covering the recent nine years to 2013. Applying a random effect model, we identify seven factors as significant contributors to performance. Next, by applying a hierarchical regression model, our tests reveal staff efficiency is a significant moderating factor. The result provides statistical support for the Resource-Based Theory, which suggests banks could reduce their impaired financing significantly by increasing staff efficiency. This is a new and significant finding on the linkage of finance with staff efficiency as a factor.

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E-mail addresses: aliasmatnor6511@gmail.com (Alias M. Nor), profyati@gmail.com (Nor Hayati Ahmad), asagaya67@gmail.com (Mohd A. Ahmad) \* Corresponding author *Keywords:* Islamic banking, impaired financing, banks' specific factors, staff efficiency JEL Classification: G21, J24

#### INTRODUCTION

Although eight years have passed, it is still vividly clear that the 2008 Global Financial

Crisis (GFC) was perpetrated by multiple causes. The first was the resulting fragility of the international financial market when interest rates started rising in mid-2006, which had a derailing effect on banks loaded with CDOs. The second was high impaired financing (also termed as nonperforming loans in conventional banking) from over-leveraging in mortgage markets (Laeven & Valencia, 2008). The third was moral hazards and agency problems among top investment bankers and rating agencies over inappropriate credit rating of sovereign debts. The moral hazards and erosion of integrity led to several mega bank failures. Despite the importance of impaired loans for survival banks, little empirical findings are focussed on staff morality and efficiency in relation to impaired financing in banking studies. This is particularly important in Islamic Finance since high work ethics and honest dealings with customers are stressed for the conduct of Islamic financial transactions (Quran: al-Dhariyat, Verse 56).

Reference to some literature on this issue emphasises ethics and honesty as elements, which are found to lead to high staff efficiency (Ahmad & Owoyemi, 2012). Ismail (2010) and Sufian (2011) reported that banks could improve their profitability by increasing their human capital efficiency through constant training and by creating happiness in their work environment. The authors also revealed that employee productivity and human capital efficiency are positively and significantly related to firm performance and profitability. In addition, Wanyama and Mutsotso (2010)

highlighted that in Kenya performance increased when organisations had high capacity with productive employees and high job skills for bank employees.

Hence, staff efficiency plays an important role in finance, not only in terms of contributing towards profitability but also for ensuring that staff display ethical values prescribed by the company's code of conduct on ethical standards. Honest dealings promote a work culture that ensures clear effects on performance because high efficiency tends to reduce impaired financing through reduction of operational risk and credit assessment errors. The consequences of having to set aside higher financing loss-provisions for higher probability of loan defaults and lower profitability can be avoided. Sound Islamic banks could be a strong ingredient for future growth and long-term sustainability of banks in MENA (Middle Eastern & North African) countries.

It was the objective of this paper to examine the impact of staff efficiency as a moderating factor in reducing impaired financing on Islamic bank performance. This study selected Islamic banks in MENA countries as these countries are the fastest growing economies, with more than 20% market share of Islamic finance (World Islamic Banking Competitiveness Report 2013-14). We applied appropriate econometric models to study this issue.

The rest of the paper is organised as follows: Section 2 briefly describes the MENA countries and highlights the problem statement, research questions and significance of the study. Section 3 reviews

related literature and is followed by a look at our Methodology in Section 4 and finally, our results in Section 5. Section 6 concludes the paper.

## ISLAMIC BANKING IN MENA COUNTRIES

The MENA countries consist of Algeria, Bahrain, Djibouti, Egypt, Iran, Iraq, Jordan, Kuwait, Lebanon, Libya, Mauritania, Morocco, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Sudan, Syria, Tunisia, the United Arab Emirates (UAE) and Yemen (World Economic & Financial Survey, 2011). Most of the Islamic banks are located in Bahrain, Kuwait, Qatar, Saudi Arabia and the United Arab Emirates. In 2004, the total Islamic banking assets of MENA countries were only 29% of the worldwide Islamic banking assets, but in 2008 the percentage increased to 50% of worldwide Islamic banking assets. The Islamic banking assets of MENA countries have shown an average growth rate of 72% for the period 2002-08 (Syed Ali, 2011). By end 2015, the total assets had increased to \$979 billion (The Banker, 2015). Presently, the majority of the Islamic banks in MENA countries are privately-owned and they have a dual banking system with conventional banking and Islamic banking operating side by side.

In spite of high growth of more than 20% in assets of these banks (primarily driven by high demand in financing), profit-and-loss-sharing banking has not fully spared banks from experiencing high impaired financing since the GFC. The impaired financing ratio for Malaysia was 3.7% while for MENA

countries, it was 8.08% during 2005-13 (Mat Nor, 2015). Figure 1 shows the impaired financing position of banks in MENA countries during the crisis period from 2006 to 2008. Details of impaired financing data for Islamic banks in MENA countries are presented in Appendix A.

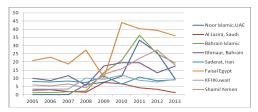


Figure 1. Impaired financing for Islamic banks in MENA countries

The high level of impaired financing shows the deterioration in asset quality of those banks, leading to a reduction in the banking profit at micro level. It is a hindrance to economic stability and growth at the micro level (Abd Karim, Chan, & Hassan, 2010).

Studies have identified bank-specific factors (Ahmad & Ahmad, 2004) and macro-economic variables such as GDP and inflation (Ahmad & Ariff, 2007; Abd Karim et al., 2010) as significantly contributing to high impaired financing. However, hardly any examination of the impact of staff efficiency on impaired financing has been reported to date. The first effort by Mohd Sultan (2008) suggested that the deterioration in assets quality might have occurred due to lack of staff efficiency in the evaluation of financing applications, screening and monitoring and control.

However, his suggestion was not supported by any empirical evidence.

Credit risk associated with nonperforming loans has been studied by Ahmad and Ariff (2007), Louzis, Vouldis and Metaxas (2010), Mahmoud Al-Smadi (2009), Imaduddin (2011), Abd Karim et al. (2010), Ghosh and Ghosh (2011) and Aremu, Suberu and Oke (2010). These studies covered the determinants of credit risk but did not include staff efficiency. Past studies on efficiency were only related to cost efficiency and management efficiency (Abd Karim et al., 2010). In contrast, this study focussed on staff efficiency as moderator between internal factors and impaired financing of Islamic bank in MENA countries. Adebola, Wan Yusoff and Dahalan, (2011), Ahmad and Ahmad (2004) and WaeMustafa and Sukri (2015) did a comparative study on credit risk between conventional and Islamic banks in Malaysian but did not include staff efficiency.

Impaired financing should not be high if all borrowers of funds from banks fulfilled their contractual obligations according to the pre-agreed amount and schedules. The Quranic command is for customers to fulfil their accepted terms agreed in their financing agreements. However, the problem persists because of default payments by some customers and inefficient bank staff, resulting in impaired financing. Human resource is the most vexing managerial issue in Islamic banking as Islamic banks lack skilful and knowledgeable staff. Lack of operational expertise among such bankers

frequently leads to higher operational risk, which could stifle earning growth potential (Mohd Sultan, 2008). Karim et al. (2010) highlighted that high impaired financing reduces cost efficiency, resulting in inefficiency in the banking sector.

Lack of empirical literature on staff efficiency in relation to the determinants of impaired financing suggests a study should be useful on this topic.

## **Research Questions**

The following were the research questions explored in this study.

- How do internal factors (financing to deposit ratio, loan loss provision, liquidity ratio, capital ratio, net interest margin, profitability, loan growth and net charged off) influence the impaired financing of selected banks in MENA countries?
- Is staff efficiency able to moderate the relationship between internal factors and impaired financing of selected banks in MENA countries?

## Significance of the Study

This study did not only identify the determinants, but measured the moderating effect of staff efficiency on impaired financing. This is aimed at providing fresh evidence, which has conceptual justification and also offers possible explanations as to why impaired financing exists among Islamic banks to a much greater extent than in other banks. Understanding the impact

of these factors on impaired financing is useful for management in selecting appropriate strategies to curb credit risk and to prevent serious erosion of income and equity. The result on the moderating effect, if found to be true, could be used to expand management focus from financial factors to include staff efficiency in reducing impaired financing and credit risk management problems. A focus on human efficiency is a more effective way of minimising losses by removing human negligence or moral hazards (operational risk) since Islamic banking principles call for honest, responsible and sincere work ethics. For policy makers and regulators, this would form a strong foundation for stronger corporate and human governance to be emphasised for controlling the behaviour of bankers from excessive risk taking.

### LITERATURE REVIEW

## **Related Theories and Evidence**

Central to the study is the Resource-Based theory (Barney, 1991). This theory explains that resources are all assets, capabilities, organisational features, information and knowledge, among other characteristics, which can be controlled by organisations to plan and implement organisational strategies to improve organisational efficiency and effectiveness. Human resource is highly important and is the greatest asset to the success of an organisation (Collins & Porras, 1994). Hence, staff are a valuable asset to banks and their efficiency and productivity lead to the success of the banks. In addition,

resource-based theory has provided a crucial theoretical justification for the role of human resource. According to this perspective, differences in banks' performance can be attributed to distinctive resources and their capabilities. When employees are highly competent and knowledgeable, they are more able to contribute towards bank efficiency and generate revenues and profit. They become assets to banks instead of liabilities. Staff efficiency also reduces mistakes in the evaluation and selection of financing projects and the documentation process of the banks.

Another theory is the Moral Hazard Theory. Sinkey (2002) defined moral hazards as irresponsible actions by one party aimed at another party with the purpose of getting benefits at the expense of the other party. These actions are individually advantageous but entail costs on others. Moral hazards occur when information symmetries exist between the two parties. In this case, bank management might engage in adverse selection of less creditworthy borrowers if their staff do not provide them with complete information for them to consider in arriving at the most appropriate or strategic decisions. Moral hazards may cause banks to incur financial losses and agency problems.

A specific financial ratio known as impaired financing (IF) ratio (impaired financing to total financing) is often used to measure credit risk (Ahmad & Ariff, 2007). Obalemo (2007) defined impaired financing as non-payment of financing over 90 days by the borrower to the lender as agreed.

They further revealed that when a customer fails to fulfil his financing obligation or agreement within the agreed timeframe, financing default is triggered. Meanwhile, Ghosh and Ghosh (2011) and Karim et al. (2010) suggested that impaired financing reduces bank cost efficiency and leads to poor credit management resulting in badquality loans.

Financing-to-deposit ratio is measured by dividing total financing to total deposits. The ratio is an indication of how banks mobilise their deposits by giving financing. Misra and Dhal (2011) found that credit-todeposit ratio is positively and significantly related to impaired financing in India. This result is supported in Ahmad and Ariff (2007), who revealed that financing-todeposit ratio has a positive and significant influence on impaired financing in banks in Malaysia, USA and France. They reported that the larger the loan portfolio, the higher was the default rate. Loan loss provision to total financing ratio is measured by dividing total loan loss provision by net interest revenue. It is used to appraise a bank's assets quality in order to evaluate the bank's stability and performance. Al-Wesabi and Ahmad (2013) found that loan loss provision is positively and significantly related to impaired financing of Islamic banks in GCC countries. This finding supports Ahmad and Ariff's (2007) result that loan loss provision is positively and significantly related to credit risk of banks in Australia, Japan, Mexico and Thailand.

These results show that an increase in loan loss provision ratio indicates an increase in impaired financing. Liquidity ratio is an indicator of a bank's capability of meeting short-term obligations by converting existing liquid assets into cash. It is measured by dividing net loan by total assets, where a higher ratio indicates lower liquidity. In a position of tight liquidity, most banks increase their lending rates to compensate for higher risks and higher cost of funds. Borrowers will face difficulty in meeting repayment obligations due to higher interest/profit rate (conventional/Islamic bank). Igbal (2012) found that liquidity has negative and significant influence on impaired financing of conventional and Islamic banks in Pakistan. This result was supported by McCann and Culder (2012), who revealed that liquidity ratio is negatively and significantly related to loan default in Irish SME loans. They further revealed that an increase in liquidity ratio lowers impaired financing.

Capital ratio is measured by dividing equity by total assets. This measurement is the standard ratio used to determine the overall financial stability of banks. It measures the level of leverage used by a bank. Low ratio indicates that the banks' managerial performance is good. Ezeoha (2011) revealed that capital is negatively and significantly related to impaired financing in Nigeria. The result also shows that high capital ratio lowers impaired financing. On the other hand, Azeem and Amara (2014)

provided evidence that a bank's profitability is negatively and significantly related to the level of impaired financing. In addition, the study showed that capital ratio has a negative relationship with impaired financing.

Net interest margin is calculated by dividing interest income (net of interest expenses) to total assets. This ratio evaluates the operation and competency of a bank in utilising its assets in generating income. Higher ratio indicates that the bank is doing well. Roy (2014) found that net interest margin has a positive relationship with impaired financing but this relationship is insignificant. That study supported Maudos and Guevara (2004), who showed that there is a positive and significant relationship between credit risk and net interest margin.

Profitability is calculated by dividing interest income on loans by average gross loan or financing. This ratio is used to examine the bank's ability to generate earning profit from their financing activities. Mc Cann and Culder (2012) and Guy and Lowe (2012) found that there is a negative and significant relationship between profitability and impaired financing. Loans or financing growth is an indicator for the bank's annual changes in disbursing new financing to the customers. It is calculated by dividing changes in total loans for the year with the previous year's total loan. Net charged off to gross financing is used as an indicator of the amount that is unlikely to be collected by a bank or the amount that the bank has written off or charged off. It is calculated by dividing net charged off by gross financing. Boahene, Dasah and Agyei (2012) revealed that net charge-off has a positive and significant relationship with bank profitability and performance. The result was supported by evidence in Chronopoulos, Liu, McMillan and Wilson (2013), who pointed out that net charge-off has a positive and significant relationship with profitability. They further suggested that higher loan charged off reflects recognition of bad loans in that year but may lead to greater profits in the following year. Meanwhile, Azeem and Amara (2014) found that a bank's profitability is negatively and significantly related to the level of impaired financing.

Staff efficiency is calculated by dividing personnel expenses with net interest income. This ratio is a measure of how effective a bank is in using personnel expenses (inclusive of salary marketing costs and other personnel costs) to generate income (Hays, De Lurgio & Gilbert, 2011). Lang and Jagtiani (2010) suggested that in order for the organisation to be more effective in identifying and managing risk, it requires the development of a powerful independent risk management function with appropriate resources and skills. Further, Sufian (2011) and Ismail (2010) revealed that employees' productivity and human capital efficiency are positively and significantly related to bank performance and profitability. In addition, Aremu et al. (2010) suggested that an effective credit administration and an effective internal control help improve a bank's profitability by reducing impaired financing.

#### METHODOLOGY

### **Data Sources**

This study used secondary data comprising financial ratios. The data for analysing the internal and moderating factors of this study were obtained from annual reports of MENA country Islamic banks as published in the Bank Scope database over the period 2005-2013. This period was chosen because major events took place in the financial market that directly or indirectly affected the banks' impaired financing. The Bank Scope database converts the data to a worldwide standard currency (USD) to facilitate comparisons.

The data used in this research were financial ratios from annual reports of the Islamic banks in MENA countries published in the Bank Scope database. The period of the study was nine years from 2005 to 2013 (note that this includes the GFC years). The independent variables consisted of eight internal factors (FD, LLP, LIQR, CAP, NIM, PROFIT, LGROW and NCOFF) and the moderating factor, staff efficiency (STAFFX). The dependent variable was impaired financing. The following hypotheses were developed to investigate the determinants of impaired financing and the moderating effect of staff efficiency. The method used are Random Effects model and Hierarchical multiple regression analysis.

## **Hypotheses**

- H<sub>1</sub>: There is a positive and significant relationship between financing to (1) deposit ratio, (2) loan loss provision and (5) net interest margin and impaired financing.
- H<sub>2</sub>: There is a negative and significant relationship between (3) liquidity ratio, (4) capital ratio, (6) profitability, (7) loan growth and (8) net charged off and impaired financing.
- H<sub>3</sub>: The influence of internal factors, namely, financing-to-deposit ratio, loan loss provision, liquidity ratio, capital ratio, net interest margin, profitability, loan growth and net charged off on impaired financing is moderated by staff efficiency.

## **Multiple Regression Models**

$$IF_{it} = \alpha_0 + \beta_1 FD_{it} + \beta_2 LLP_{it} + \beta_3 LIQR_{it} + \beta_4 CAP_{it} + \beta_5 NIM_{it} + \beta_6 PROFIT_{it} + \beta_7 LGROWit + \beta_8 NCOFFit + \epsilon_{it}$$
(1)

# **Hierarchical Moderated Multiple Regression Model**

$$\begin{split} & \text{IF}_{it} = \alpha_0 + \beta 1 \text{FD}_{it} + \beta_2 \text{LLP}_{it} + \beta_3 \text{LIQR}_{it} \\ & + \beta_4 \text{CAP}_{it} + \beta_5 \text{NIM}_{it} + \beta_6 \text{PROFIT}_{it} + \\ & \beta_7 \text{LGROW}_{it} + \beta_8 \text{NCOFF}_{it} + \beta_9 \text{STAFFX}_{it} + \\ & \beta_{10} \text{FD}_{it} * \text{STAFFX}_{it} + \beta_{11} \text{LLP}_{it} * \text{STAFFX}_{it} + \beta_1 \\ & 2 \text{LIQR}_{it} * \text{STAFFX}_{it} + \beta_{13} \text{CAPit} * \text{STAFFX}_{it} + \\ & \beta_{14} \text{NIM}_{it} * \text{STAFFX}_{it} + \beta_{15} \text{PROFIT}_{it} * \text{STAFFX}_{it} \\ & + \beta_{16} \text{L G R O W i t * S T A F F X}_{it} + \\ & \beta_{17} \text{NCOFF}_{it} * \text{STAFFX}_{it} + \epsilon_{it} \end{split}$$

where  $\alpha$ : constant

i: bank

t:time period

 $\varepsilon_{it}$ : error term of bank *i* in time *t*, and

Moderating

variable: STAFFX : staff efficiency

### **FINDINGS**

Diagnostic tests for homoscedasticity, autocorrelation and penal data were conducted and the results are presented in Table 1.

Table 1
Diagnostic test

Test	(Prob>F)
Homoscedasticity/Heteroscedasticity Test	0.0000**
Auto-correlation Test	0.2028
Panel Data Test (Hausman Test)	0.9978

*Note:* \*p<0.05, \*\*p<0.01

The Breusch-Pagan test was used to detect the existence of heteroscedasticity in the model. The result rejected the null hypothesis, leading to the detection of heteroscedasticity in the model. Gujarati and Porter (2010) suggested that the White General Heteroscedasticity test be used to correct heteroscedasticity. Further, the Wooldridge test for autocorrelation in the panel data was used to detect serial or first-order autocorrelation. The result shows that this model was not significant at p>0.10, which failed to reject the null hypothesis and concluded that the data of the banks in MENA countries have no first-

order autocorrelations. The Hausman test is employed to decide between using the fixed or random effects model as the most suitable for this study. The chi-squares score was 0.9978 (p>0.10). The data failed to meet the asymptotic assumptions and failed to reject the null hypothesis; hence, the random effects model was the most appropriate instead of the fixed effect model for use in this study.

The hierarchical multiple regression analysis was performed to determine the projecting influence of independent variables (FD, LLP, LIQR, CAP, NIM, PROFIT, LGROW and NCOFF) on the dependent variable (IF) and the moderating effect of staff efficiency (STAFFX) on the independent variables and the dependent variable. The result is presented in Table 2. Model 1 results in Table 2 show this model to be significant at 0.000 level with the adjusted R<sup>2</sup> of 0.3461. It shows that the regression model consisting of FD, LLP, LIQR, CAP, NIM PROFIT, LGROW and NCOFF could explain 34.61% variation in impaired financing in the Islamic banks in MENA countries.

Further, there were seven predictors that were significant. These were FD ( $\beta$ =0.0515, t=2.2402), NIM ( $\beta$ =0.9885, t=3.0042) and NCOFF ( $\beta$ =0.9115, t=2.6405), in which each had a positive impact on IF of the banks. Other predictors, LIQR ( $\beta$ =-0.1412, t=-2.6704), CAP ( $\beta$ =-0.2002, t=-3.4963), PROFIT ( $\beta$ =-0.8132, t=-3.5228) and LGROW ( $\beta$ =-0.0586, t=-2.1506) all have negative impact on IF of the Islamic

Table 2
The moderating effects of STAFFX on bank specific factors and IF

Variable	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3	
	β	p-value	β	p-value	β	p-value
FD	0.0515	0.0263**	0.0509	0.0087***	0.0984	0.000***
LLP	0.0060	0.1731	0.0126	0.1816	0.0173	0.6835
LIQR	-0.1412	0.0083***	-0.1395	0.0021***	-0.2804	0.0013***
CAP	-0.2002	0.0006***	-0.1835	0.0166**	-0.0644	0.4274
NIM	0.9885	0.0031***	0.6014	0.0267**	0.5796	0.3259
PROFIT	-0.8132	0.0005***	-0.8581	0.0002***	-0.3111	0.7561
LGROW	-0.0586	0.0329**	-0.0561	0.0072***	-3.2654	0.0013***
NCOFF	0.9115	0.0090***	1.0095	0.0228**	-0.3487	0.7494
STAFFX			-0.0786	0.0354**	0.1206	0.7299
FD*STAFFX					-0.0012	0.0117***
LLP*STAFFX					-0.0007	0.8783
LIQR*STAFFX					0.0022	0.0909*
CAP*STAFFX					-0.0021	0.2269
NIM*STAFFX					-0.0052	0.7758
PROFIT*STAFFX					-0.0130	0.1832
LGROW*STAFFX					0.0014	0.0261**
NCOFF*STAFFX					0.0214	0.3686
$\mathbb{R}^2$	0.3750		0.3988		0.5009	
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	0.3461		0.3674		0.4491	
Sig F-Statistics	0.0000		0.0000		0.0000	
F-Statistics	12.9770		12.6808		9.6830	

Note: \*p<0.10, \*\*p<0.05, \*\*\*p<0.01

banks in MENA countries. Meanwhile, LLP had a positive but insignificant relationship with IF.

In Model 2, the moderating variable of staff efficiency (STAFFX) was included. The model was found to be significant at 0.000 level with adjusted  $R^2$  of 0.3674. Hence, the model could explain approximately 36.74% variation in IF. Compared to Model 1, which had seven significant predictors, Model 2 showed eight predictors as being significant. FD ( $\beta$ =0.0509, t=2.6524),

NIM ( $\beta$ =0.6014, t=2.2353) and NCOFF ( $\beta$ =1.0095, t=2.2977); each had a positive impact on IF of the Islamic banks. Other predictors, LIQR ( $\beta$ =-0.1395, t=-3.1246), CAP ( $\beta$ =-0.1835, t=-2.4188), PROFIT ( $\beta$ =-0.8581, t=-3.7721), LGROW ( $\beta$ =-0.0561, t=-2.7214) and STAFFX ( $\beta$ =-0.0786, t=-2.1208), all had negative impact on IF of the Islamic banks in MENA countries. Meanwhile, LLP had a positive but insignificant relationship with IF.

Model 3 analysed the relationship between internal variables inclusive of moderating variable together with the interaction variables (FD, LLP, LIQR, CAP, NIM, PROFIT, LGROW, NCOFF, STAFFX, FD\*STAFFX, LLP\*STAFFX, LIQR\*STAFFX, CAP\*STAFFX, NIM\*STAFFX, PROFIT\*STAFFX, LQROW\*STAFFX and NCOFF\*STAFFX) and the dependent variable (IF).

The results presented in Table 2 show that this model was found to be significant at 0.000 level with adjusted R2 of 0.4491. The result does indicate that staff efficiency and its interactions with the internal factors could explain the variation in IF better compared to Model 2. The hierarchical regression result shows FD\*STAFFX interacted negatively and significantly with IF ( $\beta$ =-0.0012, t=-2.550). Hence, the result in Model 3 indicated that staff efficiency moderated the effect of FD on IF of Islamic banks in MENA countries by changing the positive relationship to a negative relationship.

Meanwhile, the interaction terms between LIQR\*STAFFX and IF showed a positive and significant ( $\beta$ =0.0022, t=1.7008) relationship, which indicated that staff efficiency moderated the effect of LIQR on IF. Further, the interaction between LGROW\*STAFFX and IF revealed that there was a positive and significant relationship between LGROW\*STAFFX and IF ( $\beta$ =0.0014, t=2.2447), suggesting that staff efficiency moderated the effect of LGROW on IF. In summary, the results are in support of the hypotheses H<sub>3a</sub>

(FD\*STAFFX),  $H_{3c}$  (LIQR\*STAFFX) and  $H_{3g}$  (LGROW\*STAFF).

#### CONCLUSION

This study introduced a new variable, staff efficiency as a moderating factor in the tested relationships between bank-specific factors and impaired financing of Islamic banks in MENA countries. The motivation for this inclusion stemmed from the need to understand why impaired financing is twice higher in Islamic banks and whether staff efficiency could reduce high impaired financing ratios of Islamic banks in MENA countries. The bank-specific factors consisted of Finance-to-Deposit Ratio (FD), Loan Loss Provision (LLP), Liquidity Ratio (LIQR), Capital Ratio (CAP), Net Interest Margin (NIM), Profitability (PROFIT), Loan Growth (LGROW) and Net Charged Off (NCOFF), while impaired financing to total financing was used as a proxy for impaired financing. Financial data were from 22 Islamic banks in selected MENA countries over the 2005-2013 periods. Based on random effect analysis, the result shows that FD, LIQR, CAP, NIM, PROFIT, LGROW and NCOFF contributed significantly to the impaired financing of Islamic banks in MENA countries.

On the other hand, the moderating model showed that staff efficiency could significantly reduce Islamic banks' impaired financing. It is recommended that Islamic banks build a systematic structure of continuous professional development in credit and risk management for their bank staff. The risk management approaches

have to vary from those of conventional banks. The study contributes empirical evidence on significant linkage between finance and human resource factors and the application of the Resource-Based Theory in banking studies. These results also support the Islamic finance philosophy, which propagates the nurturing of human resource competencies to safeguard stakeholders' interests towards achieving long-term sustainability of Islamic banks.

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**APPENDIX A** *Impaired Financing of Islamic Banks in MENA Countries* 

NO	BANK	2013 (%)	2012 (%)	2011 (%)	2010 (%)	2009 (%)	2008 (%)	2007 (%)	2006 (%)	2005 (%)	Average (%)
1	Al., Dhahi HAE					5.99		0.69			
1	Abu Dhabi, UAE	6.47	8.20	8.70	7.13		3.49		0.68	0.52	4.65
2	Dubai Islamic, UAE	9.32	12.5	14.5	8.34	5.99	4.13	4.04	3.92	3.98	7.42
3	Noor Islamic, UAE	9.51	25.8	33.3	11.40	7.60	6.30	n.a	n.a	n.a	15.64
4	Sharjah, UAE	5.41	5.98	3.72	2.60	1.43	1.03	4.19	2.61	3.40	3.37
5	Al Rajhi, Saudi	1.57	1.99	1.66	2.15	3.32	2.47	3.44	2.76	1.96	2.37
6	Al Jazira, Saudi	1.20	3.33	4.20	6.71	7.47	1.5	1.95	3.11	2.75	3.58
7	Islamic Dev, Saudi	0.98	0.99	0.92	1.01	1.82	0.81	0.62	1.2	0.91	1.03
8	AlBaraka, Bahrain	4.8	4.72	4.92	4.91	5.17	5.03	5.79	7.59	8.8	5.75
9	Al Salam, Bahrain	1.49	3.17	1.46	2.31	1.88	2.09	n.a	n.a	n.a	2.07
10	Bahrain Islamic	19.4	25	36.4	21	13.6	2.28	1.81	1.22	1.21	13.56
11	Ithmaar, Bahrain	17.5	13.5	19.6	19.6	17.6	5.67	11.6	8.64	10.1	13.75
12	Saderat, Iran	9.10	8.61	10.8	6.46	11.4	7.3	8.38	7.84	8.11	8.67
13	Faisal, Egypt	36.11	39.3	40.3	44	10.4	27.2	18.8	23.00	20.9	28.89
14	AlBaraka, Egypt	0.39	0.63	2.00	3.64	5.83	3.82	4.82	4.32	4.57	3.33
15	Jordan Dubai	6.75	3.25	4.43	0.77	17.5	45.7	48	49.6	51.3	25.26
16	Jordan Islamic	4.08	4.01	6.02	4.92	4.35	4.12	5.01	2.79	3.97	4.36
17	KFH Kuwait	9.45	7.74	8.77	11.9	9.47	10.2	3.44	3.33	3.46	7.53
18	Qatar International	1.15	1.67	1.76	3.87	1.55	1.52	2.4	2.32	3.85	2.23
19	Qatar Islamic	1.04	1.84	1.24	1.47	1.29	1.54	2.38	4.28	6.88	2.44
20	Saba, Yemen	20.80	18.9	15.8	6.67	7.19	8.62	7.78	7.86	7.82	11.27
21	Shamil, Yemen	18.04	27.4	22.2	15.8	12.6	4.27	6.61	5.44	6.02	13.15
22	Tadhamon, Yemen	6.94	4.76	7.27	1.45	1.87	2.60	n.a	n.a	n.a	4.15

**APPENDIX B**Summary of Variables Definition and Measurement

Variables	Measurement	Source
Impaired Financing (IF)	Non-Current Financing Total Financing	Rose (2002)
Financing-to-Deposit Ratio (FD)	Total Financing Total Deposit	Ahmad & Ariff (2007) & Bank Scope
Loan Loss Provision Bank LLP)	<u>Loan Loss Provision</u> Net Interest Revenue	Ahmad & Ariff (2007) & Scope
Liquidity Ratio (LIQR)	Net Financing Total Assets	Brigham & Ehrhardt (2003) & Bank Scope
Capital Ratio (CAP)	Equity Total Assets	Brigham & Ehrhardt (2003) & Bank Scope
Net Interest Margin (NIM)	Interest Income-Interest Expenses Total Assets	Khan, Anuar, Choo, & Khan (2011) & Bank Scope
Profitability (PROFIT)	Interest Income on Loans Average Gross Loans	Ben Ameur & Mhiri (2013) & Bank Scope
Loan Growth (2013) (LGROW)	<u>Current year total loan-Previous year total loan</u> Previous-year total loan	Ben Ameur & Mhiri & Bank Scope
Net Charged Off (NCOFF)	Net Charged Off Gross Financing	Bhat, Lee, & Ryan (2013) & Bank Scope
Staff Efficiency (STAFFX)	Personnel Expenses Net Interest Income	Hays, De Lurgio, & Gilbert (2011) & Bank Scope



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# Special Issue Paper

# Relationship between Participation Bank Performance and Its Determinants

# Ali Nasserinia<sup>1</sup>, Mohamed Ariff<sup>2</sup>\*, and Cheng Fan-Fah<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Faculty of Economics and Management, Universiti Putra Malaysia, 43400 Serdang, Selangor, Malaysia <sup>2</sup>Sunway University, 5 Jalan Universiti, 47500 Bandar Sunway, Selangor, Malaysia

#### **ABSTRACT**

This paper reports significant new findings on banking performance by relating (i) 7 bankspecific measures, (ii) 3 non-bank-specific measures with (iii) time dummy variable as control for financial crisis in the test period. The findings concern the performance of a new type of bank called the 'participation bank'. Participation banks price their funding through profit-sharing contracts with customers, so deposit and lending costs are decided not on the basis of market interest rates as in the case of mainstream banks. A sample of 100 participation banks covering 25 countries were selected for this study over the financial years 2007-2015. We used a new measure equivalent to the net interest margin called 'profit share margin', which has not been previously used to study banks. In fact, no study using participation banks has been carried out as yet. The dynamic panel GMM procedure was applied to obtain robust estimators; this is a refined econometric method that is also seldom applied in banking studies. The results revealed that 6 bank-specific factors statistically significantly affected the performance of participation banks in the test period. The paper also reports that the practice of including non-bank-specific factors as possibly relevant for performance is questionable as these were not found to be significant. The findings were from both OLS and GMM panel regressions providing comparison statistics with some past studies.

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E-mail addresses:
naserinia@gmail.com (Ali Nasserinia),
chengfanfah@upm.edu.my (Cheng Fan-Fah),
ariff13@gmail.com (Mohamed Ariff)
\* Corresponding author

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# INTRODUCTION

This paper reports interesting new results from a study of a different type of bank, the 'participation' bank, which prices bank deposit rates and bank lending rates not on prevailing interest rates in the market but on the profit rates offered by the participation bank to customers (depositors and borrowers). This new type of bank evolved over the last 50 years or so, and has managed to survive as the new type of banking in 76 countries, with total assets amounting to US\$3,800 billion in 2015 (Ariff, Iqbal, & Mohamad, 2012)<sup>1</sup>. The predominant pricing method for loans by mainstream banks is to take bank deposits at a lower interest rate and then lend out money created from deposits made in the bank at higher interest rates to borrowers. The spread between a high lending rate and a lower borrowing rate is increasingly being used in recent studies as a popular bank 'performance measure' (Demirgüç-Kunt & Huizinga, 1999). This spread is termed the NIM (net interest margin), which has been shown to be an excellent market-related performance indicator. The other longestablished performance indicators are the Return on Assets, ROA, and the Return on Equity, ROE (Akhtar, Ali, & Sadakat, 2011).

It is reasonable to infer from such studies that the NIM is a more marketresponsive rubbery variable that shrinks and expands as liquidity of a banking system expands or contracts over time, for example, from money supply changes and/or portfolio rebalancing actions of economic agents. Money supply is known to have an impact on bank liquidity, which passes through the intermediation process, thereby significantly affecting bank asset prices (Badarudin, Ariff, & Khalid, 2013).

How do more smoothed<sup>2</sup> performance measures such as the ROA or ROE compare with the NIM as the market-relevant performance proxy? This is indeed another interesting research question, if we use the NIM (or its equivalent for participation banks). This is a question of some importance to the banking industry as it has not been adequately addressed in a comparative study to date.

Another new issue, which has still not been addressed is the manner in which banks price funding in ways different from using interest rate, therefore, using NIM in funding decisions. The use of interest rate as the pricing mechanism to determine lending and also borrowing rates is a well entrenched practice from ancient times and

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> This is about 1.5% of the total assets of banks as reported in the BI.S, in Basel. Hence, this new type of bank is slowly taking root where it can find customers.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Income smoothing is very heavily practiced by firms in order to convey more balanced information over time to investors. In years when a firm's incomes grow rapidly or when incomes decline rapidly, accountants choose standards of reporting to lower the earnings or increase the earnings in respective time periods. This practice is termed 'income smoothing' in accounting literature. ROA and ROE are smoothed numbers whereas the NIM is very largely dependent on market-based interest rates.

is now vastly expanded in modern banking practice, especially with widely used benchmarks such as the LIBOR etc. There is a new way of pricing funds as paractised by participation banks. The return to bank deposit holders is determined on the basis of pre-agreed profit-share so the amount of rewards to bank depositors is a share of the profits made by the bank through the process of money creation to lend on the basis of profit-shared contracts entered *ex ante* with the borrowers of money (see the Appendix for performance history of participation banks).

This method is different from that based on interest rate; it is based on a profit-shared-margin (PSM) on which time series information is now available from central bank sources<sup>3</sup>. This variable is equivalent to the NIM, which has historically dominated the banking sector. PSM-based pricing of bank funding relies upon the newer form of lending and borrowing conducted by particiaption banks. Participation banks hold an estimated total assets of US\$3,800 billion, which is no more than 1.5% of the total assets of mainstream banks. Several researchers have used accounting profitability measures

as the banking perfomance measure to study this new type of bank such as Akhtar et al. (2011) and Bashir (2003). As far as our search of literature showed, there has been no published paper using PSM as a measure of participation bank performance. There is also a need to investigate how the accounting profitability measures such as ROA compares with the PSM as an alternative measure.

Thus, this paper reports findings from a large sample of participation banks that use PSM as the pricing mechanism in managing banking funds. The study covers this form of banking from 25 countries, where this type of banking has become well-entrenched over the several decades since the inception in 1963 of the first participation banks (Ariff et al., 2012). The findings reported in this paper are interesting and new for this new type of bank. While the accounting-based profitability is an excellent variable, it is also evident from our findings that PSM is a better alternative as well especially when an industry is not fully competitive as is likely to be the case with participation banks with small-sized and less experienced banks.

The rest of the paper is divided into five sections. An extensive literature review on what determines banking performance, using NIM or ROA or ROE, is sumamrised in the next section. The ensuing methodology section explains the data soources, variables and test models for our study of the association between PSM or ROA (performance measures) and the several determinants of bank performance already found in the literature.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> For details on the legal basis of participation or Islamic banking, see Ariff, et al. (2012). There is a growing body of literature that suggests that PSM-based pricing of funding by banks is closely related to the profitability of the banks themselves as well as the borrowers, who consider the profit-and-shared lending by banks aligns loan servicing with the performance of the economy, and therefore, promotes systemwide stability.

The findings are presented in three subsections: overall findings are presented first before showing the sub-group results for high-income and low-income economies. Performance persistence is discussed in another sub-section before the paper ends with a concluding section.

# BANKING PERFORMANCE LITERATURE

# **Internal Factors**

A number of models have been developed by researchers to investigate the relationship between bank performance and a large number of (i) bank-specific (ii) industrylevel and (iii) macroeconomic variables as being significantly correlated. For bank performance, researchers have used NIM, ROA and ROE as indicators. For the factors that may be related to performance, many variables have been used. Among them are: average operating costs, competition, market risk and credit risk. In their paper, Ho and Saunders (1981) showed that the interest spread (NIM) is significantly correlated with the level to which bank managers seek to avoid risk, the magnitude of transaction operations undertaken, the structure of the bank market and changes in interest rates. There are several more factors.

Ho and Saunders' paper was expanded by McShane and Sharpe (1985), who included operating costs and a measure for competition. Allen (1988) introduced various types of loan and deposit, while Angbazo (1997) added credit risk to the model while Maudos and De Guevara (2004) incorporated operation costs. Saunders and Schumacher (2000) suggested that interest rates, opportunity cost, market power, the bank's capital-to-assets ratio and fluctuations in interest rates all have significant effects on the NIM. It should be noted that these are not, in our view, the main factors driving bank performance. We propose to divide the factors into internal (meaning bank-specific) and external (industry and economy-wide) factors in the ensuing discussion.

Liquidity risk. Deep and Schaefer (2004) devised a liquidity transformation measure termed by them as 'liquidity transformation gap'. This is computed as the difference between liquid liabilities and illiquid assets scaled by total assets. They argued that banks do not create much liquidity. Berger and Bouwman (2009) reported that capital is positively and significantly associated with liquidity in larger banks, but it is less important for average-sized banks while it is negative for small-sized banks. Distinguin, Roulet and Tarazi (2013) reported that European and American commercial banks decrease their regulatory capital coincidence as they create liquidity, meaning that they finance their assets with their liabilities. Shen, Chen, Kao and Yeh, (2009) showed a significant link between bank performance and risk of bank liquidity as the higher cost of funds may reduce a bank's profit but increases net interest margin. Bourke (1989) stated there is a positive relationship between liquidity and bank performance, but left out details found in Bouwman's paper.

Credit risk. Ahmad and Ariff (2007) stated that an increase in a bank's provision for loan losses is a significant determinant of potential credit risk, which means that credit risk is probably the most important risk for a bank. Athanasoglou, Bisimis and Delis (2008) suggested that the risks for banks have important effects on their profitability. Demirgüç-Kunt and Huizinga (1999) reported positive effects from credit risk on NIM, while Kasman, Tung, Vardar and Okan (2010) showed credit risk is positively linked to banks' NIM. Srairi (2009) worked on participation banks, showing that performance is correlated with capital adequacy and credit risk.

Capital adequacy. Based on recent capital provision theories, more capital makes for better bank performance and is more predictable; in fact, the post-2008 financial crisis reform efforts including Basel III are premised on this important fact about banking. Banks with more capital tend to have enhanced security so their assets are safer. Also, such banks monitor their borrowers strongly because they seek to reduce the probability of default. Demirguc-Kunt and Huizinga (1999) and Garcia-Herrero, Gavilá and Santabárbara (2009) both reported a positive correlation between bank performance and capital provision. Naceur and Goaied (2008) also reported a positive association between capital provision and bank performance measured as NIM and profitability. Beltratti and Stulz (2009) found that banks with relatively superior Tier-1 capital and more deposit financing capacity had higher returns in times of crisis. Capital is a prominent factor of bank profitability in the study of Athanasoglou et al. (2008). Naceur and Omran (2011) showed that a bank's NIM is affected by individual bank characteristics such as credit risk and capital provision. Bashir (2003), Sufian and Parman (2009) studied participation bank profitability and reported a positive relationship with the capital provision.

**Asset quality**. In some studies, assets quality was proxied in the same way as credit risk or loan-loss provision but asset quality was a factor that was achieved over time and through service. Thus, it is expected that older banks will have better-quality assets, resulting in a good reputation. Moreover, in some cases, loans are not key assets that create the main part of the income. A bank's profits may be determined by the quality of its loan portfolio and the risks that it carries. Therefore, non-performing loans being outweighed by sound loans indicate high quality of portfolio. It is the most obvious concern for banks to ensure a low level of impaired loans. Hassan Al-Tamimi (2006) studied UAE commercial banks and stated that bank portfolio combination and bank size are highly significantly correlated with bank performance. Australian banks' resilience is argued to arise from higher loan quality from responsible lending practices. Nazir (2010) applied CAMEL parameters to evaluate the financial performance of the two major banks operating in northern India. The banks have shown significant performance. They concluded that low non-performing loans to total loans are a sign of good health of the portfolio of a bank since lower ratio indicates better bank performance.

Managerial efficiency. Numerous cases of bank failure in the last two decades have occurred. The empirical literature identified two main reasons for bank failure: a large number of impaired loans and an adverse situation regarding cost efficiency. A fundamental dispute is on whether or not poor administration increases the chances of bank collapse. Based on the assumption of poor-management, cost efficiency has an impact on impaired loans due to the lack of precise supervision of loans. In other words, low operational efficiency is a sign of poor management, and this will affect credit decisions. In order to enhance bank efficiency, it is necessary to have efficient cost control, along with a change in workplace culture, meaning that if banks meaningfully improve their managerial practices, they will benefit greatly.

Williams' (2004) findings supported poor-management theory. He explained that a decline in efficiency is usually followed by a decline in loan quality. Rossi, Schwaiger and Winkler (2005) also showed similar results over a longer time period. Goddard, Liu, Molyneux and Wilson (2013) reported that managerial efficiency appeared to be a more important determinant of bank performance while in another study (Athanasoglou et al., 2008), it was found that bank profit was closely but negatively

related to operating expenses. Mokhtar, Abdullah and Alhabshi (2008) argued that participation banks were less efficient than conventional banks. Masood, Aktan and Chowdhary (2009) reported a significant effect of operational efficiency on bank profitability in Saudi Arabia for the period 1999-2007.

Bank size. In some studies, size and performance were closely but inversely related to each other. Essentially, it was anticipated that large banks would have a higher level of loan quality and be able to diversify their services more than smaller banks, which reduces their risk. In addition, banks benefitted from economies of scale. Therefore, a reduction in risk because of diversity and benefits from economy of scale due to larger size can lead to the enhanced performance of a bank. Moreover, the recent global financial crisis has shown that the size of a bank is connected to substantial risk regarding financing the activities of society. Conversely, once banks have become very large, due to some reasons such as an increase in overhead costs, they may experience negative performance.

Demirgüç-Kunt and Huizinga (2011) measured the size of banks using total assets and called it 'absolute size', while the other variable was called 'systemic size' as liabilities over GDP. They suggested that banks with a large absolute size are often much more profitable while, in contrast, banks with a large systemic size have less profit. Pasiouras and Kosmidou (2007) found a negative association with size.

Naceur and Goaied (2008) reported similar findings. Others have suggested a weak or non-existent correlation between size and bank performance (e.g. Goddard et al., 2004; Micco, Paniza & Yanez, 2007; Cornett, McNett & Tehranian, 2010). Akhtar et al. (2011), who studied participation banks in Pakistan in the period 2006-09, found that bank size affected performance negatively.

Income diversification. As a definition of non-interest revenue, we refer to the so-called non-traditional activities. Due to the changes in the banking industry and increased competition, non-interest income has been the centre of attention for banks. In most income-related studies, diversification has been considered as non-interest income that increases over time. Most importantly, it is assumed that income diversification can, logically, reduce bankruptcy. Busch and Kick (2009) analysed the determinants of non-interest income in Germany and argued for the impact of the cross-subsidisation of interest and fee-based business activities. Williams and Rajaguru (2007) examined the relationship between fee-based income and interest margin in Australia. Their results supported fee-based business income as being able to serve as an alternative when there is a decline in interest income. We expect a negative correlation between NIM and non-interest income.

It should be noted that most previous studies have tested only one or two factors connected with profitability. In our study, we aimed to test a large number of variables as direct factors in participation banks. Further, we intended to include external factors as explained in the next sub-section. These are annual data that are entered in a panel setting while the data on direct factors are used across the sample of banks in this study.

# **External Factors**

The literature also suggested factors that are not bank-specific in nature: taxes, quality of industry service and so on. In our view, industry and macroeconomic factors have been studied by some researchers (Demirguc-Kunt & Huizingha, 1999). For the study of a single country, as in their study, it would be irrelevant to include these. However, in our panel setting, our model could include these external variables as control variables in order to ensure that the inclusion of these non-bank-specific factors improved the accuracy of our measures of the bank-specific factors.

Market structure. There are two well-known theories regarding the relationship between bank concentration and NIM, described as the structure-conduct-performance (market power) theory and as the efficient-structure (ES) theory. The first theory states that increased market power results in monopoly power, while the second theory attributes higher profitability to superior efficiency. Goddard et al. (2011) and Mirzaei, Liu and Moore (2013) showed findings in support of the first theory while the following studies showed no support for that theory: Staikouras and Wood (2004), Mamatzakis and Remoundos

(2003), Athanasoglou et al. (2008), Naceur and Goaied (2008) and Chortareas, Garza-García and Girardone (2012).

Growth in GDP. There are no conclusive findings regarding the effect of economic growth on bank performance. There are contrasting findings suggesting that highergrowth scenarios promote a greater demand for bank loans, which could lead to higher charges by banks for their loans, thus increasing competition stability expectations through a lowering of interest. However, Claeys and Vennet (2008) found that higher economic growth was associated with higher NIM in some countries whereas for some other countries there was no such link. Bank profitability was reported to be positively impacted upon by output growth by Kosmidou (2008) and Flamini, McDonald and Schumacher (2009). There were also reports of negative effect, for instance by Demirguc-Kunt, Laven and Levine (2003), Sufian (2009), Liu and Wilson (2010) and Tan (2012).

Inflation. The effect of inflation on bank performance depends on whether operating expenses and revenue increase at a higher rate than inflation rate. The impact of inflation on bank profitability depends on whether inflation is fully anticipated. Inflation is one of the main channels for performance where it is possible to affect the operations and margins of banks through inflation affecting the interest rates. Perry (1992) suggested that the effect of inflation on bank performance is positive if the rate

of inflation is fully anticipated. This gives banks the opportunity to adjust interest rates accordingly, consequently banks make higher profits. See Demirgüç-Kunt and Huizinga (1999) for a study of 80 countries.

In developing a test model for participation banks in our study, we made an *a priori* assumption that both the internal and external factors are relevant for sound performance of participation banks. Both types of bank operate in the chosen countries to provide intermediation services to the economies. Despite the differences in pricing of funds, participation banks compete with other types of bank, so in a sense, both types of bank serve the same market for funds. Hence, our assumption is not far off the mark that the variables affecting performance could well be the same set of factors for both types of bank.

# DATA, HYPOTHESES AND METHODOLOGY

# **Data and Variables**

The data for this study were accessed from the following sources: bank balance sheet and income statements as bank-specific observations from the BankScope database provided by the Fitch-IBCA and available at University Putra Malaysia. The data in the fields were checked for accuracy as data relating to participation banks only. The data were annual data as reported or as computed from details in the database. The final sample consisted of 100 participation banks in 25 countries that use this new type of banking. The profit rate margin (PSM)

was equivalent to the NIM for mainstream banks using interest rates.

In Table 1, we provide the short-form notations of the variables used and define the variables

Table 1 Variables, symbols and descriptions

Symbols	Variables	Description
Dependent	variables	
ROA	ROA	The return on average total assets of the bank
ROE	ROE	The return on average total equity of the bank
NIM	NIM	The net interest margin of the bank
Bank-specif	fic determinants (internal factors)	
LR	Liquidity risk	Ratio of financing gap (difference between bank loan and customer deposit) to total assets
CR	Credit risk	Loan loss provisions over total loans
CA	Capital adequacy	Equity capital to total loans
AQ	Asset quality	Non-performing loans to total loans
ME	Managerial efficiency	Operating expenses to total assets
ID	Income diversification	Non-interest income over total assets
LTA	Size	Natural logarithm of total assets
Non-bank-s	pecific factors	
CONCEN	Concentration	5-Bank asset concentration
GDPG	GDP growth	Real GDP growth
INF	Inflation	Annual inflation rate

We collected data to ensure that we had a balanced panel over eight years ending in 2014 for all 100 banks. The variables were either taken as reported in the database or computed from other items of data in the database. Data on concentration, inflation and GDP growth were computed from the world development indicator reports in the World Bank web site. Our final sample covered 100 banks over eight years from 25 countries. The variables related to 100 banks i=100 over eight years t=8. t=8 and banks i=100.

The dependent variables were PSM (as appropriate for this type of bank) and ROA,

both being annual numbers relating to each bank in the sample. Summary statistics for the variables are presented in Table 2.

The average ROA for all the banks in the test period was 1.08 (while the ROE was 10.08%) per year. These numbers suggest two things. First, the ROA is substantially lower than the corresponding figure reported in the literature for developed country banks as being about 1.8. This is due to the larger capital provisions found in participation banks. Second, the ROE reported for Basel-registered banks in the Basel webpage is 13 to 31% per year over a 25-year period. However, our figures were for the period

Table 2
Summary statistics of 100 banks from 25 countries

	Pooled				High income country				Low income country			
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
PSM (NIM)	3.70	1.58	-4.06	8.77	3.47	1.49	-4.06	7.85	4.54	1.73	0.23	10.75
ROA	1.08	1.56	-13.91	6.21	1.15	1.61	-13.91	7.30	0.81	1.48	-8.72	4.05
ROE	10.08	11.15	-69.49	63.15	9.80	11.22	-69.49	63.15	11.47	10.85	-21.63	36.22
LR	-6.20	26.03	-78.93	98.48	-2.43	25.08	-59.31	98.48	-18.36	26.26	-78.93	64.22
CR	0.96	2.44	-45.11	12.38	1.00	1.25	-2.39	12.38	1.10	1.46	-0.77	9.34
CA	26.79	38.89	-19.85	524.18	24.53	22.30	5.31	197.02	20.91	18.64	-41.75	96.81
AQ	6.08	8.12	0.02	80.42	5.60	7.41	0.02	54.44	6.99	8.69	0.17	61.60
ME	2.15	1.25	0.15	9.06	1.88	0.97	0.15	8.35	2.92	1.64	0.84	8.20
ID	1.22	1.10	-0.35	11.00	1.12	1.00	-0.18	8.13	1.37	0.88	-0.35	4.55
LTA	15.08	1.35	10.65	18.22	15.53	1.11	11.99	18.22	13.84	1.06	11.37	15.91
CONCEN	83.82	16.82	40.00	100.00	88.67	9.42	57.08	100.00	68.44	23.74	40.00	100.00
GDPG	4.36	3.54	-15.09	17.99	4.43	3.86	-7.08	17.99	4.46	2.51	-15.09	8.40
INF	5.87	5.50	-4.86	39.27	4.44	4.86	-4.86	39.27	9.79	4.84	3.96	36.91
No. of observ	No. of observations			497	No. of	observat	ions	368	No. of observations			123

2008-2014, that is, in the years after the Global financial crisis, which were noted for low profitability. Lower return means that the 10.8% for participation banks was due to the small size of the banks and the requirement that participation banks have more capital provision, which lowers the ROA. This result is thus expected as participation banks also operate as small-sized banks in more risky countries with profit-sharing basis. Over the test period, the average gross domestic product growth rate was 4.36% while inflation was 5.87%, which is high.

A correlation coefficient between two explanatory variables exceeding the value of 0.8 indicates a potential problem among variables. The results given in the table give support to our conclusion that there was no problem of cross-correlation introducing

errors in the estimated parameters or on test results.

NIM is the net interest rate margin defined as the interest rate income minus interest rate expenses over average total earning assets; ROA is the return on average total assets; ROE is the return on average total shareholder equity; LR is a measure of liquidity risk calculated as ratio of financing gap (difference between bank's loan and customer deposit) to total assets; CR is a measure of credit risk calculated as loan loss provisions over total loans; CA is a measure of capital adequacy calculated as equity capital to total loans; AQ is a measure of asset quality calculated as nonperforming loan over total loans; ME is a measure of managerial efficiency calculated as operating expenses to total asset; ID is a measure of income diversification calculated

as non-interest income over total assets; LTA is a measure of size calculated as natural logarithm of total assets; and TA is total asset; CONCEN is 5-Bank asset concentration for each country that has assets of its five largest banks as a share of total banking asset; GDPG is GDP growth (annual %); INF is inflation, end of period consumer prices (percent change).

Table 3 is a summary of cross-correlations among independent variables. It shows the dependence between variables and describes how strongly variables in the same group resemble each other. The correlation coefficients between each variable for many of them is almost low and none of the cross-correlation values are 0.8 or more to seriously bias the results.

Table 3
Correlation coefficients between independent variables

	LR	CR	CA	AQ	ME	ID	LTA	CONCEN	GDPG	INF
LR	1									
CR	0.03	1								
CA	0.00	0.25	1							
AQ	-0.06	0.33	0.39	1						
ME	-0.06	0.34	0.35	0.34	1					
ID	0.00	-0.16	0.22	0.10	0.21	1				
LTA	0.03	-0.07	-0.17	-0.26	-0.31	-0.02	1			
CONCEN	-0.05	-0.01	0.14	0.04	0.00	-0.10	0.10	1		
GDPG	0.08	-0.06	0.00	-0.08	-0.08	0.00	0.07	-0.07	1	
INF	-0.03	-0.01	0.01	0.02	0.13	0.25	-0.24	-0.15	-0.20	1

# **Test Models**

The appropriate model to use based on the available information, balanced panel of time series data (T=8) and subjects (N=100), was the Generalised Methods of Moments (GMM). To enable the across-time dependence of banking performance on the prior year's performance, we specified the lagged dependent variable to make the GMM estimate the dynamic coefficient to the lagged variable. The data were transformed to be stationary using the usual tests.

The independent variables identified as explained in this section were entered as directly relevant bank-specific factors (there were seven items here). The non-bank-specific variables with one datum per year were control variables to ensure that the bank-specific variables were estimated after controlling for the effects of these variables on performance. There were three (CONC; GDP; INF) such variables. In presenting the results, we provide the usual test statistics such as Wald tests as the measure of model fitness (in the case of OLS)

results, the F-Tests and R-squared values). To see how the balanced panel regression with dynamic GMM results were derived, see the following: Arellano and Bond, 1991; Arellano and Bover, 1995; and Blundell and Bond, 1998. The estimators usually differed from the OLS estimators. We also provide the OLS estimates for comparison.

Empirical work on the determinants of bank performance potentially includes three sources of potential estimation errors: very persistent profits, endogeneity and omitted variables. Dynamic modelling corrects these problems. Using a fixed and/or random effect model within a panel setting causes some minor difficulties when lagged dependent or independent variables may influence especially in certain time periods or across a few banks. We have no solution to this problem, and it is not expected to alter the results very much.

The linear dynamic panel data model can be specified as follows:

$$\begin{split} PERF_{it} &= c + \ \delta PREF_{(it-1)} + \sum_{(j=1)}^{j} \beta_j \ X^{j}_{it} \ + \sum_{(k=1)}^{k} \beta_k Y^{k}_{it} \\ &+ \sum_{(l=1)}^{L} \beta_l \ Z^{l}_{it} + \epsilon_{it} \quad \epsilon_{it} = v_i + u_{it} \end{split} \tag{1}$$

where,  $PREF_{(it-1)}$  is the one-period lagged dependent variable and  $\delta$  the speed of adjustment to equilibrium because of performance persistence.  $PERF_{it}$  is performance of bank i at time t, with i=1,...,N, t=1,...,T, c is a constant term,  $X_{it}$ 's are bank-specific variables,  $Y_{it}$ 's industry-specific variables,  $Z_{it}$ 's the macroeconomic variables and  $\varepsilon_{it}$  is the disturbance, with  $v_i$  the unobserved bank-specific effect while  $v_{it}$  are the idiosyncratic errors. This is a one-way error component regression model,

where  $v_i \sim (IIN(0, \delta_v^2))$  are independent of  $u_i \sim (IN(0, \delta_u^2))$ .

Placing the lagged dependent variable on the right-hand side of the equation assumes this variable is correlated with the error term,  $\varepsilon_{it}$ , which is a function of the bank specific effect, v<sub>i</sub>. Due to this, the dynamic panel data estimates of Equation (1) suffer a slight bias. The estimator option in this case is the GMM proposed by Arellano and Bond (1991), which is a modification to eliminate the effects of a bank specific, or any time invariant bank specific variables, and endogeneity. In addition to this we are sure that we had stationary regresses. GMM uses the orthogonal condition between different errors and lagged dependent variable. This is valid under the assumptions that the error term is serially uncorrelated and the lag of the explanatory variables is weakly exogenous.

Consistency of GMM estimators relies on two test specifications. First is the Hansen test, which is a test of over-identification restrictions. The GMM estimation of the dynamic panel data increases the number of conditions. Therefore, the Hansen test is conducted to test the of over-identification restrictions. The second test is the Arellano–Bond order 2 test for second-order serial correlation in the disturbance term. Failure to reject the null hypothesis of both tests gives support to the accuracy of estimations.

The GMM estimators are typically used in the one-step and two-step procedure. The one-step procedure uses a weighted matrix independent of the parameters estimated. The two-step GMM using the

optimal weighting matrix is weighted by a consistent covariance matrix. Because of this, the two-step estimator is more efficient than the one-step estimator. Using the two-step estimator has many problems because it easily generates instruments that are numerous. Windmeijer (2005) showed that the two-step GMM estimation with various instruments could lead to biased standard errors and parameter estimates. Bias in the two-step standard measures can be corrected by Windmeijer's (2005) correction procedure, which we adopted, and that reduced this problem. In this study we implemented this correction procedure and got robust results.

# **Hypotheses Development**

The central hypothesis was for the existence of a significant relationship between performance and a set of determinants from the literature. We tested this central issue and the hypotheses were:

Hypothesis 1. There is no significant relationship between the PSM (and then repeated with ROA in a second run) as dependent variable and the nine independent factors in the regressions. We expected to reject this hypothesis based on prior findings, so we hoped to have the model fit to be significant using F-ratio and R-squared values.

Hypothesis 2: There is no relationship between PSM (and then repeated with ROA in a second run) and the nine independent factors using the dynamic GMM estimation procedure. We expected, given the superior estimation property of GMM, to have a significant relationship between the performance and determining factors. We tested this using the Wald tests. As explained earlier in this section, results were taken from different runs of the GMM to verify the superiority of the two versions of the procedure.

Hypothesis 3: There is no significant effect from any of the nine determining factors on bank performance. Obviously this null hypothesis was expected to be rejected for most, if not all, the independent variables. Prior research suggested a majority of the factors would have a significant influence on performance measures (ROA; PSM).

# FINDINGS ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERFORMANCE AND DETERMINANTS

This section summarises the findings of this study. First, we present the results for the whole sample of 100 banks over eight years. In the next sub-section are the results from testing the relationship separately for two samples of banks in high-income and low-income countries.

# Whole Sample

The results of the regression runs are summarised as shown in Table 4 for the whole sample. First, we examined the results from OLS regressions first for PSM and then for ROA before interpreting the more accurate GMM results. The OLS test results and parameters were biased estimates of the more accurate estimators to be found in the four columns marked as GMM for the PSM and ROA runs. The model fitness statistics are shown in the bottom panel of the table.

We first examined the bottom panel of the table. The R-squared values were above 50% in the OLS regressions for both PSM and ROA performance measures. This means there was a significant relationship between bank performance and the nine determining factors. The fact that more than half the variations in the PSM and ROA were explained by the nine significant variables gives strong support to reject the null of H1 and accept the alternative explanation.

Examining the individual factor effect on the performance from among the nine factors, one factor, LR, and another, CONCEN, were found to not significantly influence the PSM or the ROA. For these two non-significant factors, the probability values were larger than 0.10 so we accepted the null hypotheses, that there was no effect.

The reason for including the GMM estimators shown in the GMM-results columns was to see if the corrections for possible errors known to exist in the OLS regressions would lead to more accurate estimators. It can be seen that there was improvement in the overall results. The Wald statistics are all significant, which is evidence of a relationship between performance and the identified factors. An examination of the GMM results showed that the statistics from the Wald tests were

all significant. That shows that there was a significant relationship between bank performance and the set of nine determining factors for our tests on participation banks. This was true for both runs using the PSM and ROA. Further, the PSM and ROA results also showed significant relationship for these banks over the eight-year period tested.

A number of findings on the individual factor effects on performance are reported in the table. First, the non-bank-specific factors, which were shown as significant in the OLS estimates, were not significant in the GMM tests. Obviously, the coefficients suggested that the bank-specific factor results were all significant, except for the one for LTA (size). Further, the size of banks was not significant; neither was capital adequacy (CA) although the latter was significant in the OLS regression. The important finding in the GMM result was the more accurate estimations by the dynamic GMM runs; only the bank-specific factors had an influence on performance (except for size and capital). Second, unlike in previous research findings found in the literature, industry concentration as well as macroeconomic factors were not important for performance over the eight-year test period for the participation banks.

The overall results supported a strong relationship between banking performance and five bank-specific variables. These variables were: liquidity risk (LR), credit risk (CR), asset quality (AQ), management efficiency (ME) and income diversification (ID). All other factors were not relevant for

Table 4
Correlation coefficients between independent variables

	P	SM	R	OA	PSM	ROA	
	Two-step system GMM	Two- step system GMM with SE	Two-step system GMM with SE		OLS	OLS	
Lag Depende	ent Variables for Dyn	amic Modelling					
PSM L1	0.606***	0.606***					
	(10.52) (0.058	(4.120) (0.147)					
ROA L1			0.246***	0.246**			
			(7.140) (0.034)	(2.320) (0.106)			
Bank-Specifi	c Variables						
LR	0.012***	0.012*	-0.001	-0.001	0.003	0.000	
	(2.880) (0.004)	(1.830) (0.007)	(-0.200) (0.003)	(-0.110) (0.005)	(0.890) (0.003)	(-0.150) (0.003)	
CR	-0.084***	-0.084**	-0.312***	-0.312***	0.018	-0.173***	
	(-5.120) (0.016)	(-2.430) (0.035)	(-9.320) (0.034)	(-2.780) (0.112)	(0.910) (0.020)	(-9.760) (0.018)	
CA	0.003	0.003	0.002	0.002	0.004***	0.008***	
	(1.560) (0.002)	(0.760) (0.005)	(1.180) (0.002)	(0.480) (0.005)	(3.670) (0.001)	(7.730) (0.001)	
AQ	-0.022	-0.022	-0.069***	-0.069	-0.035***	-0.078***	
	(-1.400) (0.016)	(-0.650) (0.033)	(-4.690) (0.015)	(-1.320) (0.052)	(-4.120) (0.008)	(-10.430) (0.00	
ME	-0.303***	-0.303***	-0.509***	-0.509***	0.096**	-0.587***	
	(-8.640) (0.035)	(-3.400) (0.089)	(-13.00) (0.039)	(-3.110) (0.164)	(1.980) (0.048)	(-13.730) (0.04)	
ID	0.061	0.061	0.852***	0.852***	-0.167**	0.685***	
	(0.650) (0.095)	(0.320) (0.192)	(9.760) (0.087)	(5.140) (0.166)	(-2.370) (0.070)	(11.300) (0.061	
LTA	-0.707***	-0.707**	0.245	0.245	-0.077	0.175***	
	(-4.670) (0.151)	(-2.390) (0.296)	(1.200) (0.205)	(0.650) (0.375)	(-1.110) (0.069)	(2.860) (0.061)	
Non-Bank-S	pecific Variables						
CONCEN	-0.008*	-0.008	-0.002	-0.002	-0.008	0.004	
	(-1.680) (0.005)	(-0.930) (0.008)	(-0.890) (0.003)	(-0.800) (0.003)	(-1.510) (0.005)	(0.840) (0.005)	
GDPG	-0.011	-0.011	0.011	0.011	0.026	0.055***	
	(-0.950) (0.012)	(-0.700) (0.016)	(1.040) (0.011)	(0.600) (0.019)	(1.080) (0.024)	(2.590) (0.021)	
INF	-0.030	-0.030	-0.016	-0.016	0.074***	0.068***	
	(-1.310) (0.023)	(-0.880) (0.034)	(-1.310) (0.013)	(-0.730) (0.023)	(4.320) (0.017)	(4.470) (0.015)	
Dum-	0.122	0.122	0.287	0.287	0.628***	0.477**	
time	(0.410) (0.297)	(0.300) (0.402)	(1.600) (0.179)	(1.000) (0.286)	(2.650) (0.237)	(2.280) (0.210)	
R-squared					0.540	0.660	
F-statistic					7.530***	92.890***	
Wald test	828.100***	119.530***	27360.570***	1178.730***			
Sargan test	22.869		25.207				
(P-Value)	(0.117)	-2.342	(0.066)	-1.574			
AR(1) test	-2.812	(0.019)	-1.705	(0.115)			
(P-Value)	(0.005)	-1.783	(0.088)	-0.436			
AR(2) test	-1.926	(0.075)	-0.480	(0.663)			
(P-Value)	(0.054)		(0.632)				

Note: \*\*\*, \*\* and \* indicate significance at 1, 5 and 10% levels, respectively. Values in the parentheses are Z-statistics and standard error, respectively. The Hansen test is a test of over-identification restrictions. Arellano–Bond orders 1 and 2 are tests for first- and second-order correlation, respectively, which asymptotically N (0, 1), test first-difference residuals in the system's GMM estimation. Two-step errors are computed according to Windmeijer's (2005) finite-sample correction

performance, as were the macroeconomic and industry factors.

# **Findings on Sub-Samples**

The results of repeating the regressions with data from two separate samples are presented in this sub-section (See Tables 5 and 6). The two samples were created by dividing the whole sample into high-income-country banks and low-income-country banks. Income per capita was used to classify the two samples. The results were obtained using the same software and are summarised in the same manner as in the case of the whole sample.

A priori, it is reasonable to assume that the banking systems in low-income economies are likely to experience greater demand for bank-related intermediation than would be the case for high-income economies. It is well known that highincome economies tend to be less bankdependent for funding needs because borrowers resort to direct markets for funds more so than in low-income economies. Low-income economies have greater cyclicality in demands for funds as their GDP growth is more volatile. Hence, banks in low-income economies more so than those in high-income economies may experience influence from non-bankspecific factors, and these factors may help to produce statistically significant coefficients. The summary results relating to high-income economies in the sample are given in Table 5.

As in the case discussed in relation to the whole sample, it is evident there is a significant relationship between individual bank performance and the set of independent factors for the high-income sample results. The F-ratios from OLS regressions and the Wald test values for the GMM runs are all statistically significant (See the bottom panel of the table). Further, in the case of the OLS results, the R-squared values were more than 50%, so more than 50% of the variations in the performance variables are explained by the models.

The results of the GMM runs indicated that non-bank-specific factors did not have a significant influence on bank performance. Almost all the coefficients on non-bank-specific factors were insignificant with probability values higher than 0.10. However, the OLS regression results had probability values on half the tests below the 0.10 levels. It is possible to recall and thus infer from the discussion in the methodology section that these OLS results may not be reliable given the potential biases in estimations. Thus, we accepted the GMM-based statistics as suggesting that the non-bank-specific factors were unlikely to have a material influence on performance. Out of the 16 cells of test results on nonbank-specific factors from GMM runs, only two (GDP and CONCEN) were slightly significant, so we disregarded the two sets of acceptable statistics to conclude that those factors did not add materially to bank performance.

Table 5
Regression results for panel data model (GMM) and OLS, using NIM and ROA as dependent variable – high-income Countries

	P	SM	R	OA	PSM	ROA OLS	
	Two-step system GMM	Two- step system GMM with SE	Two-step system GMM	Two-step system GMM with SE	OLS		
Lag Depend	lent Variables for Dyr	namic Modelling					
PSM L1	0.728***	0.728***					
	(16.97) (0.043	(7.340) (0.099)					
ROA L1			0.273***	0.273*			
			(7.750) (0.035)	(1.880) (0.145)			
Bank-Specif	fic Variables						
LR	0.011***	0.011*	0.005*	0.005	0.008**	0.007*	
	(3.580) (0.003)	(1.680) (0.007)	(1.840) (0.003)	(0.580) (0.008)	(2.05) (0.039)	(1.840) (0,004)	
CR	-0.064***	-0.064***	-0.201***	-0.201*	0.030	-0.155***	
	(-5.770) (0.011)	(-2.730) (0.024)	(-6.790) (0.029)	(-1.780) (0.113)	(1.45) (0.021)	(-7.890) (0.019)	
CA	0.003*	0.003	0.005***	0.005	0.006***	0.007***	
	(1.670) (0.002)	(0.800) (0.003)	(3.600) (0.002)	(0.700) (0.008)	(4.710) (0.001)	(6.080) (0.012)	
AQ	-0.011	-0.011	-0.110***	-0.110**	-0.036***	-0.077***	
	(-1.230) (0.009)	(-0.460) (0.023)	(-13.600) (0.008)	(-2.090) (0.053)	(-3.04) (0.012)	(-6.820) (0.113)	
ME	-0.372***	-0.372***	-0.605***	-0.605***	-0.074	-0.646***	
	(-19.31) (0.019)	(-9.840) (0.038)	(-14.540) (0.042)	(-3.270) (0.185)	(-1.32) (0.056)	(-12.23) (0.053)	
ID	0.242***	0.242	0.999***	0.999***	-0.153*	0.747***	
	(2.830) (0.086)	(1.160) (0.308)	(14.140) (0.071)	(5.890) (0.169)	(-1.90) (0.080)	(10.10) (0.074)	
LTA	-0.030	-0.030	0.162	0.162	0.293***	0.333***	
	(-0.230) (0.132)	(-0.080) (0.365)	(0.890) (0.182)	(0.390) (0.418)	(2.970) (0.099)	(3.580) (0.093)	
Non-Bank-S	Specific Variables						
CONCEN	0.008	0.008	0.027**	0.027	0.028**	0.017	
	(0.960) (0.009)	(0.590) (0.014)	(2.060) (0.013)	(1.250) (0.022)	(2.440) (0.012)	(1.540) (0.011)	
GDPG	-0.020*	-0.020	0.009	0.009	-0.011	0.057**	
	(-1.900) (0.010)	(-1.270) (0.016)	(1.030) (0.009)	(0.530) (0.017)	(-0.40) (0.027)	(2.290) (0.025)	
INF	-0.035	-0.035	-0.016	-0.016	0.035	0.031	
	(-1.630) (0.022)	(-0.830) (0.042)	(-1.310) (0.012)	(-0.620) (0.025)	(1.550) (0.023)	(1.460) (0.021)	
Dum-	0.463**	0.463	0.271	0.271	1.278***	1.007***	
time	(1.960) (0.236)	(0.980) (0.470)	(1.360) (0.199)	(0.680) (0.398)	(4.450) (0.287)	(3.730) (0.270)	
R-squared					0.560	0.660	
F-statistic					6.740***	68.690***	
Wald test	1204.550***	372.110***	293462.240***	5626.840***			
Sargan test	18.713		25.385				
(P-Value)	(0.284)		( 0.063)				
AR(1) test	-2.000	-1.941	-1.388	-1.249			
(P-Value)	(0.046)	(0.052)	(0.165)	(0.212)			
AR(2) test	-1.032	-0.962	-0.087	-0.074			
(P-Value)	(0.302)	(0.336)	(0.931)	(0.941)			

Note: \*\*\*, \*\* and \* indicate significance at 1, 5 and 10% levels, respectively. Values in the parentheses are Z-statistics and standard error, respectively. The Hansen test is a test of over-identification restrictions. Arellano—Bond orders 1 and 2 are tests for first- and second-order correlation, respectively, which asymptotically N (0, 1), test first-difference residuals in the system's GMM estimation. Two-step errors are computed according to Windmeijer's (2005) finite-sample correction

That leaves the interpretation of the results on the seven bank-specific factors in the upper panel of the table. Of the 32 cells with GMM-derived statistics on bank-specific factor effects, all but the LTA (size) have probability values below 0.10. That means the GMM model results helped to identify that six of the seven bank factors were significantly correlated with the bank performance in the high-income countries.

The results from OLS runs – though with some errors in estimations – also suggested that six of the seven variables significantly influenced bank performance as INF for inflation was not significant in the OLS runs. It can thus be concluded that all except one bank-specific factor appeared to have significant correlation with PSM and ROA as two performance measures.

The results for the low-income countries are summarised in Table 6. Similar to the results for high-income countries, the lowincome country banks appeared to have a significant influence from the independent variables on their performance outcomes as measured by the GMM regressions. One variable, namely LTA (size of banks), out of the 10 right-hand side variables was not at all statistically relevant for performance. LTA coefficients all have probability values higher than 0.10, so this factor did not influence performance. The results from OLS regressions appeared to contradict the more accurate statistics from GMM runs: the LTA factor was significant, but the LR (liquidity risk) was not significant for performance. Pushed to make a choice, the OLS results were decided as being biased,

so we accepted the GMM results that 'size of bank' was not relevant for performance.

As for the non-bank-specific factors, just as we had reasoned, some had coefficients that were statistically significant. They were CONCEN (industry concentration) and INF (inflation) factors. For the lowincome country banks, these two factors significantly affect bank performance. For example, a 1% change in inflation would affect performance by 0.51 to 0.62%. The GDP (income) variable was not significant, although the low-income countries did have higher volatility in GDP growth, and this may, in fact, be thought to be a relevant factor. Perhaps GDP's insignificant effect was due to the period of our tests over the recent eight years. The low-income countries did not experience high GDP growth in that period.

# **Bank Performance Persistence**

Impact of lagged dependent variables is frequently used to ensure that performance persistence is taken into account in performance study models (See Goddard et al., 2011). Researchers specify the lagged dependent variable in the GMM models used in recent years in order to enable a dynamic estimation of the model as is also done in this study. The overall results suggest that there is persistence in performance (Please refer to Table 4 for the whole sample). The previous year's performance values on PSM and ROA variables were statistically significant, so a dynamic relationship was taken into account.

Table 6
Regression Results for Panel Data Model (GMM) and OLS, Using NIM and ROA as Dependent Variable –
Low-Income Countries

	P	SM	R	OA	PSM	ROA OLS	
	Two-step system GMM	Two- step system GMM with SE	Two-step system GMM	Two-step system GMM with SE	OLS		
Lag Depende	ent Variables for Dyr	namic Modelling					
PSM L1	0.009	0.009					
	(0.090) (0.096)	(0.040) (0.198)					
ROA L1			0.174***	0.174			
			(5.960) (0.029)	(1.400) (0.124)			
Bank-Specifi	c Variables						
LR	0.010***	0.010***	0.002	0.002	0.002	-0.004	
	(5.460) (0.002)	(3.290) (0.003)	(0.530) (0.003)	(0.250) (0.007)	(0.370) (0.006)	(-0.780) (0.005	
CR	0.047	0.047	-0.418***	-0.418**	0.044	-0.461***	
	(1.190) (0.039)	(0.460) (0.101)	(-7.060) (0.059)	(-1.970) (0.212)	(0.530) (0.083)	(-7.080) (0.065	
CA	0.019***	0.019*	0.015***	0.015**	0.007***	0.011***	
	(3.680) (0.005)	(1.750) (0.011)	(4.280) (0.004)	(2.100) (0.007)	(3.110) (0.002)	(5.870) (0.002)	
AQ	-0.024**	-0.024	-0.030***	-0.030	-0.012	-0.043***	
	(-2.010) (0.012)	(-0.870) (0.028)	(-3.720) (0.008)	(-1.150) (0.026)	(-0.930) (0.013)	(-4.160) (0.010	
ME	0.747***	0.747**	-0.110	-0.110	0.747***	-0.393***	
	(7.300) (0.102)	(2.060) (0.363)	(-1.020) (0.108)	(-0.450) (0.246)	(8.780) (0.085)	(-6.030) (0.065	
ID	-0.420***	-0.420*	0.706***	0.706***	-0.101	0.729***	
	(-3.370) (0.125)	(-1.830) (0.230)	(9.010) (0.078)	(3.010) (0234)	(-0.720) (0.141)	(7.410) (0,098)	
LTA	-0.276	-0.276	0.750*	0.750	0.295*	0.254*	
	(-0.700) (0.395)	(-0.460) (0.598)	(1.900) (0.394)	(0.970) (0.770)	(1.760) (0.167)	(1.960) (0.129)	
Non-Bank-S	pecific Variables						
CONCEN	-0.020***	-0.020**	-0.005**	-0.005	-0.007	0.004	
	(-5.780) (0.004)	(-2.260) (0.009)	(-2.200) (0.002)	(-1.490) (0.003)	(-1.050) (0.007)	(0.800) (0.005)	
GDPG	0.002	0.002	-0.022	-0.022	0.058	-0.072*	
	(0.200) (0.010)	(0.070)(0.028)	(-0.700) (0.031)	(-0.330) (0.066)	(1.080) (0.054)	(-1.710) (0.042)	
INF	-0.062***	-0.062	-0.051***	-0.051	0.081***	0.019	
	(-3.250) (0.019)	(-1.330) (0.047)	(-4.570) (0.011)	(-1.280) (0.40)	(2.620) (0.031)	(0.770) (0.024)	
Dum-	0.894***	0.894**	0.490*	0.490	0.245	0.009	
time	(5.330) (0.168)	(2.270) (0.393)	(1.880) (0.261)	(1.100) (0.447)	(0.750) (0.325)	(0.040) (0.253)	
R-squared					0.480	0.820	
F-statistic					10.850***	52.670***	
Wald test	2993.500***	303.850***	31381.890***	1218.480***			
Sargan test	12.106		9.219				
(P-Value)	(0.743)		(0.904)				
AR(1) test	-1.841	-1.109	-1.925	-1.772			
(P-Value)	(0.066)	(0.267)	(0.054)	(0.076)			
AR(2) test	-1.530	-1.401	1.190	0.986			
(P-Value)	(0.126)	(0.161)	(0.234)	(0.324)			

Note: \*\*\*, \*\* and \* indicate significance at 1, 5 and 10% levels, respectively. Values in the parentheses are Z-statistics and standard error, respectively. The Hansen test is a test of over-identification restrictions. Arellano–Bond orders 1 and 2 are tests for first- and second-order correlation, respectively, which asymptotically N (0, 1), test first-difference residuals in the system's GMM estimation. Two-step errors are computed according to Windmeijer's (2005) finite-sample correction

PSM as the market-based measure (as will be the case using NIM for mainstream banks) revealed that the persistence of participation banks was as high as 0.6 (with t-values all in excess of 2.000) on the previous year's PSM values. That would appear to suggest that the participation banking system is largely not fully competitive. If it were fully competitive, we would have the lagged coefficient closer to zero than closer to one as in this case. Even if measured by ROA, the values are closer to 0.25. Obviously for the purpose of measuring persistence in performance, the market-based measure of PSM (or NIM) revealed the fuller extent of previous year's performance largely influencing the current year's performance.

The numbers for the high- and low-income countries also revealed the same trend, as seen in Tables 5 and 6. The PSM coefficients of high-income countries have lag coefficient values as high as 0.72 while the corresponding numbers for ROA is as low as 0.20. It is possible that the use of market-based PSM reveals the full extent of performance persistence to be three times higher compared to the number revealed by the ROA, which is a smoothed number<sup>4</sup>.

In the case of low-income country samples, the results revealed the effect of a different regulatory control prevalent in such countries. Banks in low-income countries are guided by the central banks that receive orders from the government to promote socially-directed investments, often with

# **CONCLUSION**

This paper, in reporting interesting findings on a new type of bank (participation banks), started with the aim of finding whether a significant relationship could exist between bank performance factors and a set of factors reported to be correlated with bank performance. Profit-share contracting by participation banks is new and has a short history. These banks collectively have some US\$4,700 billion in assets in some 50 countries. Participation banks work alongside the much more established mainstream banks, which price deposits and lending costs on interest rates. The test models we applied were an advanced model based on the widely used older model by Ho and Saunders (1981). More specifically, we used the current panel data regression method with refinements to overcome some deficiencies as found in the relevant econometric literature.

controls on what the banks could charge for such directed lending practices. Given that this phenomenon is widely known in the literature, it is unlikely that the performance measures would have persistence as high as in open economies, for example, as reported for the high-income countries. Thus, the coefficients on the lagged PSM are not significant: the values are around 0.09 with low t-values to be significant. The ROA coefficients are statistically significant in one case and not significant in another case. These too are unlikely to be of economic significance since the values are very low, at 0.17.

<sup>4</sup> See Footnote 1.

Our findings pointed to a number of valid conclusions relating to this new form of banking. To start with, the net interest margin is not possible for this type of bank, so we used the equivalent 'profit-shared margin' as a market-based measure of bank performance. To that variable, we added the much older return on assets as a profitability measure. On the other side of the equation were seven bank-specific variables and three non-bank-specific variables widely used in banking studies over the last eight years. We also used a time dummy to eliminate the effect of the global financial crisis during some years.

Next, we found that the OLS-methodbased tests showed that both bank-specific and non-bank-specific factors were all statistically correlated with the profit-share and return-on-assets measures. One bankspecific factor, namely, liquidity risk, was not significant to the relationship. However, when more accurate test statistics were obtained using the GMM panel regressions, only the bank-specific factors (excepting bank size) were all significantly correlated with the two bank performance measures.

The third result was that the banking system is not fully competitive as is evident from the significant persistence of current performance on past performance. The degree of persistence was as high as 0.72 for high-income-country participation banks. Finally, for the low-income-country banks, there was a strong impact of inflation affecting bank performance: 1% inflation affects performance by 0.5%. We found a high degree of explanatory power of

the model with more than 50% explained variation in the test statistics.

The data set we used was from an established source, so it is possible to extend this study over different test periods other than the one we used as the post-global-crisis period. Further extension of this study is possible to compare results in this paper with new results from a matched pair of mainstream banks in the same 25 countries.

To sum up, the motivation of this study was to identify different performance measures in order to investigate if their performance measure(s) are correlated with known bank-specific and non-bank-specific factors.

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# APPENDIX

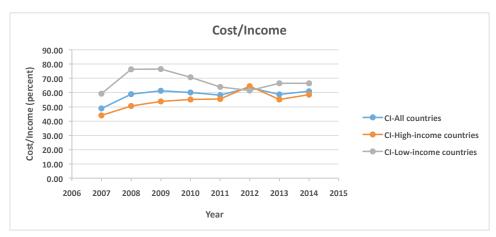


Figure 1. Average cost/income ratio for 100 Islamic banks over the years 2007 to 2014



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Pertanika Editorial Office, Journal Division
Office of the Deputy Vice Chancellor (R&I)
1st Floor, IDEA Tower II
UPM-MTDC Technology Centre
Universiti Putra Malaysia
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http://www.pertanika.upm.edu.my/ E-mail: executive\_editor.pertanika@upm.my

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