

Pertanika Journal of
**SOCIAL SCIENCES
& HUMANITIES**

JSSH

VOL. 26 (2) JUN. 2018



PERTANIKA
JOURNALS

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 Knowledge [BIOSIS & CAB Abstracts], EBSCO & EBSCOhost, DOAJ, Cabell's Directories, Google Scholar, MyAIS, ISC & Rubriq (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 http://www.pertanika.upm.edu.my/code_of_ethics.php

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 **I**ntroduction, **M**aterials and **M**ethods, **R**esults, **A**nd, **D**iscussion. 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:

1. 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.
2. 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 Editor-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).

5. 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.

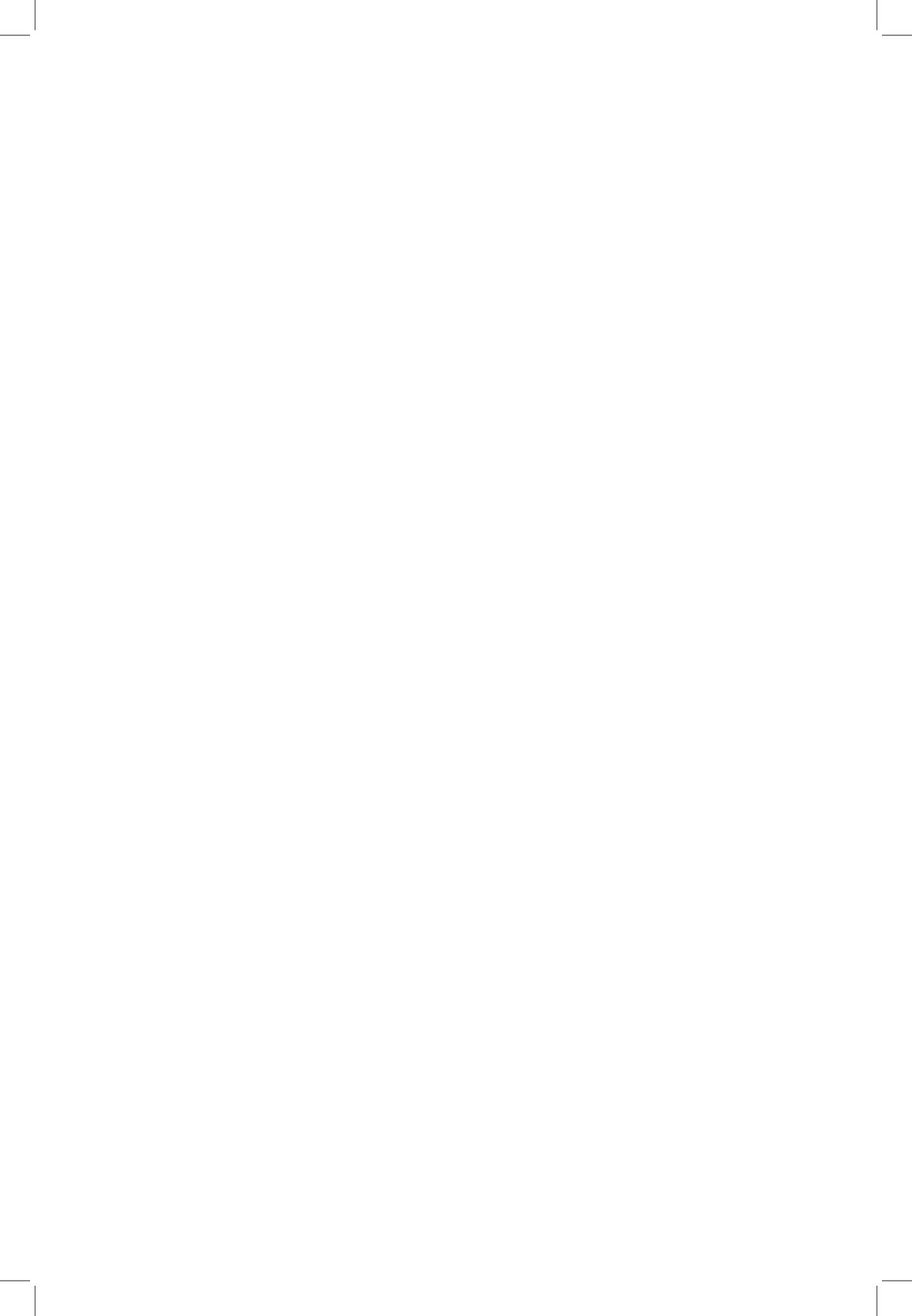


Pertanika Journal of
**SOCIAL SCIENCES
& HUMANITIES**

Vol. 26 (2) Jun. 2018



A scientific journal published by Universiti Putra Malaysia Press



EDITOR-IN-CHIEF

Jayakaran Mukundan

English Language Studies, Teaching English as a Second Language (TESL)

CHIEF EXECUTIVE EDITOR

Nayan Deep S. Kanwal

Environmental Issues – Landscape Plant Modelling Applications

UNIVERSITY PUBLICATIONS COMMITTEE

Zulkifli Idrus, *Chair*

EDITORIAL STAFF

Journal Officers:

Chai Sook Keat, *ScholarOne*

Kanagamalar Silvarajoo, *ScholarOne*

Tee Syin Ying, *ScholarOne*

Ummi Fairuz Hanapi, *Publication Officer*

Editorial Assistants:

Florence Jiyom

Rahimah Razali

Zulinaardawati Kamarudin

COPY EDITORS

Crescentia Morais

Doreen Dillah

Pooja Terasha Stanslas

PRODUCTION STAFF

Pre-press Officers:

Kanagamalar Silvarajoo

Nur Farrah Dila Ismail

Wong Lih Jiu

Layout & Typeset:

Lilian Loh Kian Lin

Wong Wai Mann

WEBMASTER

Mohd Nazri Othman

PUBLICITY & PRESS RELEASE

Florence Jiyom

Magdalene Pokar (*ResearchSEA*)

EDITORIAL OFFICE

JOURNAL DIVISION

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 Enq.: +603 8947 1622 | 1616

E-mail: executive_editor.pertanika@upm.my

URL: www.journals-ld.upm.edu.my

PUBLISHER

UPM Press

Universiti Putra Malaysia

43400 UPM, Serdang, Selangor, Malaysia.

Tel: +603 8946 8855, 8946 8854

Fax: +603 8941 6172

E-mail: penerbit@upm.edu.my

URL: <http://penerbit.upm.edu.my>



EDITORIAL BOARD

2018-2020

Abdul Mansur M. Masih

Economics, Econometrics, Finance
King Fahd University of Petroleum and Minerals, Saudi Arabia.

Alan MALEY

English Language Studies, Teaching of English Language and Literature
Leeds Metropolitan University, UK.

Ali Reza Kaldi

Medical Sociology, Sociology of Development Ageing, Gerontology
University of Social Welfare and Rehabilitation, Tehran, Iran.

Brian TOMLINSON

English Language Studies, The Evaluation, Adaptation and Development
Leeds Metropolitan University, UK.

Deanna L. SHARPE

Economics, Consumer and Family Economics, Personal Finance
University of Missouri, Columbia, USA.

Dessy Irawati

Economist and business development strategist
BNI Bank Representative in the Netherlands,
EduPRIME consulting, the Netherlands.

Dileep K. Mohanachandran

Psychology, Sociology, Technology
Berjaya University College, Malaysia.

Jacqueline Pugh-Kitingan

Music, Ethnomusicology, Borneo and Papua New Guinea Studies
Universiti Malaysia Sabah, Malaysia.

James R. STOCK

Management Studies, Marketing, Logistics and Supply Chain Management, Quantitative Method
University of South Florida, USA.

Jayum A. Jawan

Sociology, Politics and Government, Civilization Studies
Tun Abd Razak Chair & Visiting Professor of Political Science
Ohio University, Athens Ohio, USA (2015-2017).
Universiti Putra Malaysia, Malaysia.

Jonathan NEWTON

Classroom-based Second Language Acquisition, Language Teaching Methodology, the Interface of Culture and Language Teaching and Learning, and Language/Communication Training and Material Design for Multicultural Workplace
Victoria University of Wellington, New Zealand.

Marcus Bion GRIFFIN

Human Ecology, Anthropology, Tropical Agriculture, Fisheries
Cultural Learning Solutions, USA.

Mary Susan Philip

English Language Theatre in Malaysia and Singapore; Postcolonial Theatre
University of Malaya, Malaysia.

Muzafar Shah Habibullah

Economics, Monetary Economics, Banking, Macroeconomics
Universiti Putra Malaysia, Malaysia.

Patricia MATUSKY

Music, Ethnomusicology, Malay and Indonesian language, Literature and Culture
Grand Valley State University, USA.

Rama MATHEW

Teacher Education, English Language Education including Young Learners and Language Assessment
Delhi University, India.

Rohany Nasir

Psychology-Career counseling, Counseling for Adolescents and Adults, Marriage and Family counseling, Counseling industry and Organization,
Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, Malaysia.

Shameem Rafik-Galea

English Language Studies, Linguistics, Applied Linguistics, Language and Communication
University College Sedaya International, Malaysia.

Stephen J. HALL

English Language Studies, Linguist, Teacher Educator, TESOL
Centre for English Language Studies, Sunway University, Malaysia.

Stephen J. THOMA

Psychology, Educational Psychology
The University of Alabama, USA.

Victor T. KING

Anthropology / Southeast Asian Studies,
White Rose East Asia Centre,
University of Leeds, UK.

INTERNATIONAL ADVISORY BOARD

2018-2021

Barbara WEJNERT

Political Sociologist: Gender Studies, Macro Political and Social Changes
University at Buffalo, NY, USA.

Carolyn GRAHAM

Music, Jazz Chants
Harvard University, USA.

Faith TRENT, AM FACE

Education: Curriculum development
Flinders University, Adelaide, Australia.

Gary N. McLean

Community and Social Development, International Human Resource Development, Organizational Development
Executive Director, International Human Resource Development Programs, EAHR,
Texas A&M University, USA.

Graham THURGOOD

English Language Studies, General Linguistics, Discourse and Syntax
California State University, Chico., USA.

Handoyo Puji Widodo

English Language Teaching, ESP, Language Curriculum-Materials Design and Development, and Language Methodology
English Language Center,
Shantou University, China.

John R. SCHERMERHORN Jr.

Management Studies, Management and Organizational Behaviour, International Business
Ohio University, USA.

Kent MATTHEWS

Economics, Banking and Finance, Modelling and Forecasting the Macro Economy
Cardiff Business School, UK.

Lehman B. FLETCHER

Economics, Agricultural Development, Policy Analysis and Planning
Iowa State University, USA.

Mohamed ARIFF

Economics, Finance, Capital Market, Islamic Finance, Fiscal Policy
Sunway University, Malaysia.

Pal AHLUWALIA

African Studies, Social and Cultural Theory, Post-colonial Theory
Pro Vice-Chancellor (Research and Innovation),
University of Portsmouth, UK.

Phillip JONES

Architectural Science, Sustainability in the Built Environment
Welsh School of Architecture,
Cardiff University, UK.

Rance P. L. Lee

Sociology
The Chinese University of Hong Kong, China.

Royal D. COLLE

Communication
Cornell University, USA.

Shonda BUCHANAN

American Literature Interim Chair
Hampton University, USA.

Vijay K. BHATIA

Education: Genre Analysis and Professional Communication
City University of Hong Kong, China.

ABSTRACTING AND INDEXING OF PERTANIKAJOURNALS

Pertanika is almost 40 years old; this accumulated knowledge has resulted in the journals being abstracted and indexed in SCOPUS (Elsevier), Clarivate Analytics [formerly known as Thomson (ISI)] Web of Science™ Core Collection - Emerging Sources Citation Index (ESCI), Web of Knowledge [BIOSIS & CAB Abstracts], EBSCO and EBSCOhost, DOAJ, ERA, Google Scholar, TIB, MyCite, Islamic World Science Citation Center (ISC), ASEAN Citation Index (ACI), Cabell's Directories & Journal Guide.

The publisher of Pertanika will not be responsible for the statements made by the authors in any articles published in the journal. Under no circumstances will the publisher of this publication be liable for any loss or damage caused by your reliance on the advice, opinion or information obtained either explicitly or implied through the contents of this publication.

All rights of reproduction are reserved in respect of all papers, articles, illustrations, etc., published in Pertanika. Pertanika provides free access to the full text of research articles for anyone, web-wide. It does not charge either its authors or author-institution for refereeing/publishing outgoing articles or user-institution for accessing incoming articles.

No material published in Pertanika may be reproduced or stored on microfilm or in electronic, optical or magnetic form without the written authorization of the Publisher.

Copyright © 2018-19 Universiti Putra Malaysia Press. All Rights Reserved.



Pertanika Journal of Social Sciences & Humanities
Vol. 26 (2) Jun. 2018

Contents

Foreword	i
<i>Nayan Deep S. Kanwal</i>	
Review Articles	
The Malay Economy and Exploitation: An Insight into the Past	589
<i>Abdullah Abid, Muhammad Hakimi Mohd Shafiai and Mohd Adib Ismail</i>	
Disclosing HIV Status: Confidentiality, Right to Privacy and Public Interest	601
<i>Sani Ibrahim Salihu, Yuhanif Yusof and Rohizan Halim</i>	
Regular Articles	
Relationship between Organizational Capabilities, Implementation Decision on Target Costing and Organisational Performance: An Empirical Study of Malaysian Automotive Industry	615
<i>Hussein H. Sharaf-Addin, Normah Omar and Suzana Sulaiman</i>	
Charcoal Production and Distribution as a Source of Energy and its Potential Gain for Soil Amendment in Northeast Thailand	643
<i>Butnan, S., Toomsan, B. and Vityakon, P.</i>	
Domains and Indicators of Consumer Legal Literacy in Malaysia	659
<i>Norhaffah, S., Elistina, A. B., Zuroni, M. J., Afida, M. M. A. and Norhasmah, S.</i>	
Re-actualisation of Honesty as a Principle in Human Rights in the Nusantara Constitution	675
<i>Jazim Hamidi</i>	
A Comparative Study on Quality of Life among Youths with and without Disabilities	689
<i>Rohana Jani, Abd Aziz Alias, Nur Fatimah Abdullah Bandar and Ruth Selvaranee Arunasalam</i>	
Factors Influencing the Intention of Kedayan Muslims to Perform the Traditional Culture Associated with Syncretism	705
<i>Ros Aiza Mohd Mokhtar, Aiedah Abdul Khalek, Che Zarrina Sa'ari and Abd Hakim Mohad</i>	
Causal Nexus between Health and Economic Development: Evidence among OIC High-Income Economies	717
<i>Zurina Kefeli, Mohd Azlan Shah Zaidi and Abdul Azeez Oluwanisola Abdul Wahab</i>	

The Impact of Pedagogical Intervention in Developing the Speaking Proficiency of Engineering Students <i>S. Shantha and S. Mekala</i>	735
Impact of Public Expenditures on FDI Inflows into Developing Countries <i>Othman, N., Andaman, G., Yusop, Z. and Ismail, M. M.</i>	751
Perception of Female Students towards Social Media-Related Crimes <i>Suriati Ghazali and Norhayati Mat Ghani</i>	769
The Development of Household Empowerment Index among Rural Household of Pakistan <i>AbRAR-ul-Haq, M., Jali, M. R. M. and Islam, G. M. N.</i>	787
Online-Newspaper Reports of 2015 Nigerian Presidential Election: The Impact of Readers' Comments on Voters <i>Adelakun, Lateef Adekunle</i>	811
Women Competence on Home Gardening to Support Food Diversification <i>Conny Naomi Manoppo, Siti Amanah, Pang S Asngari and Prabowo Tjitropranoto</i>	825
Enhancing Meaningful Learning of Poems Using Edmodo <i>Nagaletchimee Annamalai, Muhammad Kamarul Kabilan and Suraswaran Annamalai</i>	841
Homi K. Bhabha's Concept of Ambivalence in J. M. Coetzee's <i>Disgrace</i> <i>Alireza Farahbakhsh and Rezvaneh Ranjbar Sheykhani</i>	859
Cultural Conceptualisations of Edible Items in Persian <i>Fatemeh Irajzad and Mohsen Kafri</i>	873
The Chaotic English Language Policy and Planning in Bangladesh: Areas of Apprehension <i>Mohammad Mosiur Rahman and Ambigapathy Pandian</i>	893
Teaching News Writing in English: From Genre to Lexicogrammar <i>Tri Wiratno</i>	909
Metaphors in Political Tweets during National Elections <i>Renugah Ramanathan, Tan Bee Hoon and Shamala Paramasivam</i>	929
Marriage Migration: Lived Experience of Foreign Spouses Married to Malaysian Citizens <i>Tedong, P. A., Roslan, K. and Abdul Kadir, A. R.</i>	945
The Diversification Benefits within Islamic Investments: The Case of Malaysia-Based Islamic Equity Investors <i>Nazrul Hazizi Noordin and Buerhan Saiti</i>	961

Survivability through Basic Needs Consumption among Muslim Households B40, M40 and T20 Income Groups <i>Noorhaslinda Kulub Abd. Rashid, Nor Fatimah Che Sulaiman and Nur Afifah Rahizal</i>	985
Topic Sentence Coaching: Keys to Unlock Intricacy of Academic Writing <i>Nahed Ghazzoul</i>	999
Domestication and Foreignization Strategies in Two Arabic Translations of Marlowe's <i>Doctor Faustus</i> : Culture-Bound Terms and Proper Names <i>Ali Badeen Mohammed al-Rikaby, Tengku Sepora Tengku Mahadi and Debbita Tan Ai Lin</i>	1019
The Woman and the Animal in Anita Desai's <i>Cry, The Peacock</i> <i>Gurpreet Kaur</i>	1035
The Quest of Identity in Sophia Kamal's Art Exhibition "WUDU" <i>Ling, C. B. I. and Abdullah, S.</i>	1047
The Perspective of Creative Practitioners on the Use of Social Media Among Creative Arts Students <i>Shanthi Balraj Baboo and Lim Jing Yi</i>	1063
Analysing the English Communication Needs of Service Technicians in the Pest Control Industry <i>Hee, S. C. and Azlin Zaiti Zainal</i>	1079
A Study of the Functional Shift and Lexico-Semantic Variation of the Interjection <i>here</i> in Sri Lankan English Speech <i>Upeksha Jayasuriya</i>	1097
Maggot Therapy and Monstrosity: The Grotesque in Margaret Atwood's <i>The Year of the Flood</i> <i>Ong Li Yuan, Arbaayah Ali Termizi, Nahid Shahbazi Moghadam and Rosli Talif</i>	1111
The Influence of Interactivity on Corporate Cellular Service Quality for Performance Excellence in Jakarta and West Java Provinces <i>Ratih Hurriyati, Lili Adi Wibowo, Tjahjono Djatmiko and Bachtiar H. Simamora</i>	1123
Effect of Organisational Communication and Culture on Employee Motivation and Its Impact on Employee Performance <i>Idris Gautama So, Noerlina, Amanda Aubrey Djunggara, Rehan Fahrobi, Bachtiar H. Simamora and Athapol Ruangkanjanases</i>	1133
Business Strategy Selection Using SWOT Analysis with ANP and Fuzzy TOPSIS for Improving Competitive Advantage <i>Lim Sanny, Bachtiar H. Simamora, Johanes Ronaldy Polla and Jason Lee Atipa</i>	1143

Iran's Social Sciences Issues in Web of Science (WoS): Who Said What? <i>Seyed Mahdi Etemadifard, Hadi Khaniki, Abbas Ghanbari Baghestan and Mehrnoosh Akhtari-Zavare</i>	1159
The Roles of E-Tailer Quality as Antecedent of E-Satisfaction and Its Impact on Customer Attitudinal Loyalty Creation <i>Dyah Budiastuti</i>	1175
An Analysis of the most Consistent Errors in English Composition of Shiraz Medical Students <i>Zahra Momenzade, Laleh Khojasteh and Reza Kafipour</i>	1189
Relationship between Health Care and Tourism Sectors to Economic Growth: The Case of Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand <i>Chan-Fatt Cheah and A. S. Abdul-Rahim</i>	1203
Case Study	
Informal Leadership Learning on the Journey to Headship: A Case Study of National Professional Qualification for Headship Participants in Malaysia <i>Gurcharan Singh Bishen Singh</i>	1215

Foreword

Welcome to our **Second Issue 2018** of the Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities (JSSH)!

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

This issue contains **40 articles**, of which **two** are review articles, **one** case study while the rest are regular research articles. The authors of these articles come from different countries, namely **Malaysia, Saudi Arabia, Yemen, Bahrain, Turkey, Jordan, United Kingdom, Sri Lanka, Nigeria, Thailand, India, Indonesia** and **Iran**.

The first review article in this issue discusses Malay economy and exploitation and insights into its past (*Abidullah Abid, Muhammad Hakimi Mohd Shafiai and Mohd Adib Ismail*) while the second examines effects of HIV status disclosure confidentiality, right to privacy and public interest (*Sani Ibrahim Salihu, Yuhanif Yusof and Rohizan Halim*). The case study in this issue examine the informal leadership learning on the journey to headship: a case study of national professional qualification for headship participants in Malaysia (*Gurcharan Singh Bishen Singh*).

The regular articles cover a wide range of topics. The first is on the relationship between organisational capabilities, implementation decision on target costing and organisational performance: an empirical study of Malaysian automotive industry (*Hussein H. Sharaf-Addin, Normah Omar and Suzana Sulaiman*). The following articles look at the charcoal production and its distribution as a source of energy as well as its potential gain for soil amendment in Northeast Thailand (*Butnan, S., Toomsan, B. and Vityakon, P.*); domains and indicators of consumer legal literacy in Malaysia (*Norhafifah, S., Elistina, A. B., Zuroni, M. J., Afida, M. M. A. and Norhasmah, S.*); re-actualisation of honesty as a principle in human rights in the Nusantara constitution (*Jazim Hamidi*); a comparative study on quality of life among youths with and without disabilities (*Rohana Jani, Abd Aziz Alias, Nur Fatimah Abdullah Bandar and Ruth Selvaranee Arunasalam*); factors influencing the intention of Kedayan Muslims to engage with their traditional culture associated with syncretism (*Mohd Mokhtar, R. A., Abdul Khalek, A., Saari, C. Z. and Mohad, A. H.*); causal nexus between health and economic development: evidence among OIC high-income economies (*Zurina Kefeli, Mohd Azlan Shah Zaidi and Abdul Azeez Oluwanisola Abdul Wahab*); the impact of pedagogical intervention in developing the speaking proficiency of engineering students (*S. Shantha and S. Mekala*); impact of public expenditures on FDI inflows into developing countries (*Othman, N., Andaman, G., Yusop, Z. and Ismail, M. M.*); perception of female students towards social media-related crimes (*Suriati Ghazali and Norhayati Mat Ghani*); the development of household empowerment index among rural household of Pakistan (*Abrar-ul-Haq, M., Jali, M. R. M. and Islam, G. M. N.*);

online-newspaper reports of 2015 Nigerian presidential election: the impact of readers' comments on voters (*Adelakun, Lateef Adegunle*); women's competence on home gardening to support food diversification (*Conny Naomi Manoppo, Siti Amanah, Pang S Asngari and Prabowo Tjitropranoto*); enhancing meaningful learning of poems using Edmodo (*Nagaletchimee Annamalai, Muhammad Kamarul Kabilan and Suraswaran Annamalai*); Homi K. Bhabha's Concept of Ambivalence in J. M. Coetzee's *Disgrace* (*Alireza Farahbakhsh and Rezvaneh Ranjbar Sheykhani*); cultural conceptualisations of edible items in Persian (*Fatemeh Irajzad and Mohsen Kafi*); the chaotic English language policy and planning in Bangladesh: areas of apprehension (*Mohammad Mosiur Rahman and Ambigapathy Pandian*); teaching news writing in English: from genre to lexicogrammar (*Tri Wiratno*); metaphors in political tweets during national elections (*Renugah Ramanathan, Tan Bee Hoon and Shamala Paramasivam*); marriage migration: lived experience of foreign spouses married to Malaysian citizens (*Tedong, P. A., Roslan, K. and Abdul Kadir, A. R.*); the diversification benefits within Islamic investments: the case of Malaysia-based Islamic equity investors (*Nazrul Hazizi Noordin and Buerhan Saiti*); survivability through basic needs consumption among Muslim households B40, M40 and T20 income groups (*Noorhaslinda Kulub Abd. Rashid, Nor Fatimah Che Sulaiman and Nur Afifah Rahizal*); topic sentence coaching: keys to unlock intricacy of academic writing (*Nahed Ghazzoul*); domestication and foreignisation strategies in two Arabic translations of Marlowe's *doctor Faustus*: culture-bound terms and proper names (*Ali Badeen Mohammed al-Rikaby, Tengku Sepora Tengku Mahadi and Debbita Tan Ai Lin*); the woman and the animal in Anita Desai's *cry, the peacock* (*Gurpreet Kaur*); the quest of identity in Sophia Kamal's art exhibition "WUDU" (*Ling, C. B. I. and Abdullah, S.*); the perspective of creative practitioners on the use of social media among creative arts students (*Shanthi Balraj Baboo and Lim Jing Yi*); analysing the English communication needs of service technicians in the pest control industry (*Hee, S. C. and Azlin Zaiti Zainal*); a study of the functional shift and lexico-semantic variation of the interjection *here* in Sri Lankan English speech (*Upeksha Jayasuriya*); maggot therapy and monstrosity: the grotesque in Margaret Atwood's *the year of the flood* (*Ong Li Yuan, Arbaayah Ali Termizi, Nahid Shahbazi Moghadam and Rosli Talif*); the influence of interactivity on corporate cellular service quality for performance excellence in Jakarta and West Java provinces (*Ratih Hurriyati, Lili Adi Wibowo, Tjahjono Djatmiko and Bachtiar H. Simamora*); effect of organisational communication and culture on employee motivation and its impact on employee performance (*Idris Gautama So, Noerlina, Amanda Aubrey Djunggara, Rehan Fahrobi, Bachtiar H. Simamora and Athapol Ruangkanjanases*); business strategy selection using SWOT analysis with ANP and fuzzy TOPSIS for improving competitive advantage (*Lim Sanny, Bachtiar H. Simamora, Johanes Ronaldy Polla and Jason Lee Atipa*); Iran's social sciences issues in web of science (WOS): who said what? (*Seyed Mahdi Etemadifard, Hadi Khaniki, Abbas Ghanbari Baghestan and Mehrnoosh Akhtari-Zavare*);

the roles of e-tailer quality as antecedent of e-satisfaction and its impact on customer attitudinal loyalty creation (*Dyah Budiastuti*); an analysis of the most consistent errors in English composition of Shiraz medical students (*Zahra Momenzade, Laleh Khojasteh and Reza Kafipour*); and the relationship between health care, tourism and economic growth: the case of Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand (*Chan-Fatt Cheah and A. S. Abdul-Rahim*).

We believe this issue would be intriguing, thought-provoking and useful in reaching new milestones. We would be grateful if you recommend the journal to your colleagues and students to make this endeavour more meaningful.

All the papers published in this edition underwent Pertanika's stringent peer-review process involving a minimum of two reviewers comprising internal as well as external referees. This was to ensure that the quality of the papers justified the high ranking of the journal, which is renowned as a heavily-cited journal not only by authors and researchers in Malaysia but by those in other countries around the world as well.

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

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

Chief Executive Editor

Nayan Deep S. KANWAL, FRSA, ABIM, AMIS, Ph.D.
nayan@upm.my



Review Article

The Malay Economy and Exploitation: An Insight into the Past

Abidullah Abid^{1*}, Muhammad Hakimi Mohd Shafai² and Mohd Adib Ismail²

¹*Institute Islam Hadhari, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, 43600 UKM, Bangi, Selangor, Malaysia*

²*School of Economics, Faculty of Economics and Management, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, 43600 UKM, Bangi, Selangor, Malaysia*

ABSTRACT

Numerous studies have discussed the political and economic history of Malaya with an emphasis on British economic exploitation, but with little focus on the economic exploitation of Malay rulers before the colonial era. This paper is a qualitative study exploring the economic exploitation of Malay rulers before the arrival of the British using content analysis of secondary data. The study finds that the exploitation of Malays started during the time of the Malay Sultanates when Arabs, Indians and Chinese arrived as traders and middlemen. The rulers of the pre-colonial era gave preference to foreigners over locals, and this practice confined locals to low-wage activities. The economic isolation was magnified during British rule and economic policy. After independence, the Malay economy improved due to the efforts of the nationalist political parties in implementing the New Economic Policy.

Keywords: Economic exploitation, peasants, Malays, rubber plantation, tin mining

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received: 13 May 2016

Accepted: 06 March 2018

E-mail addresses:

abidullah@siswa.ukm.edu.my (Abidullah Abid)

hakimi@ukm.edu.my (Muhammad Hakimi Mohd Shafai)

mohadis@ukm.edu.my (Mohd Adib Ismail)

*Corresponding author

INTRODUCTION

The history of any nation is replete with lessons. These lessons play important roles in plotting the correct growth path of a nation. Although the history of the Malays in Malaysia in terms of exploitation and political revival has been vastly documented (see Alatas, 1977; Husin Ali, 2008; Milner, 2008; Mohamad, 2008), in contrast, the economic history and exploitation of Malays

has been largely ignored (see Khalid 2014; Maruf 1988; Shamsul 1997). These studies have focussed on the economic exploitation perpetrated by the British while failing to acknowledge the conditions of the Malay economy during the Malay Sultanates. The Malays were economically prosperous (Mohamad, 2008). However, with the arrival of foreigners prior to the colonial period, the Malay rulers side-lined locals from economic activity and showed preference to foreigners (Shamsul, 1997).

In studying this issue, sources from local and foreign authors were reviewed to construct a fair and balanced view of the then state of affairs. Content analysis was applied to test our concept of the economic exploitation of Malays. For this purpose, the research articles, books and blogs were selected carefully so that authentic conclusions could be drawn. Codes were generated to be tested using the data. These codes were tested for consistency with the secondary data used in the study. During the analysis of the data, several codes were generated from which the findings and conclusions were drawn.

ECONOMIC EXPLOITATION AND MARGINALISATION OF MALAYS

In this study, “economic marginalisation” refers to the exclusion of Malays from the pre-colonial and colonial economy. The pre-colonial economy was controlled by the Malay rulers, whereas the colonial economy was under British control. The pre-colonial economy was less monetised, and most economic transactions were

based on the barter system. The overall monetisation of the economic system occurred during British rule. However, all the economic developments that occurred during British rule marginalised the Malays from participating in the main economic activities (Shamsul, 1997).

This section examines the exclusion of Malays from the main economic activities in two stages. The first stage highlights the discrimination of Malays perpetrated by their rulers, while the second stage highlights the restriction of Malays to the peasant economy by the British.

Limiting the Economic Freedom of Malays in the Pre-Colonial Era

The real transformation of Malays as a nation can be traced to the arrival of Parameswara in Malacca in 1402 C.E. He and his followers moved from Palembang, Indonesia to Malacca, which he transformed into the main trade hub in the peninsula. When Parameswara and his followers arrived in Malacca, they were able to build an economic hub. Parameswara promoted trade further by building strong relationships with the Chinese ruler of the Ming Dynasty. They promoted the trade of spices, tin and textiles. Arab and Indian traders also started arriving in Malacca, which they found to be a strategic port for trade with China during the reign of Parameswara (Husin Ali, 2008). The traders, who were mostly Arabs, Indians and Chinese, were paying a 10% tax to the ruler. The Chinese arrived in Malacca in a small number at first. When they saw the potential of trade and other opportunities of

earning, bigger numbers of their countrymen began to arrive.

Malacca's economy flourished, and agriculture activities were promoted as they yielded significant tax income. However, these taxes were mostly used for the rulers' benefit (Husin Ali, 2008). There was no benefit from those taxes for the common man as it was not meant to benefit the public. The Rajas then started giving preference to the traders as they were instruments for increasing their profits. They gave them more influence. This was a time of economic boom for Malacca. The arrival of these groups diversified the society in Malacca, which remained under the control and influence of the Malays.

The Malay Sultanates of Kedah, Kelantan and Malacca were economically prosperous before the arrival of the colonial powers. There was an established internal and external trade system with a good marketing and transportation system for locally produced goods (Mohamad, 2008). However, the same period marked the beginning of the economic exploitation of Malays by the Malay ruling class in the shape of *corvé* or forced slavery. During the rule of the sultanate before the arrival of the British, three types of slave could be found, namely royal slaves, debt slaves and permanent slaves. Royal slaves were not paid, and only food and clothing were provided to them. In fact, the rulers did not like their people, the *rakyat*, because of their low skills in economic activities and instead of helping them advance in such skills, the rulers neglected the *rakyat* (Gullick, 1958).

The arrival of Arab and Indian traders also transformed the economy by making it more sophisticated. Realising the potential of the market, the traders started marrying locals, a practice that strengthened their market influence. Their behaviour and economic savvy won them the trust of the Sultans and endeared them to the public, who accepted them into Malay society. Their fair dealings won the confidence of the society and made them trusted middlemen who facilitated the exchange of goods and services from the suppliers to the consumers (Mohamad, 2008). The Sultans' trust of the foreign traders over the locals marked the beginning of the decline of the economic strength of the Malays.

The second stage of exploitation of the Malays started when the Rajas began to prefer having the Chinese as trade agents, a trend that was magnified by the European invaders. When the Portuguese and later the Dutch conquered Malacca, the Chinese became their right hand in providing useful information regarding the people, the Rajas and the economy. The Europeans trusted the Chinese more than other groups, and as a reward for their service, the Chinese were allowed to expand their trade activities and more Chinese were permitted residence in Malacca. This marked a long and systematic campaign to marginalise the Malays and reduce their influence. By the time Malacca fell to the British as a result of the Anglo-Dutch Treaty in 1824, the only activity of the Malays was agriculture, while the Chinese and other foreigners were traders and merchants. The British put an end to

slavery, and the economy expanded rapidly. However, it was the British who benefitted from the economic development of Malacca, not the Malays, who benefitted the least.

The British Rule in the Peninsula

British history in Malaya does not start with the leasing of Penang. The British were using Dutch ports in the Malay Archipelago even before 1786. The closest British base to the East was India. However, the Dutch had a number of ports from the Straits of Malacca to the smallest islands in the Far East. This disadvantaged British trade. To gain access to the Eastern market, their trade ships had to use Dutch ports, and in return, the Dutch charged a handsome amount for the services. Due to the high transportation costs, the demand for British products was affected, and it became urgent for the British to have control of the ports in the Malay Archipelago. Francis Light, an ex-naval lieutenant, was in charge of merchant ships travelling to the East. Around 1772, he wrote several letters to his company in Madras, India proposing taking hold of Penang as a port before the Dutch excluded them from trade. However, there was no response from the higher authorities (Li, 1955) until 1786, when the Court of Directors acted upon Francis Light's recommendation. Penang was then obtained from Sultan Abdullah, the Sultan of Kedah, in 1786 (Yaakop, 2010). The Sultan of Kedah leased this piece of land, the island of Penang, to Francis Light, who was acting on behalf of the British East India Company (BEIC). This possession created a stronghold for the British in the

territory to provide a safe route for trade not only for the British India Company (BIC) but also for BEIC.

In 1819, the British influence was extended to Singapore with the help of Sir Stamford Raffles. By supporting the rival claimant in Johore to the throne, he was able to secure an agreement with the Sultan of Johore according to which Singapore was ceded to the British Empire (Li, 1955). During the Napoleonic wars, the British took control of Malacca from the Dutch; however, at the Congress of Vienna in 1815, it was returned. Though due to the importance of Singapore for trade, Malacca lost its influence. This prompted the Dutch to exchange Malacca for a small portion of the British colonies in Sumatera as a result of the Anglo-Dutch Treaty of 1824 (Li, 1955; Mills, 1961).

Malaya's interior was seen as an opportunity for the British due to the inter-state wars between the chiefs of the states. The British played the role of negotiator in the State of Perak, where a war was raging between the claimant and the possessor. The British supported the claimant to the throne and in return, extended their influence to the State by recruiting British officers to assist the ruler. The same transpired in Selangor, and British officers were recruited as advisers to the Selangor ruler. Similarly, British influence was extended to Negri Sembilan in 1874 and Pahang in 1888. These states were later federated, and a Resident-General was appointed to oversee the activities of the four states; the Resident-General reported to the Governor

of the Straits Settlements. All the four states agreed to follow the advice provided by the Resident-General in administrative matters, with the exception of religious matters. Kedah, Kelantan, Terengganu and Perlis were vassal states of Siam until 1909. However, these states were given to the British after a series of agreements between both parties. The state of Johore was already under the protection of the British and by 1909 accepted a British adviser to the ruler.

Malaya's Economy

Malaya's economy flourished during British rule as the exports of tin and rubber to Europe made up the major segment of total trade. The data in Table 1 offer an idea of trade expansion in the Federated States of Malaya. Trade recorded an expansionary pattern from 1895 to 1925. Total trade after 1925 decreased due to the economic recession in 1929.

Table 1
Total trade at the time of British rule

Year	Imports (USD)	Exports (USD)	Total Trade (USD)
1895	22,635,271	31,622,805	54,276,076
1900	38,402,581	60,361,045	98,763,626
1905	50,575,455	80,057,654	130,633,109
1910	53,255,151	102,851,990	156,107,141
1915	60,015,935	181,838,118	221,854,053
1920	170,522,123	288,715,698	459,237,821
1925	137,116,207	411,878,610	548,994,817
1930	168,020,418	213,652,044	381,672,976
1935	87,102,149	186,770,827	273,872,976
1938	123,380,927	174,804,222	298,185,149

Source: (Li, 1955)

The beneficiaries of this trade were the British and other European nations supported by the British. Malaya was considered the "dollar arsenal" of the British because of the revenue it generated (Li, 1955). The British drafted several treaties with the Sultans of the different states that effectively gave them control over trade. The power of the ruler of each state faded over time as their control over their internal trade diminished. The produce of these states was eventually

sold to the British because of their control over exports. In the short run, it was an outstanding era for Malaya in terms of economic prosperity, with growth being observed in almost all the states. However, in the long run, this development created a multiracial society in which inequalities were escalated in both the economic and political spheres (Baker, 2008).

The two golden birds of the British economy were tin and rubber. The tin

industry, which was the major source of revenue for the British in the 19th century, started even before the arrival of British (Harris, 1940). The major beneficiary of tin was China, but in the mid-19th century, the demand grew exponentially due to the new uses for tin that were found in the West. Before the industrial revolution in the West, the tin industry was in the hands of the Chinese. However, when the British realised the potential of this industry, they started to encroach on the Chinese share of the market, as can be seen from studying Table 2.

Table 2
The share of the Europeans and the Chinese in tin mining

Year	European Mines	Chinese Mines
1910	22%	78%
1915	28%	72%
1920	36%	64%
1925	44%	56%
1930	63%	37%
1935	66%	34%
1937	68%	32%

Source: (Li 1955)

The British did not use direct force to take away the mining share from the Chinese; instead, they updated their technology, which decreased the cost per *picul* (*picul* is a Chinese weight unit that is approximately equal to 133 pounds). The Chinese were using old technology, which cost them USD63.11 per *picul*, whereas the British cost per *picul* was USD33.34 with the adoption of new technology. This led the Chinese miners to sell their business to the

British because of the ensuing series of losses incurred (Li, 1955).

When the demand for rubber was observed in Europe due to the popularisation of rubber bicycle tyres and the evolution brought about by Henry Ford in the automobile industry, the British in Malaya rushed to shift their attention to rubber. For commercial purposes, rubber was first planted in Malacca in 1895 by the Chinese, Tan Chay Yan. After seven years of the first plantation, approximately 16,000 acres of land were cultivated for rubber. The manpower in the rubber estate was mostly Indian as the Malays were confined to producing day-to-day consumable agriculture-based products.

During the first 30 years of British rule, the agricultural activities of the Malays revolved around subsistence paddy and *kampong* cultivation. During that time, for these peasants, the main purpose of paddy cultivation was to fulfil the needs of their family. Hence, they were not focussed on producing a surplus that could be sold in the market. In 1912, when the demand for rubber was high, the need for labour increased. One option for the British was to utilise Malay labour for this purpose. However, it was not feasible as the British wanted to reduce their dependence on importing paddy from neighbouring states. Secondly, the British believed that the Malays would run away from the work if their family in the villages forced them to do so. Such expectations of the Chinese and Indians were minimal as they had nowhere to escape to. That is why the Malays worked

only as temporary waged labour for clearing jungles rather than permanent waged labour in plantations and tin mines. In fact, they wanted to avoid working in the mines and rubber estates, where the labourers were treated inhumanely, and felt that they were better off pursuing agricultural activities (Alatas, 1977).

In order to overcome the shortage of labourers, agents were given the task of recruiting labourers under indenture from South India. Under the indenture, a cash advance was offered to the labourers that required him or her to work for a specific master until the advance amount was paid from his wages (Hagan & Wells, 2005). These labourers were brought to Malaya, where they worked in rubber plantations. However, they quickly realised that the amount they were paid was far below the market price. Hence, most of them ran away from their masters to other states, where they were rewarded with far better wages than those offered by the British. In order to overcome this issue, a proposal was made, according to which the labourers would be paid wages and would be free to leave. Hence, more labourers were hired from South India and brought to the British rubber estates to work in rubber plantations (Hagan & Wells, 2005; Netto, 1961).

In the first decade of the 20th century, the peasants realised the value of producing rubber, and started cultivation. This development was fruitful as it created a number of beneficial spread effects. However, when the British felt that this development may deviate the peasants from

paddy farming, they banned them from rubber production. This ban was carried out for more than 20 years but was partially effective as it was a profitable activity while the peasants were still engaged in it. Malay peasants were confined to 91,000 acres of land that produced low-quality latex (Drabble, 1991). The Malays were planting rubber trees parallel to coffee plantations in order to increase their income. However, due to their minimal knowledge and technology, they were unable to produce quality latex.

In the next 20 years, the plantations expanded to two million acres in Malaya. The production of rubber increased by millions of tonnes and generated millions of dollars of revenue due to the high demand in the West (Sandhu, 1969). The production of rubber in British Malaya was more than half of the rubber produced globally. In 1927, total global rubber production was estimated at 604 million tonnes, of which Malaya was producing 344 million tonnes (Baker, 2008; Li, 1955). The number of foreign coolies then outclassed the local coolies, and by 1929, the rubber companies were employing about 258,000 coolies, of whom about 85% were Indians, a few were Chinese and a significantly low number were Malays. By 1938, the British were holding a large area of land with 1.53 million acres under rubber cultivation. The Chinese were the second, holding 322,641 acres and the Indians, 87,795 acres.

In observing British rule and economy, the British can be seen to have exploited local resources without passing on economic benefits to the Malays. Much of the benefit

was derived by the colonial power and distributed among the foreigners. The locals were confined to paddy farming, where the profit margins were minimal compared with tin mining and rubber cultivation.

ACCOUNTABILITY FOR MALAY ECONOMIC EXPLOITATION

As discussed earlier, the economic exploitation of the Malays was started by the local rulers. When the Malays transitioned from barter economy to trade economy in the 19th century, the ruling class took maximum advantage of the change. Compared with their subjects, they had money generated from taxes and other commercial activities. The ruling class could have involved the local community in economic activities, and this would have helped the Malays adapt to the new economic environment. However, instead of promoting the locals, the British gave preference to foreigners due to their economic savviness.

Due to the trade control of the foreigners of the economic resources of the rulers, the locals were left to work for daily wages rather than to work as traders. The income they generated in the form of wages was only enough for their daily consumption. It could not produce a sufficient surplus that they could sell in the market to generate revenue. The lack of trust among the local chiefs towards the Malays prevented them from providing financial assistance for surplus generating activities. According to the ruling class, the locals were not good at managing money and were unaware of the new economic market. This resulted in the

dominance of foreigners and the ruling class in the business sector, while the locals were left in the vicious circle of poverty.

Economic transition started in the second half of the 19th century when the West invented new uses for rubber. With the increase in the demand for rubber and tin in the West, the British started to take charge of these markets. As discussed earlier, the British preferred to have Indians working in the rubber plantation as they wanted to limit the Malay peasants to paddy cultivation. However, tin mining was under the control of the Chinese due to previous treaties with the rulers. Later, the British took control of the majority of tin production along with its supply chain.

In order to promote paddy cultivation among the Malay peasants, a number of loan schemes were started by the governments of the respective states in the late 19th and early 20th century. However, they did not initially attract the Malay peasants due to the strict terms and conditions of these schemes. Also, the loan amount was quite small. The majority of those who availed themselves of the facility failed to repay the loans. However, the majority of the Malay peasants preferred to take loans from non-conventional money lenders. These money lenders disbursed large amounts of loans, for which many had to mortgage their land as collateral. Many of the Malay peasants lost their property as they were unable to repay their loans due to damage to crops or other financial difficulties.

The situation of the Malay peasants remained the same until the Second World

War. Help from the rulers could not be expected, and the rulers of both the federated and un-federated states in Malaya were acting upon the advice of the British government and were not interested in changing the economic situation of the Malays. They remained in the cycle of poverty for a long time due to little effort from the rulers and the British to lift them of the vicious cycle. In this situation, the need for political parties began to be seen to provide a voice for the Malays, the majority of whom were vulnerable, and to win them their rights.

THE REVIVAL OF MALAY POLITICAL ECONOMY

Before the Japanese occupation, the Malays were deprived of establishing a political party or organisation on a pan-Malayan magnitude. However, the events that occurred in the early 1940s pushed the British to galvanise the Malays into forming political organisations in order to gain support *in lieu* of the Malayan Union initiative of 1945. The creation of the Malayan Union was the first step in amalgamating the federated and unfederated states along with the Straits Settlements (except Singapore) into one union (Noh, 2010). Secondly, the proposal aimed to provide a stronghold for the British over Malaya's economy. Thirdly, and most importantly, it aimed to provide equal partnership arrangement between the British and the Malays. However, the United Malay National Organisation (UMNO) succeeded in replacing the Malaya Union initiative

with a form of a Malayan Federation by pressuring the Malay rulers (Noh, 2010). Another challenge of the pro-Malay political party was to strengthen Malay economy because the Malays were the poorest of all other races in Malaya. There were severe economic inequalities among the races both at intra-group and inter-group levels that needed to be addressed (Baker, 2008). The Malays were mostly linked with agriculture; hence, urgent attention was needed to establish institutions that could assist the rural Malays.

In order to answer these issues, the Chief Ministers of Johor, Kelantan and Selangor pressured the British government to help the rural Malay community. In response to their efforts, RIDA (Rural Industrial Development Authority) was established by the British government in 1950 and was legally incorporated as a government body in 1953. The sole purpose of RIDA was to provide help for the neglected rural small and medium Malay entrepreneurs to attain capital and skills in order to expand their business or to be a part of the buying and trading shares business (Gomez, 1997; Shamsul, 1997). RIDA was provided with a lot of funds and responsibility for promoting Malays. However, the efforts were mostly unsuccessful (Gomez, 1997). Golay (1969) noted that of the loans provided to the newly initiated enterprises and repayments, the performance of RIDA was the most modest. On the other hand, the capital loans that served as revolving credit fund ended up immobilised in illiquid loans.

When the first Five Year Malaya Plan 1956-60 was launched, another semi-government body, FELDA (Federal Land Development Authority), was set up in order to help poor Malays farmers by providing them with land for cultivating cash crops, mainly rubber and palm oil (Gomez, 1997). To achieve this goal, 250,000 hectares of land were given to the people in almost 150 FELDA schemes. However, many families were neglected. For instance, only 20,700 families were settled under this scheme from 1956 to 1970 (Kasper, 1974).

The Malay-orientated policies were not only limited to these two schemes. For instance, in the 1960s, the quota system was introduced for Malays in issuing business licences, employment and education. Furthermore, steps were taken to increase the ownership of Malays in the corporate sector. For this purpose, a special investment company, Syarikat Permodalan Kebangsaan (SPK), was set up in 1961 to act on behalf of the Malays. However, the share acquisition in the corporate sector remained insignificant, while in the public sector only a few of the shares reserved for the Malays were acquired due to the lack of funds (Horii, 1991).

In the mid-1960s, Malay entrepreneurs voiced their economic interest and succeeded in attracting government attraction. As a result, the first Bumiputera Conference was held in 1965, followed by the second Bumiputera Conference in 1968. Both conferences ended with strategies for establishing the institutional structure for the enhancement of Malay capitalist

enterprise (Shamsul, 1997). The racial riots of 1969 were a blessing in disguise for the nationalists. It provided them with a platform for developing pro-Malay economic agenda as it was necessary to minimise the income gap and poverty between the races. For instance, poverty incidence in 1970 was quite high among the Malays, nearly 90% of whom were earning less than RM100, and no Malays were earning above RM3,000 (Khalid, 2014; Khoo, 2005).

In response, an affirmative action policy, namely the New Economic Policy (NEP), was introduced in 1971. The main aim was to restructure society and alleviate poverty. The policy focussed on creating a successful Bumiputera economy and a period of almost two decades was set for achieving the goals of the NEP (i.e. 1971-1990). After the completion of the policy, many goals were achieved i.e. poverty had been alleviated, employment opportunities had been created and importantly, a new middle and rich income class were created among the Malays (Shamsul, 1997). The policy also created some problems such as the creation of a politically strong middle-class who used their links to secure government projects to benefit themselves rather than the poor.

CONCLUSION

The history of Malaysia is incomplete without mentioning the past economic prosperity of Malacca. The Arab and Indian traders were first to stop at Malacca before making their way to China, bringing tax duties to the economy. However, this

economic prosperity was limited to the ruling class, while the *rakyat* was economically suppressed. This suppression was magnified by the Portuguese, Dutch and later British, who used the land for their own benefit by exploiting the local population. The major economic activities were in the hands of the colonial powers and the Chinese, whereas the locals were concentrated in the agricultural sector. Tin mining was the first big-scale economic activity that was availed by the Chinese from the local rulers and politicians. The revenue was enjoyed by these two parties without benefitting the local population. The misery of the Malays multiplied when the British arrived and arrested control of tin mining as well as rubber estates and employed more Chinese and Indian manpower. The Malays were not only side-lined from the main activities but also confined to agricultural activities through a ban by the British on cultivating rubber.

Malay prosperity started after independence when different schemes were introduced to help rural Malays. The major positive impact on the Malay economy was observed after the implementation of the NEP, which provided special quotas for the Bumiputera community not only in the economic sector but also in the education sector. A new rich and middle class of Malays arose as the product of the policy, and they are currently playing a major role in the economy. This study has opened the doors for further research into the lessons that Malays learnt from their past

exploitation so that such exploitation can be avoided in the future.

REFERENCES

- Alatas, H. (1977). *The myth of the lazy native: A study of the image of the Malays, Filipinos and Javanese from the 16th to the 20th century and its function in the ideology of colonial capitalism*. London: Frank Cass.
- Baker, J. (2008). *Crossroads: A popular history of Malaysia and Singapore*. Singapore, Tarrytown, N.Y.: Marshall Cavendish.
- Drabble, J. (1991). *Malayan rubber: The interwar years*. Houndmills Basingstoke Hampshire: Macmillan Academic and Professional.
- Golay, F. (1969). *Underdevelopment and economic nationalism in Southeast Asia*. New York: Cornell University Press.
- Gomez, E. (1997). *Malaysia's political economy: Politics, patronage, and profits*. Cambridge, New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Gullick, J. M. (1958). *Indigenous political systems of Western Malaya*. London: The Athlone Press.
- Hagan, J., & Wells, A. (2005). The British and rubber in Malaya, c1890-1940. In G. Patmore, J. Shield, & N. Balnave (Eds.), *The past is before us* (pp. 143–150). Sydney.
- Harris, H. (1940). *Mining in Malaya*. London: Malayan Information Agency.
- Horii, K. (1991). *An analysis and appraisal on Malaysia's new economic policy, 1971-90*. Japan: Institute of Developing Economies.
- Husin Ali, S. (2008). *The Malays, their problems and future*. Kuala Lumpur: The Other Press.
- Kasper, W. (1974). *Malaysia: A study in successful economic development*. Washington: American Enterprise Institute for Public Policy Research.

- Khalid, M. A. (2014). *The colour of inequality*. Petaling Jaya: MPH Group Publishing Sdn Bhd.
- Khoo, B. T. (2005). *Ethnic structure, inequality and governance in the public sector: Malaysian experiences*. UNRISD.
- Li, D. (1955). *British Malaya: An economic analysis*. New York: American Press.
- Maruf, S. (1988). *Malay ideas on development: From feudal lord to capitalist*. Singapore: Times Books International.
- Mills, L. (1961). *British Malaya, 1824-67*. Singapore: Nanyang Printers.
- Milner, A. (2008). *The Malays*. Oxford: Wiley-Blackwell Publishers.
- Mohamad, M. (2008). *The Malay dilemma: With a new preface*. Singapore: Marshall Cavendish Editions.
- Netto, G. (1961). *Indians in Malaya – Historical facts and figures*. Singapore.
- Noh, A. (2010). *Small steps, big outcome: A historical institutional analysis of Malaysia's political economy*. Working Paper No. 164. Perth.
- Sandhu, K. (1969). *Indians in Malaya: Some aspects of their immigration and settlement (1786-1957)*. London: Cambridge U.P.
- Shamsul, A. (1997). The economic dimension of Malay nationalism – The socio-historical roots of the new economic policy and its contemporary implications. *The Developing Economies*, 3(September), 240–261. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1746-1049.1997.tb00847.x>
- Yaakop, M. R. M. (2010). The British legacy on the development of politics in Malaya. *International Journal for Historical Studies*, 2(1), 41–60.

Review Article

Disclosing HIV Status: Confidentiality, Right to Privacy and Public Interest

Sani Ibrahim Salihu*, Yuhanif Yusof and Rohizan Halim

School of Law, UUM College of Law, Government and International Studies, Universiti Utara Malaysia, 06010 UUM, Sintok, Kedah, Malaysia

ABSTRACT

Generally, privacy is a universally recognised human rights. In a medical setting, all patients have a right to privacy, while doctors have a corresponding duty. Doctors are entrusted with medical records or information of patients under their care. The information could be disclosed by the patient himself, created or generated by the doctors. Although this is a common law principle, sometimes it conflicts with the public interest and duty to warn a third party. However, health-related laws in Nigeria do not have an adequate provision ensuring the safeguard and protection of this rule, nor provide reconciliation where there is such conflict, like in the case of disclosing HIV status to spouses. The objective of this paper is to examine the law and the rules of medical practice on nondisclosure of a patient's confidential record, with reference to doctors' duty to keep confidential all information about their patient and the public interest, especially their HIV status. Doctrinal research method is used to study both primary and secondary legal resources. Reference may be made to other jurisdictions. The scope of the paper is limited to the provision of the legal framework regulating doctor-patient relationship in Nigeria. More than half of the HIV patients do

not disclose their status to their spouses, and there is a conflict between patients' right to privacy and public interest not to allow the spread of the viruses/ diseases due to nondisclosure principles. Hence, a need to have a legal framework to bridge this gap.

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received: 15 September 2016

Accepted: 26 February 2018

E-mail addresses:

sisalihu.pcl@buk.edu.ng (Sani Ibrahim Salihu)

yuhanif@uum.edu.my (Yuhanif Yusof)

rohizan@uum.edu.my (Rohizan Halim)

*Corresponding author

Keywords: Confidentiality, Privacy, HIV, Non-Disclosure, rules of medical practices

INTRODUCTION

There was a story where a physician who diagnosed his patient with Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV) positive and put the patient on drugs, found out about the wedding of the patient (he was not sure of her health status). There are many questions the physician need to consider before he attempts disclosure: Can he disclose such information to avoid the spread of the virus? Does he have a duty to disclose it? What are the consequences of disclosing such confidential information?

There was another story of a married man with three wives who was HIV positive unknown to his co-wives and their children. How can physicians caution the wives without disclosure, or will disclosure tantamount to a breach of duty on confidentiality, or can the defence of public interest save the physician from the wrath of law?

It is the aim of this paper to discuss the conflict between individual interest and public interest (Health), to sensitise policy makers about the implication of leaving these challenges unattended to. The paper examines conflicting issues of privacy, confidentiality and the doctor's duty to protect public health.

The general rule is that physician must maintain patient confidentiality, namely any information received, disclosed to them by the patient or acquired in the process of his official duty, which can only be disclosed with the written consent of the patient (Eisenhardt et al., 2006). At the same time, the doctor has a duty to protect

and safeguard society from the spread of any communicable disease (Hiriscou, et al., 2014). This is a clear case of conflict of duties on one hand and the right to privacy/confidentiality on the other. This is indeed a dilemma especially if the doctor reveals the status of his patient which can be construed as a misconduct in a professional respect contrary to medical ethics (rules 44 Code of Ethics, 2004). The doctor may also be sued for breach of doctor-patient privilege, breach of confidential doctor-patient relationship, invasion of privacy, and intentional or negligent infliction of emotional distress (Hiriscou et al., 2014). However, if a physician fails to disclose this information to a third party, he could be sued for failure to warn, intentional or negligent infliction of emotional distress in some developed countries (Edwards, 2014). It is high time a legal framework is developed to offer justification for disclosure and to define instances that may be termed as public interest.

POSITION IN SOME SELECTED JURISDICTION

In United States, for example, studies have shown that 30 out of 50 states have laws criminalising HIV exposure, despite the fact the laws have no effect in preventing spread of HIV (Sweeney Patricia, 2017), yet some states make laws allowing physicians to disclose HIV status under certain circumstances ("HIV and Confidentiality your legal right," 2014). In California, physicians have a duty to warn a third party from the clear or imminent danger of HIV

infection (Edwards, 2014), which, in this regard will be warning the spouse or sex partner of dangers of HIV infection through the other partner. The implication of this law is that a doctor will not be in violation of medical ethics or human rights laws. In Michigan, for example, failure to disclose HIV status to a partner is a felony which carries four or more years of imprisonment and is not a defence if any contraceptives are used to avoid infection (Galletly & Dickson-Gomez, 2009). But the Supreme Court of Canada in 2012 (R v. Mabior, 2012) ruled that anybody living with HIV who fails to disclose his or her status to a partner before intercourse with some degree of certainty for infection could face criminal charges. The ruling is different from the law in Michigan where contraceptive cannot be a defence to criminal charges for having sex with a HIV positive partner. Based on this decision, use of maximum protection like condom can be a defence to such criminal liability (R. v D.C., 2012). India has since adopted the Michigan law under section 269 and 270 of the Indian Penal Code (*India Penal Code Act No 45 1860*). The law made it an offence if anybody deliberately or negligently conducts himself in a manner likely to spread the infection of a dangerous disease. According to this law, couples with HIV positive status will be forced to keep away from their partners even if they did not disclose their status. This law will assist in preventing the spread of the virus without the breach of confidentiality rules and doctors will be saved from breaching

their professional ethics and code of medical conduct.

In South Africa, protecting the confidentiality of a patient with HIV status is recognised in the constitution to show its importance (*Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996*). A physician must keep confidential the HIV status of his or her patient and it shall not be disclosed without the consent of the patient. However, to circumvent the breach of confidentiality rules, the South African National Health Act provides an exception in cases where non-disclosure of a patient's personal health information would pose a serious threat to public health (S.14 National Health Act, 2003). It must be noted that most jurisdictions provide exceptions to the rule on confidentiality, but the problem is a failure to define a situation where such exceptions could apply. Therefore, there is a need for Nigeria to revisit its laws on patient confidentiality and disclosure relating to HIV positive patients and to make necessary amendments by examining the laws in different countries.

An Analysis of Relevant Laws on Right to Privacy in Doctor-Patient Relation

This section analyses relevant laws that have specific provisions regarding privacy generally and see how they can assist in protecting and safeguarding patient right to privacy and confidentiality, as well as provide the solution for failure to disclose HIV status. However, it is important to note the differences between privacy

and confidentiality. According to World Health Organisation (WHO), privacy is the power of a patient to exercise control over information received from him by doctors. In other words, it relates to a right not to be physically exposed without somebody's consent while confidentiality refers to a duty imposed on any person having information of another not to disclose without the consent of the patient. Confidentiality is a mechanism through which patient's privacy is protected (*Universal Declaration of Human right*, 1984).

International Human Rights Law on nondisclosure. Right to privacy is a basic human right that is guaranteed and protected under international human rights law. It is provided under the Universal Declaration of Human Rights UDHR (*Universal Declaration of Human right*, 1984) that no one shall be subjected to arbitrary interference with his privacy, family, home, or correspondence, nor attacks on his honour and reputation (Bessler, 2008). This instrument is fundamentally the main source where all human rights principles derive their protection. It is followed by Article 17 (Bessler, 2008) of The International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, which is built on the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. The Covenant is an enforceable law in Nigeria as domesticated by virtue of section 12 of the 1999 Constitution. This position is also followed by other human rights instruments including International Covenant on Economic, Social, and Cultural Rights

(CESCR 1966), the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW 1979), these among other instruments have recognised the right to privacy as a basic human right relating to health care. According to WHO, majority of the countries in the world have signed at least one of these instruments. However, unless these instruments are signed and adopted in the respective state, the latter is not bound by the provision of the convention. All the above international human rights instruments make provision for privacy, and we have seen how the WHO draws a line of demarcation between the two, but where absolute adherence to the provision of this instrument may put the life of the public in danger, for example, compliance with privacy and confidentiality rule and the prevention of the spread of HIV, the instruments are silent. Therefore, it is left for an individual nation to provide an exception and a regulation to make society secure.

Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria. The Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria as amended is the grund norm, the mother of all laws in Nigeria. Section 37 of the Constitution provides thus:

“The privacy of citizens, their homes, correspondence, telephone conversations, and telegraphic communication is hereby guaranteed and protected.”

Applying literal rule of interpretation, one may not be wrong to argue that patient's right

to privacy is not within the contemplation of this provision, because doctors are not expected to diagnose their patient at home, or via telephone and telegraphic communication, especially in a country like Nigeria which is still under developed. But the right has been defined as the right of the people to protection against invasion of their personal life, family, directly or indirectly in any physical manner or spread of information about the personal life of such person (Nwauche, 2007). However, at the same time, looking at the general statement of the section before going into the specifics, that is the privacy of the citizens will relate to any communication between doctor and his patient or any other supporting staff who has access to patient's record in discharging his or her duties. Given the scenario above, is this right absolute? The answer is in the negative though there has to be a law made pursuant to section 45 (Mark, 2002) curtailing or limiting these rights. Section 45 of the 1999 Constitution allows certain legislations capable of derogating some fundamental human rights under chapter IV. The rights include privacy, liberty, freedom of expression, religion, and human dignity. According to this section, a law shall not be declared unconstitutional only because it derogates on the right of the individual to the aforementioned rights, the law is democratically justifiable to protect the health, security, and morality of a particular society. Therefore, nothing stops any state in Nigeria from making a law to allow disclosure of HIV status of the patient to their partners. The essence is to protect

public health. Furthermore, common law principle and the rules of medical conduct allow the physician to disclose confidential information about their patient for the public interest, the interest of the patient himself or where there is enabling statute that allows such disclosure (*National Health Act, 2014*).

National Health Act 2014. This is one of the most recent laws made to ensure good medical practice in Nigeria. It regulates the conduct of doctors, supporting staff and beneficiaries, patients or users as the law calls them. The combination of section 25 and 26 of this law relating to keeping a record of all patients and information on their health status or treatment shall be confidential subject to the provision of section 7 (*National Health Act, 2014*). Any person in whose custody the record is can disclose or give it to any other health worker in the interest of the patient, not for the purposes of revealing the secret of the patient. Information may be disclosed if the patient gives his consent, court order or any law that requires such information. If the patient is a minor, consent of his guardian must be sought, or more importantly where the nondisclosure of the information represents a serious threat to public health. Where disclosure can be made if there is a public threat is not a very good law because what will constitute a public threat has not been defined. Therefore, this will open room for violation of such rights against public interest. For example, the problem narrated in the introduction of an HIV patient getting married to a girl with a likely negative status

could be a good reason if the lady is not having a career (*National Health Act, 2014*).

Whether nondisclosure of such information to the would-be-wife of a HIV patient amounts to public health threat is an issue that remains to be resolved. Therefore, it will be interesting to find out what may be considered as a threat to public health. Are physicians under any duty to disclose to the public that a particular HIV patient is a threat to public health? Section 64 (Mehrabi, Tamam, Bolong, & Hasan, 2016) does not define what may be a public threat on account of health. But it will be assumed that allowing HIV patient to marry an innocent person will lead to spread of the virus, as there is likelihood that all offspring of such marriages may be infected. However, research has shown that fear of disclosing the status of a HIV patient account for 70 % of the patient not going for a test to know their status (Mehrabi et al., 2016), which is more dangerous to the public than disclosing an individual status. It will be better for the law to stop disclosing anybody's status thereby, encouraging the public to go for test with the assurance that even if they are positive they will be saved from all kind of humiliation and embarrassment (UNAIDS, 2000); only that they shall be forced to take measure in ensuring the virus is not being transmitted to others. According to WHO encouraging voluntary disclosure will be more beneficial to the public and confidentiality shall be ensured (UNAIDS, 2000).

Code of Medical Ethics is one of the most important documents protecting and

ensuring patient confidentiality. Any attempt to reveal to the public or any individual will amount to infamous conduct in a professional respect. Except where the law compels a physician to do so as provided under section 7 of the National Health Act, for example by an order of a competent court of law or where there is a threat to public health for failure to disclose. Every patient enjoys this confidentiality principle even after his death. The issue here is that, to what extent is the code of ethics enforceable on the physicians? Code of ethics is an enforceable law under Medical and Dental Practitioners Tribunal.

Although Cybercrime Act (Cybercrime Act, 2015) makes provisions dealing with the protection of data and right to privacy, this law does not in any way relate to health information or doctor-patient confidentiality. The Cybercrime Act relates to issue of electronically generated data, cyber crime electronic fraud and other information generated through a computer system. Specifically, section 29 (Cybercrime Act, 2015) deals with breach of confidentiality by service providers which the definition given to service providers by section 59 (Cybercrime Act, 2015) does not include physicians or other health workers.

It is submitted that all the above provisions of these laws aim at protecting confidentiality and privacy of all information obtain from a patient in the exercise of any health worker's professional conduct. The National Health Act requires all those in custody of any health information in their institution to set up control measures

to prevent unauthorised access to those records (King, 2010), but where lack of such disclosure will affect the third party, the law leaves a serious gap.

CRIMINAL ASPECT OF BREACH OF CONFIDENTIALITY

Section 29 of the National Health Act makes it an offence for anybody who is found guilty of failure to protect any health record or failure to protect and prevent unauthorised access to those records. He shall be liable for conviction and imprisonment for a period not exceeding two years or a fine of 250,000 Naira or both. This particular section of the law will go a long way in assisting the patient to feel free to reveal all confidential information because HIV patients have a higher tendency to feel stigmatised. Similar provisions are enshrined under the South African law (National Health Act, 2003). The Act also makes it an offense for any health worker who discloses any information of his patient without the patient's consent, except under provisions of section 14, 15 and 16 of the Act (Mark, 2002). Section 89 of the Act also makes it an offence liable on conviction to 5 years imprisonment with or without option or both. These two laws are aimed at protecting patient's right to privacy and confidentiality. The rationale is that unless patients feel safe they will not be confident to come to the hospital for test or treatment, especially if the disease is contagious in nature and society will be at risk. However, where it involves spouses, the only right thing to do is to disclose, so

that expected babies can be protected and to ensure safer sexual relationship, and above all to stop further spread of the virus.

THE COMMON LAW RULES ON CONFIDENTIALITY

Confidentiality law under English common law applies to certain specific professionals, namely lawyers and their clients, doctors and their patients who all enjoy confidentiality of any information derived by these professionals in the exercise of their professional duties (RPC, 1948). The common law principle was expanded to include situation beyond contractual relation with professionals (RPC, 1948). In common law, health professionals have an obligation to maintain and keep all information in the course of their professional relation with their patients (Perez-Carceles M.D et al, 2005). The duties include any information created, disclose by the patient himself or acquired directly or indirectly by the physician (Perez-Carceles et al., 2005). This duty extends to other health workers not just physicians, anybody that may likely come across any information in the process of discharging their duty of health care delivery. This includes those whose duties are confidential record keeping. Except in the process of discharging his duty, nobody shall have access to patients' confidential information, and any employee having access to the information shall be marked, recorded and he or she shall follow all necessary procedure, particularly when there is the need to transport the record from

one place to another, maximum protection shall be given to patients' confidential information (King, 2010). It is established that a case involving breach of confidentiality requires three criteria to be successful, apart from contract: (i) the information must be confidential with the necessary quality to affect the owner if there is disclosure; (ii) the information must be derived from a situation where duty or obligation of confidence is imposed and (iii) the information must be disclosed without consent or any legal justification (Koch, 2014).

It is important to keep all information confidential, especially regarding patients' health status. This has the effect of encouraging people to go for a test and to know their status, only through that, the spread of the disease can be curtailed and controlled.

AN ANALYSIS OF THE CODE OF MEDICAL ETHICS ABOUT CONFIDENTIALITY RULE

The origin of medical ethics and good clinical practice is Hippocratic Oath, which existed for over 500 years (Koch, 2014). It has become the rules that regulate medical practices. All codes of medical practice have their origin in it in terms of confidentiality (Britannica., 2016):

“What I may see or hear in the course of the treatment in regard to the life of men, which on no account one must spread abroad, I will keep to myself holding such things shameful to be spoken about.”

Although there is no exception to the rule of confidentiality according to Hippocratic oath, it is now ethical to disclose according to most of the medical code of ethics if there is justification; for example, the World Medical Association (WMA's) International Code of Medical Ethics allows disclosure of confidential information with written consent of the patient, express permission by law or if there is imminent danger that may harm the patient or others for failure to disclose (Rules 8, 2005). This position is in *pari material* (synonymous) with the Nigerian medical code. However, the phrase used is the public interest which may lead to disclosure, but no meaning is given or what constitutes public interest is. Therefore there is a serious gap in the law, and this important phrase should not be left to chance without proper interpretation.

In Nigeria, the principal law is the Medical and Dental Practitioners Acts (Laws of Nigeria, 2004). The law makes provision for the regulation of medical practice in Nigeria. It has established Medical Council of Nigeria and Disciplinary Tribunal and saddled it with the responsibility of investigating erring medical practitioners. The Council has power pursuant to section 1 (2) (C) of the Act to prepare and review from time to time statement related to Code of conduct which the council considers desirable for the purposes of medical practice in Nigeria.

Rule 44 is the rules dealing with the regulation of keeping the secret of any information received by doctors in the

exercise of their professional duties. Space will not be enough to reproduce the rule. However, the relevant portion shall be provided below:

“The medical records are strictly for the ease and sequence of continuing care of the patient and are not for the consumption of any person who is not a member of the profession. Practitioners are advised to maintain adequate records on their patients so as to be able, if such a need should arise, to prove the adequacy and propriety of the methods, which they had adopted in the management of the cases. Disclosure of information on the patient by the doctor can only be made following an informed consent of the patient, preferably in writing...”

This rule is not for the consumption of any person who is not a member of the profession. Members of this profession according to this rule and the law generally is any person who is a medical practitioner registered to practice in accordance with the rules (*Nursing and Midwifery Council Act, 2004*). However, it must be noted that most of the cases of confidential information are disclosed not by the physicians themselves, but by other supporting staff who are assisting the physicians in discharging their responsibilities. If this rule or code, therefore, applies only to registered medical doctors, other supporting staff must have their separate rules regulating their conduct related to confidential information of every patient. Although the scope of this paper

is doctor-patient relationship, nurses are an important supporting staff to medical doctors, and regulations have also been made pursuant to Nursing and midwifery council Act, (Onyemelukwe, 2016) known as professional Code of Conduct to ensure sanity in their practice, especially on the issues of confidentiality (Wellman, 2005). The current author opines that there is a need for harmonisation of rules because of the serious implication of harmonised regulatory law over similar subject matter in a similar environment. It leads to difficulties in the enforcement and implementation of certain rules and regulations (“HIV and Confidentiality your legal right,” 2014). Otherwise, it will be difficult to regulate supporting staff from violating the confidentiality rules and rights of patients. What mechanism is there in place to detect information leaks, especially since too many staff have access and control to the information? Even the provision of the HIV and AIDS Antidiscrimination Act come to play after the information is disclosed because the law is meant to provide protection against discrimination (Mark, 2002).

The common law rule has expanded the principle of confidentiality to the third party who may not have obligation derived from the contract when they knowingly receive any material information and even if they did not have any relation with the owner of such information, they are forbidden to disclose. Therefore, it means, the law could be extended to people outside the physician-patient relationship. Nurses, midwifery and

other supporting staff, especially those in the laboratory, may have the opportunity of receiving confidential information of a patient in the exercise of their professional duty. They may be individually liable for breach of such duty or vicariously liable to their employers (Mark, 2002).

According to rule 44 of the code, information about any patient can only be disclosed by a doctor with the consent of the patient, preferably in writing, even where the information amounts to commission of an offence, such as attempted suicide (S. 231 Penal Code, 2004), abortion and drug dependence, except if the disclosure is necessary to protect the interest of the patient or the community (Plomer, 2005). This particular rule is in conflict with public policy, it should be the responsibility of every citizen to report any offence, because community policing requires that the public shall inform the police about any act that amounts to a violation of law or commission of an offence. Failure to disclose here will be against public interest, although it may be argued that disclosing confidential information of a patient may not also be in the interest of the public, because you want to encourage people to come forward and see doctors since there are diseases that need to be discovered quickly before they spread.

The reason other than therapeutic may be given for disclosing patient information, such as research (Plomer, 2005), public health surveillance, and clinical audit (Parrott et al., 1989). The rules provide for the principles required for that purpose: patient's consent must be obtained before

the disclosure even if his identity may not be known (Rules 44, 2004) and the disclosure must be anonymous where unidentified data can serve the purpose and it must be kept to the minimum necessary level. The practice has always been for the protection of patient's medical record and the disclosure can only be made where disease notification is required by statute.

Many developed and developing countries have adopted patient electronic record keeping system, popularly known as *health*, and have been integrated into their legal framework for data protection and privacy issues. A system is a special form of electronic information record keeping system; it is used to keep patient medical record electronically. In Nigeria, there is a legal frame work for data protection and other electronic devices protection (Cybercrime Act, 2015). The Cyber Crime Act aims at promoting online resources and the protection of computer systems and networks, electronic communications, electronic recorded information data and computer programs, intellectual property and privacy rights. Therefore, all that is required is a mechanism in place since there is already a legal framework to protect the information.

REMEDIES FOR BREACH OF CONFIDENTIALITY RULE

Physicians or other supporting staff will not go unpunished for violating the confidentiality rule for disclosing any information received or acquired in the discharge of their professional duties.

Disciplinary action may be taken against any erring physicians (S. 16 Medical and Dental Practitioners Act, 2004) or any other supporting medical staff, especially those working in the record keeping department. The disciplinary action here is of different nature. Professional bodies may also take a disciplinary action against erring physician because disclosing confidential information is an infamous conduct in a professional respect (Odia, 2014). An individual action may be taken by the patient himself to claim damages for breach of duty to keep confidential information either against the physicians or the institutions and physicians vicariously. Fine may also be imposed on the physicians if there is a breach of statutory duty (Dato, Aziz, Hussain, & Rasidi, 1995). Being a common law duty as well, its violation may lead to damages against the liable party.

CONCLUSION

From the foregoing, it can be concluded that confidentiality rule has to be done away to prevent the spread of HIV. Where the violation of the rules will prevent patients from going for a test in some countries, laws have been made to criminalise any conduct capable of putting people at risk of infection. For example, the Indian Penal Code and Michigan state in US have criminalised non-disclosure to a partner of his or her HIV status or negligently putting them at the risk of being infected with any killer disease.

The general rule is that under no circumstance shall doctors disclose any

information derived from his patient without his consent. However, the issue of public interest precludes this. This article found failure to define or what constitutes public interest has made it a dilemma for the medical practitioner to disclose as the laws examined do not make it categorically clear. Therefore, it is our suggestion there should be a clear cut criteria of what constitutes public interest for the purpose of disclosure, especially where spouses are involved with regard to sexually transmitted diseases like HIV. For example, the laws shall be amended to include that any person who is infected or has reason to believe that he is infected by any infectious disease shall not do any act capable of infecting anyone and doing so shall be a punishable offence as provided in section 26 and 270 of the Indian Penal Code provided. The law shall also provide protection to medical practitioners if after counselling a patient refuses to stop any act capable of infecting anyone, to inform the person likely to be infected to take precautionary measures. This article recommends that are allowed to disclose HIV seropositive status of couples to each other to reduce transmission of the virus.

REFERENCES

- AIDS. (2014). *HIV and Confidentiality your legal right*. Chicago, Illinois: AIDS Legal Council of Chicago. Retrieved July 14, 2016, from <http://legalcouncil.org/wp-content/uploads/2014/05/HIV-and-Confidentiality.pdf>
- Assembly, C. (1996). *Constitution of the republic of South Africa*. Cape Town.

- Bessler, J. D. (2008). In the Spirit of Ubuntu: Enforcing the Rights of orphans and vulnerable children affected by HIV / AIDS in South Africa. *Hastings International and Comparative Law Review*, 31, 33–113.
- Britannica, E. (2016). Hippocratic oath. In *Encyclopaedia Britannica*. Retrieved from <https://www.britannica.com/topic/Hippocratic-oath>
- Code, P. (1860). *Penal Code Act 1860 S.269 and 270*. India.
- Code, P. (2004). *Penal Code 2004 S.231*. Nigeria.
- Constitution Federal Republic of Nigeria. (1999). *Cap C23 2004*. Nigeria.
- Dato, Y. B., Aziz, H. A., Hussain, S. M., & Rasidi, A. (1995). *Guidelines on counseling of HIV infection and AIDS*. Kuala Lumpur: Ministry of Health Malaysia.
- Edwards, G. (2014). Doing their duty: An empirical analysis of the unintended effect of tarasoff v. regents on homicidal activity. *Journal of Law and Economics*, 57(2), 321–348.
- Eisenhardt, K. M., Yin, R. K., Bourdieu, P., Boso, A., Sowell, R. L., Rosenberg, A., ... & Smiley, A. (2006). AIDS-affected children, family collectives and the social dynamics of care in Ethiopia. *Social Science and Medicine*, 64(4), 185–196. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.socscimed.2006.11.004>
- Galletly, C. L., & Dickson-Gomez, J. (2009). HIV seropositive status disclosure to prospective sex partners and criminal laws that require it: Perspectives of persons living with HIV. *International Journal of STD and AIDS*, 20(9), 613–8. <http://doi.org/10.1258/ijsa.2008.008417>
- GAR. (1984). *Universal declaration of human right*. General Assembly Resolution Pub. L. No. 217A.
- Hiriscau, I. E., Stingelin-Giles, N., Stadler, C., Schmeck, K., & Reiter-Theil, S. (2014). A right to confidentiality or a duty to disclose? Ethical guidance for conducting prevention research with children and adolescents. *European Child and Adolescent Psychiatry*, 23(6), 409-416. <http://doi.org/10.1007/s00787-014-0526-y>
- Iwelunmor, J., Sofolahan-Oladeinde, Y., & Airhihenbuwa, C. O. (2014). Sociocultural factors influencing HIV disclosure among men in South Africa. *American Journal of Men's Health*, 9(3), 193-200. Retrieved from <http://doi.org/10.1177/1557988314535235>
- Kharbanda, V. (2014, December 30). Relationship between privacy and confidentiality. *The Centre for Internet and Society*. Retrieved July 12, 2016, from <http://cis-india.org/internet-governance/blog/relationship-between-privacy-and-confidentiality>
- Kling, S. (2010). Confidentiality in medicine. *Current Allergy and Clinical Immunology*, 23(4), 196-198.
- Koch, T. (2014). The hippocratic thorn in Bioethics' hide: Cults, sects, and strangeness. *Journal of Medicine and Philosophy (United Kingdom)*, 39(1), 75–88. <http://doi.org/10.1093/jmp/jht056>
- LawNigeria.Com. (2004). *Nursing and Midwifery Council Act 2004*. Nigeria.
- Laws of Federation of Nigeria. (2004). *Medical and Dental Practitioners Act 2004 S.16*. Nigeria.
- Laws of federation of Nigeria. (2014). *National Health Act 2017 S.7*. Nigeria.
- Laws of federation of Nigeria. (2015). *Cybercrime (Prohibition, Prevention, etc) Act 2015 S.29*. Nigeria.
- Lord Greene, M. R. (1948). *Saltman Engineering Co. v Campbell Engineering Co Ltd: CA 1948*. Swarb.Co.Uk.

- Mark, J. E. (2002). *Source book on medical law. Library* (2nd ed.). London: Cavendish publishing limited. <http://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-374507-1.00050-9>
- Mehrabi, D., Tamam, E., Bolong, J., & Hasan, H. (2016). A rapid review of the literature on HIV-related stigmatization and discrimination studies in Malaysia. *Pertanika Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities*, 24(2), 701–720.
- Nwauche, E. S. (2007). The right to privacy in Nigeria. *CALS Review of Nigerian Law and Practice*, 1(1), 62-90.
- Odia, O. J. (2014). The relation between law, religion, culture and medical ethics in Nigeria. *Global Bioethics*, 25(3), 164–169. <http://doi.org/10.1080/11287462.2014.937949>
- Onyemelukwe, C. (2016). The regulation of nursing in Nigeria: A critical analysis. *Journal of Law, policy and Globalisation*, 55, 139-147.
- O'brien, J., & Chantler, C. (2003). Confidentiality and the duties of care. *Journal of Medical Ethics*, 29(1), 36-40.
- Parliament, S. A. (2003). *National Health Act No. 61 of 2003*. Pretoria: Government Printers.
- Parrott, R., Burgoon, J. K., Burgoon, M., & LePoire, B. A. (1989). Privacy between physicians and patients: More than a matter of confidentiality. *Social Science and Medicine*, 29(12), 1381–1385. [http://doi.org/10.1016/0277-9536\(89\)90239-6](http://doi.org/10.1016/0277-9536(89)90239-6)
- Plomer, A. (2005). *The law and ethics of medical research: International bioethics and human rights*. London: Cavendish
- Pérez-Cárceles, M. D., Pereniguez, J. E., Osuna, E., & Luna, A. (2005). Balancing confidentiality and the information provided to families of patients in primary care. *Journal of Medical Ethics*, 31(9), 531-535.
- Rose, J. (1988). *X V Y*. Swarb.Co.Uk.
- Stein, M. D., Freedberg, K. A., Sullivan, L. M., Savetsky, J., Levenson, S. M., Hingson, R., & Samet, J. H. (1998). Sexual ethics disclosure of HIV-positive status to partners. *Journal of American Medical Association*, 158(3), 253-257.
- Supreme Court of Canada. (2012). *R. v. Mabior*. Canada: Supreme Court Judgments.
- Supreme Court of Canada. (2012). *R V. D.C.* Canana: Supreme Court Judgments.
- Sweeney, P., Gray, S. C., Purcell, D. W., Sewell, J., Babu, A. S., Tarver, B. A., ... & Mermin, J. (2017). Association of HIV diagnosis rates and laws criminalizing HIV exposure in the United States. *Aids*, 31(10), 1483-1488.
- UNAIDS. (2000). *Opening up the HIV/AIDS epidemic: Guidance on encouraging beneficial disclosure, ethical partner counselling and appropriate use of HIV case-reporting*. Geneva.
- Wellman, C. (2005). *Medical law and moral rights*. Netherlands: Springer. <http://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9781107415324.004>
- World Medical Association. (2005). *World Medical Association Declaration of Lisbon on the rights of the patient*. Geneva: WMA.



Relationship between Organizational Capabilities, Implementation Decision on Target Costing and Organisational Performance: An Empirical Study of Malaysian Automotive Industry

Hussein H. Sharaf-Addin^{1,2*}, Normah Omar³ and Suzana Sulaiman³

¹*Faculty of Sciences and Arts, University of Bisha, Bisha 67714, Saudi Arabia*

²*Faculty of Administrative Sciences, Thamar University, Dhamar 87246, Yemen*

³*Accounting Research Institute, Faculty of Accountancy, Universiti Teknologi MARA, Malaysia, UiTM 42300, Bandar Puncak Alam, Selangor, Malaysia*

ABSTRACT

Target Costing (TC) is seen to be related to more than product cost reduction. It also includes product quality, functionality and lead time that, to a similar extent, should be seriously considered. Organisational capabilities (OCs), as a contextual variable, could affect organisational functions when, in the study assumption, it is supported by the balanced scorecard (BSC) model in relation to TC objectives. This study examines the relationship between OCs factors, decision on TC implementation and organisational performance in association with company strategy and industry type effectiveness in the Malaysian automotive industry. A questionnaire survey was used to collect data. In total, 515 questionnaires were distributed, while 201 questionnaires were collected. Of the number collected, 176 fully completed ones were used. The results revealed that all three levels of OCs, local, architectural and process capabilities, significantly reflected the OCs, which were found to be positive and significantly influencing the decision on

TC implementation. Company strategy had a significant moderating effect on the causal relationship between OCs and the decision on TC implementation. There was a significant invariant between car makers and part and component makers in the local and architectural capabilities, but not in the process capabilities. The study has extended the TC literature in adopting BSC for measuring identified variables using

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received: 07 July 2015

Accepted: 23 January 2018

E-mail addresses:

sharafidr@yahoo.com; dr_sharafi@hotmail.com

(Hussein H. Sharaf-Addin)

normah645@salam.uitm.edu.my (Normah Omar)

suzana1110@salam.uitm.edu.my (Suzana Sulaiman)

*Corresponding author

Rasch Model outputs as inputs for SEM analysis and providing evidence on TC implementation and OCs in the Malaysian context.

Keywords: Target costing, organisational capabilities, organisational performance, automotive industry, company strategy, industry type

INTRODUCTION

In the last few years, with rapid changes in customers' expectations and more diversity of products, organisations have been endeavouring to implement effective management accounting and control systems for product costs while not sacrificing other features such as quality, functionality and lead time. Adopting target costing (TC) was mainly initiated as a cost management technique for drastically managing product features of cost, quality and functionality. Thus, TC is a management-based philosophy proposed globally by companies as one of the means that companies can adopt to ensure product competitiveness in terms of design, development and cost. It has been described in the literature as a multi-disciplinary technique used for managing product costs by individual effort shared across organisational functions (Hamood et al., 2013; Sulaiman et al., 2013). Many studies have reported that the most important benefit of the TC technique is assisting companies in making a trade-off between cost, quality and functionality (e.g. Ax et al., 2008; Cooper & Slagmulder, 1997, 1999; Cooper, 1995; Kato, 1993). This could definitely create a need to radically change their organisational

capabilities (OCs) for TC to be successfully implemented. Accordingly, the decision to implement TC is often linked to a firm's OCs, and this in turn influences the firm's decision to determine product price, cost and structure. Therefore, the best practice of TC could depend on the OCs, where organisational functions are combined with cross-functional teams.

However, a few studies have been published on OCs and TC implementation (e.g. Camuffo & Volpato, 1996; Huh et al., 2008; Lee et al., 2002), and studies focussing on TC implementation in the Malaysian context are almost non-existent, initially creating a motive for conducting this study. According to Huh et al. (2008), the OCs are considered a success factor for TC performance in Japanese companies. However, the lack of a comprehensive list of measures in the literature for OCs including financial and non-financial measures in order to achieve the right balance among TC objectives provided another motive for this study. Since the most important benefit of TC is assisting companies in making a trade-off between cost, quality and functionality, the balance between these objectives is practically aggressive. Based on Souissi and Ito (2004) and Yilmaz and Baral (2010), TC and BSC, in some contexts, work in the same direction, focussing on customers' satisfaction in achieving financial objectives through effective processes and strategic plans. This could definitely create a need for using BSC perspectives to radically assess OCs when implementing TC. On the other hand, company strategy

employed and type of product produced could determine the OCs needed for TC success, but this has not been addressed in the literature. To address these concerns, the current study examined the relationship between OCs and TC implementation in the Malaysian automotive industry in association with company strategy and industry type effectiveness. The study also further examined the extended effect of TC implementation on organisational performance. The remainder of the paper is organised as follows: Section 2 critically reviews previous studies pertaining to TC implementation and OCs and develops the hypotheses. The research methods employed in the study are presented in Section 3. Following this, survey results are presented in Section 4 and consequently discussed in Section 5. Finally, the study is concluded in Section 6.

LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

Target costing (TC) was initially developed by TOYOTA in the beginning of the 1960s and has been used since then by the Japanese automotive industry (Afonso et al., 2008). It was mainly developed as a cost management and control technique to manage and control product features such as cost, quality and functionality at the earlier stages of a product's life-cycle. Kato (1993) stressed that the "...target costing is not a simple cost-reduction technique, but a complete strategic profit management system." This is supported by Cooper and Slagmulder's (1997) claim that the term for this concept

should be 'cost management' and not 'cost reduction'. However, many studies have reported that the most important benefit of TC is to assist companies in making a trade-off between cost, quality and functionality (e.g. Ax et al., 2008; Cooper & Slagmulder, 1997, 1999; Cooper, 1995; Hamood et al., 2013; Juhmani, 2010; Kato, 1993; Zengin & Ada, 2010). Cooper (1995), in a study of Japanese companies implementing TC, came up with a framework called the Survival Triplet, which encompasses the three dimensions of cost, quality and functionality. According to Cooper, organisations should ensure a minimum on the three levels if they want to compete in today's tough market. Since all these three elements are extremely important, Souissi and Ito (2004) extended Cooper's Survival Triplet framework to include another important element (lead time) and merged quality and functionality into one element (marketability). However, the concepts of quality, functionality and lead time have not been adequately addressed in the current literature as they have been defined from a narrower idea using simplistic non-financial measures. Some researchers have found that the reason for a lower adoption of TC is that it results in a lower quality as the product has to become cheaper (Juhmani, 2010; Kocsoy et al., 2008; Rattray et al., 2007). Instead, product quality, functionality and lead time should be taken into account on a broader basis, including measures that can contribute to enhancing these objectives when achieving cost reduction. This requires organisations to effectively maximise their

capabilities and infrastructure throughout their value chain. Many relevant studies (e.g. Huh et al., 2008; Joshi, 2001; Kocsoy, 2008; Swenson et al., 2005) have asserted that the OCs have been recognised as the most important factor for the success of TC implementation.

In the Malaysian context, especially with highly increasing competition among automotive industries, recent management accounting techniques such as TC, should be applied. Nevertheless, relevant studies (e.g. Omar et al., 2002; Mahfar & Omar, 2004; Ramli et al., 2013; Sulaiman et al., 2005) explored a minimal or non-utilisation of TC technique, as an advanced management accounting technique within the selected companies. Some authors suggest that the utilisation of such a technique is very important for stressing value creation, and this could be achieved if the qualified management accountants increased their efforts in promoting this technique in their organisation. Others comment that the motivation for adopting TC was to meet customers' requirements, whereas the attributes contributing to non-adoption of TC was the fact that it was cost inefficient and time consuming. Hence, there is a support to say that the expectation of implementing TC as a new management accounting technique was either low or slow. Accordingly, there is a need for changing their OCs in tandem with their strategy for implementing TC successfully. Recently, Baharudin and Jusoh (2015) reported that there was a strong tendency

to implement target costing management (TCM) to ensure products' profitability by managing product cost during the design stage. Their case study explored how TCM is being practised in Malaysian automotive companies as well as how it can be used to detect the major factors influencing the design of TCM implementation processes, including customer orientation, information availability and supplier relationship.

Implementation Decision on Target Costing and Organisational Capabilities

Organisational capabilities (OCs) have been considered in the literature as capabilities of an organisation for considering both internal and external competencies in addressing environmental changes as sources of sustained competitive advantage (Huh et al., 2008). According to Swenson et al. (2005), organisations should evaluate three areas to determine their readiness to implement TC. These include: (1) the organisation's culture and infrastructure, (2) TC principles and (3) procedures and tools needed to support TC implementation. Huh et al. (2008) considered the concept of OCs as a success factor of TC performance as dynamic capabilities accumulated through the multi-levels of knowledge within the organisation. These capabilities include top management leadership, team-orientation, team-commitment, mutual trust between managers and employees, management accounting structure, employee education and information network with customers and suppliers. Their study examined the

relationship between these capabilities and the performance of TC among Japanese companies. They classified these capabilities into three groups: local capabilities, architectural capabilities and process capabilities based on the model proposed by Kusunoki et al. (1995). They reported that the reason for focussing on the OCs influencing TC implementation was that TC is a dynamic system that connects different tools and techniques, and these capabilities show different aspects of knowledge accumulated within the organisation. In extending this argument, organisations when deciding to implement TC need to build and reconfigure resources to remain competitive in a rapidly changing environment (Teece, 2007). However, despite much attention being given to addressing the influence of OCs on the successful implementation of TC, few studies have been published concerning TC and OCs in general, and the empirical study of Huh et al. (2008) only investigated the nature of OCs and their relationship with TC performance. In addition, the definitive measurement of OCs is still simplistic, while the dimension(s) used to represent OCs as success factors for TC implementation has been either financial or non-financial variables. Instead, product quality, functionality and lead time should be ensured in reducing cost from a broader balance including both financial and non-financial measures of OCs, resulting in conclusive results. In this regard, the balanced scorecard (BSC) has been widely accepted by many organisations as a system

that integrates financial and non-financial measures in evaluating organisational performance from four perspectives: financial, customer, internal process and learning and growth (Jusoh & Parnell, 2008; Sulaiman et al., 2013). As TC has been mainly used to reduce product cost as a financial objective while not sacrificing other non-financial objectives, product quality, functionality, lead time and the balance between these elements is crucial for making sure that a company is moving towards its strategic objectives. Based on Souissi and Ito (2004) and Yilmaz and Baral (2010), the TC has some similarities to the BSC system, as both focus on customers for improving financial performance. In the study assumption, applying the BSC's four perspectives to measure OCs could lead to the right balance among TC dimensions: financial (cost reduction) and non-financial (quality, functionality and lead time). Thus, there is a need to address whether the OCs adapted from Huh et al. (2008) and measured by BSC perspectives could influence the successful implementation of TC. The following hypothesis was proposed:

H1: OC levels affect the decision on TC implementation.

Company Strategy

Many studies have affirmed that the success of TC implementation depends on the company strategy that determines the organisational structure (e.g. Cooper & Slagmulder, 1997; Kato, 1993; Tani, 1994,

1995). Recently, the only study found in TC literature investigating the moderating effect of company strategy was that conducted by Hibbets et al. (2003). Unlike the current study, their study examined the moderating effect of company strategy on the relationship between the commutative environment and the decision made to adopt TC. Hence, in the current study, the influence of OCs on the decision made on TC implementation was likely to be affected by the company strategy followed. However, the structural moderation of the company strategy included three types of strategy, cost leadership, differentiation and confrontation, as outlined by Hibbets et al. (2003). According to Cooper (1995), confrontation as a strategy is more suitable for successful implementation of TC. He pointed out the need for a company, in order to compete successfully, to confront its products in three key elements: price, quality and functionality. Meanwhile, Hibbets et al. (2003) revealed that the confrontation strategy was more likely for TC implementation than other competitive strategies (cost leadership and differentiation strategies) among US and German companies adopting TC. Therefore, it is interesting to determine in which strategy the effect of OCs on decision on TC implementation is more pronounced if the moderation were already established.

Based on the above argument, the following hypotheses were proposed:

- H2a: The relationship between OCs and the decision on TC implementation is moderated by company strategy.
- H2b: OCs are more likely to support the decision on TC implementation when companies employ the confrontation strategy rather than the non-confrontation strategy.

Industry Type

In the literature on target costing (TC) (e.g. Chenhall & Langfield-Smith, 1998; Joshi, 2001), TC implementation is shown to be biased towards larger companies as these companies have adequate financial and personal resources. Considering the company size in this study, the decision made to implement TC could be affected by this factor. In addition, since the unit of analysis in this study was the company itself but not the respondents, the measurement of industry type to determine company size was employed as a control variable. Company size is commonly defined in the literature as number of employees and annual turnover (e.g. Ferreira et al., 2010; Guilding et al., 2005; Huang & Chen, 2012; Huh et al., 2008). In the current study, company size was measured by the type of products produced. However, there were two types of

Malaysian automotive company, car makers and part and component makers. Hence, industry type was defined as car makers, while part and component makers was used as a control variable. This was an attempt to control the effect of these factors on the OCs supporting the decision to implement TC. Based on the above argument, the following hypothesis was proposed to test whether the expected effect of OCs measured by BSC perspectives was different across the two types of industry:

H3: The effect of OCs is different across the two types of industry

Implementation Decision on Target Costing and Organisational Performance

As raised by many previous studies (e.g. Ax et al., 2008; Duh et al., 2009; Huang & Chen, 2012; Huh et al., 2008; Ibusuki & Kaminski, 2007; Iulia, 2011; Juhmani, 2010), the companies' interest behind TC implementation was basically to improve organisational performance. They concluded that the higher achievement of TC was usually associated with higher organisational performance. Since previous studies (e.g. Ax et al., 2008; Duh et al., 2009; Huh et al., 2008; Juhmani, 2010) used only financial measures of organisational performance, this study adopted BSC perspectives,

including financial and non-financial, to measure organisational performance. Thus, the need to examine the extended effect of the decision on TC implementation on both dimensions of organisational performance was to support the multi-dimensional function of TC. The following hypothesis was proposed:

H4: The decision on TC implementation supported by OCs ultimately increases organisational performance.

METHODOLOGY

Hypothesised Model and Variables Measurement

The research model employed in this study was developed based on the organisational capabilities theory following Kato and Yoshida (1999) and underlying that the successful implementation of TC could be affected by such capabilities. The model essentially describes the relationship between OC factors and decision on TC implementation in association with company strategy and industry type effectiveness. The model is further extended to describe the relationship between decision on TC implementation when supported by OCs and ultimate organisational performance. The research model developed in this study is illustrated in Figure 1.

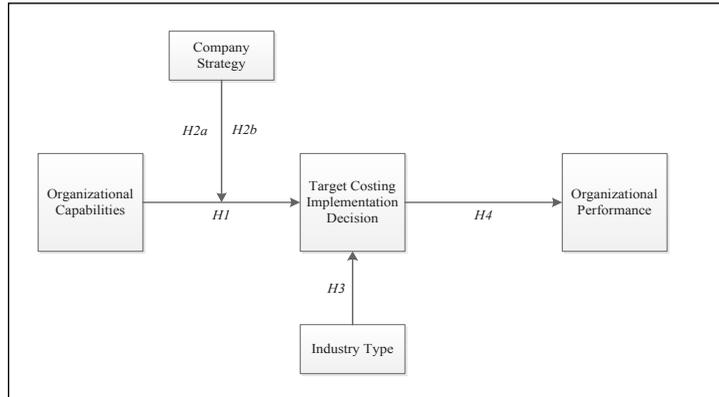


Figure 1. Research model and empirical schema

In the model, the OCs were regarded as an exogenous variable in the decision on TC implementation, which was in turn an exogenous variable in the ultimate organisational performance. The three constructs, OCs, TC implementation decision and organisational performance, were measured using the balanced scorecard (BSC) model. However, the dependent variables were the objectives of the decision on TC implementation, including cost reduction, quality, functionality and lead time. The first three variables were the crucial elements of TC presented in Cooper's (1995) Survival Triplet framework, whereas the fourth variable was the element extended by Souissi and Ito (2004) to Cooper's Survival Triplet framework. However, cost reduction was measured consistently with the financial perspective of the BSC model, while quality, functionality and lead time were measured consistently and, respectively, with the three perspectives

of the BSC model i.e. customer, internal process and learning and growth.

The independent variables included nine OCs adapted from the Twelve Organisational Capabilities of Human Resource Alignment Scorecard (HRAS) of Becker et al. (2001). These included customer inputs, market analysis, accountability, collaboration, technological innovation, speed operation, productivity, knowledge and learning and top management support. These factors were further re-classified into three levels, local capabilities, architectural capabilities and process capabilities, following the OC model of Huh et al. (2008) and based on their operational definitions. In order to achieve the multi-dimensional measurement, the identified factors were measured using the four perspectives of the BSC model, given that each variable has four measures. However, the influence of OC factors on the decision made on TC implementation is likely supposed to

be moderated by company strategy and controlled by industry type. Three types of strategy were adopted following Hibbets et al. (2003): cost leadership, differentiation and confrontation. In addition, two types of industry were defined, which included car makers and part and component makers.

Finally, the decision on TC implementation supported by OCs measures, including financial and non-financial, were supposed to affect both dimensions of organisational performance including financial and non-financial. In other words, the organisational performance was also measured using the four perspectives of the BSC model, given that the financial performance was measured consistently with the BSC financial perspective, while the non-financial performance was measured consistently with the last three perspectives of the BSC model, customer, internal process and learning and growth.

Research Sample and Data Collection

The Malaysian automotive industry was selected for the current study. The automotive industry was more suitable for the TC practice, especially in the case where this practice has not been widely studied in Malaysia, and was initially developed by the Japanese automotive industry. A questionnaire survey was conducted to collect empirical data using

hand distribution through several visits and meetings with focus groups of relevant managers and executives. Along with the mailed questionnaire, the key informants were informed that the CEO/GM/COO/MD, senior managers and relevant executives were the targetted respondents. Accordingly, 48 Malaysian automotive companies out of the 380 companies selected based on the Malaysian Automotive Institute (MAI) completed the questionnaires distributed. Out of 515 questionnaires distributed, 201 questionnaires were collected. Of these, 11 were from motorcycle makers, 72 from car manufacturing companies and the remaining 118 from parts and components companies. Since motorcycle companies had not been considered in this study, the 11 questionnaires were cancelled. In addition, due to unusable answers for some questions and fully/partially un-completed sections, another 14 questionnaires were eliminated. As a result, the number of useable responses was only 176, giving a final response rate of 34%. Among the responding companies including car makers (4.2%) and part and component makers (95.8%), 42% were non-listed companies, while 30.1% and 27.8% were SMEs and listed companies, respectively. The majority of these companies produced more than five models for both the local and international market (Table 1).

Table 1
Companies profile

Profile	Frequency	Percentage
Company industry		
Car manufacturing	2	4.2
Part and component manufacturing	46	95.8
Total	48	100
Company Category		
Listed	49	27.8
Non-listed	74	42.0
SMEs	53	30.1
Total	176	100
Number of Models Produced		
2-5 models	56	31.8
More than 5 models	120	68.2
Total	176	100
Products Market		
Local/Domestic only	43	24.4
Both	133	75.6
Total	176	100

Data Analysis

The analysis method of the collected data combined the use of the Rasch Measurement Model (RMM) and Structural Equation Modelling (SEM). As one of the study contributions from the methodological perspective, the analysis started with the RMM to test the reliability and validity of items. This was followed by the SEM analysis using AMOS graphics. Specifically, all items under each composite variable were measured using the RMM Fit Statistics and Principle Component Analysis. After this, all the fitting items were directly interpolated by person measure and standard error to

the SEM. This was based on Salzberger's (2011) suggestion that the Rasch measure can be treated as a single indicator for a latent variable when attempting to run the SEM to find the relationship between latent variables. In addition, the SEM was specified using path analysis, in which each construct was modelled as a composite variable derived from computing its items by mean (Byrne, 2010).

Reliability and Validity – The RMM Analysis

The Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) was built to correspond with the statistical reliability and validity generated through the RMM analysis. The reliability value (Cronbach's alpha = 0.84) exceeded the minimum value of 0.70, indicating an acceptable reliability value (Fisher, 2007). Higher reliability values provide evidence that the items under each variable are measured as a single construct (Fisher, 2007). In addition, the RMM analysis of Fit Statistics and Principle Component Analysis indicated that all items were working well in the same direction to measure and define each construct. The variance explained by measures for each construct closely matched the expected variance, while the unexpected variance explained in the first contrast of each construct was less than the expected (Table 2). Accordingly, the structural model was tested using directly observed variables as suggested by Awang (2012).

Table 2
Standardised residual variance (in eigenvalue units)

	Raw variance explained by measures		Unexplained variance in 1 st contrast	
	Empirical	Modelled	Empirical	Modelled
OCs factors	30.4%	30.8%	7.6%	10.9%
Decision on TC implementation	33.1%	33.3%	8.7%	13.1%
Organisational performance	46.3%	46.9%	11.0%	20.5%

Structural Equation Modelling (SEM)

The structural model was tested based on the research model (Figure 1), in which the relationship between OC factors, decision on TC implementation and organisational performance was assigned. To examine the Goodness-of-Fit (GOF) for the structural model, three important GOF indices were selected. These included Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Root Mean Squared Residual (RMR) and Root Mean Squared Approximation of Error (RMSEA). For the GOF of the model, these indices should be $CFI > 0.90$, $RMR < 0.09$ and $RMSEA < 0.09$ for an overall sample size of more than 150 respondents (Awang, 2012; Byrne, 2010; Hair, 2010). However, the initial outputs of SEM showed that the structural model did not meet these requirements, where the CFI of 0.833 was less than 0.90 and RMSEA of 0.098 was more than 0.09. For all factor loadings, it was found to be more than 0.50, thus meeting the criteria suggested by Hair (2010) and Byrne (2010) that each factor loading should be at least 0.50 and above for an overall sample size of more than 150

respondents. Using this guideline, there was no need to delete any of the factors, and this supported the study assumption that the RMM supported SEM in defining the fitting items.

To generate a good fit model, an alternative model was tested based on the changes suggested by the modification indices of the AMOS outputs. This resulted in the modified structural model illustrated in Figure 2, which shows a good fit model when the correlation between product quality and functionality of decision on TC implementation was made. The CFI of 0.904 (> 0.90), RMR of 0.027 (< 0.09) and RMSEA of 0.076 (< 0.09) indicated a good fit model. These values provided supportive evidence of a perfect model fit, indicating how the modified model assumed relationship between variables when these values were close to one. Thus, there was less discrepancy between estimated and observed constructs; thus the modified model clearly represented the data observed and was not different from those expected in the proposed model.

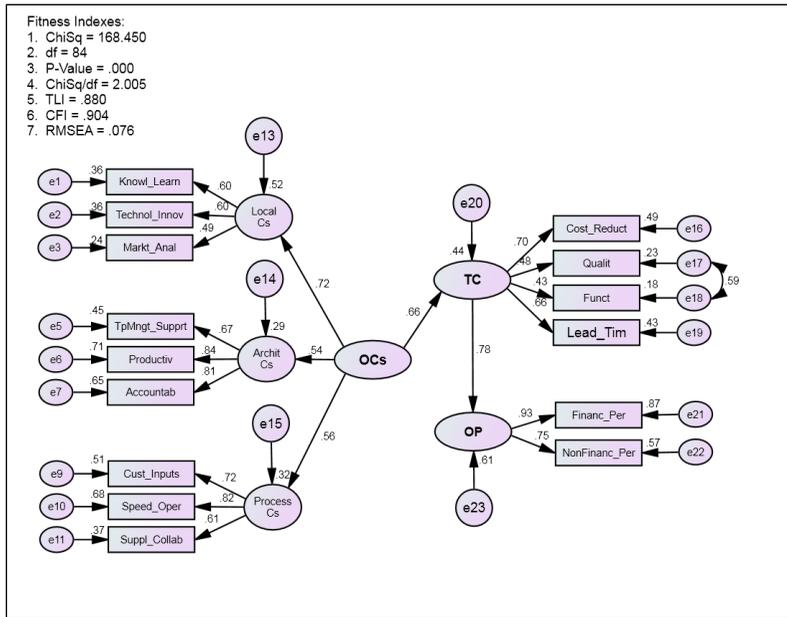


Figure 2. Modified structural model

Descriptive Statistics of Observed Variables

Since Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) using AMOS graphic was used to test the hypotheses developed, it was interesting first to describe the observed variables of the modified structural model. Table 3 below reports the descriptive statistics results including mean scores and SD of each variable. All variables had almost higher mean values (ranging from 3.95 to 4.65) and lower SD (ranging from 0.546 to 0.762), indicating that the data were close to the mean.

Table 3
Descriptive statistics of observed variables

Variables	N	Mean Score*	S.D.
Knowl_Learn	176	4.477	0.623
Technol_Innov	176	4.409	0.735
Markt_Anal	176	4.557	0.621
TpMngt_Supprt	176	4.460	0.603
Productiv	176	4.648	0.546
Accountab	176	4.506	0.614
Cust_Inputs	176	3.954	0.762
Speed_Oper	176	3.977	0.717
Suppl_Collab	176	4.290	0.702
Cost_Reduct	176	4.396	0.633
Qualit	176	4.439	0.570
Funct	176	4.242	0.614
Lead_Tim	176	4.049	0.660
Financ_Per	176	4.448	0.656
NonFinanc_Per	176	4.381	0.670
Total	176		

*Score: the five points score: 4=extremely important; 3=generally important; 2=slightly important; 1=not at all important; 0=not sure

RESULTS

OCs and Decision on TC Implementation

The statistically significant regression weights for all factor loadings and structural constructs of OCs and TC are presented in Table 4. All the proposed path coefficients were significant. The main prediction of OC effect on decision on TC implementation was supported (Beta=0.665, $p < 0.001$),

indicating that the path coefficient was positive and significant. The three levels of local, architectural and process capabilities significantly reflected the OCs (Beta=0.719, 0.537, 0.565, respectively and $p < 0.001$). Interestingly, the OCs were highly explained by local capabilities compared with the other capabilities. Nevertheless, all the three OC levels together affected the decision on TC implementation (Hypothesis 1 was supported).

Table 4
Standardised regression weights: OCs and decision on TC implementation

			Estimate	SE	CR	P	Label
TC	<---	OCs	0.665	0.316	3.472	***	OCs to TC
Local_Cs	<---	OCs	0.718	0.237	3.382	***	OCs to local capabilities
Archit_Cs	<---	OCs	0.537	0.244	3.336	***	OCs to architectural capabilities
Process_Cs	<---	OCs	0.565	0.343	3.359	***	OCs to process capabilities
Markt_Anal	<---	Local_Cs	0.493	0.197	4.182	***	Local Cs to market analysis
Technol_Innov	<---	Local_Cs	0.599	0.264	4.491	***	Local Cs to technological innovation
Knowl_Learn	<---	Local_Cs	0.597	0.242	4.591	***	Local Cs to knowledge and learning
Accountab	<---	Archit_Cs	0.805	0.143	8.543	***	Architectural Cs to accountability
Productiv	<---	Archit_Cs	0.843	0.132	8.578	***	Architectural Cs to productivity
TpMngt_Supprt	<---	Archit_Cs	0.673	0.356	5.271	***	Architectural Cs to top management
Suppl_Collab	<---	Process_Cs	0.611	0.115	6.837	***	Process Cs to suppliers collaboration
Speed_Oper	<---	Process_Cs	0.823	0.145	7.466	***	Process Cs to speed operation
Cust_Inputs	<---	Process_Cs	0.717	0.248	4.682	***	Process Cs to customer inputs
Cost_Reduct	<---	TC	0.486	0.117	5.340	***	TC to cost reduction
Qualit	<---	TC	0.482	0.117	5.340	***	TC to product quality
Funct	<---	TC	0.429	0.125	4.786	***	TC to product functionality
Lead_Tim	<---	TC	0.658	0.143	6.904	***	TC to lead time

Notes: Significant level at *** $p < 0.001$ (two-tailed test)

Company Strategy Moderation

In the proposed model, the company strategy was employed to moderate the influence of OCs on the decision on TC implementation (Hypothesis 2a). The structural invariance of the modified model was likely tested across the moderator of company strategy group. A simultaneous analysis on the three types of strategy, cost leadership (N1=15), differentiation (N2=41) and confrontation (N3=120) was also conducted to test strategy moderation. Due to the technical problem that the AMOS Graphic could not run when the sample size was very small (Awang, 2012; Byrne, 2010) and in view of the argument that the confrontation strategy was suitable for TC implementation (Cooper, 1995), the first two strategies were combined. Hence, the results re-measured the moderating variable of the confrontation strategy (N=120) and non-confrontation strategy (N=56).

The multi-group analysis was conducted to assess the effect of the company strategy as a moderator variable. The only difference was constraining the path of interest (OCs → TC), where the moderator variable was to be assessed. Accordingly, the two models were estimated separately i.e. the constrained model, where parameter of the path of interest (OCs → TC) was constrained to 1 and an unconstrained model, where no parameter was constrained for the same path of interest. The difference in chi-square ($\Delta\chi^2 (2) = 6.537$, p-value <0.05) between the constrained and unconstrained models was significant (Awang, 2012; Byrne, 2010) (Table 5). This indicated a significant moderation of company strategy on the causal effect of OCs on the decision on TC implementation (Hypothesis 2a was supported).

Table 5
Moderation test of company strategy

	Constrained Model	Unconstrained Model	Differences	Results
Chi-Square	299.736	288.199	6.537	Significant at 0.05
DF	172	170	2	
GFI	0.835	0.837		
AGFI	0.770	0.770		
CFI	0.871	0.876		
RMSEA	0.064	0.063		
CMIN/DF	1.714	1.695		

However, once the moderation was established, it was interesting to determine in which group (confrontation strategy and non-confrontation strategy groups) the effect

of OCs on TC implementation was more pronounced (Hypothesis 2b). For doing so, the data were split based on the respondents of these two groups into two data files and

the analysis using each data file was carried out. To begin with, the analysis used the confrontation strategy group followed by the non-confrontation strategy group. The test of moderation effect of the confrontation strategy was not significant, where the chi-square difference between the constrained

and unconstrained model was less than 3.84, which is the value of the chi-square with 1 degree of freedom ($\Delta\chi^2(1) = 0.436$, p-value > 0.05) (Awang, 2012; Byrne, 2010) (Table 6). This indicated that the confrontation strategy did not moderate the causal effect of OCs on the decision on TC implementation.

Table 6
Moderation test of confrontation strategy group

	Constrained Model	Unconstrained Model	Differences	Results
Chi-Square	152.349	151.913	0.436	Not significant at 0.05
DF	86	85	1	
GFI	0.856	0.856		
AGFI	0.799	0.799		
CFI	0.894	0.893		
RMSEA	0.082	0.083		
CMIN/DF	1.772	1.787		

However, the results shown in Table 7 revealed a significant moderation effect of the non-confrontation strategy, where the difference in chi-square value between the constrained and unconstrained model was more than 3.84 ($\Delta\chi^2(1) = 6.1$, p-value

< 0.05). This indicated that the non-confrontation strategies, including cost leadership and differentiation strategies, did moderate the causal effect of OCs on the decision on TC implementation (Hypothesis 2b was supported).

Table 7
Moderation test of non-confrontation strategy group

	Constrained Model	Unconstrained Model	Differences	Results
Chi-Square	142.387	136.287	6.1	Significant at 0.05
DF	86	85	1	
GFI	0.798	0.803		
AGFI	0.718	0.721		
CFI	0.826	0.842		
RMSEA	0.105	0.100		
CMIN/DF	1.656	1.603		

Referring to the results in terms of fitness indices, it can be seen that both constrained and unconstrained models for the confrontation strategy group had a better fit than those for the non-confrontation strategy group (refer to Tables 4 & 5). This supported the study assumption and was consistent with the relevant literature (e.g. Cooper & Slagmulder, 1997; Cooper, 1995; Huh et al., 2008) that the confrontation strategy was more suitable and supportive for OCs for successful implementation of TC than the other two strategies. This was supported with estimated beta coefficient measuring the causal effect of OCs on TC. The confrontation strategy (slope 0.70) was more pronounced compared with the non-confrontation strategy (slope 0.29). Since both slopes were significant, the type of moderation was partial moderation (Awang, 2012).

Industry Type Invariance

Further tests were conducted to examine the structural invariance of OC effect on decision on TC implementation across the industry type groups (Hypothesis 3). A simultaneous analysis of car makers (N1=67) and part and component makers (N2=109) was conducted. Following Byrne’s (2010) suggestion, a test of invariant factor loadings was conducted together with the test of latent mean differences. The industry-type invariant was firstly conducted without constraining the invariance of OC factor loadings and structural paths, where the results showed a baseline chi-square value. Hence, the invariance of OC factor loadings was constrained to be equal for the car and part and component groups. Simultaneously, the mean of the latent construct of OCs in the structural paths (OCs → TC) for the car group was constrained to zero as a reference for the differences. Table 8 presents the invariance test across both groups at the model level.

Table 8
Results of industry-type invariance

Model Description	χ^2	df	Critical Value	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	p-value	CFI	ΔCFI
Unconstrained model, no equality constraints	360.755	172	—	—	—	—	0.828	—
Constrained model, with equality constraints	386.685	180	21.96	25.93	8	***	0.811	0.017

Notes: Significant level at ***p<0.005 (Two-tailed)

The results revealed a significant change in the chi-square value at 0.005 level ($\Delta\chi^2$ (8) =21.96, p-value <0.005), where the difference was more than 21.96 with 8 degrees of freedom, which is the critical value of χ^2 changes based on Byrne's (2010) findings. Although the change in CFI (Δ CFI =0.017, p-value >0.05) was not significant, the more stringent χ^2 difference test was trusted (Byrne, 2010). Therefore, the significant change in χ^2 was enough to indicate that the two groups were different at the model level (Hypothesis 3 was supported). However, for a path-to-path level, no invariants existed, and the results revealed evidence of no significant differences between the two groups.

In reviewing the results of individual beta coefficients, further analysis of each OC factor was conducted to determine which factor loading parameters were not operating the same way across both groups. First, the analysis started with each OC level followed by all factors. The results in Table 9 showed that the two groups were invariant for local capabilities factor parameters (knowledge and learning, technological innovation and market analysis), where the difference in chi-square value between constrained and unconstrained models was not significant, and was less than the critical value of 5.99 with 2 degrees of freedom ($\Delta\chi^2$ (2) =0.816, p-value >0.05).

Table 9
Invariant test using local capabilities

	Constrained Model	Unconstrained Model	Differences	Results
Chi-Square	361.571	360.755	0.816	NS at 0.005
DF	174	172	2	
CFI	0.829	0.828	0.001	

Retaining the model and testing the invariance of the second OC level of architectural capabilities (top management support, productivity and accountability),

the results revealed non-significant changes in the chi-square value between the two groups ($\Delta\chi^2$ (5) =9.379, p-value >0.05) (Table 10).

Table 10
Invariant test using architectural capabilities

	Constrained Model	Unconstrained Model	Differences	Results
Chi-Square	370.134	360.755	9.379	NS at 0.05
DF	177	172	5	
CFI	0.824	0.828	0.004	

Since the results showed that the car and part and component groups were invariant for both OC levels of local and architectural capabilities, it can be said that the issue of non-invariance seems to have been with all or some of the factor parameters in the third OC level (process capabilities). Accordingly, while maintaining the most recent model (local and architectural capability factors invariant), the test for the invariance of each factor parameters within the process capabilities was conducted separately. First, the test of the invariance

was run with customer input factors, where the results revealed a significant change in chi-square value between the two groups ($\Delta\chi^2 (6) = 23.356$, p-value < 0.005) (Table 11). The results of speed operation factor also showed a significant change in the chi-square value between the two groups ($\Delta\chi^2 (7) = 24.954$, p-value < 0.005) (Table 12). Finally, the test of the invariance of suppliers collaboration showed a significant change in the chi-square value between the two groups ($\Delta\chi^2 (8) = 25.93$, p-value < 0.005) (Table 13).

Table 11
Invariant test using customer inputs as a factor: Process capabilities

	Constrained Model	Unconstrained Model	Differences	Results
Chi-Square	384.111	360.755	23.356	S at 0.005
DF	178	172	6	
CFI	0.823	0.828	0.001	

Table 12
Invariant test using speed operation as a factor: Process capabilities

	Constrained Model	Unconstrained Model	Differences	Results
Chi-Square	385.709	360.755	24.954	S at 0.005
DF	179	172	7	
CFI	0.811	0.828	0.017	

Table 13
Invariant test using supplier collaboration as a factor: Process capabilities

	Constrained Model	Unconstrained Model	Differences	Results
Chi-Square	386.685	360.755	25.93	S at 0.005
DF	180	172	8	
CFI	0.811	0.828	0.017	

After testing all factor parameters and fixing the items that did not result in significant changes in the chi-square value, the final analysis indicated that all the factors of customer inputs, speed operation and supplier collaboration within the process capabilities level of OCs contributed to the non-invariance across both groups of car makers and part and component makers.

Decision on TC Implementation and Organisational Performance

Analysing the extended effect of decision on TC implementation involved assessing

the role of TC implementation in linking the OCs supporting the decision on TC implementation to organisational performance (Hypothesis 4). The results in Table 14 show that the direct effect of decision on TC implementation on organisational performance was significant (Hypothesis 4 was supported), indicating that successful implementation of TC increased organisational performance. The regression weight of 0.779 for TC in the prediction of organisational performance was significantly different from zero at 0.001 level of probability (two-tailed test).

Table 14

Standardised regression weights: TC implementation and OP

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
OP	<---	TC	0.779	0.147	6.047	***	TC to OP
Financ_Per	<---	OP	0.934	0.135	9.026	***	OP to financial performance
NonFinanc_Per	<---	OP	0.754	0.145	7.466	***	OP to non-financial performance

Notes: Significant level at *** $p < 0.001$ (Two-tailed test)

Since OCs were measured using a balanced scorecard (BSC), organisational performance was also measured using these perspectives and grouped into financial and non-financial performance. The results showed that the organisational performance was more highly explained by financial indicators (Beta=0.934) than non-financial indicators (Beta=0.754) (see also Table 14). Nevertheless, it could be concluded that TC implementation, when supported by OC financial and non-financial measures, affected both dimensions of the

organisational performance in terms of financial and non-financial performance.

DISCUSSION

The findings overall confirm the literature that the OC factors are recognised as success factors for TC implementation. In addition, the findings contribute to the organisational capabilities theory in supporting the argument that the OCs are the core success factors for TC implementation. Interestingly, the alignment measurement from financial and non-financial measures of

OC factors, decision on TC implementation and organisational performance in association with company strategy stressed the significance of this study. The study had extended prior research by looking at the OCs and TC from multiple dimensions, financial and non-financial dimensions. However, the three levels of OCs including local capabilities, architectural capabilities and process capabilities were classified based on the organisational capabilities model proposed by Kusunoki et al. (1995) and adapted by Huh et al. (2008). The results showed a significant impact of these capabilities on the decision on TC implementation. In particular, local capabilities strongly reflected the OC factors than other capabilities. This, however, contrasted with a study by Huh et al. (2008) that examined the relationship between these three capabilities and TC performance among Japanese companies. They found that the impact of local capabilities was relatively weak on TC performance, whereas architectural and process capabilities had a positive impact on TC performance.

Within the local capabilities as the main distinguishing factor of Malaysian automotive companies compared with Japanese automotive companies (e.g. a study conducted by Huh et al., 2008), as revealed in the findings, knowledge and learning, together with technological innovation factors were highly and significantly loaded. The findings confirmed the role of these factors as a basis for organisational changes required for TC implementation. In contrast, Smith et al. (2008) found that

the technological innovation factor was not significantly correlated with MAPs in the Malaysian context. On the other hand, market analysis factor obtained the lowest loading on local capabilities. This gave evidence of less consideration by Malaysian automotive companies for this factor as one of the resources for TC implementation.

Among architectural capabilities, it was particularly interesting to note that accountability and productivity factors had the greatest loading compared to the top management support factor. Although the first two factors are considerably more important for TC implementation, top management support was highly recommended in many of the automotive studies reviewed (e.g. Everaert et al., 2006; Huh et al., 2008; Kato, 1993).

Since process capabilities are the process of knowledge interactions within the organisation (Huh et al., 2008), they are measured by customer inputs, speed of operations and suppliers' participation. All three factors were shown with significant loadings to OCs affecting decision on TC implementation. This provides considerable support for the findings of Huh et al. (2008), who reported that process capabilities were the most important factor for increasing TC performance. However, it can be concluded that the three levels of OC factors adapted from the Huh et al. (2008) study, even with different measures used in this study based on their operational definitions, were found to be significantly reflecting the OCs when deciding to implement TC.

The decision to implement TC was clearly reviewed in the literature and regressed on the development from cost reduction towards product value creation in terms of quality, functionality and lead time (Sharaf-Addin et al., 2014). One of the main contributions of this study was how to achieve the right balance among these elements. The best coefficient of the loadings of these factors was noted to be significant. It was interesting to see that product quality and functionality were found to be significantly correlated for achieving the best model fit. This provides a clear indication that both product quality and functionality are seen to be the product values that customers are looking for. Moreover, both cost reduction and lead time were found to be highly significant predictors for decision on TC implementation. These results were consistent with the extensive discussion of the TC literature.

In addition, the argument in the literature that the success of TC implementation depends on the company strategy employed for determining organisational structure (Cooper & Slagmulder, 1997; Kato, 1993; Tani, 1994, 1995) was found to support the study findings. The findings revealed that company strategy significantly moderated the causal effect of OCs on decision on TC implementation. Interestingly, among the three types of strategies, cost leadership, differentiation and confrontation, the effect of the confrontation strategy was not significant. In contrast, the effect of the other two strategies (combined as non-confrontation strategy for technical

analysis purpose) was significant. Therefore, it can be suggested that the moderator group strategy of non-confrontation does moderate the causal effect of OCs on the decision on TC implementation, whereas the confrontation strategy does not moderate such causal effects. This can be interpreted as that the employment of confrontation strategy supports the work of OCs in terms of financial and non-financial measures when deciding to implement TC. Based on this result, the literature argument that the confrontation strategy is suitable for TC implementation (e.g. Cooper & Slagmulder, 1997; Cooper, 1995; Huh et al., 2008) was totally supported. However, the findings contrasted with the findings of Hibbets et al. (2003) in US and German-based TC adopting companies. They found that the companies pursuing differentiation strategy are more likely to implement TC than those pursuing other competitive strategies (e.g. cost leadership or confrontation strategies). Moreover, these findings are different somehow from studies conducted on the Malaysian automotive industry. For example, the findings of the study conducted by Abdullah (2006) showed that within the Malaysian car-maker Proton's generic strategies, cost leadership and differentiation strategies were the choice for business strategies. He concluded that these two strategies were employed through enhancing research and development, outsourcing practices to access cheaper inputs and developing products practised by Malaysian automakers and suppliers. However, these two strategies can be more workable

if Proton built up customer confidence regarding product quality and functionality. Making a trade-off between low cost (cost leadership) through financial OC measures and high quality (differentiation) through non-financial OC measures as the main focus of TC in this study was supported by the confrontation strategy. Therefore, in order for Malaysian automotive companies to maintain their competitive advantage, they should fit their business strategy to the competitive market requirements, which are the main focus of the confrontation strategy.

In terms of industry type invariance, there was a significant difference between the car and part and component groups at the model level. They were invariant for both OC types and local and architectural capabilities, but not for process capabilities. Since the process capabilities factors led to substantive meanings of non-invariance across the two groups, it was interesting to find the extent to which these factor parameter capabilities differed. The final results of the subsequent analysis revealed that the process capabilities including customer inputs, speed operation and supplier collaboration factors were the main factors contributing to the non-invariance across both groups.

Finally, the effect of decision on TC implementation on organisational performance was found to be significant. This provided evidence that the successful implementation of TC overall increases organisational performance. This is completely supported by an extensive review of relevant studies (e.g. Ax et al., 2008; Duh

et al., 2009; Hamood et al., 2011; Huang & Chen, 2012; Huh et al., 2008; Ibusuki & Kaminski, 2007; Iulia, 2011; Juhmani, 2010; Okpala, 2016). It was interesting to note that financial performance loading reflected organisational performance more highly than non-financial performance. This supported the initial concept of TC as understood by some practitioners as TC is only about cost reduction. Recently, TC has been widely accepted as a tool for improving product quality and making a trade-off between cost, quality and functionality rather than only for cost reduction. Based on the findings, this is especially true when an organisation employs the confrontation strategy for consistency between OC financial and non-financial measures in TC implementation. However, interpreting the results discussed above can be compared with previous studies that have used the same measures for financial performance such as profitability growth, operating income, return on assets and return of investment. All previous studies were in agreement with the results emerging from this study, and confirm that TC implementation increases financial performance. For non-financial performance, the unique contribution of this study was the adoption of BSC non-financial perspectives to measure non-financial performance when implementing TC. As such, the comparison with previous empirical studies (e.g. Al-Awawdeh & Al-Sharairi, 2012; Duh et al., 2009; Huh et al., 2008; Juhmani, 2010; Rattray et al., 2007) was difficult due to the lack of consistency in measuring non-financial performance.

CONCLUSION

This study examined the relationship between OCs, decision on TC implementation and ultimate organisational performance in association with company strategy and industry type effectiveness. The overall picture emerging from this study came from the study conducted by Huh et al. (2008) on Japanese companies. As a main contribution of this study, the three main constructs including OCs, decision on TC implementation and organisational performance were measured using the four perspectives of BSC. This was an attempt to fill the gap in the literature to provide a comprehensive list of measures including financial and non-financial when examining the effect of OCs on decision on TC implementation and ultimate organisational performance.

The results provided evidence that the OC factors positively and significantly influenced the decision on TC implementation (Hypothesis 1 was supported). All the three levels of OCs, namely local capabilities, architectural capabilities and process capabilities, defined based on the Kusunoki et al. (1995) model and modified by Huh et al. (2008), significantly reflected the OCs, and all the factor loadings for each group were positive and significant. In addition, the effect of OCs on TC decision on implementation was relatively moderated by company strategy (Hypothesis 2a was supported), supporting Cooper and Slagmulder (1997), Cooper (1995), Dekker and Smidt (2003) and Kato (1993). Interestingly, non-confrontation

strategies including cost leadership and differentiation had a significant moderating effect on the causal relationship of OCs on decision on TC implementation. In contrast, such effect was not found for the confrontation strategy (Hypothesis 2b was supported). This indicated that the confrontation strategy was suitable for OCs to be a supportive tool for TC implementation, consistent with Cooper's (1995) argument. On the other hand, there was a significant invariant between car makers and part and component makers in local capabilities and architectural capabilities levels, but not in the process capabilities level (Hypothesis 3 was supported). The extended effect of decision on TC implementation on organisational performance was further found to be positive and significant (Hypothesis 4 was supported). This confirmed the multi-dimensional effect of TC implementation on organisational performance as argued by Huh et al. (2008) and others. In summary, the results confirmed the successful effect of TC factors when measured from financial and non-financial dimensions on TC implementation decision and ultimate organisational performance. Thus, the study's assumption that the focus of TC technique was not only seen to be related to cost reduction was supported. Instead, quality and functionality features were seriously perceived when deciding to implement TC through integrating relative OCs financial and non-financial measures.

This study assessed the success of TC implementation based on the idea that the

balance across TC objectives is crucial for its success and the measurement tool for OCs as success factors influencing TC implementation is simultaneously important. This was through the adoption of the BSC model in measuring OCs affecting TC implementation, with the aim of seeing how the BSC model can be a supportive tool for TC implementation. The findings of this study interestingly showed that the full consideration of both dimensions of OCs, including financial and non-financial, by applying the BSC model, was important for achieving the balance across the financial and non-financial objectives of TC implementation. Additionally, the study contributes to the empirical practices of TC within the Malaysian automotive industry in particular and the Malaysian manufacturing and service industries in general. From the methodological perspective, the research method used and data analysis, which combined RMM and SEM, provided an interesting idea that can be added to findings in management accounting research.

There are limitations that should be noted in this study. First, adopting organisational capabilities theories based on Kato and Yoshida (1998) would make it easier to address the study objective, but such theories are incomplete and sometimes conflicting when the nature of the factors are not identified. Other relative theories also can be adopted. According to Kato and Yoshida (1998), the theory of organisational knowledge creation is

a source of continuous innovation that is perceived as one of the competitive advantages of Japanese companies. Second, the sample size limitation in the automotive industry was one of the constraints for data and results generalisation, especially for different industries. Third, like any other questionnaire survey, the limitation of data collection using such a method was also encountered. Many attempts were made to get reliable information, especially when the research sample was classified into two groups, car makers and part and component makers, as the number of car makers is larger than that of part and component makers. Although using the Malaysian automotive industry as a case study sample was a good way to discover the broad view of TC implementation issues, especially in relatively new literature, future research must build on the foundations using multiple-industrial case study methods that are more suitable for providing cross-sectional valid data and powerful statistical results.

REFERENCES

- Afonso, P., Nunes, M., Paisana, A., & Braga, A. (2008). The influence of time-to-market and target costing in the new product development success. *International Journal of Production Economics*, 115(2), 559–568.
- Al-Awawdeh, W., & Al-Sharairi, J. (2012). The relationship between target costing and competitive advantage of Jordanian private universities. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 7(8), 123–142.

- Ansari, S. L., & Bell, J. E. (1997). *The CAM-I Target cost core group (1997), target costing: The next frontier in strategic cost management*. A CAM-I/CMS model for profit planning and cost management. IRWIN, McGraw Hill, New York.
- Awang, Z. (2012). *Structural equation modeling using AMOS graphic*. Malaysia: Penerbit Universiti Teknologi MARA.
- Ax, C., Greve, J., & Nilsson, U. (2008). The impact of competition and uncertainty on the adoption of target costing. *International Journal of Production Economics*, 115(1), 92–103.
- Baharudin, N., & Jusoh, R. (2015). Target cost management (TCM): A case study of an automotive company. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 172, 525–532.
- Becker, B. E., Ulrich, D., & Huselid, M. A. (2001). *The HR scorecard: Linking people, strategy, and performance*. United States of America, USA: Harvard Business Press.
- Byrne, B. M. (2010). *Structural equation modeling with AMOS: Basic concepts, applications, and programming* (2nd ed.). New York, NY, US: Routledge.
- Camuffo, A., & Volpato, G. (1996). Dynamic capabilities and manufacturing automation: Organizational learning in the Italian automobile industry. *Industrial and Corporate Change*, 5(3), 813–838.
- Căpușneanu, S., & Briciu, S. (2011). Analysis of the possibility to organize the management accounting through the target costing (TC) method in the Romanian entities. *Theoretical and Applied Economics*, XVIII 9(562), 71–88.
- Chenhall, R., & Langfield-Smith, K. (1998). Adoption and benefits of management accounting practices: An Australian study. *Management Accounting Research*, 9(June 1997), 1–19.
- Cooper, R. (1994, October). Japanese cost management practices. *CMA Magazine*, 68(8), 20-25.
- Cooper, R. (1995). *When lean enterprises collide: Competing through confrontation*. United States of America, USA: Harvard Business Press.
- Cooper, R., & Slagmulder, R. (1997). *Factors influencing the target costing process: Lessons from Japanese practice*. (Doctoral dissertation). University of Ghent.
- Cooper, R., & Slagmulder, R. (1999). Develop profitable new products with target costing. *Sloan Management Review*, 40(4), 23.
- Cooper, W., Sinha, K., & Sullivan, R. (1995). Accounting for complexity in costing high technology manufacturing. *European Journal of Operational Research*, 85(2), 316–326.
- Duh, R., Xiao, J. Z., & Chow, C. W. (2009). Chinese firms' use of management accounting and controls: Facilitators, impediments, and performance effects. *Journal of International Accounting Research*, 8(1), 1–30.
- Ellram, L. (2006). The implementation of target costing in the United States: Theory versus practice. *Journal of Supply Chain Management*, 42(1), 13-26.
- Everaert, P., Loosveld, S., Acker, T. Van, Schollier, M., & Sarens, G. (2006). Characteristics of target costing: Theoretical and field study perspectives. *Qualitative Research in Accounting and Management*, 3(3), 236–263.
- Ferreira, A., Moulang, C., & Hendro, B. (2010). Environmental management accounting and innovation: An exploratory analysis. *Accounting, Auditing and Accountability Journal*, 23(7), 920–948.
- Fisher, W. P. (2007). Rating scale instrument quality criteria. *Rasch Measurement Transactions*, 21(1), 1095.

- Garratt, B. (2001). *The twelve organizational capabilities: Valuing people at work*. UK: HarperCollins.
- Guilding, C., Drury, C., & Tayles, M. (2005). An empirical investigation of the importance of cost-plus pricing. *Managerial Auditing Journal*, 20(2), 125–137.
- Hair, J. F. (2010). *Multivariate data analysis* (7th Ed.). New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Hamood, H. H., Omar, N., & Sulaiman, S. (2011). Target costing practices: A review of literature. *Asia-Pacific Management Accounting Journal*, 6(1), 25–46.
- Hibbets, A., Albright, T., & Funk, W. (2003). The competitive environment and strategy of target costing implementers: Evidence from the field. *Journal of Managerial Issues*, 15(1), 65–81.
- Huang, H., & Chen, Y. (2012). Target costing, business model innovation, and firm performance: An empirical analysis of chinese firms. *Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences*, 335(November), 322–335.
- Huh, S., Yook, K., & Kim, I. (2008). Relationship between organizational capabilities and performance of target costing: An empirical study of japanese companies. *Journal of International Business Research*, 7(1), 91–108.
- Ibusuki, U., & Kaminski, P. (2007). Product development process with focus on value engineering and target-costing: A case study in an automotive company. *International Journal of Production Economics*, 105(2), 459–474.
- Joshi, P. (2001). The international diffusion of new management accounting practices: The case of India. *Journal of International Accounting, Auditing and Taxation*, 10(1), 85–109.
- Juhmani, O. I. H. (2010). Adoption and benefits of target costing in Bahraini manufacturing companies. *Journal of Academy of Business and Economics*, 10(1), 113–123.
- Jusoh, R., Ibrahim, D. N., & Zainuddin, Y. (2008). The performance consequence of multiple performance measures usage: Evidence from the Malaysian manufacturers. *International Journal of Productivity and Performance Management*, 57(2), 119–136.
- Kato, Y. (1993). Target costing support systems: Lessons from leading Japanese companies. *Management Accounting Research*, 4(1), 33–47.
- Kato, Y., & Yoshida, E. (1999). *Target cost management and organizational theories*. Management Accounting Research. Kobe Universit: Graduate School of Business Administration.
- Kocsoy, M. (2008). Target costing in Turkish manufacturing enterprises. *European Journal of Social Sciences*, 7(2), 92–105.
- Lee, J., Chen, R. C. W., Chen, I., & Chung, C. H. (2002). A target-costing based strategic decision support system. *Journal of Computer Information Systems*, Fall 2002(8), 110–116.
- Okpala, K. E. (2016). Target costing implementation and competition: A case study of breweries industry. *European Journal of Applied Business Management*, 2(2), 18–35.
- Prieto, I. M., Revilla, E., & Rodriguez-Prado, B. (2009). Building dynamic capabilities in product development: how do contextual antecedents matter? *Scandinavian Journal of Management*, 25(3), 313–326.
- Ratray, C. J., Lord, B. R., & Shanahan, Y. P. (2007). Target costing in New Zealand manufacturing firms. *Pacific Accounting Review*, 19(1), 68–83.
- Salzberger, T. (2011). *Specification of Rasch-based measures in structural equation modelling (SEM)*. Retrieved from www2.wu.ac.at/marketing/mbc/download/Rasch_SEM.pdf.
- Sharaf-Addin, H. H., Omar, N., & Sulaiman, S. (2014). Target costing evolution: A review of the literature from IFAC's (1998) perspective model. *Asian Social Science*, 10(9), 82–99.

- Souissi, M., & Ito, K. (2004). Integrating target costing and the balanced scorecard. *The Journal of Corporate Accounting and Finance*, 15(6), 57-62.
- Sulaiman, S., Omar, N., Hui, W., & Rahman, I. (2013). Integrating target costing (TC) Indicators within the balanced scorecard (BSC) model in selected Asian countries: A research framework. In *Islamic Accounting and Financial Criminology Conference* (pp. 1–13). Selangor, Malaysia.
- Swenson, D., Buttross, T., & Kim, I. (2005). Using the CAM-I diagnostic to evaluate readiness for target costing. *Journal of Cost Management*, 19(3), 41-48.
- Tani, T. (1995). Interactive control in target cost management. *Management Accounting Research*, 6(4), 399–414.
- Tani, T., Okano, H., Shimizu, N., Iwabuchi, Y., Fukuda, J., & Cooray, S. (1994). Target cost management in Japanese companies: Current state of the art. *Management Accounting Research*, 5(1), 67–81.
- Teece, D. J. (2007). Explicating dynamic capabilities: The nature and microfoundations of (sustainable) enterprise performance. *Strategic Management Journal*, 1350(August), 1319–1350.
- Weber, M. (1999). Target costing: An integration of strategic efforts. *International Journal of Strategic Cost Management*, 33(Spring 1999), 33–47.
- Yilmaz, R., & Baral, G. (2010). Target costing as a strategic cost management tool for success of balanced scorecard system. *China-USA Business Review*, 9(3), 39–54.



Charcoal Production and Distribution as a Source of Energy and its Potential Gain for Soil Amendment in Northeast Thailand

Butnan, S.^{1,2}, Toomsan, B.³ and Vityakon, P.^{1,2*}

¹*Land Resources and Environment Section, Department of Plant Science and Agricultural Resources, Faculty of Agriculture, Khon Kaen University, Khon Kaen, 40002 Thailand*

²*Soil Organic Matter Management Research Group, Khon Kaen University, Khon Kaen, 40002 Thailand*

³*Agronomy Section, Department of Plant Science and Agricultural Resources, Faculty of Agriculture, Khon Kaen University, Khon Kaen, 40002 Thailand*

ABSTRACT

This paper investigates the historical development of charcoal production and distribution for energy purposes, as well as charcoal's possible use for soil amendment in Northeast Thailand. Charcoal evolution in Northeast Thailand has paralleled the pattern of change from subsistence to market economy. Small charcoal producers employ varied feedstock types from a wide range of low cost, locally available sources and use old-fashioned kilns i.e. permanent clay kilns or temporary rice husk mounds, whereas the larger producers use more uniform feedstock types and more modern, costly and permanent kilns i.e. the brick kiln. In contrast, several large-scale producers comprising multiple small producers continue to employ older production techniques. Charcoal distribution by small-scale producers is at subsistence level for home consumption and limited intra-community sale, while distribution by large-scale producers extend through wider market channels into urban communities. No direct evidence exists as to the deliberate use of charcoal for soil amendment in the region, despite the general knowledge of charcoal having (undetermined)

soil improvement properties. Our research intends to examine charcoal's possible use for soil amendment through more thorough research into charcoal production and distribution in Northeast Thailand.

Keywords: Anthropogenic soil, charcoal kiln, indigenous production technologies, soil amendment, subsistence and market economies

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received: 01 March 2016

Accepted: 26 April 2018

E-mail addresses:

sbutnan@kkumail.com (Butnan, S.)

banyang@kku.ac.th (Toomsan, B.)

patma@kku.ac.th, patmavityakon@yahoo.com (Vityakon, P.)

*Corresponding author

INTRODUCTION

Charcoal has been an energy source for humans for millennia, more recently, it has been considered as an alternative renewable energy source within developing countries (Mwampamba et al., 2013). It is both low in cost and easily attainable, compared to modern energy sources (e.g. liquid petroleum gas (LPG) and electricity). These factors are of particular importance to the poor in both urban (Ouedraogo, 2006; Shrestha et al., 2008) and rural societies (Nansaioir et al., 2011). As a consequence of the recent increase in demand for charcoal, production has increased; it increased approximately 300% worldwide in 2013 (51.8 Mt) compared with in 1961 (16 Mt) (FAOStat, 2014). Southeast Asia produces a significant quantity of charcoal and Thailand was the largest producer in the region in 2013 (1.4 Mt), generating 2.7% of global charcoal production. Much of Thailand's charcoal is produced and consumed in Northeast Thailand's rural, sub-urban and urban communities (Junginger et al. 2001). On the basis of total energy consumed by a household through domestic activities, energy from charcoal constituted 21%, 16% and 6% in rural, sub-urban and urban communities, representing 11.5%, 9.6% and 3.3% of total energy consumption, respectively (Nansaioir et al., 2011). Even though relatively small amounts of charcoal are used in the urban areas, urban dwellers still rely upon charcoal as an energy source for cooking some types of food such as native foods, as charcoal lends a distinctive

taste to these dishes (Mwampamba et al., 2013; Nansaioir et al., 2011).

Charcoal has been used as a soil conditioner since ancient times through *in situ* and *ex situ* practices. While the *in situ* methods involved biomass burning directly in the field (Carcaillet et al., 2002; Marlon et al., 2013), the *ex situ* methods required taking charcoal from external sources to the field (Montgomery, 2007; Pendleton, 1943). These practices were mainly to condition the soil to improve its fertility.

Much of the soil in Northeast Thailand is of low fertility due to natural factors related to soil formation as well as human factors related to intensive agricultural use (Vityakon, 2001). To enhance soil productivity, the use of organic materials for soil amendment has proved effective in improving fertility as indicated by the soil's physical, chemical and biological properties (Puttaso et al., 2013; Samahadthai et al., 2010; Vityakon, 2007). Recently, the use of charcoal for soil amendment has attracted research interest due to its promising agronomic (i.e. soil fertility and plant growth enhancement) and environmental (global warming mitigation) benefits (Macdonald et al., 2014; Verheijen et al., 2014). However, the impact of charcoal on both agriculture and the environment depends on the properties of charcoal (Butnan et al., 2015, 2016), which, in turn, are affected by feedstock type and burning conditions (Antal & Gronli, 2003).

Knowledge of source and type of wood and production technique as well as historical

development of charcoal production and distribution is essential for effective policy making. Effective policies should have an acceptable balance between rural people's livelihood and environmental conservation, notably that of forest resources. In addition, this knowledge is essential for promoting charcoal used as a organic soil amendment to complement and reduce the existing use of chemical fertilisers. Published information on investigation into charcoal production in Northeast Thailand was collected from almost three decades ago. It has shown that limited feedstock was a major problem for charcoal production in rural Northeast Thailand (Polthane et al., 1991) and tree plantation and more sustainable

management of wood resources by villagers should be encouraged (Panya & Lovelace, 1988). More current information on these issues are scarce. We therefore investigated charcoal production and distribution as well as possible charcoal use for soil amendment in the Khon Kaen province of Northeast Thailand.

MATERIALS AND METHOD

Study Sites

The study was conducted in Nam Phong and Mancha Khiri districts of Thailand's Khon Kaen province where high volumes of charcoal (approximately 1,489 tons per year) (Tatayanon & Piriyaoytha, 2016) are produced (Figure 1).

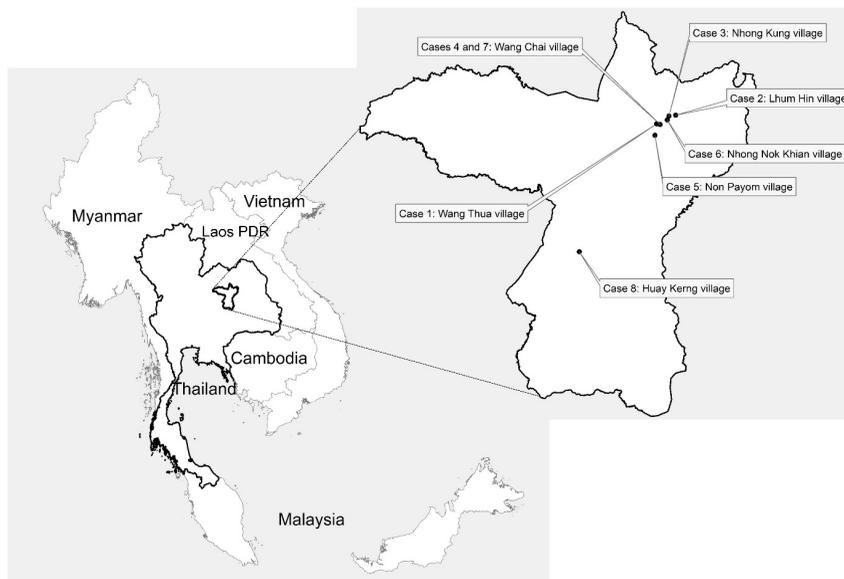


Figure 1. Location of study sites in Northeastern Thailand's Khon Kaen province

Data Collection of Charcoal Production and Distribution in Northeast Thailand

A preliminary survey based on observation and informal interviews with charcoal consumers and intermediaries in the province of Khon Kaen led to the selection of eight charcoal producers representing different production scales, technologies and organisational type. The production scale (small and large) was based on

the number of charcoal kilns, while the technologies employed for production (old and new/modern) were based on kiln building materials. The different production organisational types included single producers as well as multiple groups (or aggregates of small producers) (Table 1). Small-scale producers were examined in Cases 1-5, whereas large-scale producers were examined in Cases 6-8.

Table 1
Scale and organisation of charcoal producers, number of kilns and location of cases within this study

Scale of Charcoal Producer	Organisation of Charcoal Producer	Kiln type		Number of kiln	Location of Case Study	
		Type ^{1/}	Type ^{2/}		Provincial area	Geographic coordinates
Small scale						
Case 1	Single	Clay kiln	Old	3	Wang Thua village, Nam Phong district	16°68'39" N, 102°82'79" E
Case 2	Single	Brick kiln	New	1	Lhum Hin village, Nam Phong district	16°71'53" N, 102°89'71" E
Case 3	Single	Clay kiln	Old	1	Nhong Kung village, Nam Phong district	16°71'21" N, 102°87'24" E
Case 4	Single	Brick kiln	New	2	Wang Chai village, Nam Phong district	16°68'19" N, 102°84'01" E
Case 5	Single	Brick kiln	New	2	Non Payom village, Nam Phong district	16°64'25" N, 102°82'16" E
	Single	Rice husk mound	Old	3		
Large scale						
Case 6	Multiple	Rice husk mound	Old	20	Nhong Nok Khian village, Nam Phong district	16°69'81" N, 102°86'61" E
Case 7	Single	Brick kiln	New	14	Wang Chai village, Nam Phong district	16°68'19" N, 102°84'01" E
Case 8	Multiple	Clay kiln	New	60	Huay Kerng village, Mancha Khiri district ^{3/}	16°22'30" N, 102°54'74" E

^{1/}Kiln types classified based on their construction material

^{2/}Kiln type classified based on technologies employed for production

^{3/}A multiple (grouped) charcoal producer organised by officers of the state-owned Mancha Khiri Forest Plantation Station

Data collection from each of the eight pre-selected cases was in response to the two following major subtopics: (i) charcoal production methods i.e. kiln types and construction, feedstock types and sources, production techniques, and (ii) charcoal distribution. The two subtopics were evident in the semi-structured interviews following the rapid rural appraisal method (Conway, 1986). The interviewees from the small-scale production category consisted mostly of kiln owners and operators and represented five kiln owners in five different locations. From the large-scale production category, either an interview with a single operator or multiple interviews with multiple producers were conducted. In addition to kiln owners and operators, within the multiple producer category, a charcoal-production coordinator, an officer in the Mancha Khiri Forest Plantation Station, was interviewed.

RESULTS

Production of Charcoal

The charcoal production factors discovered from this research enabled a more in-depth understanding of charcoal production, as outlined below.

Feedstock types. Feedstock types in charcoal production are measured in production scales. The small-scale producers, who were categorised as Cases 1-5, used multiple

types of wood feedstock such as mango, leucaena, rain tree and shorea, whereas their large-scale counterparts, Cases 6-8, employed less diverse types of wood feedstock such as eucalyptus or teak. However, Case 6, although a large-scale producer, actually consisted of numerous individual charcoal producers who shared common land for producing charcoal. These producers obtained their feedstock materials from a wide range of sources (Tables 2 and 3).

Feedstock sources. Similar to feedstock types, feedstock sources are also related to the production scale (Table 2). Small-scale producers, having low availability and small quantities of feedstock resources, obtain feedstock from their own farms i.e. crop fields and home gardens or cleared crop fields of other owners. Amounts and types of feedstock remained inconsistent, which could affect charcoal production. The feedstock sources of the large-scale producers were both large and consistent in supply. This type of producer acquired wood feedstock i.e. the upper parts of eucalyptus trees and fallen teak branches from either their own planted area (Case 7) or from state-owned plantations (Case 8), as shown in Table 2. An exception was Case 6, whose production was similar to that of small-scale producers.

Table 2
Kiln characteristics, feedstock types and their sources

Producer	Kiln				Feedstock							
	Type ^{1/}	Type ^{2/}	Size	Performance	Type	Number of Type	Type	Number	Quantity	Consistently available?		
	Temperature (°C)	Pyrolysis duration (days)	O ₂ Access	Pyrolysis duration (days)								
Small scale												
Case 1	Clay kiln	Old	Small	~350 ^{a/}	3	Limited	Mango, leucaena, rain tree and wild almond	6	Own farm: crop fields and home gardens	2	Small	No
Case 2	Brick kiln	New	Small	>500 ^{b/}	3	Limited	Mango, shorea and more	>2	Trees in cleared crop fields	1	Small	No
Case 3	Clay kiln	Old	Small	~350 ^{a/}	3	Limited	Mango and more	>1	Trees in cleared crop fields	1	Small	No
Case 4	Brick kiln	New	Small	>500 ^{b/}	3	Limited	Mango, rain tree, white siris and more	>3	Trees in cleared crop fields	1	Small	No
Case 5	Brick kiln	New	Small	>500 ^{b/}	3	Limited	Mango, eucalyptus and more	>2	Trees in cleared crop fields	1	Small	No
	Rice husk mound	Old	Small	na	7	Freely accessible						
Large scale												
Case 6	Rice husk mound	Old	Small	na	7	Freely accessible	Mango, rain tree, shorea and more	>3	Trees in cleared crop fields and wood from construction	2	Small	No
Case 7	Brick kiln	New	Large	>500 ^{b/}	3	Limited	Eucalyptus and teak	2	Own tree plantation	1	Large	Yes
Case 8	Clay kiln	New	Small	~350 ^{a/}	3	Limited	Eucalyptus	1	State-owned plantation	1	Large	Yes

na=data not available

^{1/}Kiln types classified based on their construction materials

^{2/}Kiln type classified based on technologies employed for production

^{a/}Data obtained from Butnan et al. (2015)

^{b/}Data obtained from National Energy Administration (1984)

Table 3

Local (Thai), common and scientific names of feedstock used for charcoal production

Local (Thai) name	Common name	Wood species
Chamchuree	Rain tree	<i>Samanea saman</i>
Eucalyptus	Eucalyptus	<i>Eucalyptus camaldulensis</i>
Kabok	Wild almond	<i>Irvingia malayana</i>
Krathin	Leucaena	<i>Leucaena leucocephala</i>
Ma-muang	Mango	<i>Mangifera indica</i>
Sak	Teak	<i>Tectona grandis</i>
Teng	Shorea	<i>Shorea obtusa</i>
Ton	White siris	<i>Albizia procera</i>

Kiln types and production techniques.

Kilns can be categorised into three types: high-capital permanent kilns made of brick (Cases 2, 4, 5 and 7); low-capital permanent kilns made of clay (Cases 1, 3 and 8) and low-capital temporary kilns made of a rice husk mound (Cases 5 and 6), as shown in Table 2. The high-capital permanent kilns were often made of purchased bricks, whereas the low-capital ones were generally constructed from locally available clay, sand, rice straw or grass residue as illustrated in Figure 2b. The low-capital temporary kilns were constructed from materials that were locally available and without financial investment, with the exception of rice husk, which had to be purchased (Figure 2c).

Charcoal production (Table 2) under the high-capital permanent (brick) kiln requires the pyrolysis temperature of approximately $>500^{\circ}\text{C}$ (National Energy Administration, 1984), while the low-capital permanent

(clay) kiln can reach a temperature of approximately 350°C (Butnan et al., 2015). The duration of pyrolysis under limited oxygen for both kiln types is three days, after which the charcoal is cooled down (with or without the aid of water) and then air-dried for an additional four days. The temporary rice husk mound kilns require feedstock wood to be piled on them, then covered with fresh rice husk or a mixture of fresh and burnt rice husk. With this technique, the accessibility of oxygen is not restricted during pyrolysis. The free access to oxygen is indicated by visible flames. Pile volume and smoke colour are used as indicators of each burning stage. At the end of burning, the pile volume shrinks as the smoke turns from a white colour to blue and finally becomes colorless. Charcoal piles are cooled with the aid of water and air-dried for another two to three days.

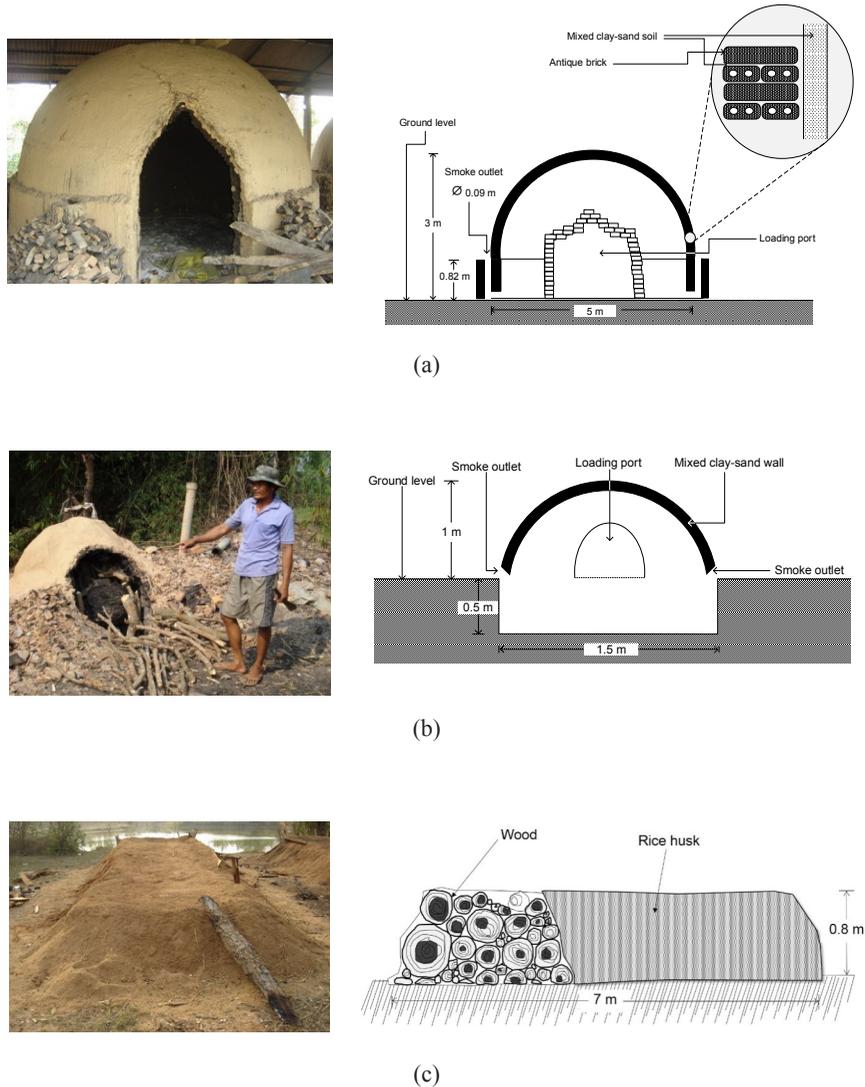


Figure 2. Kiln types and their construction used for charcoal production in Northeast Thailand: (a) high capital and permanent kiln; (b) low capital and permanent kiln; and (c) low capital and temporary kiln

Charcoal distribution. Charcoal produced by single, small-scale producers is used mainly for home consumption and is available for sale to walk-in neighbours (Figure 3), as is common in the practice of subsistence economy. On the other hand, charcoal produced by single and

multiple (group) large-scale producers is produced for commercial purposes and is fully integrated to the market economy. Large-scale producers distribute their charcoal through intermediaries. In urban areas in Khon Kaen, charcoal can be found in grocery stores and restaurants

serving grilled food i.e. Korean BBQ and the Northeastern traditional dishes. Other charcoal products are sold along the highways such as Friendship Road. These

charcoal products from the roadside and smaller grocery stores make their way to their final destination i.e. homes of residents for individual home consumption.

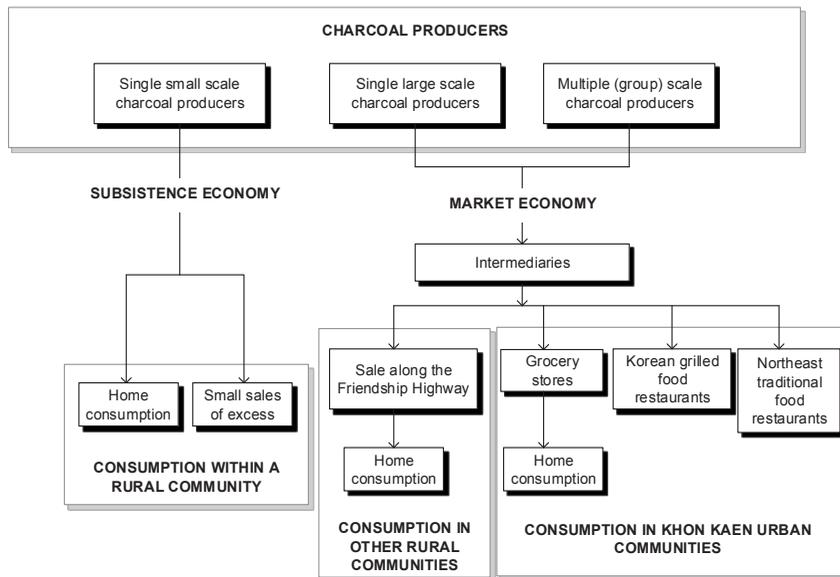


Figure 3. Channel of distribution of charcoal in Northeast Thailand

DISCUSSION

Factors Affecting Charcoal Production among Different Charcoal Producers

Charcoal production among different charcoal producers is mostly influenced by feedstock and production technologies. The more varied feedstock types used by single small-scale producers reflect their lower income, which drives them to procure raw materials from various non-costly, readily available wood feedstock sources such as crop fields and home gardens, fields undergoing land clearance for field crop production, community

eucalyptus plantations or scaffold wood used in construction. Large-scale single producers have relatively higher incomes, which enable them to have their own eucalyptus and teak tree plantations as their major source of feedstock. Whereas the feedstock for large-scale single producers is more uniform than that of their small-scale counterparts, large-scale multiple (group) producers are uniform and varied in their source and type of feedstock.

Older technologies employing the clay kiln and rice husk mound operate under low temperatures (350°C), resulting in a

low-quality charcoal product, with low fixed carbon and ash but high volatile matter, generating relatively low energy and yield. On the other hand, the high temperatures (500°C) of the newer brick kiln result in higher energy charcoal, due to the high fixed carbon content and low volatile matter generating higher charcoal yield. Despite the higher quality charcoal produced using the newer technologies, the investment costs are prohibitive on low-income producers. Single producers of both small- and large-scale categories demonstrate some degree of change in technology for charcoal production i.e. approximately 40% have adopted the brick kiln, often incorporating a mixture of both older and newer technologies. Despite their financial capability for adapting to the newer brick kiln technology, only a single large-scale single producer totally adopted the new brick kiln technology; so, a conclusive statement cannot be made regarding degree of adoption. Nevertheless, it can be postulated that larger-scale producers can afford changing to new higher financial investment technology due to their larger income compared with small-scale producers. This is substantiated by the fact that the only single large-scale producer was a retired schoolteacher with a regular monthly income from his pension. Kasemsrivivat (2003), who studied charcoal production and marketing of a reforestation co-operative in the Nam Phong district of Khon Kaen, also found large-scale producers to have higher income than their

smaller-income counterparts. The large-scale multiple producers retained the older technologies i.e. using rice husk (Case 6) and a clay kiln (Case 8), similar to the small-scale single producers (farmers). However, there was some specific motivation or driving force that compelled them to come together as a group.

Case 8 had the largest number of kilns (60) and depended on a state-owned eucalyptus plantation, Mancha Khiri Forest Plantation Station, for feedstock materials such as eucalyptus wood, which is unfit for paper pulp. Historically, this plantation station belonging to the Forest Industry Organisation, organised the charcoal-making group by selecting households from the nearby village of Huay Kerng. The station also managed the distribution of the charcoal products for the producer group. There was evidence that the plantation station initiated changes in production technology through the construction of a brick kiln for demonstration; however, most lower-income participants did not embrace the new technology or its costs and continued the traditional use of clay kilns. A more complete change was seen in large-scale single producers having higher incomes. In addition to the financial factor, local knowledge of charcoal making further determined the changes in production technology, as both small-scale and multiple large-scale producers had employed their own traditional methods. Similar to Northeast Thailand, the Laos PDR also employed primarily older methods of

charcoal production e.g. rice straw mound, mud kiln and earthen caves influenced by their education, available technology and wood feedstock resources (Mekuria et al., 2012).

Distribution of Charcoal Products

The distribution channels for charcoal products in the Northeast greatly reflect the change from subsistence to market economy. Small-scale charcoal makers produce only small amounts of charcoal used mainly in households within their own rural community, whereas the larger producers i.e. single and multiple large-scale producers distributed larger amounts along marketing channels through intermediaries to urban communities. Excess charcoal produced by smaller producers for their subsistence consumption is often sold to village neighbours for similar subsistence use i.e. cooking fuel. In contrast, the higher volumes of charcoal products by both single and multiple (group) large-scale producers are distributed within a market economy via marketing channels to a variety of consumers further afield i.e. households and restaurants in various urban communities such as the city of Khon Kaen. The use of charcoal as fuel energy for cooking is still favoured in Northeast Thailand, as well as in many other countries worldwide, due to its distinctive aroma, which is locked in the food, giving it a unique taste (Nansaior et al., 2011). Intermediaries are commonly engaged for further distribution as highway vendors i.e. the Friendship Road, resulting in more widespread distribution.

The History of Charcoal Use for Non-Energy Purposes and Its Possible Future Use for Soil Amendment in the Northeast

The burning of biomass as a soil conditioner for crop growth has been practised since ancient times. It has been done *in situ* through the burning of growing biomass in the field itself i.e. slash-and-burn shifting cultivation or *ex situ* by gathering and bringing biomass to the field as was the ancient practice of the Amazons, who developed the famous rich black soil known as *terra preta*. Historically, both methods are used throughout Thailand's Northeast. The *in situ* method of the late Pleistocene and Holocene periods has been reported by Kealhofer (1996). Throughout the mid-Holocene period, farmers pioneered the cultivation and settlement of forests and grasslands through slash-and-burn practices (Carcaillet et al., 2002; Marlon et al., 2013). Since then, burning has been carried out due to the establishment of settlements, landscape fragmentation, road construction, governmental policies and other forms of land management (Murdiyarso & Label, 2006). Throughout Southeast Asia, countries continue to manage their field crops through the burning of weeds prior to cultivation, the burning of sugarcane prior to harvest and the burning of remaining rice stubble in paddy fields before ploughing for the next rice crop (Kealhofer, 1996). This practice of burning biomass could enhance short-term soil fertility and crop productivity by an increase in soil pH (liming) and a decrease in aluminium toxicity (de Rouw,

1994). However, burning of rice fields could result in loss of soil organic matter (11%), beneficial microorganisms and some plant nutrients such as nitrogen (12-80%), phosphorus (17-25%), potassium (up to 17%) and sulfur (up to 60%) (Mandal et al., 2014; Roder et al., 1995).

The *ex situ* practice of biomass burning involves charcoal production transposed to the field. Rural villagers in Northeast Thailand make charcoal primarily for energy; however, observations have been made in soil fertility improvement (soil darkening) through the amendment of residual charcoal and ash (Montgomery, 2007, pp. 143–144; Pendleton, 1943). Additionally, burnt or carbonised rice husk is used as potting mix in nurseries (Annapurna et al., 2005). Research has found that charcoal has been used for soil amendment, especially in coarse-textured soils, as it improves the soil's chemical and physical properties (Oka et al., 1993). The motivation of this area of research was based upon the abundance of rice husk during post-harvest seasons. Other Southeast Asian countries such as Malaysia have applied charcoal and burnt domestic waste to add to soil in their household backyards. This mixture is termed *tanah hitam* (black soil) (Ng, 2009).

The beneficial effects of charcoal for use in soil amendment have been found to produce different effects within each specific type (Mukherjee & Lal, 2014). In the coarse-textured soils of the Northeast i.e. the Korat soil series positive plant growth responses were obtained with not

more than 4% (by weight) application rate of low ash, high volatile matter (VM) charcoal produced from eucalyptus wood at low (350°C) temperatures. Conversely, negative plant responses were found under applications of high ash low VM charcoal produced from the same feedstock, but at high (800°C) temperatures (Butnan et al., 2015). To expand upon these results, we employed published data on charcoal production from various wood feedstock under different techniques, as provided by Thailand's National Energy Administration (1984) (data not shown). We determined that low alkali metals, especially potassium, in woods resulted in low ash charcoal and that the wood feedstock should be mature (as opposed to green wood), with low moisture content (Antal & Gronli, 2003). Given these findings, we propose that the ultimate wood feedstock suitable for soil amendment should have the following parameters (under proximate analysis): fixed C in the range of 62-78%, VM, 20-36% and ash, 1.6-2.8%. Eucalyptus wood charcoal produced under low temperatures must be of significant quality i.e. fixed C, 62%, VM, 36% and ash, 2.4%, while high temperature feedstock is of low quality i.e. fixed C, 82%, VM, 15%, and ash, 4%. We also determined the white cedar (*Melia azedarach*), a fast growing tree in the Northeast, to be of the best quality feedstock for charcoal production for soil treatment with a fixed C of 74%, VM, 24% and ash, 2.8%.

Charcoal continues to be the preferred cooking fuel in Thailand's Northeast region, despite increasing availability of alternative,

more modern types of cooking fuel i.e. LPG, owing mainly to its capacity to impart distinctive qualities (notably taste and aroma) (Nansaior et al., 2011). As for the use of charcoal for soil amendment, a similar trend may be found, based on a strong foundation of local knowledge and local practices of biomass burning for soil improvement, in conjunction with continued research. Charcoal properties, influenced by feedstock type and production conditions, notably pyrolysis temperature, pressure and duration, are important factors in production, as they directly affect soil properties and crop growth. The quantity of available raw materials used as feedstock further influences production through financial investment related to charcoal purchase and application costs. An application rate for a coarse-textured upland soil of 1% w/w (Butnan et al., 2015) or an equivalent of 22 tons per hectare is equal to a cost of US USD3,699 (at USD7.70 per 42 kg charcoal bag). This level of investment is considered extreme for a small farmer of the Northeast, whose yearly income per household is approximately USD2,000. The demand for charcoal for soil amendment may be high for horticultural crops with intensive cultural practices. However, demand for charcoal for field crops may gather strength due to the severe degradation of agricultural soil in the region, where the demand for once virtually valueless organic materials from industrial wastes i.e. filter cake from sugar mills exists. Additionally, charcoal is recalcitrant in nature, resulting in its persistence in soil over time and lends long-term influence

through a single application. It is therefore plausible that a single investment for an initial application can give long-lasting effects to soil and crops for an extended period of time. Further research is called for on these various emerging issues.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The results of this study have revealed the parallel nature of the history of charcoal production and the economic changes from subsistence to market economy in Northeast Thailand. While small charcoal makers continued to employ varied feedstock types from a wide range of locally available, non-costly sources in conjunction with old-fashioned clay or rice husk mound kilns, large producers use more uniform feedstock types from their own fast-growing tree plantations as well as a new type of kiln made of bricks. However, another category of producers, the multiple producer, is made up of a collective group of smaller charcoal makers working together as a large-scale producer, employing production techniques considered as intermediate between their single small and large-scale counterparts. They have adopted the practice of uniform wood feedstock from large plantations, yet employ old-fashioned kilns depending on the individual producer's income level and technological knowledge. Complete adoption of new charcoal production technology found only among single large-producers is due to their higher income and knowledge, relative to their smaller producer counterparts. Larger, state-owned plantations play a key role in organising

the producer groups and supply them with regular and uniform feedstock; however, this has not yet translated into the adoption of new types of kiln.

Distribution of the charcoal products of small-scale producers is similar to that of the subsistence economy pattern, where households consume their own production and any excess is sold to the community. Excess products are not distributed widely. On the other hand, production of the large-scale producers is distributed as done in a market economy, much more widely through market channels to varieties of consumers in both rural and urban communities.

It appears that charcoal production and distribution by small producers have faced a major problem of limited and inconsistent feedstock sources. Measures can be taken to group them together to collectively produce feedstock, such as through establishing a cooperative tree plantation to serve as their reliable source of feedstock. Culturally and historically, in Southeast Asia charcoal has been used to improve soil through both *in situ* and *ex situ* practices. However, successful charcoal application for soil amendment must consider various impacting factors notably, charcoal and soil quality interactions, supply quantities for competing uses, such as energy and soil improvement agents, and cost of the charcoal applications. All these necessitate further research.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

This research was funded by the Royal Golden Jubilee PhD. Programme under the Thailand Research Fund (PHD/0225/2549).

Additional support was provided by grants from the Government of Thailand to Khon Kaen University (No. 532203; 542203 and 581003) and the TRF Basic Research Programmes (No. DBG5180007, DBG5480001 and BRG5880018). The authors thank all the charcoal producers involved in this study for their support and informative accounts and documentation.

REFERENCES

- Annapurna, D., Rathore, T. S., & Joshi, G. (2005). Refinement of potting medium ingredients for production of high quality seedlings of sandalwood (*Santalum album* L.). *Australian Forestry*, 68(1), 44–49.
- Antal, M. J., & Gronli, M. (2003). The art, science, and technology of charcoal production. *Industrial and Engineering Chemistry Research*, 42(8), 1619–1640.
- Butnan, S., Deenik, J. L., Toomsan, B., Antal, M. J., & Vityakon, P. (2015). Biochar characteristics and application rates affecting corn growth and properties of soils contrasting in texture and mineralogy. *Geoderma*, 237, 105–116.
- Butnan, S., Deenik, J. L., Toomsan, B., Antal, M. J., & Vityakon, P. (2016). Biochar properties influencing greenhouse gas emissions in tropical soils differing in texture and mineralogy. *Journal of Environmental Quality*, 45(5), 1509–1519.
- Carcaillet, C., Almquist, H., Asnong, H., Bradshaw, R. H. W., Carrión, J. S., Gaillard, M. J. W., Kathy, J. (2002). Holocene biomass burning and global dynamics of the carbon cycle. *Chemosphere*, 49(8), 845–863.
- Conway, G. R. (1986). *Agroecosystem analysis for research and development*. Bangkok, Thailand: Winrock International.

- Deenik, J. L., McClellan, T., Uehara, G., Antal, M. J., & Campbell, S. (2010). Charcoal volatile matter content influences plant growth and soil nitrogen transformations. *Soil Science Society of America Journal*, 74(4), 1259–1270.
- de Rouw, A. (1994). Effect of fire on soil, rice, weeds and forest regrowth in a rain forest zone (Côte d'Ivoire). *Catena*, 22(2), 133–152.
- FAOStat. (2014). *ForestStat – Wood charcoal statistics*. Retrieved November 25, 2014, from <http://faostat.fao.org>.
- Junginger, M, Faaij, A., van den Broek, R., Koopmans, A., & Hulscher, W. (2001). Fuel supply strategies for large-scale bio-energy projects in developing countries: Electricity generation from agricultural and forest residues in northeastern Thailand. *Biomass and Bioenergy*, 21(4), 259–275.
- Kasemsrivivat, S. (2003). *Comparison between inside and outside groups of reforestation co-operative for production and marketing management of eucalyptus charcoal in the area of Nampong district, Khon Kaen province in the year 2002* (Master's thesis), Khon Kaen University, Khon Kaen, Thailand.
- Kealhofer, L. (1996). The human environment during the terminal pleistocene and holocene in northeastern Thailand: Phytolith evidence from Lake Kumphawapi. *Asian Perspectives*, 35(2), 229–254.
- Macdonald, L. M., Farrell, M., Zwieten, L. V., & Krull, E. S. (2014). Plant growth responses to biochar addition: An Australian soils perspective. *Biology and Fertility of Soils*, 50(7), 1035–1045.
- Mandal, K. G., Misra, A. K., Hati, K. M., Bandyopadhyay, K. K., Ghosh, P. K., & Mohant, M. (2004). Rice residue – Management options and effects on soil properties and crop productivity. *Food, Agriculture and Environment*, 2(1), 224–231.
- Marlon, J. R., Bartlein, P. J., Danialu, A. L., Harrison, S. P., Maezumi, S. Y., Power, M. J., ... & Vanni re, B. (2013). Global biomass burning: A synthesis and review of holocene paleofire records and their controls. *Quaternary Science Reviews*, 65, 5–25.
- Mekuria, W., Sengtaheuanghoung, O., Hoanh, C. T., & Noble, A. (2012). Economic contribution and the potential use of wood charcoal for soil restoration: A case study of village based charcoal production in central Laos. *International Journal of Sustainable Development and World Ecology*, 19(5), 415–425.
- Montgomery, D. R. (2007). *Dirt: The erosion of civilization*. Los Angeles, CA: University of California Press.
- Mukherjee, A., & Lal, R. (2014). The biochar dilemma. *Soil Research*, 52(3), 217–230.
- Murdiyarmo, D., & Label, L. (2006). Local to global perspectives on forest and land fires in Southeast Asia. *Mitigation and Adaptation Strategies for Global Change*, 12(1), 3–11.
- Mwampamba, T. H., Ghilardi, A., Sander, K., & Chaix, K. J. (2013). Dispelling common misconceptions to improve attitudes and policy outlook on charcoal in developing countries. *Energy for Sustainable Development*, 17(2), 75–85.
- Nansaio, A., Patanothai, A., Rambo, A. T., & Simaraks, S. (2011). Climbing the energy ladder or diversifying energy sources? The continuing importance of household use of biomass energy in urbanizing communities in Northeast Thailand. *Biomass Bioenergy*, 35(10), 4180–4188.
- NEA. (1984). *Charcoal production improvement for rural development in Thailand*. Bangkok, Thailand: National Energy Administration.

- Ng, F. S. P. (2009). Horticultural carbon, terra preta, and high-performance horticulture in the humid tropics. *Journal of Science and Technology in the Tropics*, 5, 79–81.
- Oka, H., Rungrattanakasin, W., Arromratana, U., & Idthipong, S. (1993). Improvement of sandy soil in the Northeast Thailand by using carbonized rice husk. *JICA Technical Report*, 13, 42–49.
- Ouedraogo, B. (2006). Household energy preferences for cooking in urban Ouagadougou, Burkina Faso. *Energy Policy*, 34(18), 3787–3795.
- Panya, O., & Lovelace, G. (1988). *Charcoal making in rural northeast Thailand: Rapid rural appraisal of a wood-based small-scale enterprise*. KCU-Ford Rural Systems Research Project, Khon Kaen University.
- Pendleton, R. L. (1943). Land use in Northeastern Thailand. *Geographical Review*, 33(1), 15–41.
- Polthanee, A., Suphanchaimat, N., & Na-Lampang, P. (1991). Urban-rural wood energy interdependency in a district of Northeast Thailand. In N. Jamieson (Ed.), *Woodfuel flows: Rapid rural appraisal in four Asian countries* (pp. 167–201). Bangkok: FAO Regional Wood Energy Development Programme in Asia.
- Puttaso, A., Vityakon, P., Rasche, F., Saenjan, P., Treloges, V., & Cadisch, G. (2013). Does organic residue quality influence carbon retention in a tropical sandy soil? *Soil Science Society of America Journal*, 77(3), 1001–1011.
- Roder, W., Phengchanh, S., & Keoboulapha, B. (1995). Relationships between soil, fallow period, weeds and rice yield in slash-and-burn systems of Laos. *Plant and Soil*, 176(1), 27–36.
- Samahadthai, P., Vityakon, P., & Saenjan, P. (2010). Effects of different quality plant residues on soil carbon accumulation and aggregate formation in a tropical sandy soil in Northeast Thailand as revealed by a 10-year field experiment. *Land Degradation and Development*, 21(5), 463–473.
- Shrestha, R. M., Kumar, S., Martin, S., & Dhakal, A. (2008). Modern energy use by the urban poor in Thailand: A study of slum households in two cities. *Energy for Sustainable Development*, 12(4), 5–13.
- Tatayanon, S., & Piriyaoytha, T. (2016). *Woodfuel flow in Khon Kaen province*. Bangkok: Research Report of Wood Energy Development, Royal Forest Department.
- Verheijen, F. G. A., Graber, E. R., Ameloot, N., Bastos, A. C., Sohi, S., & Knicker, H. (2014). Biochars in soils: New insights and emerging research needs. *European Journal of Soil Science*, 65(1), 22–27.
- Vityakon, P. (2001). The role of trees in countering land degradation in cultivated fields in Northeast Thailand. *Southeast Asian Studies*, 39(3), 398–416.
- Vityakon, P. (2007). Degradation and restoration of sandy soils under different agricultural land uses in Northeast Thailand: A review. *Land Degradation and Development*, 18(5), 567–577.

Domains and Indicators of Consumer Legal Literacy in Malaysia

Norhafifah, S.^{1*}, Elistina, A. B.¹, Zuroni, M. J.¹, Afida, M. M. A.¹ and Norhasmah, S.²

¹*Department of Resource Management and Consumer Studies, Faculty of Human Ecology, Universiti Putra Malaysia, 43400 UPM, Serdang, Selangor, Malaysia*

²*Department of Nutrition and Dietetics, Faculty of Medicine and Health Sciences, Universiti Putra Malaysia, 43400 UPM, Serdang, Selangor, Malaysia*

ABSTRACT

Legal literacy is one of the important aspects of consumer empowerment. The objective of this paper is to determine the domains and indicators of legal literacy in Malaysia. The methodologies used are a combination of qualitative and quantitative research. The qualitative method utilised a Focus Group Discussion (FGD) technique, while the data for quantitative method were gathered through a survey. The findings of the FGD reveal that there are eight domains of consumer legal literacy that are based on consumer rights. The rights are the right to basic needs, the right to safe goods and services, the right to information, the right to make a choice, the right to be heard, the right to get compensation, the right to consumer education and the right to life in a healthy and safe environment. However, the results of the factor analysis revealed five domains, which are the right to safe and quality goods and services, the right to compensation, the right to consumer education, the right to be informed of financial matters and the right to be heard and to obtain information. Altogether, there are 46 indicators for measuring consumer legal literacy. The domains and indicators can be used to develop a Malaysian Legal Literacy Index and provide the instruments for measuring legal literacy in Malaysia.

Keywords: Literacy, protection, right, consumer, Malaysia, empowerment

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received: 06 March 2016

Accepted: 12 April 2018

E-mail addresses:

norhafifahdin@gmail.com (Norhafifah, S.)

elistina@upm.edu.my (Elistina, A. B.)

zuroni@upm.edu.my (Zuroni, M. J.)

afidamastura@upm.edu.my (Afida, M. M. A.)

norhasmah@upm.edu.my (Norhasmah, S.)

*Corresponding author

INTRODUCTION

Literacy is essential for consumers as it enables them to protect themselves, especially in today's complicated market. Knowledge and education have a strong

relationship with consumer empowerment (Duflo, 2011) as literacy equip consumers with the knowledge with which to protect their interests when dealing with suppliers (Worsfold, 2006). Consumers can gain knowledge through formal and informal education. Consumer confusion can be avoided through knowledge. Knowledge that is essential for consumer empowerment includes financial literacy (Ruppar, 2017; Gathergood & Weber, 2017; Elistina, Afida, Husniyah et al., 2017) health literacy and legal literacy, the possession of which will lead to proper decision making among consumers.

The law is used to protect consumers in the bargaining process, during the period of the enforcement of a contract and also afterwards. According to Norhafifah, Elistina and Zuroni et al. (2016) and Nurazlina, Elistina and Aini (2015), legal literacy is important for empowering the consumer. Consumer empowerment comes from possessing the right to get detailed information, to get copies of an agreement, to cancel the contract, to receive rebates and to compensate against suppliers of goods and services. The Consumer Protection Act 1999 (CPA) is not applicable only to transactions that satisfy certain requirements. The main requirements are that the injured party must be a consumer, the subject matter must be among the services or goods covered under the Act and it must be supplied by a supplier. Therefore, only a consumer can make a claim against a supplier under the CPA. According to Section 3 of the CPA, consumers are those who acquire or use

goods or services of a kind ordinarily for personal, domestic or household purposes but not for the purpose of resupplying them in trade or consuming them in the course of a manufacturing process. It is clear from the definition that a consumer can either be the one who buys or uses the services. The ideal part of the definition is that there is no contractual relationship required and therefore, the CPA imposes new statutory obligations on suppliers to protect end-users who may be either customers or not. Another requirement is that the goods supplied must not be for the purpose of resupplying them in trade or consuming them in the course of a manufacturing process. Therefore, it is clear that if a consumer bought three packets of flour with a false *halal* logo, she cannot claim compensation under the CPA if she had bought it for the purpose of baking cakes and selling them for trade transactions. This is because she is not considered a consumer under the CPA. This definition is important because it describes the characteristics of the consumers that enable them to claim compensation at the Tribunal for Consumer Claims when their rights are violated.

Before the enactment of the CPA, consumers were protected indirectly by various statutes (Afida, Elistina, & Syuhaily, 2014). However, by virtue of the CPA 1999, consumers are directly protected through the existence of the National Consumer Advisory Council and the Tribunal for Consumer Claims. However, a comprehensive law remains unhelpful if consumers are not aware of its existence. Only consumers who are knowledgeable

about consumer legal literacy will know their rights and responsibilities (Zumilah, 2002). This has been reflected by the number of complaints filed by consumers. For example, 48,563 claims were reported by the National Consumer Claim Centre (NCCC) in 2016, a figure slightly increased from that of the year 2015, when 44,540 claims had been filed (NCCC, 2016). This will indicate that consumers do know of their right to be heard.

Nardo, Loi, Rosati and Manca (2011) developed the Consumer Empowerment Index (CEI), among which skills, awareness and good practices are the main components. The index highlights that consumers need to possess skills, be aware of their rights under the law and practise good consumer behaviour before they can be considered as empowered consumers. Nevertheless, the instruments to measure skills and awareness in the CEI are limited, with only six items for skills and another seven for awareness (Nardo et al., 2011). An instrument to measure consumers' legal literacy has never been developed abroad or in Malaysia. Thus, this study was undertaken to develop the domains and indicators of a Consumer Legal Literacy Index.

The importance of a consumer legal literacy can be explained through several theories such as the Cognitive Theory by Jean Piaget (1964) and Empowerment Theory by Perkin and Zimmerman (1995). The Cognitive Theory explains the learning processes of human behaviour based on information or experiences by human beings. According to Lefrancois (2012),

this theory has produced some concepts on how the cognitive process of learning can occur through experiences. This is true especially for consumers as most of their knowledge and decisions are shaped from past experiences.

Another relevant theory is the Empowerment Theory (Perkin & Zimmerman, 1995). Empowerment is a combination of process and outcome. Process refers to activities such as consumer education, which includes imparting knowledge, while outcome is the stage of effectiveness when empowerment power is given to the individual or community. For example, information that has been obtained by consumers will empower them while consuming goods and services (Mcgregor, 2003). Furthermore, the asset of this theory is the process of understanding the development of the individual, including the development of organisation and community. This theory is in line with the Basic Consumer Strategy European Unity (EU) that was in use from 2007 to 2013 and which comprised several components that included knowledge, skills and involvement of consumers in the market (Nardo et al., 2011).

Both theories focus on one aspect, which is to provide education or literacy for an individual to get better life. Some studies have shown that consumers always lack knowledge to protect themselves, especially among low income-earners, including single mothers, people with disabilities and consumers who have a low level of education (Schetzer, 2008). This is due to the

fact that the law is not easy to comprehend if people are not exposed to a sufficient level of knowledge. Sage, Menzies and Woolcock (2010) have clarified that the legal system is a difficult system to comprehend and access by individuals. In fact, some researchers like Wook, Kamalrudin and Norain (2011) have questioned whether consumers in Malaysia are aware of their right to file a claim for defective items.

Therefore, the law is important on behalf of consumers because without recognising their rights, consumer will never fight to acquire them. For example, Howells (2005) claimed that the law on advertisements and trade descriptions provides for the right to information among consumers; however, the consumers themselves must exercise their rights by seeking and understanding the information provided. Micklitz, Reish and Agen (2011) have found that the law also affects how consumers process the information received because their cognitive ability will assist them in solving issues. Abdul and Siffat (2013) and Beale (2004) in their studies also highlighted the importance of legal literacy, particularly in understanding a contract before it is signed. By understanding a contract, any misunderstanding occurred during the enforcement period of the contract such as confusion about the payment of goods can be avoided (Suzana, Azimon, & Sakina, 2011).

As the whole, consumer education is very important for consumers' self-protection and empowerment and

educational programmes should focus on consumer literacy for guarding the rights and responsibilities of consumers under the law (Bannister, 1996; Wan, Kamariah, Norela, & Halimah, 2001). Nevertheless, the difficulty is that there are no standard indicators to determine legal literacy, and therefore, this article intends to explain the domains and indicators of consumer legal literacy based on Malaysian law.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

This study utilised both qualitative and quantitative research methodologies. Nevertheless, the focus of the study was limited to Peninsular Malaysia since certain Acts such as the Housing Development (Control and Licensing) Act 1966 are only applicable within Peninsular Malaysia. The qualitative methodology adopted the Focus Group Discussion (FGD) technique, while the data for quantitative study were gathered through a survey. The FGD is important as participants can discuss and come to an agreement on an issue. Interaction among participants may be more informative than interviews that are individually conducted (Casey & Kruger, 1994).

Three sessions of the FGD were conducted to identify the domain and indicators of legal literacy. Three sessions were conducted so that input can be sought from different perspectives. The first session of the Focus Group Discussion (FGD) was held on 14 January, 2013 involving academicians who were experts in various fields of consumer law such

as agriculture, food, contracts, supply of goods, product liability, consumer safety, tort and communications and information technology. These experts were chosen because they were familiar with consumer law and were deemed able to identify which parts of the law needed to be emphasised. The second FGD was conducted on 22 March, 2013 comprising six respondents who represented non-governmental organisations (NGOs) as well as six respondents from relevant ministries. The NGOs were chosen because they were actively involved with consumerism and understood consumer needs. The NGOs involved were the Federation of Malaysia Consumer Associations (FOMCA), Malaysian Consumer and Family Economics (MACFEA), Muslim Consumer Associations of Malaysia (PPIM), Consumer Safety Association Kuala Lumpur, Consumer Forum of Malaysia (CFM) and the Counselling Agency and Credit Management (AKPK). The ministries involved were the Ministry of Domestic Trade, Cooperatives and Consumerism and the Ministry of Health, while the Tribunal for Consumer Claims and the Tribunal for Homebuyer Claims also participated in this FGD to represent redress mechanism agencies in Malaysia.

Lastly, the third FGD was conducted on 26 April, 2013 comprising seven respondents who represented different segments of consumers. They were a housewife, a university student, a working man and

woman, a school teacher, a businessman and a retiree. Feedback from consumers is important as they are the main stakeholders in this study and their viewpoints are crucial for understanding their problems. Other than to identify the domains and indicators of consumer legal literacy, the results of these three FGD were also used to develop survey instruments.

Quantitative research methodology was also used in this study. Respondents were chosen through stratified random sampling. First, Peninsular Malaysia was divided into four zones, North, South, East and West. Then, only one state was picked randomly from each zone through simple random sampling. The selected states were Pulau Pinang to represent the North Zone, Negeri Sembilan to represent the South Zone, Selangor to represent the West Zone and lastly, Kelantan to represent the East Zone. Then, two districts were chosen to represent each state. Overall, a total of 500 respondents participated in this study. According to Salant and Dillman (1994), a total of 384 respondents can be used to represent populations that exceed one million.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Focus Group Discussion

The definition of consumer legal literacy was first of all ascertained from the Focus Group Discussions (FGD), as recorded in Table 1.

Table 1
Definition of legal literacy

Focus Group Discussion	Definition of Legal Literacy
FGD 1	- Literacy includes awareness, knowledge and understanding of the rights and responsibilities of consumers.
FGD 2	- Literacy means knowing how to protect one's self, being conscious of one's rights as well as being knowledgeable of one's rights and responsibilities as a consumer.
FGD 3	- Literacy means consumers know their rights and are aware of the proper channels to complain and file claims for redress.

The participants of the FGD discussions agreed that legal literacy means consumers know their rights and how to protect themselves, such as knowing the proper channels from which to claim compensation. In addition, all the FGD sessions discussed

the indicators of legal literacy based on the eight rights of consumers. A summary of the FGD discussion regarding domains and indicators of legal literacy is given in Table 2.

Table 2
The domains and indicators of legal literacy among Malaysian consumers

Domain	Indicator
The right to basic needs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Imported foods need to be certified by the Department of Islamic Development Malaysia (JAKIM). - State Islamic Religious Councils have the jurisdiction to issue halal certification. - A halal logo must be issued by JAKIM. - Processed foods are required to have an expiry date. - A defect liability period is given for the repair of a damaged house within 24 months from the date of handing over of house keys. - Developers can be penalised if the construction of a house is behind schedule.
The right to information	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The label of imported goods can be either in the Malay or English language. - The price stated on packaging must include tax. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Malaysian certificate recognition logo • International recognition logo • Standard and Industrial Research Institute of Malaysia (SIRIM) logo • Flammable logo • Hazard Analysis Critical Control Point logo
The right to consumer education	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Consumers must get consumer education on their right to the following issues: - This includes knowledge of: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • House purchase • Bankruptcy cases • Sale and purchase of goods • Get-rich-quick schemes • Hire purchase

Table 2 (continue)

Domain	Indicator
The right for safe goods and services	- All advertisements on medicine must obtain approval from the Ministry of Health.
	- All beauty products should be registered with the Ministry of Health.
	- Traditional medicines must be registered with the Ministry of Health.
	- All electrical goods must get certification from the Standard and Industrial Research Institute of Malaysia (SIRIM).
The right to make a choice	- Pesticides such as mosquito coil and termite control must be registered with the Ministry of Health.
	- The cooling off period in direct sales is 10 working days.
	- Consumers are entitled to a refund or an exchange for defective goods although there are notices that goods sold cannot be returned or exchanged.
	- If a consumer receives an item by post that he or she had not ordered, he or she has the right not to pay for the item.
	- In direct sales, consumers may return goods without providing a reason within 10 days after purchase.
	- Consumers may change their mind within 10 working days if they get a better offer from other suppliers in online purchasing.
The right to compensation	- The buyer is entitled to a rebate for hire-purchase transactions if he pays the whole loan in advance.
	- Consumers' right to compensation is not limited to the terms and conditions in the warranty card.
	- The Tribunal for Consumer Claims can hear cases under the Malaysian Consumer Protection Act 1999.
	- The Tribunal for Consumer Claims can only hear cases not exceeding RM25,000 in value.
	- A claim for housing matters not exceeding RM50,000 can be filed at the Tribunal for Homebuyer Claims.
	- Insurance and banking cases can be referred to the Ombudsman for Financial Services.
	- Communication and Multimedia Industry cases can be referred to the Malaysia Communications and Multimedia Commission.
	- Complaints about medical practitioners cannot be referred to the Tribunal for Consumer Claims.
	- Consumers may file a complaint with the Public Complaints Bureau, Department of the Prime Minister, if they are not satisfied with services provided by government servants.
	- The clause "we are not responsible for any damages" cannot provide a defence for the supplier.
The right to be heard	- The Legal Aid Bureau will provide legal assistance for consumers who cannot afford legal assistance.
The right to live in a healthy and safe environment	- Penalties of fines and imprisonment can be imposed on individuals who cause pollution.
	- Throwing rubbish is an offence.
	- Knowledge on the recycle logo

Eight domains were identified based on the rights of consumers i.e. the right to basic needs, the right to information, the right to consumer education, the right to safe goods and services, the right to make a choice, the right to get compensation, the right to be heard and the right to live in a healthy and safe environment. The questions for the survey were later developed to measure these eight domains and indicators.

Factor Analysis (Survey)

A survey was carried out among 500 respondents to determine statistically the domains and indicators of consumer legal literacy based on the questionnaires that were developed through the FGD. Factor analysis is a procedure that is often used by researchers to identify and reduce a large number of questionnaire items to specific constructs under an independent variable of a study (Chua, 2009). Factor analysis in this study was conducted based on the assumption that all the factors were correlated with each other and the strength of the correlation between the items was different from one another. Therefore, items that have a high correlation should be placed in a specific construct because they can measure the same concept. Furthermore, factor analysis is a technique that reduces overlapping items. In addition, factor analysis can segregate the factors and arrange them in certain constructs under respective independent variables (Chua,

2009). The results of the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy and Bartlett’s Test are presented in Table 3.

Table 3
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin and Bartlett’s test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		0.918
Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi Square	9411.964
	Df	1176
	Sig.	0.000

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy was greater than 0.5 at 0.918, thus passing correlation matrices; therefore, the factor analysis could be conducted (Chua, 2009).

The Cronbach’s alpha was analysed and the results for all the factors were found to be above 0.671, indicating that the measurements were reliable and consistent (Chua, 2009). Based on the factor analysis, all the items were grouped into five groups with appropriate subheadings. The rotated component matrix indicated that the factors could be extracted into five factors based on the factor loading, which was higher than 0.4 (Chua, 2009). Thus, one item, “A house cannot be built on land with agricultural status,” was dropped since the factor loading was less than 0.4 (Chua, 2009). These five factors made up 44.20% of the consumer legal literacy index. Table 4 shows the items according to the factors.

Table 4
Five factors of consumer legal literacy

Factor	Statement	Factor Loading	
1	- All cosmetic products should be registered with the Ministry of Health as a type of medication.	0.760	
	- Traditional medicines must be registered with the Ministry of Health.	0.730	
	- All electrical items must get certification from the Standard and Industrial Research Institute of Malaysia (SIRIM).	0.799	
	- Pesticides such as mosquito coil and termite control need to be registered.	0.788	
	- Consumers may file a complaint with the Public Complaints Bureau, Department of the Prime Minister, if they are not satisfied with services provided by government servants.	0.603	
	- Consumers must pay 10% of the purchasing house price as an advance payment.	0.585	
	- Imported foods need to be certified by the Department of Islamic Development Malaysia (JAKIM).	0.609	
	- The label of imported goods can be either in the Malay or English language.	0.533	
	- Suppliers commit an offence if they reduce the quantity of goods.	0.402	
	- Consumers should be able to recognise the SIRIM logo.	0.456	
	2	- All advertisements on medicine must obtain approval from the Ministry of Health.	0.458
		- The Tribunal for Consumer Claims can hear cases under the Consumer Protection Act 1999.	0.665
		- Claims on housing matters not exceeding RM50,000 can be filed with the Tribunal for Homebuyer Claims.	0.512
		- In direct sales, consumers may return goods without any reason given within 10 days after purchase.	0.505
- The cooling off period in direct sales is 10 working days.		0.637	
- Consumers are entitled to a refund or an exchange for defective goods although there are notices that goods sold cannot be returned or exchanged.		0.535	
- If a consumer receives an item by post without having placed an order for it, he has the right not to pay for the item.		0.470	
- Consumers may change their mind within 10 working days if they get a better offer from other suppliers in online purchasing.		0.402	
- All processed foods are required to have an expiry date.		0.692	
- A defect liability is given for the repair of damaged houses within 24 months from the date of handling over of the house keys.		0.617	
- The consumers' right to claim compensation is not limited to the terms and conditions stated in the warranty card only.		0.507	
- Consumers must be able to recognize the <i>halal</i> logo.		0.403	
3		- Penalties of fines and imprisonment can be imposed on individuals who cause pollution.	0.647
		- Throwing rubbish is an offence.	0.653
	- Consumers cannot make any modification to buildings as long as a certificate of completion has not been released by the Board of Architects Malaysia, even though the keys have been handed over by the developer.	0.529	

Table 4 (continue)

Factor	Statement	Factor Loading	
4	- Beneficiaries must continue to pay a hire-purchase loan even if the original hirer dies.	0.420	
	- The Legal Aid Bureau will provide legal assistance for consumers who cannot afford the legal fees.	0.541	
	- State Islamic Religious Councils have the jurisdiction to issue <i>halal</i> certification.	0.523	
	- Developers can be penalised if the construction of a house is behind schedule.	0.432	
	- Consumers must be able to recognize the flammable logo.	0.596	
	- Consumers must be able to recognize the recyclable logo.	0.637	
	- The clause “we are not responsible for any damages” cannot provide a defence for suppliers.	0.588	
	- Consumers will not lose their deposit if they fail to get a housing loan.	0.554	
	- Creditors are entitled to confiscate all the properties of the individual who has been declared bankrupt.	0.577	
	- Consumers who are the victims of get-rich-quick schemes can also be charged because they have breached the law.	0.662	
	- The buyer is entitled to get a rebate for hire-purchase transactions if the whole loan is paid in advance.	0.526	
	- The price stated on packaging must include tax.	0.438	
	5.	- Consumers can be declared bankrupt if they have a debt of more than RM30,000 that they are unable to pay.	0.477
		- The bank is not entitled to repossess vehicles under hire-purchase schemes if two thirds of the total hire-purchase loan has been paid unless if ordered to do so by a court.	0.449
- Insurance and banking claims can be referred to the Ombudsman for Financial Services.		0.555	
- Communications and Multimedia industry cases can be referred to the Communications and Multimedia Commission.		0.689	
- The Tribunal for Consumer Claims can only hear claims not exceeding RM25,000.		0.632	
- Complaints about medical practitioners cannot be referred to the Tribunal for Consumer Claims.		0.483	
- Consumers must be able to recognise the Malaysian Conformity (MC) logo.		0.660	
- Consumers must be able to recognise the Conformité Européenne (CE) logo.		0.656	
- Consumers must be able to recognise the Hazard Analysis Critical Control Point (HACCP) logo.	0.657		

The Cronbach’s alpha was later analysed and the results for all factors were above 0.6, indicating that the measurements were reliable and consistent. According to Pallant (2013), a good Cronbach’s alpha value is 0.6. Thus, all the factors are reliable. Table 5 showed the reliability of each assigned factors. The factors were

later renamed according to suitability of the items that fall under those factors. Therefore, the new factors were the right to get safe and quality goods and services, the right to get compensation, the right to get consumer education, the right to be informed of financial matters and the right to be heard and to get information. The right to be informed of financial matters was discovered through analysis of items related to bankruptcy, get-rich-quick schemes, house loans, hire-purchase transactions and price on packaging. In the FGD, these items were scattered across the domains and through the factor analysis, these items were grouped under one domain, which was later renamed the right to be informed of financial matters.

Table 5
Reliability of five factors

Factor Analysis	Reliability
The right to get safe and quality goods and services	0.859
The right to get compensation	0.843
The right to get consumer education	0.884
The right to be informed of financial matters	0.744
The right to be heard and to get information	0.671

The definition of legal literacy that was identified from the FGDs was to be aware, to know and to understand the rights and responsibilities of consumers. This means that consumers must know how to act, how to protect themselves, be conscious of their rights and become more responsible for their

own conduct. Legal literacy also means that knowing where to file a complaint and claim for redress.

Additionally, both the factor analysis as well as the FGDs revealed that the domains of legal literacy should be established according to consumer rights. The FGDs determined eight domains and 46 indicators. The domains were the right to basic needs, the right to get information, the right to consumer education, the right to safe goods and services, the right to make a choice, the right to get compensation, the right to be heard and the right to live in a healthy and safe environment. However, the factor analysis could only construct the items into five factors that were named as the right to get safe and quality goods and services, the right to get compensation, the right to get consumer education, the right to financial matters and the right to speak and to get information.

The domain for the right to get safe and quality goods and services is concerned with the issue of safety and quality. The indicators were related to safety of medicine, pesticides and cosmetic products which the law has prescribed must be registered with the Ministry of Health. Similarly, all electrical goods must also get certification from the Standard and Industrial Research Institute of Malaysia (SIRIM) before they can be distributed legally in the market. Additionally, discussion on safe and quality products will also include the *halal* status of products; consumers must know that the certification authority is JAKIM. Under this domain, also in terms of quality services,

consumers can file a complaint with the Public Complaints Bureau, Department of the Prime Minister if they are not satisfied with the services provided by public servants.

Meanwhile, under the domain of the right to get compensation, consumers must know the jurisdiction of the Tribunal for Consumer Claims and the Tribunal for Homebuyer Claims. Besides claiming for compensation, consumers are also entitled to a refund or exchange for defective goods although there may have been notices that goods sold cannot be returned or exchanged. The right to claim compensation is also not limited to the terms and conditions in the warranty card. Similarly, in housing, a defect liability period is given to consumers during which the developers must repair any defects in the house within 24 months from the date of handing over the house keys. This domain also includes the right to claim compensation in direct sales and the consumer's right to cancel a contract within the cooling-off period. This right is also applicable in online transactions.

The right to consumer education means consumers must develop critical thinking, raise their awareness and become more pro-active (OECD, 2009). However, looking at the discussion in the FGDs, the participants were of the opinion that consumer education should be focussed on consumers' responsibilities. This is because through education it is expected that the consumers should be able to carry out their responsibilities and be more pro-active. These items were later reconstructed through

factor analysis, and it was discovered that the items under this domain were concerned with the responsibilities of consumers to the environment and housing and hire-purchase deals. Consumers need to be responsible for protecting the environment and should know that improper disposal of rubbish is an offence under the law. Consumers also must be able to identify the recyclable logo. Another indicator concerned homeowner issues such as knowing that consumers cannot make modifications to houses as long as a certificate of completion has not been released by the Board of Architects Malaysia even though the keys to the house may have been handed over by the developer. Developers can also be penalised if the construction of the house is behind schedule. Regarding responsibilities under a hire-purchase agreement, beneficiaries must know that they are responsible for continuing to pay a hire-purchase loan if the hirers die. Consumers should also know that they can get assistance from the Legal Aid Bureau if they are not able to hire a lawyer as they are entitled to get a fair trial.

Another domain is the right to be informed of financial matters. In this domain, among the indicators are the right of consumers who apply for a housing loan. Consumers will not lose their deposit if they fail to secure a loan and consumers who are the victims of get-rich-quick schemes can be charged because they have committed an offence. In addition, consumers should also know that creditors are entitled to confiscate all properties of individuals who have been declared bankrupt.

The domain of the right to be heard and to get information includes the right to knowledge of the channels for making claims for redress. This includes knowledge of the redress mechanism for communications and multimedia cases, insurance and banking cases as well as medical cases. Knowledge of logos is also constructed under this domain; consumers are expected to be able to recognise the MC, CE and HACCP logos.

CONCLUSION

The findings and discussion conducted in preparing this paper revealed eight domains in the Focus Group Discussions (FGD) that were later compressed into five domains according to factor analysis. The domains were the right to get safe and quality goods and services, the right to get compensation, the right to get consumer education, the right to be informed of financial matters and the right to be heard and to get information. The domains and indicators can be used to develop a Malaysian Legal Literacy Index and to provide instruments for measuring legal literacy in Malaysia. Among the benefits of this study is its use in research related to consumer empowerment, consumer protection and consumer law. The instrument developed can later be utilised in future research related to identifying common problems experienced by consumers in dealing with suppliers; determining the level of knowledge among respondents of their legal rights and responsibilities related to transactions; setting the profile of consumers who are most in need of consumer

education; and identifying predictors of consumer legal literacy among consumers. For policymakers, the results of this study can lead to the formulation of educational policies intended to empower consumers and to measure the effectiveness of the National Consumer Policy. Lastly, this study can facilitate consumer associations and educators to better understand the profile of consumers so that better educational programmes and modules can be designed for consumers.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

This work is part of a Master's thesis funded by the Ministry of Education Malaysia (Fundamental Research Grant Scheme) (Grant No: 5524182). The authors would like to thank the Ministry of Education Malaysia for providing financial support to carry out this research work. Special thanks to Universiti Putra Malaysia for providing a Graduate Research Fellowship (GRF) during the study period.

REFERENCES

- Abdul, W. K., & Siffat, U. K. (2013). Critical success factors for offshore software outsourcing contract management from vendors' perspective: An exploratory study using a systematic literature review. *Institution of Engineering and Technology Software*, 7(6), 327–338.
- Afida, M. M. A., Elistina, A. B., & Syuhaily, O. (2014). *Perlindungan kearah memperkasakan pengguna di Malaysia [Protection towards strong consumerism in Malaysia]*. Serdang, Malaysia: Persatuan Ekonomi Pengguna dan Keluarga Malaysia.

- Bannister, R. (1996). *Consumer education in the United States: A historical perspective*. Michigan, United States of America: National Institute for Consumer Education Eastern Michigan University.
- Beale, H. (2004). Unfair terms in contracts: Proposal for reform in the UK. *Journal of Consumer Policy*, 27(3), 289–316.
- Casey, M. A., & Krueger, R. A. (1994). *Focus group interviewing. Measurement food preferences*. United States of America, USA: Springer.
- Chua, Y. P. (2009). *Statistik penyelidikan lanjutan ujian regresi, analisis faktor dan analisis structural equation modeling buku 5 [Advanced inquiry statistics regression analysis, factor analysis and structural equation modelling book 5]*. Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia: McGraw Hill.
- Duflo, E. (2011). Women's empowerment and economic development. *Journal of Economic Literature*, 50(4), 1051–1079.
- Elistina, A. B., Afida, M. M. A., Husniyah, A. R., & Bukryman, S. (2017). Legal literacy on consumer credit transactions among public servants in Malaysia. In S. Fazli & H. H. Ahmad (Eds.), *Consumers in the new millenium* (pp. 97–118.). Serdang, Malaysia: Universiti Putra Malaysia Press.
- Gathergood, J., & Weber, J. (2017). Financial literacy, present bias and alternative mortgage products. *Journal of Banking and Finance*, 78, 58–83.
- Howells, G. (2005). The potential and limits of consumer empowerment by information. *Journal of Law and Society*, 23(3), 349–370.
- Lefrancois, G. R. (2012). *Theories of human learning what the professor said*. Wadsworth, United States of America: Cengage Learning.
- Mcgregor, S. (2003). *Consumerism as a source of structural violence*. Retrieved from <http://cftn.ca/sites/default/files/AcademicLiterature/consumerism.pdf>
- Micklitz, H. W., Reisch, L. A., & Hagen, K. (2011). An Introduction to the special issue on behavioural economics, consumer policy and consumer law. *Journal Consumer Policy*, 34(3), 271–276.
- Nardo, M., Loi, M., Manca, A., & Rosati, R. (2011). *Consumer empowerment index*. Retrieved from <http://ipsc.jrc.ec.europa.eu>
- NCCC. (2016). *Annual consumer complaints report*. Kelana Jaya, Malaysia: National Consumer Complaints Centre.
- Norhafifah, S., Elistina, A. B., Zuroni, M. J., Afida, M. M. A., & Norhasmah, S. (2016). Tahap pengetahuan undang-undang pengguna di Malaysia [The level of consumer legal literacy in Malaysia]. *Jurnal Pengguna Malaysia*, 27, 42–58.
- Nurazlina, D., Elistina, A. B., & Aini, M. S. (2015). Consumer legal literacy, values and consumerism practices among members of consumer associations in Malaysia. *Asian Social Science*, 11(12), 189–199.
- OECD. (2009). *Consumer education policy recommendations of the OECD'S committee on consumer policy*. Retrieved from <http://www.oecd.org/sti/consumer/44110333.pdf>
- Pallant, J. (2013). *A step by step guide to data analysis using IBM SPSS* (5th Ed.). Berkshire, England: McGraw Hil.
- Perkins, D. D., & Zimmerman, M. A. (1995). Empowered theory, research and application. *America Journal of Community Psychology*, 23(5), 569–579.
- Piaget, J. (1964). Cognitive development in children: Piaget development and learning. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, 2(3), 176–186.
- Ruppar, A. L. (2017). “Without being able to read, what's literacy mean to them?": Situated beliefs about literacy for students with significant disabilities. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 67, 114-124.

- Sage, C., Menzies, N., & Woolcock, M. (2010). Taking the rules of the game seriously: Mainstreaming justice in development of the World Bank's justice for the poor program. In S. Golub (Ed.), *Legal empowerment: Practitioners' perspectives* (pp. 19–39). Rome, Italy: International Development Law Organization.
- Salant, P., & Dillman, I. (1994). *How to conduct your own survey*. New York, United States of America: Wiley.
- Schetzer, L. (2008). *Courting debt – The legal needs of people facing civil consumer debt problems* (Department of Justice, Victoria, Civil Law Policy). Retrieved from <http://www.royalcommission.vic.gov.au/Documents/Document-files/Exhibits/WIT-148-001-0194>
- Suzana, M. I., Azimon, A. A., & Sakina, S. A. Y. (2011). Undang-Undang kontrak Malaysia: Keterbatasan pemakaian dalam kontrak pengguna [Malaysian contract law: Limitations in consumer contracts]. *Jurnal Pengurusan*, 32, 39–53.
- Wan, J. W. J., Kamariah, O., Norela, N., & Halimah, A. (2001). Consumer awareness, knowledge, attitudes and practices related to consumer protection. *Malaysian Journal of Consumer and Family Economics*, 4(1), 26–36.
- Wook, E., Kamalrudin, M. S., & Norain, M. A. (2011). Kepekaan terhadap hak membuat tuntutan ganti rugi [Focus on right to get compensation]. *Malaysian Journal of Consumer and Family Economics*, 14, 1511–2802.
- Worsfold, D. (2006). Eating out: Consumer perceptions of food safety. *International Journal of Environmental Health Research*, 16(3), 219–229.
- Zumilah, Z. (2002). Kesan perubahan dan ledakan maklumat kepada kesejahteraan pengguna [Impact of change and dissemination of information to consumer wellbeing]. In Y. Nurizan & A. O. Mohd (Eds.), *Pengenalan sains pengguna* (pp 193–210). Serdang, Malaysia: Penerbit Universiti Putra Malaysia.



Re-actualisation of Honesty as a Principle in Human Rights in the Nusantara Constitution

Jazim Hamidi

Constitutional Law and Legal Philosophy, Faculty of Law, University of Brawijaya, Veteran Street, 65145, Malang, East Java, Indonesia

ABSTRACT

The dynamics of regulations related to the principles of human rights in Indonesia are still faced with fundamental problems, as state authorities and human rights defenders tend to be orientated to the West and Middle East/Far East. Readings on human rights have been focussing on the UN Declaration of Human Rights, the Islamic Cairo Declaration of Human Rights and the constitution of modern countries. However, it appears that the human rights movement today has reached third generation, advocating, among others, the right to adequate information, a healthy environment and the protection of minorities. This paper elaborates, in particular, on the re-actualisation of human rights principles in the Classical Constitution of Nusantara using a research method of doctrinal legal research, in which legal documents become the main subjects of research, including Nusantara's classical manuscripts. Long before Indonesia's independence, Nusantara principles were explicitly incorporated into the classical constitutions of kingdoms and/or sultanates in Nusantara and in practice; these constitutions included the Constitution of Pagaruyung used by the Kingdom of Minangkabau in West Sumatra, the Kie Se Kolano Constitution used by the Sultanate of Tidore and the Book of Panji Salaten used by the Kingdom of Kutai Kartanegara. Accordingly, the People's Consultative Assembly or MPR should transpose these principle to law in the fifth amendment of the 1945 Constitution of the Republic of Indonesia

Keywords: Honesty principle, human rights, Nusantara constitution, Re-actualisation, the 1945 constitution

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received: 16 June 2016

Accepted: 26 February 2018

E-mail address:

jazimub@gmail.com (Jazim Hamidi)

INTRODUCTION

Atlantis (now called Nusantara) is a forerunner to the birth of world civilisation, according to research findings of Arysio

Santos (2010, p. 15), a geologist and expert on nuclear physics from Brazil, who conducted a 30-year research study in the region. This is in line with Plato's views from 2500 years ago in his book *Timaeus and Critias* (Santos, 2010, p. 13). Atlantis was a place described as a tropical "paradise" with beautiful scenery, exceptional wealth of natural resources (gold, silver and uranium), highly productive agricultural areas, and vast forests and oceans that held remarkable potential in oil, gas and fisheries (Dombrowski, 1981, p. 117–128). At that time, the region was believed to have crossed the two great oceans, the Pacific and the Atlantic Oceans, with Indonesia in the middle of the land mass (Santos, 2010, p. 549; Samanto, 2014, p. 3).

Santos' finding was strengthened by Stephen Oppenheimer's research, which was conducted over 10 years using DNA methodology. He concluded that the lost Atlantis was in Sundaland or Southeast Asia, and that it was a forerunner to ancient civilisations (Oppenheimer, 2012, pp. 140–143). From another perspective, genetically, Indonesians today and in the generations to come have inherited and will inherit positive traits of their ancestors. One of these positive traits is the talent of managing the state well. In the past, it was proven that in the Nusantara archipelago, now the Indonesian archipelago, was home to very large nations. Among them were the Kingdom of Tarumanagara, which lasted for 286 years (400-686 AD); the Kingdom of Srivijaya, which existed for 694 years (683-1377 AD); and the Kingdom of Majapahit,

which lasted for 246 years (1293-1525 AD) (Minattur, 1966, pp. 185–187; Supangkat, 2005, p. 65).

Behind the secret of the glory of Nusantara may be that the ancestors of modern Indonesians conducted the affairs of life based on basic legal institutions, what we now call the Constitution (Stark, 1999, pp. 114–116). For example, the Kingdom of Pagaruyung based its law on the Constitution of Minangkabau customary law; the Kingdom of Majapahit used the legal Constitution of Negarakertagama; the Kingdom of Bugis Makassar used the legal constitution of Bugis customary law; the Kingdom of Kutai Kartanegara used the legal Constitution of Serat Nitipraja customary law; and the Sultanate of Tidore used the legal Constitution of Kie Se Kolano customary law (Rosyidi, 2015, p. 135). Based on the results of preliminary studies, those classical constitutions comprised the principles of human rights similar to the concept of human rights as we know them today, although at that time these principles were yet to be named thus (Karr, 2011, p. 582–584). This means that long before a theory of constitution or theories of law and human rights became popular, kings and sultans had implemented human rights principles in daily life, in particular, the principle of honesty, which was considered a fundamental value in social, economic, cultural, governmental and international relationships.

Honesty is the reigning spirit of human rights. The principle of honesty is an important value in every aspect of

human life. For example, human rights in the economic sphere emphasises the importance of honesty in trade transactions; in politics, it is recognised as openness of the government; and in technology, it is considered transparency. The four Classical Constitutions above were regulated based on their constitution as fundamental principles.

This paper attempted to answer the research question, “Why it is necessary to do a re-actualisation of the principles of human rights as embedded in the Classical Constitutions of Nusantara? In this context, re-actualisation is intended to resurrect classical constitutional values in real life today. From there, we will know the reasons that the law (*ratio legis*) might require such an exercise of re-actualisation. However, there are some legal issues that need to be stated beforehand. Do the Classical Constitutions of Nusantara qualify as modern constitutions? If they do, what parameters are to be used as a benchmark for a modern constitution? More importantly, what legal action needs to be taken to perform re-actualisation of human rights principles?

It is essential to raise these research questions and to consider these legal issues because it seems that the progress of Indonesia as a nation today is not consistent with the intent and will of its predecessors. Law facts indicate that the presence of the law in the field of human rights and its implementation, violations of human rights, especially the principles of human rights related to governance, economic life, political life and community participation.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Some theories used as analytical tools to answer the questions above include *volkgeist* (the spirit of the nation), ‘living law’, classical constitutional law, constitutional theory and the purpose of the state. Savigny formulated *volkgeist* as a general consciousness of the people or the spirit of the people. Savigny constructed his theory in an organic relationship between the law and the spirit or character of the people forming a nation (Gerenscer, 2007, p. 1). The law is simply a reflection of *volkgeist*. Therefore, customary law that grows and develops in the womb of *volkgeist* should be viewed as the true law of life. The true law is not created but found in the cross-history of the Constitution (Tanya, 2007, p. 120). This theory is important for visualising the dynamics of the history of the Constitution in the past, mainly to discover the principles of human rights contained in the Classical Constitutions of Nusantara.

As for ‘living law’, Eugen Ehrlich constructed a new approach for understanding the law within society in 1911. Ehrlich defined the ‘living law’ concept as “the law that dominates life itself, even though it has not been printed in legal propositions” (Ehrlich, 1936, p. 493). He asserted that society allows for the intermingling of normative and official associations that employ through an inner order a consideration to find ‘living law’ (Singh, 2010, p. 3). This notion goes beyond functionalism to rest on constructivism in identifying the ‘law’, regardless of the acceptance of the normative order by the

state, whereby, it challenges the state-centred traditionalism concept that proposes that “state law is ... the expression of political power and not a legal phenomenon” (Ziegert, 1998, p. 250). The ‘living law’ may refer to the tri-partite import of organisational norm, namely (a) societal norms determine societal law and its inner order of association; (b) if the traditional values of a society intend to continue to be ‘living law’, the norms thereof must be effectively coordinated and combined with decision-making norms; (c) these values or organisational norms are able to confront the second order/superimposing state law with their full societal potential (Ziegert, 1998, p. 242). Accordingly, classical constitutional law, which had preserved the rule of the king, the empire and society for long periods of time, having survived the time and state law imposed by colonialists, ought to be regarded as truly ‘living law’ that conveys noble organisational norms/values afterwards, in particular, for its successors.

The theory of classical constitutional law, for example Serat Nitipraja, Kie Sekelano and Nagarakretagama, is also important in this study, as the object of this study is the human rights principles embedded in the Classical Constitutions of Nusantara (Hamidi et al., 2015, p. 15). One manifestation of classical constitutional law is the characteristic of deliberation. The principle of deliberation is necessary so that the state can carry out its duties to achieve social justice in accordance with the ideals of the people. Deliberation is a decision-making forum as well as a form of power

restriction. The concept of deliberation has been known and practised in the Classical Constitutions of Nusantara. For instance, the results of deliberation in the election of Tidore’s king must be discussed through a *Bubato*, the highest parliament of the state.

Soepomo stated that the distinctive character of the classical constitutional system of the Nusantara was:

the original characteristics of Indonesian constitution, which can still be seen today in a village atmosphere in Java, and Sumatra and other Indonesian islands, then the state officials are the leaders who unite, uphold the spirit of unity and equality in the people. The village head, or the head of the people is required to enact justice for the people, and should always give shape (*Gestaltung*) to a sense of justice and ideals of the people (Hamidi, 2015, p. 25).

The essence of Soepomo’s opinion above is that a village officer, working for the government, and a traditional village chief should have the same perception. What is meant by the same perception is that both should be in agreement regarding spatial planning, estates, legacies etc.

On the contrary, Yamin insisted that the principle of deliberation is the original nature of Indonesian civilisation, evident in the life of the people even before the advent of Islam:

The principle of deliberation makes up the society and state administration based on the joint decision. Among all

Islamic countries in the world, perhaps Indonesia [as a] nation is the one that highly expresses deliberation basis and gives distinctive colour to the implementation of deliberation. This is not coincidental, but related since it is corroborated by the nature of the original civilization. ...” (Hamidi et al., 2015, p. 100).

The affirmation of the existence of classical constitutional law or that of a customary law community is set out in Article 18(b) of the 1945 Constitution of the Republic of Indonesia, as given below:

- (1) The State shall recognize and respect the units of local government that are special and are regulated by law.
- (2) The State shall recognize and respect units of customary law communities¹ along with their traditional rights as long as they are alive and in accordance with the development of society and the principles of the Unitary Republic of Indonesia, which are regulated by law.

Recognition and respect for the local government units, for example, Nagari in West Sumatra, Desa in Java and Gampong in Sulawesi, that are special include the enactment of the customary constitutional law in accordance with the structure of the local community. The above is also the basis for the recognition of legal pluralism (Redi, 2014, p. 231) because, in addition to the laws made by the state, there are laws that live and grow within society.

Customary law, which survives and came from within society, is the original source of the constitutional system that is now used by Indonesia. It is also recognised by the founders of our nation. Customary laws, which are still alive and valid up to now, should be protected and cared for earnestly to preserve and honour their existence as the root of Indonesian history and as the pure source of Indonesian’s classical constitutional law. History has proven that the Indonesian people lived by the tenets of a classical constitution long before the independence of Indonesia in 1945 gave them a modern constitution arranged by K.C. Wheare and C. F. Strong.

Wheare (1951, p. 44) divided the constitution into two senses, namely, a constitution in its broadest sense and constitution in its strict sense. Constitution in its broadest sense describes the entire system of governance as well as the collection of regulations that govern or direct the government. Constitution in the strict sense is a collection of written basic regulations or written basic laws contained in one document or several documents incorporating state governance (Thaib et al., 2013, p. 51). Strong the defined Constitution as “a collection of principles according to which the power of the government, the rights of the governed, and the relations between the two are adjusted” (1963, p. 78). The definition of Constitution according to Strong (1963, p. 80) is broader than the definition of Constitution proposed by Lord Bryce because it is not enough for a constitution to merely set the functions

and the authority of political and social framework for the State, including the state apparatus governed by law. It must also set the rights of the people and the relationship between them. A country or a political body is said to have a Constitution when the different parts of the nation and their functions have been arranged clearly and are not influenced by the behaviour of a tyrant.

The substance of a Constitution also guarantees the power of the state for proper governance and conduct, so it is necessary to set detailed rules that include (i) the limit of power owned by the head of state, (2) citizens' rights, (3) institutions exercising the authority of the state, (4) procedure for the formation of the Constitution, and (5) an independent judiciary. A Constitution is actually a social contract between the people as the sovereign owner with one person or a few people who are given the right to manage state authority (Manan, 2014, p. 76). Experts such as Bagir Manan, Dahlan Thaib, Jazim Hamidi, K. C. Wheare and C. F. Strong agree that the Constitution has always regulated issues on the principles of human rights. Our preliminary studies showed that the Classical Constitutions of Nusantara also established the principles of human rights.

Related to the purposes of the country, each constitution, classical and modern, also manages them, as in the Preamble of the 1945 Constitution of the Republic of Indonesia, paragraph 3, which states, "for the welfare of all the people of Indonesia." In the Traditional Constitution of the Bugis

people, for instance, Article 23 lays out the duties of the leaders or Kings as being: (1) to prosper the people; (2) to teach integrity; (3) to actualise the people's welfare.

RESEARCH METHOD

This study was based on normative legal research with several approaches i.e. philosophical, historical, comparative and legislative. The relevant philosophical approach was used in this study because of the search for the principles of human rights. The use of the philosophical approach in this study was right because examining fundamental values is important for social life. The historical approach meant by the author is the historical illustration of the Classical Constitutions of Nusantara. The pilot project was the Kingdom of Pagaruyung-Minangkabau in West Sumatra, the Kingdom of Kutai Kartanegara in East Kalimantan, the Kingdom of Bugis in South Sulawesi and the Sultanate of Tidore in North Maluku. To strengthen this assessment, a comparative approach to studying the regulation of human rights principles, which rests on the principle of honesty as concerning the four constitutions above, was also conducted to know the similarities and differences between the Constitutions of the four kingdoms. The legislative approach emphasised whether the Classical Constitutions of the kingdoms/sultanates could be qualified as modern constitutions. All legal materials were collected and then analysed using prescriptive analytics.

FINDINGS

The temporary result is that the *Serat* or book from the four kingdoms/sultanates can be qualified as a modern constitution, since classical constitutions existed long before modern constitutional theory itself was born (Wheare, 1952, p. 30; Strong, 1963, p. 25). The modern indicators stated by Wheare (1952, p. 30) and Strong (1963, p. 25) are fulfilled in Nusantara’s Classical Constitutions. Meanwhile, it is important

to actualise the value of human rights principles disclosed in the four Classical Constitutions of Nusantara through legal and constitutional reform in the future.

The evidence that the four Nusantara Classical Constitutions can be qualified i.e. they have fulfilled the indicators as a modern constitution stated by K. C. Wheare (1952, p. 30) and C. F. Strong (1963, p.25) is documented in Table 1 below.

Table 1
Qualification of modern constitution for Nusantara constitution

No.	Characteristic of Modern Constitution	Name of Classical Constitution <i>a quo</i>			
		Minang-kabau	<i>Serat Niti Praja</i>	Bugis	<i>Kie Se Kolano</i>
1	The limit of authority of state government	✓	✓	✓	✓
2	Citizen rights (such as human rights)	✓	✓	✓	✓
3	State institutions	✓	✓	✓	✓
4	Procedure for constitution change	✓	✓	✓	✓
5	The presence of an independent judiciary	✓	✓	✓	✓
6	Functions and the authority of political society framework (state)	✓	✓	✓	✓

Table 1 indicates the modern criteria of the constitution that are also seen in the classical Nusantara Constitutions, proving their relevance as modern constitutions.

DISCUSSION

The following discussion outlines the human rights principles embedded in the Classical Constitutions of Nusantara.

Qualification of Classical Constitution of the Nusantara

Referring to the theory of constitution and the substance of a constitution as described above, the author argues that a classical constitution can qualify as a modern constitution when it clearly regulates issues concerning the limit of the authority of the state government,

citizen rights, state institutions, procedure for constitution change and the presence of an independent judiciary. A classical constitution also indirectly regulates the principles of human rights. The principles of human rights embedded in each Classical Constitution of Nusantara are discussed below (Rosyidi, 2015, pp. 76–87).

Human Rights Principles in Minangkabau Classical Constitution

The Minangkabau Classical Constitution focusses on the regulation of morality because the authority of the country, which ranges from the highest (the King) to the lowest servant, is required to have a deep sense of love for the state, citizens, scholars, religious leaders, parents, professionals in various fields, traditional leaders and people who are always honest. Below is a translation of the norms that govern it.

Paragraph 28.16. “At that time Datuk Perpatih Sebatang had a message for all people to hold or comply with his words (command), which consisted of eight injunctions. The first was love for the country, the second was love for everything belonging to the country, the third was love for the pious, the fourth was love for scholars, the fifth was love for parents, the sixth was love for craftsmen, the seventh was love for leaders, and the eighth was love for those who keep their word or honest people. These are primary or main in nature or the kingdom and primary in the *nagari* (villages). Do not alter these

injunctions after I am gone so that your efforts will endure forever. . . .”

The constitutional norm, which commands people to act fairly and honestly, according to the desire of their ancestors, places things in order and provides appropriate sanctions for wrongdoing. The Minangkabau had a proverb that encapsulated the essence of justice: “If you want to pound rice it must be in a mortar, but if you want to cook rice it must be in a pot.” The proverb implies that if the reverse were done i.e. if rice were pound in a pot and cooked in a mortar, which is a metaphor for referring to twisting the truth, the country will suffer as a consequence.

The success recipe for managing the authority of a state is very clearly and completely set out in the Minangkabau customary Constitution, as highlighted in the following excerpt (in translation): “Paragraph 46.6 ‘Keep yourself on the right path, do not worry if people abandon you. Do not turn [away] because of praise and reproach and do not be afraid of anyone other than Allah”. This article specifies the norm that guides citizens and leaders towards practising noble moral standards. Commendable moral standards have a very important role in physical development. Yet, constitutional norm similar to this is not found in the 1945 Constitution of the Republic of Indonesia. Paragraph 46.6 contains matters about Human Rights, such as the values of openness, integrity and truth. The value of truth, openness and integrity are part of the third wave of Human Rights’ values.

Human Rights Principles in Serat Nitipraja Classical Constitution

The Customary Constitution of Serat Nitipraja from the Kingdom of Kutai Kartanegara in Kalimantan stipulates three kinds of behaviour for a king and/or *Patih*. The first is directed at a king and/or *Patih* who displays bad/despicable behaviour. The sentence below in Serat Nitipraja describes the behaviour of a king and/or *Patih* who behaves badly or despicably:

Article 10: If you are destined to be a king, there is a piece of advice in Niti Praja about contemptible and dishonourable character or action, moderate character or action and prime character or action. Contemptible character is displayed by one who does not understand Niti Praja until the enemy comes, or is too busy making merry, enveloped by lust or acts cowardly, and [this] is because one is controlled by his own lust.

On the other hand, a king who is moderate in character is described as a king who is careful, obeys orders and *Angger-Agger* (legislation), has strong belief, follows the example of previous great leaders, has no personal interest, loves the weak and strives for the social welfare of his citizens. These parameters are stipulated in the Serat Nitipraja Constitution.

Human Rights Principles in Bugis Customary Constitution

There are 14 morality traits that should be displayed by the King of Bone as one who

holds state authority, as given in the Bugis Customary Constitution. These include (1) having a strong and sturdy heart and not feeling afraid and nervous or showing doubt; (2) feeling shame at unsatisfactory achievement; (3) having a high level of honesty; (4) thinking constantly of improving the people's welfare; (5) being generous; (6) being able to set a good example and give good advice; (7) being open to investors from outside; (8) being willing to make difficult decisions; (9) not leaving the state and nation in difficult circumstances; (10) continuing to build political communication with the people as the initial owner of sovereignty; (11) prioritising populist economic development, among others, in the field of agriculture; (12) having the courage to face a variety of threats, challenges, obstacles and interference; (13) showing appreciation for the people who contribute to the state; and (14) having high empathy for people who are weak and helpless. The prime morality traits are suitably and rigidly regulated in the Bugis Customary Constitution, as given below.

Article 23. There are fourteen moral traits that a leader (King) and his subordinates (state administrators) must possess, namely: First, his heart does not flinch when he hears about the strength of neighbouring countries but he should be ashamed when he hears of the prosperity of neighbouring countries; Second, he cultivates honesty in himself and honesty to God (Allah); Third, he always thinks about the good

of his country and the welfare of his people in order to be on par with to the glory of neighbouring countries; Fourth, he is generous towards his subordinates; Fifth, he gives advice to people; Sixth, he shows pity upon people who visit his region to make a living, and extends the same treatment to the natives; Seventh, he dares to make difficult decisions; Eighth, he does not leave his country for his own good; Ninth, he likes to hold discussions with the people; Tenth, he gives priority to development and agricultural development; Eleventh, he does not flinch when he hears bad news or receives threats from other countries; Twelfth, he is not afraid to face an opponent; Thirteenth, he respects brave people; Fourteenth, he takes pity on the needy and slaves, because if these meet an opponent or an enemy they too try hard to fight their enemy.

The noble values enshrined in Article 23 above reflect the ideals of human rights in as practised in the economic, political, social and cultural aspects of modern life today.

Human Rights Principles in *Kie Se Kolano* Customary Constitution

Legal norms based on the principles of honesty in the legislation of the Sultanate of Tidore are regulated in two legal manuscripts or law codices, namely *Bobeto* (customary oath) and *Kie Se Kolano* (constitution) as well as in the rule of the Sultanate of Tidore. The instruction to act honestly in managing state authority in the Sultanate of Tidore is

regulated in *Bobeto* (customary oath). In *Bobeto* (customary oath) formula, there is a threat of sanctions in the form of a curse from God. If the Sultan and his servants are not honest in managing the government, they must be willing to be punished by God so that they “cannot make a living adequately both on land and at sea.” The complete customary oath of the Sultanate of Tidore is as follows:

You are really the best child/son with a duty to keep a secret, hold the mandate and protect the truth and *Sharia*. You deserve to sit on the throne of the Sultanate of Tidore. You stand and hold the power of the kingdom of Tidore. Remember, remember, remember, always keep honesty and truth. If it is wrong, say it is wrong, and if it is right, say it is right. If you say right to what is wrong and you say wrong to what is right, you are doomed not to be able to make a living. If you go to the land, the forests will be dry and burnt and you will be prey for wild animals. Similarly, if you go to the sea, the ocean will be dry and you will be prey for the fish of the sea. If you act honestly and uprightly, you will live long and happily in this world and in the hereafter. Your children and all the people will be healthy and prosperous.

Besides being enshrined in the customary oath (*Bobeto*), the practice of honesty is also upheld in the Constitution of the Sultanate of Tidore, the *Kie Se Kolano*. The *Kie Se Kolano* Constitution was drafted on

3 Muharram 1285 H or 25 April 1868 M during the reign of Sultan Ahmad Shah's Fatahuddin Kaicil Jauhar Nur Alam, the 34th Sultan of the kingdom. Honesty is upheld in the following: "Anything spoken in a conversation and which has become a joint decision, I, Sri Sultan the Majesty, accept it well, and the holders of 12 books should tell one another so that each holder can take note of this in his own book."

The Sultan's authority in managing the country is also limited by the basic 10 principles of the Sultanate of Tidore, which are:

- (1) To display a sense of shame and fear of Allah
- (2) To display trust and belief
- (3) To display humility and closeness to the people
- (4) To display courtesy of behaviour and speech
- (5) To display honesty, fairness and uprightness of behaviour
- (6) To display unity between the leader and subordinates and unity between the various aspects of the nation
- (7) To display civility towards others
- (8) To display delegation of authority to subordinate regions
- (9) To display sharing of revenue submitted to Nyili government or subordinate government
- (10) To display priority in seeking deliberation and consensus

Generally, the 10 principles of the *Kie Se Kolano* manuscript above can be categorised as human rights concerning political behaviour (shame, trust, integrity and deliberation), the law (acting fairly and uprightly, acting in submission to authority), economic responsibility (the power distribution in the economic field) and social and cultural behaviour (humanizing).

The conclusions that can be drawn from this examination of Classical Constitutions of the four ancient kingdoms in the Nusantara archipelago are: (1) The formulation of legal norms in those times was very clear and complete; (2) The legal norms were expressed using vocabulary that was easily understood; (3) The legal norms outlined both positive and negative effects of honest or dishonest deeds; (4) The legal norms were expressed through metaphors; (5) The legal norms contained reference to supernatural consequences for failure to uphold them such as receiving severe penalties both from God and from the country; (6) The legal norms were open formulation of norms; and (7) The legal norms allowed changes to be made easily.

The question now is, "How is this model or structure of legal norm formulation based on the principle of honesty to be transposed to the 1945 Constitution of the Republic of Indonesia?" The existing constitution, namely the Constitution of the Republic of Indonesia 1945, is an integral part of the development of Indonesian legal system of the past.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

To answer the question posed in the last section, the following conclusions made as a result of this study may be helpful:

- (a) In terms of history, meaning and a parameter for changes to a modern constitution, the four Classical Constitutions of the kingdoms/sultanates studied in this research can qualify as modern constitutions.
- (b) The four Classical Constitutions of ancient Nusantara equally regulate the principles of human rights, especially the principle of *honesty*.
- (c) The principle of honesty is the main spirit behind human rights.

The President, the House of Representatives (DPR), the Regional Representative Council (DPD), the Regional House of Representatives (DPRD) and the judges of the courts of Indonesia have a strong *ratio legis* to conduct a re-actualisation exercise of human rights principles as stipulated in the Classical Constitutions of Nusantara. The concrete manifestation of re-actualisation efforts can be channelled through the Fifth Amendment of the 1945 Constitution of the Republic of Indonesia, through the amendment of various laws and through the decisions of the judges.

REFERENCES

- Anshorty CH, H. M. N. (2013). *Strategi kebudayaan, titik balik kebangkitan nasional (Cultural strategy, the turning point of national awakening)*. Malang: UB Press.
- Dombrowski, D. A. (1981). Atlantis and Plato's philosophy. *Apeiron: A Journal for Ancient Philosophy and Science*, 15(2), 117–128.
- Ehrlich, E. (1936). *Fundamental principles of the sociology of law*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press.
- Gerenser, S. (2007). The law is dead, long live law; or no use for ius. *Theory and Event*, 10(2).
- Hamidi, J., & Umum, B. (2015) *Demokrasi lokal nurut masyarakat Baduy (The local democratisation of the Baduy tribe)*. Malang: Penerbit Nuswantara.
- Karr, S. L. (2011). The history of human rights: From ancient times to the globalization era. *Journal of World History*, 22(3), 582–585.
- Manan, B. (2014). *Memahami UUD NRI 1945 (Understanding the 1945 constitution of the Republic of Indonesia)*. Malang: UB Press.
- Minattur, J. (1966). Gaja Mada's Palapa. *Journal of the Malaysian Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society*, 39(1 (209)), 185–187.
- Oppenheimer, S. (2012). *Eden in the east, the drowned continent of Southeast Asia*. Jakarta: Ufuk Press.
- Rahardjo, S. (2006). *Membedah hukum progresif (Dissecting the progressive law)*. Jakarta: PT. Kompas Media Nusantara.
- Rosyidi, I. (2015). *Reaktualisasi model formulasi norma hukum berbasis asas kejuruan konstitusi kerajaan-kerajaan di Nusantara ke dalam UUD NRI tahun 1945 (The reactualization of the legal norms of the formulation model based on the principle of integrity of the great empires in Nusantara into the 1945 constitution of the Republic of Indonesia)*. Dissertation. Malang: Brawijaya University.
- Samanto, A. Y. (2014). *Peradaban Atlantis Nusantara, berbagai penemuan spektakuler yang makin meyakinkan keberadaannya (The Atlantic civilisation in Nusantara, spectacular discoveries that provide more proof for its existence)*. Jakarta: Ufuk Press.

- Santos, A. (2010). *Atlantis, the lost continent finally found*. Jakarta: Ufuk Press.
- Setardja, G. (1990). *Dialektika hukum dan moral dalam pembangunan masyarakat Indonesia (The dialectic of law and moral in the development of Indonesian society)*. Yogyakarta: Kanisius.
- Singh, S. (2010). *Eugen Ehrlich's 'living law' and its legacy for legal pluralism* (SSRN Scholarly Paper No. ID 1660606). Rochester, NY: Social Science Research Network. Retrieved from <https://papers.ssrn.com/abstract=1660606>
- Stark, M. T. (1999). Ancient history: Indonesia heritage. *Asian Perspectives*, 38(1), 114–116.
- Strong, C. F. (1963). *A history of modern political constitutions*. New York: GP Putnams Sons.
- Supangkat, H. M. M. (2005). *Cakrawala Indonesia (The treasury of Indonesia)*. Jakarta: Restu Agung.
- Suseno, F. M. (2001). *Etika politik, prinsip-prinsip moral dasar kenegaraan modern (Political ethic, the moral principles of modern statehood fundamentals)*. Jakarta: PT. Gramedia Pustaka Utama.
- Tanya, B. L., Simanjuntak, Y. N., & Hage, M. Y. (2007). *Teori hukum, strategi tertib manusia lintas ruang dan waktu (Theory of law, man strategy for orderliness beyond place and time)*. Surabaya: CV Kita.
- Thaib, D., Hamidi, J., & Huda, N. (2013). *Teori dan hukum konstitusi (the theory and law of constitution)*. Jakarta: Rajawali Pers.
- Wheare, K. C. (1951). *Modern constitution*. London: Oxford University Press.
- Wignyosoebroto, S. (2007). *Hukum dalam masyarakat, perkembangan dan masalah (Law in society, its development and problems faced)*. Malang: Bayumedia Publishing.
- Ziegert, K. (1998). A note on Eugen Ehrlich and the production of legal knowledge. *The Sydney Law Review*, 20(1), 108.



A Comparative Study on Quality of Life among Youths with and without Disabilities

**Rohana Jani^{1*}, Abd Aziz Alias¹, Nur Fatimah Abdullah Bandar²
and Ruth Selvaranee Arunasalam³**

¹Departments of Applied Statistics, Faculty of Economics and Administration, University of Malaya, 50603 UM, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

²Department of Human Resource Development, Faculty of Cognitive Sciences and Human Development, University Malaysia Sarawak, 94300 UNIMAS, Kota Samarahan, Sarawak, Malaysia

³Institute of Graduate Studies, University of Malaya, 50603 UM, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

ABSTRACT

The objective of this paper is to compare the self-perceived Quality of Life (QoL) between disabled and non-disabled youths in Malaysia using the WHOQOL-BREF (World Health Organisation Quality of Life - Abbreviated version) instrument. A cross-sectional questionnaire-based survey of 300 disabled students and a control group comprising 523 non-disabled students from Malaysian higher learning institutions were the subjects for this study. The score for each domain was computed using the formula outlined by WHOQOL-BREF. Descriptive analysis was used to analyse the characteristics of the respondents. Due to the non-normality of the score distribution, nonparametric Mann-Whitney and Kruskal-Wallis tests were used to compare the mean scores of each domain across selected demographic variables. The mean age of the disabled students was 21.7 years old (SD=1.9), while that of the non-disabled students was 22.3 years old (SD=2.6). As expected, the mean total QoL score (TotQoL) of the non-disabled students was higher than that of the students

with disabilities. Except for the social relationships domain, the disabled students had significantly higher mean scores for the physical health, psychological health and environment domains compared with the control group. For the disabled group, no significant difference was observed between males and females in the mean TotQoL as well as in the four domains. Hearing-impaired students were found

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received: 16 June 2016

Accepted: 06 March 2018

E-mail addresses:

rohanaj@um.edu.my (Rohana Jani)

iyas2000us@yahoo.com (Abd Aziz Alias)

nurulfatehah0211@gmail.com (Nur Fatimah Abdullah Bandar)

rsa_37@yahoo.com (Ruth Selvaranee Arunasalam)

*Corresponding author

to score the lowest TotQoL among the categories of disabled students. They also scored the lowest for the social relationships domain, with a mean score of 5.91 compared with 16.26 and 15.98 for visually- and mobility-impaired students, respectively. In conclusion, WHOQOL-BREF is a useful instrument for assessing QoL for various groups of people. Accessing the QoL of youth including PWDs could assist relevant policy-makers and stakeholders in identifying problems faced by PWDs and in designing relevant intervention programmes.

Keywords: WHOQOL-BREF, disabilities, university students, quality of life, comparative study

INTRODUCTION

Quality of life (QoL) can be viewed from various perspectives, and can be defined in various ways in different contexts. Therefore, quality of life cannot be specifically defined, as the concept covers many aspects of life and researchers agree that the definition of quality of life is a multidimensional character definition (Dučinskienė, Kalėdienė, & Petrauskienė, 2003; Kane, 2003; Taillefer, Dupuis, Roberge, & LeMay, 2003). In fact, many studies have been carried out to reflect quality of life, but different researchers have given the term different definitions. This is because the definition given is aligned to the purpose of the specific research. The literature provides 107 definitions for quality of life that have been proposed by different researchers (Andelman et al.,

1998). This indicates that there is no single precise definition that can best describe the concept, quality of life.

The World Health Organisation Quality of Life (WHOQOL) Group defined quality of life as “An individual’s perception of their position in life in the context of the culture and value systems in which they live and in relation to their goals, expectations, standards, and concerns” (WHO, 1996, p. 5). This definition relates to a person’s physical well-being, which incorporates physical health, psychological health, level of independence, social relationships, personal beliefs and his or her relationship to salient features of the environment. WHOQOL-BREF is an instrument developed by WHO that has been used by many researchers to evaluate the quality of life of students at higher learning institutions (Dučinskienė et al., 2003; Li, Kay, & Nokkaew, 2009; Min, Shin, Kim, Chung, & Kim, 2000). WHOQOL-BREF was developed by WHO based on data collected from respondents of various cultural backgrounds from 23 different countries. According to Chen, Wu and Yao (2006), WHOQOL-BREF is able to assess the quality of life of people from different cultures and different age groups. WHOQOL-BREF is also widely used to assess quality of life among youth, including students at higher learning institution. In addition, this instrument has also been tested for its effectiveness and reliability by many researchers, specifically for investigating the quality of life of youth and university students from countries like Lithuania, Taiwan, Iran and Thailand (Chen et al.,

2006; Dučinskienė et al., 2003; Krägeloh et al., 2011; Li et al., 2009).

Improving quality of life (QoL) is a central issue in the care and support of Persons with Disabilities (PWDs). The quality of life for PWDs has not been studied extensively in Malaysia because priority have been given to QoL of other target groups with specific illnesses like cancer (Sharifa Ezat, Syed, & Paul, 2009), schizophrenia (Mubarak, 2005) and asthma (Sararaks, Rugayah, Azman, Karuthan, & Low, 2001). This study, therefore, is a major step towards enhancing the QoL of PWDs in Malaysia. The focus must be on nurturing and developing the internal resources of the selected target groups over their lifetime within a supportive social environment with a stable economy. The degree of QoL of society reflects the level of national prosperity and the quality of its society. This underlines the importance of policies prioritising economic development without omitting the need for welfare and social standards. Poor quality of life particularly affects socially disadvantaged groups such as people with disabilities, the unemployed, the poor, the socially isolated and the elderly as well as unskilled workers. This clearly endorses the need for policy intervention that can help these segments of the population.

While several studies on QoL have been conducted in Malaysia by other researchers, little has been written about it particularly the QoL of PWDs compared with that of non-PWDs. In view of the prevailing gap, the objective of the paper was to examine

QoL of the disabled and non-disabled youth in Malaysia. The focus of the study was primarily on comparing their self-perceived QoL in four domains, social relationships, physical health, psychological health and environment measured using the WHOQOL-BREF instrument. This study will add to existing knowledge that will help in understanding the QoL of disabled and non-disabled youth in the Malaysian context.

MATERIALS AND METHOD

Participants

A cross-sectional study design was used in this study. A total of 300 disabled students and 523 non-disabled students (controls) from Malaysian higher learning institutions were invited to participate in the study. Data were collected through face-to-face interviews using the WHOQOL-BREF instrument Version in Bahasa Malaysia (Hasanah, Naing, & Rahman, 2003). Stratified sampling methods were used in selecting the participants; the disabled students were stratified according to their type of disability i.e. hearing impairment, visual impairment and physical impairment. Non-disabled students were stratified according to their field of study i.e. Arts, Science and Technical. The group of youths without disabilities were interviewed as a control group. The survey was conducted after a broad briefing for the participants on the aim of the survey. Their consent to take part in the survey was obtained during the briefing.

Instrument

The WHOQOL-BREF model developed by WHO consists of four domains and 26 items. The domains are physical health (seven items), psychological health (six items), social relationships (three items) and environment (eight items). There are also two global items, overall quality of life and general health. The physical health domain includes items on pain and discomfort, energy and fatigue, sleep and rest, dependence on medication, mobility, activities of daily living and working capacity. The psychological health domain measures positive feeling, spirituality, thinking and learning, body image, self-esteem and negative feeling. The social relationships domain contains questions on personal relationships, sexual relationships and social support. The environment domain covers issues related to physical safety and security, home environment, financial resources, access to health and social care, information skills, recreation and leisure, physical environment and transport.

However, one item from social relationships was excluded from this study since that item refers to matters related to sexual behaviour and this was incompatible with the culture of students in higher learning institutions in Malaysia. The item on sex read, ‘Are you satisfied with your sex life?’ According to a study conducted by Chen et al. (2006) the sex item can be excluded from the model to suit the rationality of younger

respondents. Therefore, only 25 items were used to measure the QoL of the respondents in this study.

Internal Consistency

The internal consistency of WHOQOL-BREF was measured using Cronbach’s alpha scores. Internal consistency less than 0.6 is considered poor as scores greater than or equal to 0.6 are considered acceptable and adequate in terms of internal consistency. A reliability value above 0.8 is considered good. Therefore, the closer the Cronbach’s alpha gets to 1.0, the better is the reliability (Serakan & Bougie, 2003). The findings of the study, shown in Table 1, indicated satisfactory alpha coefficients in all domains. Lower reliability for the social relationships domain among non-disabled person (control) has also been reported in others studies (Bredemeier, Wagner, Agranonik, Perez, & Fleck, 2014; Lucas-Carrasco et al., 2010; Skevington, Lotfy, & O’Connell, 2004).

Table 1
Internal consistency of WHOQOL-BREF domains measured using Cronbach’s Alpha

The WHOQOL-BREF domain	No of Items	Cronbach’s Alpha	
		Disabled Students	Control
Physical health	7	0.600	0.612
Psychological health	6	0.763	0.870
Social relationships	2	0.953	0.684
Environment	8	0.786	0.788

Statistical Analysis

The statistical analyses were performed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences, Version 18.0. The four domain scores were calculated by summing up the scores of the corresponding items in each domain. The calculation of the mean score of each domain was done using computational methods provided by WHO in the WHOQOL-BREF manual. All scores were transformed to reflect the 4-20 for each domain. Thus, the mean score was calculated on the minimum scale, 4, while the maximum value was 20. The total QoL mean score was the summation of all mean scores in the domains with the mean score of the two global items (overall quality of life and general health). Descriptive analysis (means and standard deviations or frequencies) was used to analyse the characteristics of the respondents. Due to the non-normality of data distribution, the nonparametric techniques, the Mann-Whitney test and the Kruskal-Wallis test, were used to compare the mean scores of each domain with selected socio-demographics. The finding was considered statistically significant if the p-value <0.05.

RESULTS

Socio-Demographic Characteristics

Out of the total 823 respondents, 300 were disabled students and 523 were non-disabled students who were used as the control (Table 2). The majority of the disabled students were hearing-impaired (52.7%), while in the control group, the majority

were Arts students (27.5%). More than 80% of the students from both groups were in the age range of 20-24 years old. Most of the disabled students were male (61.7%), whereas most of the students in the control group were female (84.5%). Distribution of living arrangement showed that more than 60% of students of both groups stayed with friends. When asked about financial resources, the majority of the disabled students (65.3%) replied that they received scholarships. The second highest type of funding was self-finance at 20.7%. In contrast, the majority of the students in the control group (35.6%) were self-financed or on scholarship.

Table 2
Socio-demographic profile of study subjects

Socio-Demographic Characteristics	Students with Disabilities n (%)	Non-Disabled Students (Control) n (%)
Type of disabilities		
Hearing-Impaired	158 (52.7)	
Visually-Impaired	39 (13.0)	N/A
Physically-Impaired	103 (34.3)	
Age (Years)		
18-19	19 (6.3)	22 (4.2)
20-24	269 (89.7)	430 (82.2)
25-29	9 (3.0)	60 (11.5)
30-34	2 (0.7)	7 (1.3)
35-39	1 (0.3)	4 (0.8)
Gender		
Male	185 (61.7)	195 (37.3)
Female	115 (38.3)	328 (62.7)

Table 2 (continue)

Socio-Demographic Characteristics	Students with Disabilities n (%)	Non-Disabled Students (Control) n (%)
Living Arrangement		
Living alone	27 (9.0)	75 (14.3)
Spouse	2 (0.7)	30 (5.8)
Friends	198 (66.0)	316 (60.4)
Parents	73 (24.3)	102 (19.5)
Financial Resources		
Self-Financing	62 (20.7)	186 (35.6)
Parents	17 (5.7)	126 (24.1)
Scholarship	196 (65.3)	170 (32.5)
Loan	25 (8.3)	41 (7.8)

Comparative Analysis of QoL

The mean score for the disabled students and the control group for each domain is indicated in Table 3. The total QoL of the control group shows a significantly higher mean score compared with the total QoL of the disabled students. However, except in the social relationships domain, the disabled students had a significantly higher score in domains such as physical health, psychological health and environment compared with the students in the control group. This indicated that other than the social relationships domain, disabled students also had a low score on the two global items, overall quality of life and general health.

Although in this study the control group obtained a lower score in the psychological health and environment domains compared with the disabled students, the scores are considered similar or slightly higher than

those obtained in previous research (Chen et al., 2006; Dučinskienė et al., 2003; Li et al., 2009). This low score was more prevalent in the physical health domain of the control group, as the score was only 13.61 out of 20 and did not show a huge demarcation in comparison with other similar research that had been conducted using the same instrument and a similar group of respondents (Chen et al., 2006; Li et al., 2009). The general consensus was that good physical health may have favourable effects on students' academic achievement (Sallis et al., 1999). However, research conducted by Fatima and Shafique (2015) among 181 undergraduate students found that physical health was not related to the academic performance of university students. Therefore, further research needs to be carried out in Malaysia to examine whether physical health influences academic achievement.

The mean score for the social relationships domain showed a very big difference between the disabled students and the non-disabled students in the control group. The mean score for the control group was 15.92, while the mean score for the disabled students was only 10.71 out of the maximum value of 20.00, indicating that the two facets in the social relationships domain, social support and personal relationships, were not favourable and should have been given serious attention for identification of the reasons behind this predicament. This is because previous studies have found that social support was a positive predictor on QoL (Caron, Lecomte, Stip, & Renaud, 2005).

Table 3
Mean QoL scores by domain

QoL by domain	PWDs (n=300)		Control (n=523)		**p-value
	Mean scores	SD	Mean scores	SD	
TotQoL	14.85	1.817	15.17	1.938	0.001*
Physical health	15.28	2.712	13.61	2.077	0.001*
Psychological health	16.49	2.712	15.43	2.325	0.001*
Social relationships	10.71	6.123	15.92	3.072	0.001*
Environment	15.90	2.212	14.55	2.265	0.003*

The score for visually-impaired students was significantly higher for total QoL compared with the score for the hearing-impaired and the physically-impaired students (Table 4). Also, there were significantly different mean scores between the type of disability in the social relationships and environment domains. Surprisingly, hearing-impaired

students had extremely significant lower mean scores (5.91) in social relationships compared with the visually-impaired and physically-impaired students. Physically-impaired students recorded a significantly higher mean score in the environment domain compared with the visually-impaired and hearing-impaired students.

Table 4
Mean QoL scores by types of disability

Quality of Life Assessed by Domain	Hearing-Impaired		Visually-Impaired		Physically-Impaired		p-value
	Mean Scores	SD	Mean Scores	SD	Mean Scores	SD	
TotQoL	14.08	1.64	15.75	1.737	15.70	1.56	0.001*
Physical health	15.47	2.26	14.55	2.31	15.27	1.74	0.077
Psychological health	16.29	2.79	16.48	2.84	16.80	2.53	0.475
Social relationships	5.91	3.67	16.26	3.50	15.98	3.02	0.001*
Environment	15.56	2.01	15.83	2.65	16.30	2.28	0.045

*p<0.05 = There are significant differences.

© Kruskal-Wallis test

Comparison by age group between disabled students and controls are shown in Table 5. There were two domains for the disabled students, physical health and social relationships, and they showed significant differences. Disabled students in the range of 18-19 years old had a higher score for

the physical health domain than disabled students aged 20 years old and above for the same domain. However, in terms of social relationships, disabled students aged 20 and above had a higher score for social relationships compared with the disabled students who were between the ages of

18 and 19 years. As for the control group, none of the domains showed any significant differences. This means that age did not influence the score for quality of life of the control group.

Table 5
Mean QoL by age group

Quality of Life Assessed by Domain	PWDs (n=300)			Controls (n=523)		
	18-19±SD	20 & Above±SD	**p-value	18-19±SD	20 & Above±SD	**p-value
Total QOL	14.18±1.79	14.90±1.81	0.142	15.32±2.29	15.17±1.92	0.885
Physical health	16.24±2.03	15.22±2.11	0.044*	13.77±2.67	13.60±2.05	0.858
Psychological health	16.49±2.91	16.49±2.70	0.782	15.45±2.37	15.43±2.32	0.857
Social relationships	6.84±5.51	10.98±6.08	0.008*	16.09±3.23	15.92±3.06	0.906
Environment	16.24±2.20	15.87±2.21	0.660	14.59±2.55	14.55±2.25	0.726

*p<0.05 = There are significant differences. ** Mann-Whitney test

The comparison made on the quality of life of disabled students based on gender showed that none of the domains showed any significant difference. This suggested that gender was not an important factor that differentiated between the QoL of male and female. However, the control group (non-disabled students) showed significant differences across gender for physical health and social relationships, with significantly higher mean score for female students than for male students (Table 6).

Table 6
Mean QoL by gender

Quality of Life Assessed by Domain	PWDs (n=300)			Control (n=523)		
	Male±SD	Female±SD	**p-value	Male±SD	Female±SD	**p-value
Total QOL	14.97±1.74	14.68±1.92	0.233	14.91±1.99	15.33±1.89	0.013*
Physical health	15.13±2.22	15.52±1.93	0.126	13.29±2.17	13.79±1.99	0.006*
Psychological health	16.52±2.63	16.44±2.84	0.943	15.31±2.47	15.51±2.22	0.424
Social relationships	11.11±5.93	10.07±6.38	0.171	15.47±3.30	16.20±2.89	0.020*
Environment	15.85±2.29	15.97±2.07	0.863	14.36±2.26	14.67±2.26	0.054

*p<0.05 = There are significant differences. ** Mann-Whitney test

Based on Table 7, there were no significant differences in total QoL and the QoL domains based on all living arrangements for the control group. However, for the disabled students, there were significant differences in the mean scores for the total QoL, psychological health, social relationships and environment domains. Disabled students who lived alone had the highest total QoL, followed by other indicators like staying with friends, couples and staying with parents, which showed the lowest total QoL mean score. This could be because many disabled students who have health issues choose to live with their parents. General health is another evaluating item in measuring the mean score of total QoL.

As for the psychological health domain, disabled students who lived alone had the highest mean score in contrast with those who lived with their spouse, which was the indicator that showed the lowest mean score. In the social relationships domain, disabled students who lived with their parents had the lowest mean score compared with disabled students who lived with their spouse, which was the indicator that showed the highest mean score for social relationships. Disabled students who lived alone had the highest mean score in the environment domain compared with the other two categories of students.

Table 7
Mean QoL by living arrangement

Quality of Life Assessed by Domain	PWDs (n=300)				Control (n=523)				©p-value
	Alone±SD	Spouse±SD	Friends±SD	Parents±SD	Alone±SD	Spouse±SD	Friends±SD	Parents±SD	
Total QoL	15.94±1.93	14.75±1.09	14.90±1.74	14.32±1.80	15.05±1.91	15.51±2.01	15.11±1.89	15.35±2.07	0.350
Physical health	15.49±2.22	12.57±2.42	15.13±2.13	15.70±1.99	13.56±1.87	13.75±2.34	13.56±2.04	13.75±2.24	0.724
Psychological health	17.85±2.00	13.67±2.35	16.26±2.70	16.68±2.80	15.24±2.39	15.60±2.14	15.48±2.25	15.40±2.65	0.776
Social relationships	13.04±6.59	14.00±2.82	11.35±5.90	8.03±5.80	15.68±3.35	17.13±2.27	15.89±3.06	15.84±3.05	0.157
Environment	16.81±2.03	14.25±1.76	15.77±2.32	15.95±1.88	14.65±2.35	14.95±2.29	14.43±2.27	14.75±2.17	0.474

*p<0.05 = There were significant differences © Kruskal-Wallis test

The results in Table 8 shows that all domains and total QoL for the disabled students were significant in the analysis of financial resources. Disabled students who were self-financed had the highest mean score for total QoL as well as all other domains except for the social relationships domain. Disabled students obtained the highest score in getting loans, an indicator of social relationships. The control group showed significant differences in mean scores in the environment domain.

Table 8
Mean QoL by financial resources

Quality of Life Assessed by Domain	PWDs (n=300)				Control (n=523)				©p-value
	Self-Finance±SD	Parents±SD	Sholarship±SD	Loan±SD	Self-Finance±SD	Parents±SD	Sholarship±SD	Loan±SD	
Total QoL	15.53±1.91	14.23±1.89	14.67±1.74	15.06±1.74	15.26±1.96	15.22±1.99	14.95±1.88	15.54±1.83	0.230
Physical health	15.85±1.96	14.29±1.94	15.27±2.16	14.63±1.97	13.80±1.96	13.43±2.05	13.42±2.20	14.06±1.98	0.083
Psychological health	17.58±2.39	16.31±2.13	16.28±2.73	15.57±2.96	15.42±2.36	15.67±2.27	15.13±2.32	16.05±2.19	0.072
Social relationships	12.87±6.82	9.29±6.20	9.73±5.84	14.00±3.60	16.04±3.04	15.92±3.26	15.64±3.01	16.59±2.80	0.277
Environment	16.55±2.18	16.29±1.93	15.76±2.12	15.10±2.73	14.68±2.28	14.81±2.33	14.15±2.16	14.85±2.25	0.035*

*p<0.05 = There were significant differences © Kruskal-Wallis test

Correlation Analysis

The correlation between the domains for disabled students is shown in Table 9. Negative correlation can be seen only between the social relationships and physical health domain, despite very weak correlation ($r=-0.071$) which is also not

significant ($p>0.05$). Among the four domains, the correlation between the environment and physical health domains was the highest ($r=0.572$), followed by the correlation between the environment and psychological health domains ($r=0.519$).

Table 9
Correlation between the domains for disabled students

Quality of Life Assessed by Domain	Physical health Domain	Psychological Health Domain	Social Relationships Domain	Environment Domain
Physical health	1			
Psychological health	0.412*	1		
Social relationships	-0.071	0.125*	1	
Environment	0.572*	0.519*	0.178*	1

* $p<0.05$ = Correlation was significant

However, compared with the controls as shown in Table 10, all the domains showed significant positive correlation between them. The highest correlation between the domains for the control was

also between the environment and the physical health domains ($r=0.648$), followed by the correlation between the environment and psychological health domains (0.637).

Table 10
Correlation between domains for control group

Quality of Life Assessed by Domain	Physical Health Domain	Psychological Health Domain	Social Relationships Domain	Environment Domain
Physical health	1			
Psychological health	0.511*	1		
Social relationships	0.503*	0.498*	1	
Environment	0.648*	0.637*	0.531*	1

* $p<0.05$ = Correlation was significant

DISCUSSION

Over the recent years, the number of studies on the quality of life has gradually increased. However, in Malaysia there are still very few studies conducted on the quality of life of disabled people. This initiative to measure the quality of life of the disabled population enables researchers and policy-makers to study the trends in the well-being of a population at all levels of society. The WHOQOL-BREF was used as the instrument, as it allows the monitoring of policy changes and the assessment of the quality of life in different situations and population groups, including disabled people.

The present study revealed that the mean score for total QoL of disabled students was significantly lower compared with that of the control, non-disabled students. This result was similar to that of a study conducted by Edwards, Patrick and Topolski (2003) among 2,801 students, of whom 220 were disabled students. In this present study, four items were identified as factors contributing to lower total QoL of the disabled students compared with total QoL of the control group. Two of the four items were from the social relationships domain i.e. personal relationships and social support, while the other two were global items i.e. total quality of life and general health. According to Edwards et al. (2003), people with disabilities might be expected to experience a lower health status as they are members of a medically underserved minority group.

Significant differences in the mean QoL score were observed in each domain among the disabled students and the control group. However, three domains, physical health, psychological health and environment, showed that disabled students had higher mean scores compared with the control group. It came as a surprise that the mean score of disabled students was higher in the physical health domain compared with the control, since other studies had found otherwise (Akvardar et al., 2006; Edwards et al., 2003). This finding showed that students with disability in higher learning institutions have a positive attitude towards life despite their disability. Their physical health did not hinder them from leading a normal life. Nonetheless, a study conducted by Lin et al. (2009) among 157 students with physical disabilities and 855 non-disabled students found no significant difference in the total QoL score between the two groups.

Lower scores obtained by disabled students, especially hearing-impaired students, were for the social relationships domain, suggesting that more studies must be conducted to examine the problems they face in personal relationships and social support. Social support that can build social connectivity, such as casual conversation with family members or others outside the home can be an important influence on the QoL of disabled persons (Edwards et al., 2003; Emond, Fortin, & Picard, 1998; Wallander & Varni, 1998). These findings suggested the importance of social relationships for disabled students, regardless of their mainstreaming or

inclusion. Therefore, it is clear there are dire consequences in not encouraging disabled students to participate in university/college activities. In light of this, attendance and priority should be given to activities, as there are many benefits to building social relationships among all students.

Universities have an important role in ensuring that the quality of life of disabled students is accommodated based on their respective limitations. For example, hearing-impaired students are known to have the lowest number of social relationships in comparison with students with other types of disability. In consideration of this fact, universities should organise social activities that bring together disabled students and their non-disabled peers to promote communication and interaction between the two groups. In order to ensure the sustainability of such interaction, sign language can even be offered as a course for university students. This would bring awareness to non-disabled students of the difficulties faced by their disabled friends. Such awareness would inculcate more empathy among non-disabled students for their disabled peers, facilitating improved communication between the two groups, especially between non-disabled students and students who are hard of hearing. Non-disabled students would also then be able to build their own strategies for better communication with their disabled peers. The overall result of such an endeavour by universities would be the gradual removal of discomfort among students who are hearing-impaired, who would then feel more able to

blend into society as they would begin to feel received and welcomed.

Public policy is another important factor in addressing the needs of physically disabled students. Educational buildings should be equipped with lecture rooms that are conducive for disabled students in terms of having suitable chairs and tables, transport to and from lectures as well as the services of a personal assistant for students who may need some help. In addition, the number of volunteers to help disabled students, such as readers for the visually-disabled, should be increased to allow disabled students to feel comfortable and independent. The environment should recognise their needs and respond by providing the help they need. This will help improve the quality of life of disabled students tremendously.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, this study found that WHOQOL-BREF is a useful instrument for assessing QoL for various groups of people. Improving quality of life of PWDs is a central issue for Malaysia in ensuring that PWDs in this country have equal rights and opportunities for full participation in society. Hence, QoL assessment has become an important indicator for programmes that support the improvement of the general well-being of PWDs. It is also useful for benchmarking using the current values of QoL. This QoL indicator is an essential measurement for assisting relevant policy-makers and stakeholders in identifying any problems faced by PWDs and in designing suitable intervention programmes for

PWDs. This in turn would enable PWDs in Malaysia to lead a happier and more fulfilling life alongside other Malaysian citizens.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

This research was supported financially by University Malaya through the University Malaya Research Grant (UMRG) with the grant number RP013A-13SBS, SAGA Project no: 6004932.

REFERENCES

- Akvardar, Y., Akdede, B. B., Özerdem, A., Eser, E., Topkaya, Ş., & Alptekin, K. (2006). Assessment of quality of life with the WHOQOL-BREF in a group of Turkish psychiatric patients compared with diabetic and healthy subjects. *Psychiatry and Clinical Neurosciences*, 60(6), 693–699.
- Andelman, R., Board, R., Carman, L., Cummins, R., Ferriss, A., Friedman, P., & Veenhoven, R. (1998). Quality of life definition and terminology: A discussion document from the international society of quality of life studies (Monograph). *Blacksburg: International Society of Quality of Life Studies*.
- Bredemeier, J., Wagner, G. P., Agranonik, M., Perez, T. S., & Fleck, M. P. (2014). The World Health Organization quality of life instrument for people with intellectual and physical disabilities (WHOQOL-Dis): Evidence of validity of the Brazilian version. *BMC Public Health*, 14(1), 538.
- Caron, J., Lecomte, Y., Stip, E., & Renaud, S. (2005). Predictors of quality of life in schizophrenia. *Community Mental Health Journal*, 41(4), 399–417.
- Chen, K. H., Wu, C. H., & Yao, G. (2006). Applicability of the WHOQOL-BREF on early adolescence. *Social Indicators Research*, 79(2), 215–234.
- Dučinskienė, D., Kalėdienė, R., & Petrauskienė, J. (2003). Quality of life among Lithuanian university students. *Acta med Lituanica*, 10(2), 76–81.
- Edwards, T. C., Patrick, D. L., & Topolski, T. D. (2003). Quality of life of adolescents with perceived disabilities. *Journal of Pediatric Psychology*, 28(4), 233–241.
- Emond, I., Fortin, L., & Picard, Y. (1998). Perceptions of social support of students with learning disabilities and dropping out. *Canadian Journal of Education*, 23(3), 237–250.
- Fatima, M., & Shafique, M. (2015). Health and academic performance of university students: Direct and mediating effect of social capital. *Pakistan Journal of Commerce and Social Sciences*, 9(2), 357–379.
- Hasanah, C., Naing, L., & Rahman, A. (2003). World Health Organization quality of life assessment: Brief version in Bahasa Malaysia. *Medical Journal of Malaysia*, 58(1), 79–88.
- Kane, R. A. (2003). Definition, measurement, and correlates of quality of life in nursing homes: Toward a reasonable practice, research, and policy agenda. *The Gerontologist*, 43(suppl 2), 28–36.
- Krägeloh, C., Henning, M., Hawken, S., Zhao, Y., Shepherd, D., & Billington, R. (2011). Validation of the WHOQOL-BREF quality of life questionnaire for use with medical students. *Education for Health*, 24(2), 545.
- Li, K., Kay, N. S., & Nokkaew, N. (2009). The performance of the World Health Organization's WHOQOL-BREF in assessing the quality of life of Thai college students. *Social Indicators Research*, 90(3), 489–501.

- Lin, J. H., Ju, Y. H., Lee, S. J., Lee, C. H., Wang, H. Y., Teng, Y. L., & Lo, S. K. (2009). Do physical disabilities affect self-perceived quality of life in adolescents? *Disability and Rehabilitation*, *31*(3), 181–188.
- Lucas-Carrasco, R., Pascual-Sedano, B., Galán, I., Kulisevsky, J., Sastre-Garriga, J., & Gomez-Benito, J. (2010). Using the WHOQOL-DIS to measure quality of life in persons with physical disabilities caused by neurodegenerative disorders. *Neurodegenerative Diseases*, *8*(4), 178–186.
- Min, S. K., Shin, W. C., Kim, K. I., Chung, J. I., & Kim, D. K. (2000). Comparison of quality of life between medical students and general college students. *Journal of Korean Neuropsychiatric Association*, *39*(6), 1054–1060.
- Mubarak, A. (2005). Social functioning and quality of life of people with schizophrenia in the northern region of Malaysia. *Australian e-Journal for the Advancement of Mental Health*, *4*(3), 200–209.
- Sallis, J. F., McKenzie, T. L., Kolody, B., Lewis, M., Marshall, S., & Rosengard, P. (1999). Effects of health-related physical education on academic achievement: Project SPARK. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport*, *70*(2), 127–134.
- Sararaks, S., Rugayah, B., Azman, A., Karuthan, C., & Low, L. (2001). Quality of life – How do Malaysian asthmatics fare? *Medical Journal of Malaysia*, *56*(3), 350–358.
- Serakan, U., & Bougie, R. (2003). *Research methods for business: A skill building approach*. New York, NY: Wiley & Sons.
- Sharifa Ezat, W., Syed, M., & Paul, N. (2009). Quality of life among preinvasive and invasive cervical cancer in Malaysia. *ASEAN J Psychiatry*, *10*, 115–126.
- Skevington, S. M., Lotfy, M., & O’Connell, K. A. (2004). The World Health Organization’s WHOQOL-BREF quality of life assessment: Psychometric properties and results of the international field trial. A report from the WHOQOL group. *Quality of Life Research*, *13*(2), 299–310.
- Taillefer, M. C., Dupuis, G., Roberge, M. A., & LeMay, S. (2003). Health-related quality of life models: Systematic review of the literature. *Social Indicators Research*, *64*(2), 293–323.
- Wallander, J. L., & Varni, J. W. (1998). Effects of pediatric chronic physical disorders on child and family adjustment. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, *39*(1), 29–46.
- WHO. (1996). *WHOQOL-BREF: Introduction, administration, scoring and generic version of the assessment: Field trial version, December 1996*. World Health Organization.



Factors Influencing the Intention of Kedayan Muslims to Perform the Traditional Culture Associated with Syncretism

**Ros Aiza Mohd Mokhtar^{1*}, Aiedah Abdul Khalek², Che Zarrina Sa'ari³
and Abd Hakim Mohad¹**

¹*Center for Core Studies, Faculty of Leadership and Management, Universiti Sains Islam Malaysia, 71800 Nilai, Negeri Sembilan, Malaysia*

²*School of Arts and Social Sciences, Monash University Malaysia, Jalan Lagoon Selatan, Bandar Sunway, 47500 Subang Jaya, Selangor, Malaysia*

³*Department of Akidah and Islamic Thought, Academy of Islamic Studies, University of Malaya, Jalan Universiti, 50603 UM, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia*

ABSTRACT

In the study of religion, syncretism has been conveyed as a controversial concept and has become an issue for debate because it depicts 'impurity' or 'inauthenticity'. The term has been widely used by some Western scholars to elaborate on its practice among Ancient and Christian societies, and at the same time, it is also used in the context of Muslim communities, particularly in describing the practice of traditional cultures in Malaysia that were rejected by Muslim reformers. In practice, however, traditional culture cannot be easily distinguished from Muslim practices. Thus, what explains the desire of some Muslims to continue practising elements of their traditional culture associated with syncretism? This paper aims to discover the factors influencing the intention of the Kedayan people to practise elements their traditional culture that are associated with syncretism. Data were self-administered among 414 respondents and analysed using descriptive and inferential analyses of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences. The results of this study revealed that the Kedayan people have a tendency to continue with practices of

their traditional culture that may still contain remnants of syncretism. In addition, the results also revealed their agreement with the common perception of traditional culture and subjective norms as factors influencing Kedayans' intention to practise their traditional culture.

Keywords: Kedayan, Malaysia, muslim, syncretism, traditional culture

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received: 14 July 2016

Accepted: 08 June 2018

E-mail addresses:

rosaiza@usim.edu.my (Ros Aiza Mohd Mokhtar)

aiedah.khalek@monash.edu (Aiedah Abdul Khalek)

zarrina@um.edu.my (Che Zarrina Sa'ari)

abdhakim@usim.edu.my (Abd Hakim Mohad)

*Corresponding author

INTRODUCTION

The term 'syncretism' is derived from the Greek word, *synkretizein*, which means 'to combine' (Reese, 1890, p. 564). Plutarch, who noted that even brothers and friends who have quarrel prefer to associate with one another in the face of a common danger rather than to fraternise with the foe (Hasting, 1974, p. 155), first introduced the term in his writings on ancient Greek philosophy. The concept of syncretism was practised widely in Greek paganism, where religion, philosophy, culture and beliefs were established by merging various elements together, particularly in the second century AD or during the Hellenistic era (Wiener, 1973). In the 17th century, George Calisen Calixtus attempted a rapprochement between the Protestant and Catholic denominations. Nonetheless, syncretism as a term was later used negatively to refer to a contamination of one religion by another (Levenson, 2011).

In relation to the use of the concept of syncretism, scholars can be divided into two main streams, which are descriptive and normative streams. The first stream strives to avoid any evaluation of syncretism as being right or wrong, while the second stream asserts that evaluation of the term should be from a religious perspective (Zehner, 2005). The first stream regards syncretism as having an equivalent meaning to hybridity. For example, Colpe (1987, pp. 218–220) and Stewart (1994) discussed syncretism at length without offering a definition beyond the general notion of religious

mixing, and for them, the exact meaning was not necessary. Instead, they used a more inclusive definition and suggested that syncretism was a natural process that was applicable in the traditions concerned with maintaining their authenticity. Because of this, research into syncretism developed rapidly and the focus of the researcher was on the phenomenon of syncretism and the factors that influenced its practice, as Meyer (1994) suggested that syncretism could be the practical result of processes of translation and diabolisation.

From the Islamic perspective, syncretism is not permitted. However, in the context of traditional culture, it can be considered a natural process that cannot be avoided, especially during the early stages of accepting Islam (Mohd Mokhtar & Saari, 2015a). This phenomenon applies to the Kedayans (Magiman, 2012, pp. 128). Thus, the objectives of this paper were:

- 1) To identify the intentions of the Kedayans in practising elements of their traditional culture that are associated with syncretism, and
- 2) To discover the main factors influencing the intentions of the Kedayans to practise elements of their traditional culture associated with syncretism.

This study plays a significant role in understanding the cultural traditions of the Kedayan from their perspective and the cultural evolution that they experienced due to the influence of Islam, which they embraced.

Syncretism in the Traditional Culture of Kedayan Muslims

Syncretism is practised by different communities living in the Malay Archipelago, the home of the Kedayans, due to the influence of religions such as Hinduism, Buddhism and Islam. The embodiment of the human spirit in Brahman is almost similar to the concept of the incarnation of the spirit of ancestors in objects, a belief held by traditional Malay communities. This belief was influenced by dynamism-animism. Prescribing to this belief, the local community easily accepted Hindu teachings. Accommodating two cultures or beliefs with minimal conflict can be viewed as syncretism. Even after the Malays had embraced Hindu-Buddhism, their previous worldview of dynamism-animism was not entirely abolished. This conditioning persisted even after the Malays had embraced Islam. Syncretism, which occurs in the Malay world, is usually in the form of consolidation between dynamism-animism and Islamic beliefs (Yahaya, 1998). Elements of syncretism can be seen in these communities in their practice of traditional medicine, tips and traditional rituals that are disclosed in the form of mantras or incantations (Selat, 1993). All these apply to the Kedayans, who are a Malay ethnic group originating from the Malay Archipelago.

‘Kedayan’ is defined in the dictionary, the *Kamus Dewan*, as ‘escort’ (Baharom, 2005, p. 702). The meaning is associated with the life of the community as an escort of the king in the feudal era. According to Parnell (1911), the word ‘Kedayan’ is

derived from the Malay word ‘*kodi*’ which means ‘score’. This meaning is strongly related to the character of the escorts of great native princes; the escorts were known as *kodi-an*. According to Sidik (2007), the Kedayan ethnic group is believed to have originated from Java and was brought into Brunei by Sultan Bolkiah (the fifth Sultan of Brunei). The famous history of the Kedayans to Brunei is linked to the cockfighting events between the Prince of Java and the Sultan of Brunei. The Sultan of Brunei won the cockfighting competition and a group of people were given to the Sultan to be taken to Brunei as a reward. Therefore, at first, ‘Kedayan’ referred to the escorts of the king. When their number increased, they formed the Kedayan ethnic group (Bagol, 1994, pp. 8–11).

The Kedayan reside in Borneo. In Brunei, the Kedayans are the majority in the areas of Brunei-Muara, Tutong, Belait and Temburong. In Sarawak, the majority of Kedayans occupy the areas of Sabuti, Limbang and Lawas. In Sabah, the Kedayan are the majority in the Sipitang area. They also inhabit the Federal Territory of Labuan in Sabah. Sidik (2007) estimated the total population of Kedayan throughout Borneo to be 240, 000 people. According to him, it is difficult to determine the actual number of Kedayans in Borneo as there has been no census taken to specifically collect data on the Kedayan. Statistics on the Kedayan in Sabah, Labuan and Sarawak were obtained from the list of voters recorded during the Malaysian General Election in 2004. The estimated figure for this community around

the areas of Sipitang stood at 20,000, based on the data provided by the Unit of Operational Census for Rural Areas, which conducted a census around the Sipitang district in 2012.

The ethnic Kedayan are frequently linked to unique daily rituals and traditional beliefs that they inherited from their ancestors, which includes rituals for a birth, wedding, death and events pertaining to their day-to-day economic activities (Bagol, 1994, p. 34). The Kedayans, who live as farmers, have adopted certain paddy cultivation methods to ensure good crop yield (Sharifuddin, 1970). In addition to planting rice, they also fish, an activity that calls for the practice of certain rituals among the Kedayan (Jaafar, 1981). The famous celebration of the Kedayan people is the annual festival (*Makan Tahun*), which they celebrate as soon as the harvest is completed (Magiman, 2012, pp.13–16). However, after they embraced Islam under the Brunei Sultanate, daily rituals and traditional beliefs that they inherited have been adapted to suit Islamic teachings. Nevertheless, the issue of syncretism arises in some of their daily rituals and traditional beliefs. Among the traditional cultural practices associated with syncretism among the Kedayans in Sipitang, Sabah, are the *langir* ritual bath (*mandi langir*), healing mantras, a ritual before building the house called circling the home (*tawar halaman*), stringing up the placenta, hunting tips and related mantras, cleaning graves in the month of Shaaban (a month in the Muslim calendar) and a variety of mourning feasts.

The *langir* ritual bath is the act of cleansing and perfuming oneself using water mixed with the *langir* root. This ritual is usually performed on the bride and groom during a wedding ceremony, on boys before their circumcision, on mothers after childbirth and on women after menstruation. However, its use is extended to animals for slaughter during Eid celebration, on non-living objects like vehicles, and on the dead after burial (Mohd Mokhtar & Saari, 2015b). Kedayans also have traditional hunting tips that include giving salutations before entering a wood and reciting the *salawat* (prayer for Prophet Muhammad p.b.u.h.) and wiping their face as a symbolic gesture of the light of Prophet Muhammad p.b.u.h (Mohd Mokhtar & Saari, 2015b). Furthermore, in the month of Shaaban, the men from the community usually clean the graves of the departed on a specified date. This is often accompanied by a feast called *Makan Arwah* (feast to mourn the dead), which is prepared by the women as they pray for their deceased family members. In addition to the *Makan Arwah*, they also practise other types of mourning feast. These feasts include the Feast on the Seventh Night, Feasts on Day 3, 7, 14, 40, 100 after the death of someone and the Friday Feasts. The Feast on the Seventh Night is held on the seventh night from the end of the month of Ramadan. The Friday Feasts are held three times on Fridays after a mourning period and *tahlil* (community recitation of prayers for the departed) on day 14 (Mohd Mokhtar & Saari, 2015b). Mourning Feasts are considered an element of traditional

culture in this study because it is an ancestral tradition of the Kedayan community that includes not only *tahlil*, which is well known as a religious practice, but also the observance of significant dates, preparation of specific dishes and the burning of incense. These cultural traditions are still observed by the Kedayans, especially in Sipitang, Sabah.

Factors Influencing the Intention to Practise Traditional Culture

As mentioned earlier, syncretism among the Kedayan arises from past animistic beliefs that have not fully eroded. Thus, the traditional culture contains fragments of syncretism, seen for instance in the practice of the *langir* bath and *tawar halaman*, among others. This study delved into the question of the extent to which the Kedayans are willing to continue with elements of their cultural tradition featuring syncretism and into discovering the factors that influence them to do so. Earlier research demonstrated their attitude towards behaviour, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control that could possibly influence the desire of this community to maintain cultural traditions that may reflect syncretism. Attitude towards behaviour is defined as the positive or negative assessment of an object or action. Subjective norm is defined as the influence of the social environment on action i.e. whether it is a family or communal norm. Perceived behavioural control has been defined as the set of factors that could possibly promote or restrict the

desired actions of an individual (Ajzen, 1985).

Sidik (2007) portrayed the Kedayan community as a community that is strongly influenced by subjective norms such as parental and societal norms. They are seen as filial children who consider their elders as the wisest among their community members. In the matter of daily routines and lifestyle, they prefer to hold on to their traditional cultural practices and norms as have been set by their ancestors. A previous study by Magiman (2012, pp. 13–16) showed that the cultural tradition of the Kedayan is also influenced by their attitude, which includes the perception and assessment of practices. This can be observed through the paddy tradition, which is still practised due to the belief that it will bring bountiful harvest and prevent misfortune.

In today's context, the continued practice of these cultural traditions may be influenced by the various challenges and changes over time (Rajab, 1986). Among the influences is the accessibility to modern medicine and the lack of experts to head the practice of certain rituals, among other reasons. This contributes to the possible factor of behavioural control, as explained earlier.

METHODOLOGY

This research used the survey method. The instrument used was a questionnaire for gathering input from a larger sample so that the researcher's understanding of the subject matter could be easily generalised. The questionnaire could also be used to explain

the level of influence that each predicted factor has on the community's desire to retain these old practices. The instrument was a self-constructed questionnaire based on the theory of Planned Behaviour by Ajzen (1985). According to the theory, behaviour can be predicted from an intention to perform a particular behaviour. Intention should be predictable from the attitude towards the behaviour, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control. Hence, the framework yielded the following hypotheses:

- H1: Attitude towards traditional culture is a factor that influences the intention of the Kedayans to practise their traditional culture associated with syncretism.
- H2: Subjective norm is a factor that influences the intention of the Kedayans to practise their traditional culture associated with syncretism.
- H3: Perceived behavioural control is a factor that influences the intention of the Kedayans to practise their traditional culture associated with syncretism.

Guided by the Theory of Planned Behaviour, the researcher constructed a questionnaire consisting of five parts, which are, respondents' profile, attitudes towards traditional culture, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control and intention to practise traditional culture. Attitude was measured through 14 items of evaluation

of specific traditional cultural practices, for example, "*Langir* ritual baths purify the body and soul" and "Before hunting in the wood, wiping one's face with the 'light of Muhammad' and reciting *salawat* are important to ward off evil spirits," among other items. The measurement of subjective norms consisted of 18 items, for example, "My elders asked me to perform the *langir* bath," and "My elders advised me to wipe my face with the 'light of Muhammad' and recite the *salawat* before I go hunting to avoid disturbance from spirits." Perceived behavioural control was measured using 14 items, for example, "The roots from the *langir* tree are available at a cheap price in the market" and "The hunting tips of the Kedayan community are easily practised." Lastly, the intention to practise traditional culture was measured using 10 items, for example, "I will perform *langir* ritual baths" and "I will practice the hunting tips."

A pilot study was conducted and all the variables were found to be very reliable as the Cronbach's alpha value attained exceeded 0.9. Copies of the questionnaire were distributed to 500 respondents in Sipitang, Sabah, because it is the heartland of the Kedayans in Sabah, Malaysia (Sidik, 2007). A total of 414 (82.8%) questionnaires were returned to the researcher. A reliability test was carried out to test the internal consistency of the respective scales. The scales for all the variables were also found to be very reliable as all the Cronbach's alpha values exceeded 0.85. This study used 414 samples because this figure was an

appropriate representation of the population number of the Kedayans in Sipitang, which stands at 20,000 people (Krejcie & Morgan, 1970).

The data were statistically analysed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). In order to ensure that the corresponding analysis was done, a normality test using the Kolmogorov-Smirno method was carried out. The values for three out of the four variables were above 0.05, indicating that the data were not normally distributed. However, according to Vaus (2002), a large number of respondents or samples that exceed 100 can be considered as meeting the requirements of normal distribution. Therefore, a Multiple Regressions test was carried out to test the consistency of the hypothesis with a large number of samples.

RESEARCH FINDINGS

Respondents' Profile

The demographic distribution of the respondents in the study was balanced and is representative of the community. This was clearly observed in the following data. A total of 207 respondents (50%) were male, while the other 207 respondents (50%) were female. Their age range fell into five categories: 46 respondents (11.1%) were below 20, 125 respondents (30.2%) were aged between 20 and 39 years old; 165 respondents (39.9%) were between 30 and 49 years of age; 50 respondents (12.1%) were between 60 and 79 years of

age and 28 respondents (6.8%) were 80 years old and above. In the employment category, 101 respondents (24.4%) were in the government sector, 41 respondents (9.9%) were in the private sector, 114 respondents (27.5%) were self-employed, 105 respondents (25.4%) were unemployed and 53 respondents (12.8%) were students. In terms of level of education, 67 respondents (16.2%) did not have formal education, 76 respondents (18.4%) had up to primary level of schooling, 195 respondents (47.1%) had received education up to secondary school, 43 respondents (10.4%) had obtained the Malaysian Certificate of Education (SPM) with a Diploma or Certificate of Proficiency and 33 respondents (8.0%) had a Bachelor's degree or higher. The balanced demography is important for representing the community because the continuous practice of cultural tradition may have been influenced by gender, age, employment and education.

Descriptive Statistics

Table 1 shows the intention of the community to practise their traditional culture. Some traditional cultural acts that are likely to be practised among the Kedayans are cleaning of graves in the month of Shaaban (4.04), the Seventh Night Mourning Feast in the month of Ramadan (4.08), Mourning Feast during Shaaban (4.26), Mourning Feasts on Day 3, 7, 14, 40 and 100 after the death of a relative and three Fridays after the Mourning Feast on Day 14 (4.25). Some cultural traditions also had moderate mean scores; these

traditions included circling the home (3.42), stringing up placenta (3.60) and hunting tips (3.51), whereas some cultural traditions had relatively low mean scores, meaning were less likely to be adopted such as the *langir* ritual bath (2.72) and healing through shamans (2.67) or incantations (2.72).

Table 1
Intention to practise elements of traditional culture

Traditional Culture	Mean
I will adapt <i>langir</i> ritual baths.	2.72
I will seek treatment through incantations.	2.72
I will seek treatment from shamans.	2.67
I will do the <i>tawar halaman</i> (circling the home).	3.42
I will string up placenta on a high place.	3.60
I will practise hunting tips for hunting.	3.51
I will practise the cleaning of graves in the month of Shaaban.	4.04
I will uphold the practice of the Seventh Night Mourning Feast in the month of Ramadan.	4.08
I will uphold the practice of the Mourning Feast during the month of Shaaban.	4.26
I will uphold the practice of Mourning Feasts on Day 3, 7, 14, 40, 100 and the Friday Mourning Feasts.	4.25

The findings indicated high mean scores for continuing traditional cultural practices such as cleaning graves (4.04) and holding mourning feasts (4.26). This could be due to the perception of these traditional practices as being in line with Islamic teaching. The mean score for the traditional practices such as the *langir* ritual bath, healing received from shamans and incantations, circling the home, stringing up placenta and hunting rituals were at the moderate levels of 2.72 to 3.60. According to B. A. Jaafar (personal communication, 19 March, 2014) and S. Daud (personal communication, 1 April, 2014), this could be due to the perception that these traditional practices are at odds with the teachings of Islam.

Hypotheses Testing

The three hypotheses were tested using the multiple regressions test, the results of which are presented in Table 2. Based on the results, this sample ($n=414$) revealed the attitude towards traditional cultural practices and subjective norms, which were significant variable predictors. Both variable predictors contributed to 78.3% of the criterion variant ($r^2=0.783$). On the other hand, perceived behavioural control was found to be an insignificant variable predictor. Therefore, the two null hypotheses of this study were rejected.

Table 2
Summary model of multiple regressions

Model	R	R square	Adjusted R square	Std Error of the Estimation
1	0.838 ^a	0.703	0.702	0.45662
2	0.886 ^b	0.784	0.783	0.38949
3	0.886 ^c	0.784	0.783	0.38996

a. Predictor: (*Constant*), Mean_Attitude towards traditional cultural practices

b. Predictor: (*Constant*), Mean_Attitude towards traditional cultural practices, Mean_Subjective norms

c. Predictor: (*Constant*), Mean_Attitude towards traditional cultural practices, Mean_Subjective norms, Mean_Perceived Behavioural Control

Table 3
Significant variable predictors

Model		Unstandardised Coefficient		Std. Coefficient	T	Sig.
		B	Std. error	Beta		
1	(<i>Constant</i>)	0.348	0.104		3.337	0.001
	Mean_A	0.896	0.029	0.838	31.230	0.000
2	(<i>Constant</i>)	-0.178	0.098		-1.807	0.072
	Mean_A	0.429	0.045	0.402	9.598	0.000
	Mean_B	0.603	0.048	0.522	12.460	0.000
3	(<i>Constant</i>)	-0.174	0.111		-1.565	0.118
	Mean_A	0.431	0.048	0.403	8.952	0.000
	Mean_B	0.603	0.048	0.522	12.441	0.000
	Mean_C	-0.002	0.033	-0.002	-0.075	0.940

Table 3 shows that the value of the t statistic of attitude towards traditional cultural practices was significant ($t=8.952$, $p<0.05$) as well as subjective norms ($t=12.441$, $p<0.05$). The perceived behavioural control was not significant as the value of t statistic was -0.075 , with the p -value $=0.940$ ($t=-0.075$, $p>0.05$). Based on these results, the subjective norm was the most significant variable predictor with a beta value of 0.522 , $p<0.05$, followed by attitude towards traditional cultural practices ($\beta=0.403$, $p<0.05$). However, perceived behavioural

control was not significant as a variable predictor ($\beta=-0.002$, $p>0.05$).

DISCUSSION

The study revealed that the factors influencing the intention of the Kedayans to practise elements of their traditional culture were their attitude and subjective norms. The results showed that subjective norms were the most important factor influencing the intention of the Kedayans to practise elements of their traditional culture. Indeed, this finding was also confirmed in the

study of Sidik (2007), who showed that the Kedayans preferred holding on to traditional norms inherited from their ancestors. This could also be observed in every aspect of life, including matters relating to how they carried out their day-to-day economic and routine activities such as giving the honour of leading in certain rituals like the paddy ritual to experienced elders of the community (Sharifuddin, 1970), catching of fish (Jaafar, 1981), the *langir* bath, *tawar halaman* and others. In line with this, Rajab (1986) emphasised that this community placed importance on adherence to the values and norms of the community and seemed opposed to change to communal and cultural practices. According to D. Bakar (personal communication, 3 August, 2013), the younger generation of the community will generally obey and abide by the requests of their elders in practising traditional culture. This is because they are concerned that if they did not do so, some misfortune might befall them and they would then be accused of bringing calamity. The significant influence of subjective norms in Malaysia could possibly be related to the characteristics of Muslim societies in Malaysia that practise collectivistic culture. Therefore, social influence from family members, elders and friends is a strong determinant in practising traditional culture.

In addition, a positive attitude towards the common perception of traditional culture was also found to be a significant factor

influencing the Kedayans in practising their traditional culture. This finding was in line with the results of Magiman (2012, pp. 13–16), who stressed that the rationale for holding on to celebrations such as the Annual Feast (*Makan Tahun*) among the Kedayans was a show of gratitude to their deity and in remembrance of their ancestors. This is also evident in the traditional practices of this community that relate to birth, marriage and death (Bagol, 1994, pp. 99–100). Meanwhile, perceived behavioural control was found to be an insignificant factor in influencing the intention of the Kedayans to practise their traditional culture.

CONCLUSION

Overall, this study indicated that the intention of the Kedayans to practise elements of their culture associated with syncretism was moderate due to two main factors, namely their agreement with the common attitude towards traditional culture and subjective norms. This finding is important and beneficial for the relevant parties to identify or determine the traditional practices that are still influenced by disputed perception. Understanding this finding is important for dealing with syncretism in Muslim communities.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

This work was supported in part by Universiti Malaysia Sabah under Grant No. PHD0009-SSI-2016.

REFERENCES

- Ajzen, I. (1985). From intentions to actions: A theory of planned behavior. In J. Kuhl & J. Beckman (Eds.), *Action-control: From cognition to behavior* (pp. 11–39). Heidelberg, Germany: Springer.
- Bagol, S. (1994). *Adat istiadat dan kebudayaan suku kaum Kedayan: Satu tinjauan di daerah Sipitang* (Unpublished Bachelor's dissertation), Universiti Pertanian Malaysia, Selangor, Malaysia.
- Baharom, N. (Ed.). (2005). *Kamus dewan*. Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia: Dewan Bahasa dan Pustaka.
- Colpe, C. (1987). Syncretism. In M. Eliade (Ed.), *The encyclopaedia of religion* (Vol. 14). New York, NY and London, England: Macmillan.
- Hasting, J. (Ed.). (1974). *Encyclopedia of religion and ethics* (Vol. 12). Edinburgh, Scotland: T.T. Clark.
- Jaafar, L. (1981). Menuba di-kalangan masyarakat Kedayan [Fishing in the Kedayan society]. *BAHANA*, 16(34), 49–53.
- Krejcie, R. V., & Morgan, D. W. (1970). Determining sample size for research activities. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 30(3), 607–617.
- Levenson, A. T. (2011). Syncretism and surrogacy in modern times: Two models of assimilation. *Shofar: An Interdisciplinary Journal of Jewish Studies*, 30(1), 17–30.
- Magiman, M. M. (2012). *Ritual 'makan tahun' masyarakat Kadayan di kg. Selanyau daerah kecil Berkenu, Sarawak* (Unpublished doctoral thesis), Universiti of Malaya, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia.
- Meyer, B. (1994). Beyond syncretism: Translation and diabolization in the appropriation of Protestantism in Africa. In C. Stewart & R. Shaw (Eds.), *Syncretism/Anti-Syncretism – The politics of religious synthesis* (pp. 45–68). London, England & New York, NY: Routledge.
- Mokhtar, R. A. M., & Saari, C. Z. (2014). A preliminary study on factors that lead Kedayan Muslims to continue performing the syncretic culture. *International Journal of Social Science and Humanity*, 4(6), 421–425.
- Mokhtar, R. A. M., & Saari, C. Z. (2015a). Konsep sinkretisme menurut perspektif Islam [Concept of sincretism according to Islamic perspective]. *Jurnal Akidah and Pemikiran Islam*, 17(1), 51-78.
- Mokhtar, R. A. M., & Saari, C. Z. (2015b). An assessment of attitude and intention of the Kedayan people in practicing the local culture among different levels of educational background. *International Journal of Arts and Sciences*, 08(07), 453–463.
- Parnell, E. (1911). The names Kadayan, Dayak and Tanjong Datu. *The Sarawak Museum Journal*, 150–151.
- Rajab, S. (1986). Budaya tradisi yang hampir pupus: Satu analisa sosial masyarakat Kedayan daripada sudut kebudayaan dan ekonomi pertanian [Nearly extinct traditions culture: A social analysis of the Kedayan community from a cultural and economic agriculture perspective]. *BERIGA*, 11, 10–28.
- Reese, W. L. (Ed.). (1980). *Dictionary of philosophy and religion*. New Jersey, U.S.A.: Humanities Press Inc.

- Selat, N. (1993). *Konsep asas antropologi* [The basic concept of anthropology]. Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia: Dewan Bahasa dan Pustaka.
- Sharifuddin, P. M. (1970). Makan tahun: The annual feast of the Kedayan. *Brunei Museum Journal*, 2(1), 61–66.
- Sidik, A. (2007). *The mystic of Borneo: Kadayan*. Kota Kinabalu, Malaysia: Borneo Publishers.
- Stewart, C. (1994). Syncretism as a dimension of nationalist discourse in modern Greece. In C. Stewart & R. Shaw (Eds.), *Syncretism/anti-syncretism: The politics of religious synthesis*, (pp. 127–144). London, England & New York, NY: Routledge.
- Vaus, D. (2002). *Analyzing social science data*. London, England: SAGE Publications.
- Yahaya, M. (1998). *Islam di alam Melayu* [Islam in the Malay World]. Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia: Dewan Bahasa dan Pustaka.
- Zehner, E. (2005). Orthodox hybridities: Anti-syncretism and localization in the Evangelical Christianity of Thailand. *Anthropological Quarterly*, 78(3), 585–617.

Causal Nexus between Health and Economic Development: Evidence among OIC High-Income Economies

Zurina Kefeli¹, Mohd Azlan Shah Zaidi² and Abdul Azeez Oluwanisola Abdul Wahab^{1*}

¹*Faculty of Economics and Muamalat, Universiti Sains Islam Malaysia, Bandar Baru Nilai, 71800 USIM, Nilai, Negeri Sembilan, Malaysia*

²*Faculty of Economics and Management, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, 43600 UKM, Bangi, Selangor, Malaysia*

ABSTRACT

The effects of health on economic development have been discussed in depth in the literature. Most of the findings have shown that the economic performance of a country can be enhanced by improving the health of the citizens. This paper investigates the causal link between health and economic development of high-income economies of selected OIC countries. Since these countries also have high expenditure on health in comparison with other OIC countries, the findings would give some indication of the importance of having high spending in health for the economic wellbeing of a country. The Toda-Yamamoto Granger non-causality model was used on data spanning from 1970 to 2015, and the results showed mixed causal relationships. Specifically, some countries like Bahrain and Kuwait have a health condition that boosts economic development, while Saudi Arabia experiences the opposite effect. However, health and economic development have bidirectional causality in the United Arab Emirates, while Brunei, Oman and Qatar do not show any causal direction between health and economic development. The findings give some evidence of the importance of health on economic prosperity without disregarding the fact that economic development is also important for good health.

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received: 09 August 2016

Accepted: 22 March 2018

E-mail addresses:

zurina@usim.edu.my (Zurina Kefeli)

azlan@ukm.edu.my (Mohd Azlan Shah Zaidi)

azwah2ks@yahoo.com (Abdul Azeez Oluwanisola Abdul Wahab)

*Corresponding author

Keywords: Economic development, health, high-income economies, OIC JEL Classification: H51, I15, O57

INTRODUCTION

As indicated by the World Health Organisation (WHO), health is a condition of complete physical, mental and social prosperity and not only the non-appearance of illness or sickness. According to this definition, wellbeing does not impact only the personal satisfaction of individuals but also the economic development of a country as a whole. According to the health economics theory, health status has a weighty impact on national income. On a macro platform, numerous studies in developed countries have shown that health has a progressive relationship with the economic development of a country (Bloom & Canning, 2000, 2001). In addition, the impact of health efficiency on economic development touches not just human capital but also a nation's economic activities. From this vantage point, health has been identified as a factor that can enhance human capital and, in the long term, energise the economic development of a nation (Wahab & Kefeli, 2016). A study by Bloom, Canning and Sevilla (2001) found that compared with education, health is more significant in contributing to the aggregate national output.

Life expectancy has been used as a significant indicator of the overall health condition of national populations and the quality of healthcare made available to them. Life expectancy is generally considered the expected number of years that a newborn will live if its wellbeing and living conditions at birth remain unchanged. In the broad view, life expectancy is measured by

the multiplicity of socio-economic elements such as destitution and malnutrition, right to hygienic water and cleanliness, accessibility to basic healthcare insurance and inoculation facilities (OIC Report, 2013). The more prominent the life expectancy ascribed to a nation, the more healthily its populace (Jen et al., 2010).

Thus, life expectancy is thought to be a suitable indicator for assessing the health condition of a country. Pronounced improvements have been made to life expectancy in some Organisation of Islamic Conference (OIC) nations, especially in the high-income OIC states over the past years (Kefeli & Zaidi, 2014). The occasioned upsurge in life expectancy improvements is the result of the avoidance and regulation of real adolescence communicable diseases and maladies and in food, cleanliness and medical consideration. Improvements in medical innovation, primarily in connection with treatment of coronary illness and stroke, alongside more advantageous ways of life, changes in access to healthcare and improved wide-ranging healthiness prior to age 65 have facilitated enhancements to life expectancy in the second half of the 20th century (Fried, 2000).

A study carried out by Day et al. (2008) compared life expectancy with an array of health scheme signs within and among groups of countries. They identified 12 groups of countries with average life expectancy ranging from 81.5 years (Group 1) to 37.7 years (Group 12). Predictably, the three most highly-rated groups were made up of Western European countries, US, UK,

Canada, Japan and Australia, while the four lowest ranked groups were dominated by African countries. In terms of per capita, global health expenditure was highest among the top three life expectancy groups, who are part of the developed world. Health scheme framework for workers, doctor's facility beds, access to pharmaceuticals as well as vaccination would obviously match the life expectancy indicated for each group (Day et al., 2008).

However, the health status of Organisation of the Islamic Conference (OIC) countries has improved significantly. The average lifespan in the OIC member countries was 59 years in 1990, but had climbed to 68.5 years in 2011 (OIC Health Report, 2013). In comparison, life expectancy in developed nations improved from 73 years in 1990 to 78 years in 2011. In spite of some change to life expectancy at birth, OIC countries are falling behind the global average by 3.5 years (OIC Health Report, 2013). Moreover, expenditure on

health is still low in many OIC countries. In 2011, OIC member countries expended US\$279.5 billion on health, signifying on average 4.7% of their GDP compared with US\$3706 billion or 8.7% in developed countries (SESRI, 2012).

At the individual country level, Qatar, Brunei, Albania, Maldives, the UAE, Syria, Bahrain, Libya, Tunisia and Kuwait have the highest life expectancy at birth in 2011. Qatar and Brunei had the highest life expectancy at birth of 78 years old. Meanwhile, the infant mortality proportion in UAE (6 deaths for every 1,000 live births), Qatar, Malaysia, Brunei, Oman, Saudi Arabia, Lebanon, Maldives, Kuwait and Bahrain were the lowest in 2011. Member countries with the highest per capita health expenditure were Qatar, the UAE, Kuwait, Brunei, Saudi Arabia, Oman and Bahrain (OIC Health Report, 2013). These countries are also categorised as high-income economies by the World Bank, as shown in Table 1.

Table 1
Categorisation of OIC countries

S/N	High Income (USD12,736 PCI & above)	Middle Income (Upper, USD4,126- USD12,735 PCI)	Middle Income (Lower USD1,046- USD4,125 PCI)	Low Income (USD1,045 PCI & below)
1	Qatar	Albania	Bangladesh	Afghanistan
2	Oman	Algeria	Cameroun	Benin
3	Brunei Darussalam	Azerbaijan	Ivory Coast	Burkina Faso
4	Bahrain	Gabon	Djibouti	Chad
5	The United Arab Emirates (UAE)	Iran, Islamic Republic	Egypt, Arab Republic	Comoros
6	Kuwait	Iraq	Guyana	Gambia
7	Saudi Arabia	Jordan	Indonesia	Guinea
8		Kazakhstan	Kyrgyzstan	Guinea-Bissau

Table 1 (*continue*)

S/N	High Income (USD12,736 PCI & above)	Middle Income (Upper, USD4,126- USD12,735 PCI)	Middle Income (Lower USD1,046- USD4,125 PCI)	Low Income (USD1,045 PCI & below)
9		Lebanon	Mauritania	Mali
10		Libya	Morocco	Mozambique
11		Malaysia	Nigeria	Niger
12		Maldives	Pakistan	Sierra Leone
13		Suriname	Senegal	Somalia
14		Tunisia	Sudan	Togo
15		Turkey	Syria Arab Republic	Uganda
16		Turkmenistan	Uzbekistan	
17			Palestine	
18			Yemen	
19			Tajikistan	

Source: World Bank (2015)

From the statistics of OIC countries, it is observed that the countries with high per head health expenditure experience high life expectancy at birth and low infant mortality. For this reason, only high-income OIC countries were chosen for this paper. As these countries also experienced high economic development, it seemed that better health condition had a causal linkage with their economic development. Knowing of the existence of this relationship would not only benefit the countries themselves, it would also give some insight to other developing OIC countries on how to improve their health system and economic wellbeing.

Thus, this paper attempted to investigate the causal link between health and economic development of selected high-income OIC countries. Specifically, the study focussed on seven OIC countries that had the highest per capita health expenditure. The countries

were Bahrain, Brunei Darussalam, Kuwait, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia and the United Arab Emirates. The analysis used time-series data from 1970 to 2015. Aggregate data at the country level on life expectancy at birth and GDP per capita were gathered from the Statistical, Economic and Social Research and Training Centre for Islamic Countries (SESRIC).

This paper contributes to the literature in two ways. Firstly, past studies on this issue mostly focussed on a panel or cross-sectional data analysis. Thus, the findings on the importance of health are therefore general in nature, concentrating on the status of the countries or on regional locations. This study on the other hand, looked at individual countries and examined whether the effect of health was similar. Secondly, empirical research into the causal effect of health on economic growth in OIC countries

is still lacking, and findings from the analysis would provide some recommendations to policy-makers in those countries.

The remainder of this paper is organised as follows. Section 2 examines the literature on the effects of health on economic development, while Section 3 looks at the healthcare system in high-income OIC countries. Section 4 interprets the data and empirical models used in the estimation and Section 5 discusses the results. Lastly, Section 6 concludes the paper with some remarks on policy.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Labour quality in terms of human capital is always measured by education level. As a result, many studies have identified education as the main factor that contributes significantly to economic development. However, numerous studies have ignored health as an aspect of human capital that can potentially contribute to economic development. In the United Kingdom, the Department of Social Security acknowledged poor health as one of the main issues connected with low income (State of the Nation Report, 2010). Furthermore, on average, individuals in poor nations are considerably less healthy than the citizens of wealthy nations. Weil (2007) studied this phenomenon and attempted to react to the tremendous difference in income between rich and poor nations and its effect on the health status of the people of these nations. Weil (2007) quantitatively assessed the differences in health by clarifying income dissimilarities among rich and poor nations

and found that the impact of health on income was economically significant. Besides that, in many developing countries the benefits of better health on productivity have been proven by researchers such as Basta et al. (1979), Spurr (1983), Bhargava (1997) and Strauss and Thomas (1998). Grimm (2011) studied 62 low and middle-income nations from 1985 to 2007 and found a significant and generally vigorous negative impact of health disparity on income levels and income growth after regulating for life expectancy, country and time fixed-effects as well as other factors appeared to be imperative for growth.

The positive impact of health, in terms of reductions in mortality, on economic growth had earlier been found by Sorkin (1977). In addition, Sorkin found that expansions in the health status of the inhabitants of developed countries will have a slight effect on economic growth, yet the effect could be diverse for developing countries. In view of this, life expectancy as a measure of health indication has been established in past studies. Gürler and Özsoy (2017), for instance, surveyed the relationship between life expectancy at birth and economic growth, by means of cross-sectional data and panel data examination comprising random and fixed effects in the analysis of 55 Islamic Countries for 26 years, using life expectancy at birth as proxy for health. The study established that life expectancy at birth was a contributing factor to the economic growth and development of Islamic countries. The results showed that life expectancy had a significant influence

on economic development, as a rise in life expectancy by a year could promote stable economic development.

Subsequently, by utilising life expectancy as a measurement for health at the individual level, many academic have found that health had a significant effect on economic growth. These works include Barro and Lee (1994), Barro and Sala-I-Martin (1995), Barro (1996), Sachs and Warner (1997), Bloom and Malaney (1998), Bloom and Sachs (1998), Bloom and Williamson (1998), Bloom et al. (1999), Hamoudi and Sachs (1999), Bloom, Canning and Malaney (2000) and Gallup and Sachs (2000). Most of these studies used the ordinary least squares (OLS) and seemingly unrelated regression (SUR) methods. In 2004, Bloom, Canning and Sevilla measured total factor productivity (TFP) by including human capital, which consisted of three elements, average years of schooling, average work experience of the workforce and health. They found that a year expansion in a populace's life expectancy adds to 4% in expansion output and thus, concluded that health, as expressed by life expectancy, affects growth reversions as a real labour productivity effect after controlling for experience of the workforce.

The link between individual income and health has also been seen clearly in Marmot (2010). The study showed that in the UK, persons living in the poorest neighborhoods will, all things considered, deace seven years sooner than individuals living in the wealthiest neighborhoods. Additionally, the data from the Office for National

Statistics (2007) showed that for the period of 2002 to 2005, noblemen and women in specialised professions had sophisticated life expectancy compared with people in amateurish labour-intensive occupations. In a systematic evaluation of 98 academic works that studied health inequality, Lynch et al. (2004) inferred that "it is broadly acknowledged that at a discrete level, higher income – and different indicators of socio-economic conditions – are connected with better wellbeing." While numerous studies have taken a glimpse at the relationship between health and income at the individual level using cross-sectional data, there is a limited number of studies looking at this relationship at the macro level using time-series data. Furthermore, policy formulation, especially for reducing poverty among less developed OIC countries, can be strengthened by utilising the findings from this study. Thus, this academic paper was conducted to test the relationship between health and economic development using time-series data from high-income OIC countries.

Healthcare System in High-Income OIC countries

Bahrain is one of the best healthcare providers in the Gulf area through its comprehensive public and private health services. Public health services are delivered to all citizens free of charge, while non-Bahrainis enjoy a subsidised healthcare cost. Most of the services are provided by the Ministry of Health through primary healthcare and secondary healthcare services. Primary

healthcare services involve household and public healthcare methods and incorporate an extensive coverage of precautionary and therapeutic services like motherly and child health, inoculation, dental and oral health and employees' health (Ministry of Health Bahrain, 2015). Bahrain embarked on a national health strategy in the period of 2002-2010, and drafted a framework for long-term development of the health system. In 2006, a health insurance scheme was introduced after broad considerations by all stakeholders. The expediency and coverage of healthcare service are nearly 100%, and the government is the main sponsor of health provision financing. Life expectancy at birth in Bahrain stood at 74 while maternal mortality proportion per 100,000 live births is 11.4% and total government expenditure on health is a fraction of the GDP at 3.9% (WHO, 2013).

On the other hand, Brunei Darussalam paraded one of the best publicly run healthcare systems in Asia and the globe. Citizens of Brunei are eligible for free medical care services, and foreigners who are working in the country are eligible for healthcare services at a subsidised cost. Brunei has admirable hospital facilities in all its four districts. There are general hospitals that are complemented by health clinics located around the country, travelling clinics and flying doctor services. Private hospitals are also available for those who have private medical insurance. As a result of a huge direct investment of oil wealth in healthcare to standardise the system, malaria and diseases like cholera are virtually or totally

wiped out. Brunei's public spending on health was 2.3% of its GDP in 2012, which is equivalent to USD1,218 per person. The life expectancy at birth of males and females in 2012 were 76 and 78, respectively (WHO, 2014).

Kuwait too has an excellent healthcare system and its facilities are considered to be on par with those of Western Europe and the United States. Due to the small population of Kuwait, the medical facilities are widely diverse and cover virtually every medical complication. Kuwait has public and private healthcare services. Public healthcare offers quite a number of free services for citizens and other services that are provided at an affordable rate. Also, there are numerous healthcare services that are available to immigrants at a reduced cost. Average life expectancy at birth in Kuwait for both sexes was 78.5 in 2012, and total government expenditure on health as a proportion of GDP was 2.5% , which was equal to USD1,377 per capita in the same year (WHO, 2013).

Oman is also regarded as one of a handful of nations in the world that have revolutionised their health position over a brief timeframe. Oman's present health pointers can be compared with those of various advanced nations. Oman boasts outstanding management of confinement-linked mortality and morbidities, avoidable sicknesses of adolescence and various contagious community sicknesses (Alshishtawy, 2010). Oman has public and private healthcare facilities and all Omanis have free access to complete

healthcare coverage. Healthcare services are provided by Oman's Ministry of Health and are supplemented by other government hospitals and clinics. Presently, the nation's life expectancy that stood at 49.3 years in 1970 has surpassed 76 years for males and females at birth. The total government expenditure on health as a percentage of the GDP was 2.6% in 2012 (WHO, 2013).

Moreover, Qatar has developed a sophisticated general health framework as one of its main objectives alongside its National Vision 2030. At present, the public sector controls healthcare provision, which can differ according to location and the type of care required by the patient. With the introduction of a compulsory Social National Health Insurance scheme, it supports the entire population with first-class health services. Also, there is considerable competition from private healthcare providers, and this complements the public health system. In 2012, government payments on healthcare were valued at 2.2% of the nation's GDP, which is equivalent to USD1,805 per capita. The typical life expectancy at birth was 80.61 years in 2014 for males and females. Qatar has a reduced child death proportion of 7 in 100,000 (WHO, 2014).

In the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, the Division of Health controls healthcare and hospitals in both the public and private sectors and the scheme provides general healthcare treatment. The Saudi healthcare scheme provides free healthcare for all Saudis, and sophisticated specialised care is available. The healthcare system

comprises two networks. The first involves primary healthcare centres and hospitals that offer precautionary, pre-birth, crisis and rudimentary facilities and mobile clinics for distant regions. The second involves clinics and dedicated treatment centres situated in urban regions (Khaliq, 2012). The publicly funded healthcare scheme is mirrored on that of the United Kingdom's National Health Service. However, a healthy private sector has been developed over the years. The 13 geographic regions of the country are divided into 19 health regions for administrative purposes (Al-Yousuf et al., 2002). With the exclusion of employees in the public sector, a massive population of foreign workers and their relatives are estimated to obtain healthcare in the private sector through occupation-based protection, self-paid protection or for a total out-of-pocket cost (Khaliq, 2012). World Health Organisation statistics for 2012 indicated that the average life expectancy for males and females was 76 and the total health payments by Saudi Arabia as a proportion of the GDP was 3.2%, which was equivalent to USD1,004 per capita (WHO, 2014).

The United Arab Emirates (UAE) is ranked number 27 among global health schemes by the World Health Organisation (WHO). The country has numerous public and private sick bays as well as childcare centres and primary healthcare centres to serve her populace. The health division of the United Arab Emirates (UAE) is managed by two establishments; the Division of Health regulates the public health sector, while the Emirates Health Organisation

is in charge of health services at the state level. Healthcare is offered to all citizens and medical coverage is obligatory for foreigners. Aggregate spending on health is 3.3% of the country's GDP. The average life expectancy was 76 years at birth in 2012 for both sexes (WHO, 2014).

METHOD

In this study, the income classification of the OIC member states followed the World Bank categorisation, which is based on the income groups of 214 countries. A country is categorised as a low-income economy if its GNI per capita is USD1,045 or less; lower-middle-income economy if its GNI per capita is from USD1,046 to USD4,125; upper-middle-income economy if its GNI per capita is from USD4,126 to USD12,735; and high-income economy if its GNI per capita is more than USD12,736. Among the 57 OIC member states only seven countries are categorised as high-income economies.

Also, these countries have increased their spending on health expenditure as a form of investment in human capital development, and this was one of the reasons for choosing them for this paper. They are Bahrain, Brunei Darussalam, Kuwait, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia and the United Arab Emirates.

Life expectancy was used to indicate health status (H), while GDP per capita (GDP) represented the economic development of the OIC countries. All series are transformed into logarithmic form.¹ The period of study is from 1970 to 2015. It was expected that the health status of OIC countries in the high-income economy category would contribute to the countries' economic development.

In order to investigate whether health status led to economic development or vice versa, this study used a two-variable model and employed the Toda-Yamamoto (1995) approach of Granger non-causality. Consider the following VAR model of a country,

$$\begin{bmatrix} GDP_t \\ H_t \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_{10} \\ \alpha_{20} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_{11}^{(1)} & \alpha_{12}^{(1)} \\ \alpha_{21}^{(1)} & \alpha_{22}^{(1)} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} GDP_{t-1} \\ H_{t-1} \end{bmatrix} + \dots + \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_{11}^{(k+d)} & \alpha_{12}^{(k+d)} \\ \alpha_{21}^{(k+d)} & \alpha_{22}^{(k+d)} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} GDP_{t-(k+d)} \\ H_{t-(k+d)} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \epsilon_{1t} \\ \epsilon_{2t} \end{bmatrix}$$

where, *k* is the optimum number of lag in the VAR model, while *d* is the maximum order of integration in the system. *k* was initially selected using the Schwarz Criterion (SC) but finally determined using the multivariate Lagrange multiplier (LM) test for VAR residual serial correlation. *d* was determined from the results of the Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) and Kwiatkowski, Phillips,

Schimdt and Shin (KPSS) tests. The Phillips-Perron tests were also employed if the two prior tests provided mixed results.

¹The first three letters of a country name that are written in subscript in a particular series represent the series for that countries. For example H_{BAH} represents the health series for Bahrain, while GDP_{BAH} represents the GDP per capita series for Bahrain. Similar representation is used for all series pertaining to the other countries

To test whether health resulted in wealth, parameter restriction of the following was tested using the modified Wald (MWALD) test.

$$H_0 = \alpha_{12}^{(1)} = \dots = \alpha_{12}^{(k)} = 0$$

In the integrated and co-integrated system, Toda and Yamamoto (1995) proved that the Wald test for linear restrictions on the parameters of VAR (k) had an asymptotic χ^2 distribution when VAR(k+d) was estimated. Rejection of the null implies that health does Granger cause wealth. Similarly to test whether wealth Granger cause health, the following null was tested.

$$H_0 = \alpha_{21}^{(1)} = \dots = \alpha_{21}^{(k)} = 0$$

According to Toda and Yamamoto (1995) and Dolado and Lutkepohl (1996), with the modified Wald (MWALD) test statistics, the technique can be applied regardless of the level of integration of the time series in the model or whether they are co-integrated or not. Thus, pre-testing of the co-integrating properties of the system is not necessary.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Table 2 provides a summary of initial key results. The results proved the outcomes of the unit root tests of the time series and the maximum number of integration in the system. The full results can be seen in Table 4 and Table 5 in the appendix.

As shown, each GDP variable for each country was I(1). The finding

was straightforward as the ADF and KPSS revealed almost similar results. Nevertheless, some health variables were I(0), while others were I(2). Most of the time, the ADF and KPSS tests were not sufficiently informative. Consequently, PP was employed to help in making a decision. From the results, the maximum number of integration in the system (d) for each country could be determined, and this is shown in the last column of Table 2.

Table 2
Summary of Key results

Order of Integration of Time Series	Maximum Order of Integration (d) in the System
GDP _{BAH} I(1) H _{BAH} I(0)	1
GDP _{BRU} I(1) H _{BRU} I(2)	2
GDP _{KUW} I(1) H _{KUW} I(0)	1
GDP _{OMA} I(1) H _{OMA} I(2)	2
GDP _{QAT} I(1) H _{QAT} I(0)	1
GDP _{SAU} I(1) H _{SAU} I(0)	1
GDP _{UAE} I(1) H _{UAE} I(0)	1

Once d was determined, unrestricted VAR was modelled for each country. The number of lags used in each model was k+d. For testing Granger non-causality, only k lags were taken into account. Each estimated VAR model was stable (stationary) with regard to its roots, which had a modulus less than one and lay inside a unit circle. These figures are not presented to save space.

Table 3 shows the results of the Toda-Yamamoto Granger non-causality test. As indicated, health condition did Granger cause economic development in Bahrain

and Kuwait. The opposite causal direction, however, was evident for Saudi Arabia. The United Arab Emirates showed bidirectional causality between the variables, while Brunei, Oman and Qatar did not show any causal direction between the variables.

Table 3
Results of Toda-Yamamoto Granger non-causality tests

Null Hypothesis	df	Chi-sq	Probability	Causal Nexus
H_{BAH} does not Granger cause GDP_{BAH}	5	23.27***	0.00	Health causes economic development
GDP_{BAH} does not Granger causes H_{BAH}	5	5.98	0.31	
H_{BRU} does not Granger cause GDP_{BRU}	5	3.04	0.69	No causality
GDP_{BRU} does not Granger cause H_{BRU}	5	4.54	0.48	
H_{KUW} does not Granger cause GDP_{KUW}	4	8.82*	0.07	Health causes economic development
GDP_{KUW} does not Granger cause H_{KUW}	4	1.26	0.87	
H_{OMA} does not Granger cause GDP_{OMA}	5	5.93	0.31	No causality
GDP_{OMA} does not Granger cause H_{OMA}	5	3.59	0.61	
H_{QAT} does not Granger cause GDP_{QAT}	4	1.73	0.78	No causality
GDP_{QAT} does not Granger cause H_{QAT}	4	1.74	0.78	
H_{SAU} does not Granger cause GDP_{SAU}	4	2.92	0.57	Economic development causes health
GDP_{SAU} does not Granger cause H_{SAU}	4	8.43*	0.08	
H_{UAE} does not Granger cause GDP_{UAE}	8	48.36***	0.00	Bidirectional causality
GDP_{UAE} does not Granger cause H_{UAE}	8	16.35**	0.04	

Note: *** Significant at 1% level; ** Significant at 5% level; * Significant at 10% level, df means degree of freedom

The results in Table 3 above showed that the positive health conditions that led to economic development in Bahrain and Kuwait were the result of a massive national health plan and government projection for long-term development of the health system. However, it is of note that economic development triggered health conditions in Saudi Arabia. This was the result of total health commitments of about 3.2% as a percentage of GDP to health, and assisted in rapid development of a sophisticated health sector for the kingdom. The United Arab Emirates showed bidirectional causality between the health condition and economic

development due to its urbane health scheme for citizens and a mandatory health insurance policy as well as a budget allocation of 3.3% for the health sector.

On the other hand, the non-causal direction between health condition and economic development of Brunei, Oman and Qatar can be attributed to the health policy implementation of those countries that might need improvement. Nevertheless, the three countries are revolutionising their health sector through the introduction of national health insurance coverage and considerable first-class health service delivery.

CONCLUSION

Studies have shown that health has become one of the imperative features of the economic development of a country. Nevertheless, having better economic development could also lead to better health for citizens. Knowing which causes the other is crucial for policy implementation, especially if a higher proportion of income is contributed to improving health. This paper examined the causal relationship between health and economic development in selected high-income economies of Organisation of Islamic Conference (OIC) nations. Since the selected countries also have high expenditure on health in comparison with other OIC countries, the study could give some indications of the importance of high spending on health and economic wellbeing of a country.

This study employed the Toda-Yamamoto Granger non-causality model on data spanning from 1970 to 2015, and obtained results that showed mixed causal directions. In particular, Bahrain and Kuwait seemed to have a health condition that causes higher economic development, while Saudi Arabia experienced the opposite. The United Arab Emirates showed bidirectional causality in the variables while Brunei, Oman and Qatar showed no causal direction between health and economic development.

The results imply that spending high on health does not always stimulate better economic wellbeing even though it can lead to better health condition. Bahrain and Kuwait showed that health condition can

stimulate economic development, sending a signal to other high-income OIC countries to improve their policy implementation. Likewise, better economic development could also lead to better health condition. Future research can look into factors that cause a particular causal linkage in some countries but not in others.

Lastly, this study is limited by its use of a two-variable model as the only measure of health and economic development, so future studies could make the attempt to expand the variables by including other variables of health in the model for a more robust outcome.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The authors wish to thank the Ministry of Education, Malaysia for supporting this research under the Fundamental Research Grant Scheme (FRGS). Research Code: FRGS/1/2013/SS07/USIM/02/2 and USIM/FRGS/FEM/32/51013.

REFERENCES

- Al-Yousuf, M., Akerele, T. M., & Al-Mazrou, Y. Y. (2002). Organization of the Saudi Health System. *Eastern Mediterranean Health Journal*, 8(4&5), 645–653.
- Alshishtawy, M. M. (2010). Four decades of progress: Evolution of the health system in Oman. *Sultan Qaboos University Medical Journal*, 10(1), 12–22.
- Barro, R. (1996). *Health and economic growth*. Mimeo. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University.
- Barro, R., & Lee, J. (1994). Sources of economic growth. *Carnegie-Rochester Conference Series on Public Policy*, 40, 1–46.

- Barro, R., & Sala-I-Martin, X. (1995). *Economic growth*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Basta, S. S., Soekirman, M. S., Karyadi, D., & Scrimshaw, N. S. (1979). Iron deficiency anaemia and the productivity of adult males in Indonesia. *American Journal of Clinical Nutrition*, 32(4), 916–925.
- Bhargava, A. (1997). Nutritional status and the allocation of time in Rwandese households. *Journal of Econometrics*, 77(1), 277–295.
- Bloom, D. E., & Canning, D. (2000). The health and wealth of nations. *Science*, 287(5456), 1207–1208.
- Bloom, D. E., & Canning, D. (2001). Demographic change and economic growth: The role of cumulative causality. In N. Birdsall, A. C. Kelley, & S. W. Sinding (Eds.), *Population matters: Demographic change, economic growth and poverty in the developing world* (pp. 165–197). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Bloom, D. E., & Malaney, P. (1998). Macroeconomic consequences of the Russian mortality crisis. *World Development*, 26(11), 2073–2085.
- Bloom, D. E., & Sachs, J. (1998). Geography, demography, and economic growth in Africa. *Brookings Papers on Economic Activity*, 1998(2), 207–273.
- Bloom, D. E., & Williamson, J. G. (1998). Demographic transitions and economic miracles in emerging Asia. *World Bank Economic Review*, 12(3), 419–455.
- Bloom, D. E., Canning, D., & Malaney, P. N. (2000). Demographic change and economic growth in Asia. *Population and Development Review*, 26(supp.), 257–290.
- Bloom, D. E., Canning, D., & Sevilla, J. (2001). The effect of health on economic growth: Theory and evidence. *NBER Working Paper No. 8587*.
- Bloom, D. E., Canning, D., & Sevilla, J. (2004). The effect of health on economic growth: A production function approach. *World Development*, 32(1), 1–13.
- Bloom, D. E., Canning, D., Evans, D., Graham, B., Lynch, P., & Murphy, E. (1999). Population change and human development in Latin America. *Paper prepared for the Inter-American Development Bank*.
- Day, P., Pearce, J., & Dorling, D. (2008). Twelve Worlds: A geo-demographic comparison of global inequalities in mortality. *Journal of Epidemiology Community Health*, 62(11), 1002–1010.
- Dolado, J. D., & Lutkepohl, H. (1996). Making Wald tests work for cointegrated VAR systems. *Econometric Review*, 15(4), 369–386.
- Fried, L. P. (2000). Epidemiology of aging. *Epidemiologic Reviews*, 22(1), 95–106.
- Gallup, J., & Sachs, J. (2000). The economic burden of malaria. *Working Paper No. 52*. Center for International Development, Harvard University, Cambridge, MA.
- Grimm, M. (2011). Does inequality in health impede economic growth? *Oxford Economic Papers*, 63(3), 448–474.
- Gürler, M., & Özsoy, Ö. (2017). The relationship between life expectancy at birth and economic growth in Islamic countries. *The International Congress of Islamic Economy, Finance and Ethics (ISEFE 2017)*. Istanbul, Turkey.

- Hamoudi, A., & Sachs, J. (1999). Economic consequences of health status: A review of the evidence. *Working Paper No. 30*. Harvard Center for International Development, Cambridge, MA.
- Jen, M. H., Johnston, R., Jones, K., Harris, R., & Gandy, A. (2010). International variations in life expectancy: A spatio-temporal analysis. *Journal for Economic and Social Geography*, 101(1), 73-90.
- Kefeli, Z., & Zaidi, M. A. S. (2014). Effect of health on economic development: Evidence among OIC high-income economies. In *Prosiding Persidangan Kebangsaan Ekonomi Malaysia (PERKEM ke-9)*, Kuala Terengganu, Terengganu, Malaysia.
- Khaliq, A. A. (2012). The Saudi healthcare system: A view from the minaret. *World Health and Population*, 13(3), 52–64.
- Kwiatkowski, D., Phillips, P. C. B., Schmidt, P., & Shin, Y. (1992) Testing the null hypothesis of stationarity against the alternative of a unit root. *Journal of Econometrics*, 54(1-3), 159–178.
- Lynch, J., Davey Smith, G., Harper, S., Hillemeier, M., Ross, N., Kaplan, G., & Wolfson, M. (2004). Is income inequality a determinant of population health? Part 1: A systematic review. *Millbank Quarterly*, 82(1), 5–99.
- MacKinnon, J. G. (1996). Numerical distribution functions for unit root and cointegration tests. *Journal of Applied Econometrics*, 11, 601–618.
- Marmot, M. (2010). Fair society, healthy lives. *The Marmot Review*. Retrieved October 17, 2013 from <http://www.instituteofhealthequity.org/projects/fair-society-healthy-lives-the-marmot-review>.
- MHKB. (2015). *I-SEHA, informed health care*. Ministry of Health Kingdom of Bahrain. Retrieved March 14, 2015 from <http://www.moh.gov.bh/en/aboutMOH/ministry.aspx>.
- OIC. (2013). *OIC health report 2013*. Statistical Economic and Social Research and Training Centre for Islamic Countries (SESRIC). Organisation of Islamic Cooperation.
- ONS. (2007). *Trends in life expectancy by social class 1972–2005*. London: Office for National Statistics. Office for National Statistics. Retrieved October 17, 2013 from <http://www.ons.gov.uk/ons/rel/health-ineq/health-inequalities/trends-in-life-expectancy-by-social-class-1972-2005/trends-in-ons-longitudinal-study-estimates-of-life-expectancy-1972-2005.pdf>.
- Sachs, J., & Warner, A. (1997). Sources of slow growth in African economies. *Journal of African Economics*, 6, 335–337.
- SESRIC. (2012). *Statistical, Economic and Social Research and Training Centre for Islamic Countries (SESRIC)*. Turkey.
- SNP. (2010). *Poverty, worklessness and welfare dependency in UK*. State of the Nation Report. Retrieved March 17, 2015 from <http://www.bristol.ac.uk/poverty/downloads/keyofficialdocuments/CONDEM%20-poverty-report.pdf>.
- Sorkin, A. L. (1977). *Health economics in developing countries*. Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.
- Spurr, G. B. (1983). Nutritional status and physical work capacity. *Yearbook of Physical Anthropology*, 26(S1), 1–35.
- Strauss, J., & Thomas, D. (1998). Health, nutrition and economic development. *Journal of Economic Literature*, 36(2), 766–917.

- Toda, H. Y., & Yamamoto, T. (1995). Statistical inference in vector autoregressions with possibly integrated processes. *Journal of Econometrics*, 66(1-2), 225–250.
- Wahab, A. A. O. A., & Kefeli, Z. (2016). Projecting a long term expenditure growth in healthcare service: A literature review. *Procedia Economics and Finance*, 37, 152–157.
- Weil, D. N. (2007). Accounting for the effect of health on economic growth. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 122(3), 1265–1306.
- World Bank. (2015). *World development indicators*. Retrieved March 20, 2015, from <https://blogs.worldbank.org/opendata/new-country-classifications>
- WHO. (2013). *Regional health observatory*. World Health Organization. Retrieved 13 March, 2015 from <http://www.who.int/countries/en/>.
- WHO. (2014). *Global health observatory*. World Health Organization. Retrieved 13 March, 2015 from <http://apps.who.int/gho/data/node.cco>.

APPENDIX

Table 4
Results of unit root tests: GDP

Augmented Dickey Fuller						
H ₀ : The variable has a unit root						
Time Series	Level Form		First Difference		2 nd Difference	
	Constant	Constant & Trend	Constant	Constant & Trend	Constant	Constant & Trend
GDP _{BAH}	-2.02 (0)	-2.18 (0)	-6.55 (0)***	-6.48(0)***	-7.82(2)***	-7.87(2)***
GDP _{BRU}	-0.91 (2)	-3.79 (5)**	-4.47 (1)***	-4.47 (1)***	-6.34 (3)***	-6.25 (3)***
GDP _{KUW}	-2.69 (1)*	-2.52 (1)	-4.90 (0)***	-5.01 (0)***	-8.00 (1)***	-7.90 (1)***
GDP _{OMA}	-2.91 (1)*	-1.24 (1)	-5.16 (0)***	-6.08 (0)***	-10.07 (0)***	-9.94 (0)***
GDP _{QAT}	-1.85 (2)	-0.86 (0)	-2.64 (1)*	-5.11 (0)***	-12.04 (0)***	-11.90 (0)***
GDP _{SAU}	-2.19 (2)	-1.41 (0)	-4.88 (0)***	-4.84 (0)***	-11.16 (0)***	-11.11 (0)***
GDP _{UAE}	-1.30 (1)	-2.49 (1)	-5.12 (0)***	-5.08 (0)***	-8.98 (0)***	-8.88 (0)***
KPSS						
H ₀ : The variable is stationary						
Time Series	Level Form		First Difference		2 nd Difference	
	Constant	Constant & Trend	Constant	Constant & Trend	Constant	Constant & Trend
GDP _{BAH}	0.22	0.09	0.07	0.07	0.25	0.25
GDP _{BRU}	0.60**	0.08	0.17	0.12	0.02	0.01
GDP _{KUW}	0.20	0.18**	0.31	0.10	0.14	0.14*
GDP _{OMA}	0.71**	0.21**	0.49**	0.04	0.09	0.11
GDP _{QAT}	0.20	0.20**	0.34	0.10	0.11	0.11
GDP _{SAU}	0.45*	0.14*	0.11	0.11	0.22	0.19**
GDP _{UAE}	0.78***	0.09	0.07	0.06	0.20	0.18**
Phillips-Perron						
H ₀ : The variable has a unit root						
Time Series	Level Form		First Difference		2 nd Difference	
	Constant	Constant & Trend	Constant	Constant & Trend	Constant	Constant & Trend
GDP _{BAH}	-2.04	-2.22	-6.55***	-6.48***	-33.57***	-36.67***
GDP _{BRU}	-1.00	-2.63	-5.21***	-5.22***	-16.46***	-16.74***
GDP _{KUW}	-2.32	-2.07	-4.84***	-4.91***	-16.18***	-15.94***
GDP _{OMA}	-2.61	-0.73	-5.20***	-6.28***	-17.57***	-18.75***
GDP _{QAT}	-1.42	-1.13	-4.94***	-5.24***	-16.36***	-16.17***
GDP _{SAU}	-1.54	-2.02	-4.85***	-4.76***	-13.67***	-14.42***
GDP _{UAE}	-1.17	-2.17	-5.12***	-5.08***	-22.16***	-21.86***

Note:

- Number in parenthesis is the optimum number of lags determined by SC
- *** significant at 1% level; ** significant at 5% level; * significant at 10% level
- For ADF and PP, the critical values are from MacKinnon (1996), while for KPSS, the critical values are from Kwiatkowski-Phillips-Schmidt-Shin (1992)

APPENDIX

Table 5
Results of unit root tests: Health

Augmented Dickey Fuller						
H ₀ : The variable has a unit root						
Time Series	Level Form		First Difference		2 nd Difference	
	Constant	Constant & Trend	Constant	Constant & Trend	Constant	Constant & Trend
H _{BAH}	-1.39 (4)	-5.02 (5)***	-4.03 (6)***	-1.96 (3)	-3.01 (2)**	-1.84 (2)
H _{BRU}	-3.49 (4)**	-3.15 (4)	-1.88 (1)	-3.08 (2)	-2.72 (0)*	-5.05 (5)***
H _{KUW}	-4.29 (5)***	-3.06 (2)	-1.31 (3)	-1.60 (3)	-2.49 (1)	-2.52 (1)
H _{OMA}	-10.72 (1)***	-12.65 (1)***	0.12 (0)	-1.64 (0)	-3.73 (2)***	-4.43 (2)***
H _{QAT}	-1.00 (3)	-4.22 (4)***	-2.37 (2)	-2.36 (2)	-2.50 (1)	-1.53 (1)
H _{SAU}	-2.44 (4)	-2.36 (4)	-2.53 (4)	-1.23 (4)	-2.24 (3)	-3.01 (3)
H _{UAE}	-1.34 (4)	-4.42 (8)***	-2.19 (3)	-2.18 (3)	-2.48 (2)	-2.00 (2)
KPSS						
H ₀ : The variable is stationary						
Time Series	Level Form		First Difference		2 nd Difference	
	Constant	Constant & Trend	Constant	Constant & Trend	Constant	Constant & Trend
H _{BAH}	0.84***	0.21**	0.70**	0.20**	0.68**	0.19**
H _{BRU}	0.88***	0.20**	0.53**	0.18**	0.16	0.06
H _{KUW}	0.82***	0.22***	0.75***	0.20**	0.52**	0.09
H _{OMA}	0.84***	0.23***	0.80***	0.15**	0.13	0.13*
H _{QAT}	0.85***	0.21**	0.66**	0.22***	0.63**	0.13*
H _{SAU}	0.80***	0.22***	0.78***	0.21**	0.53**	0.09
H _{UAE}	0.85***	0.22**	0.78***	0.21**	0.71**	0.19**
Phillips-Perron						
H ₀ : The variable has a unit root						
Time Series	Level Form		First Difference		2 nd Difference	
	Constant	Constant & Trend	Constant	Constant & Trend	Constant	Constant & Trend
H _{BAH}	-10.90***	-15.59***	-10.00***	-4.93***	-2.69*	-3.37*
H _{BRU}	-3.17**	-3.27*	-2.02	-1.85	-2.90*	-2.78
H _{KUW}	-9.98***	-3.68**	-2.78*	-0.45	-5.50***	-6.82***
H _{OMA}	-14.26***	-2.29	-0.34	-2.38	-3.01*	-2.97
H _{QAT}	-6.96***	-8.60***	-6.64***	-3.56*	-2.34	-3.39*
H _{SAU}	-27.34***	-9.72***	-3.01*	0.25	-2.04	-4.19***
H _{UAE}	-16.05***	-15.38***	-10.74***	-4.96***	-3.93***	-6.85***

Note:

- Number in parenthesis is the optimum number of lags determined by SC

- *** significant at 1% level; ** significant at 5% level; * significant at 10% level

- For ADF and PP, the critical values are from MacKinnon (1996), while for KPSS, the critical values are from Kwiatkowski-Phillips-Schmidt-Shin (1992)



The Impact of Pedagogical Intervention in Developing the Speaking Proficiency of Engineering Students

S. Shantha* and S. Mekala

Department of Humanities, National Institute of Technology, Tiruchirapalli, Tamil Nadu 620015, India

ABSTRACT

This article focusses on an experimental study conducted to improve the speaking proficiency of engineering students using the task-based approach. Engineering students are expected to possess adequate speaking proficiency for career growth prospects. The major impediment in job placement faced by students is their lack of proficiency in speaking. This article explores the pivotal role played by the English Language teacher in guiding students towards oral proficiency in English and enabling them to overcome constraints in speaking. The participants of the study are first-year civil engineering students comprising 38 participants in the experimental and control group respectively. The main tool used in this study is oral communicative tasks, which are administered to the experimental group. The results of the statistical analysis have revealed that there is a significant level of improvement in the oral proficiency of the experimental group.

Keywords: Oral communicative tasks, pedagogical intervention, speaking proficiency

INTRODUCTION

In the era of globalisation, communication skills are a major pre-requisite for engineering students aspiring to succeed

in their profession. Engineering students are expected to be fluent speakers who are able to convey their thoughts clearly; this pertinent demand necessitates them to develop their speaking skills. An engineer needs oral proficiency in English to make presentations, conduct meetings, give instructions and participate in discussions in the workplace. Though engineering students have been learning English since primary school, many of them struggle to meet the industry requirements regarding

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received: 31 August 2016

Accepted: 26 February 2018

E-mail addresses:

shantha.ravi39@gmail.com (S. Shantha)

mekala@nitt.edu (S. Mekala)

*Corresponding author

oral proficiency in English. There is a gap between the corporate expectation and the educational outcome. More efforts are needed to improve the speaking proficiency of tertiary-level students. Clement and Murugavel (2015) have argued that, "Mere changes in the syllabus will not be able to bring in desired changes unless the English teachers are motivated to enhance their teaching methodologies to bridge the gap between the college and the workplace" (p. 123). This researcher is an English Language teacher in an engineering institution and has played a crucial role as pedagogical intervener in developing the speaking skills of learners using oral communicative tasks. The objective of presenting oral communicative tasks to students is to enable them to think and generate organised content. It is expected that this study will enhance the participants' speaking performance and improve their professional accomplishments in terms of academic excellence and career prospects.

Need for the Study

The engineering curriculum prescribes two courses in Technical English, Technical English I and Technical English II in the first and second semesters respectively. The objective of the two papers is to develop the students' basic communication skills in English, with reference to the development of speaking skills. The stated expected outcome is to enable the learners to speak clearly, confidently and comprehensibly and to communicate with others using appropriate communicative strategies. The

importance is given only to reading and writing activities, grammar and vocabulary exercises. The teachers are inclined towards preparing the students for their semester examination. Speaking activities are not included both in internal assessments as well as in the external exam. The above instances explicitly convey that there is no scope or provision for speaking tasks in the class environment.

This experimental study attempts to create a positive scenario for teachers to devote one third of their scheduled sessions to speaking activities, which will help students to hone their oral proficiency, thus enhancing their career prospects. The students' inadequacy in spoken English is due to various reasons such as their regional medium of schooling, coming from a rural background, inadequate practice in speaking, fear of making mistakes, discouragement by peers, lack of exposure to an English-speaking environment both in their academic institution and at home, constraints in curriculum and shortcomings in and assessment methodologies, among other reasons. However, it is imperative that students of engineering must develop adequate oral communicative skills to be employable and successful in their career. Reimer (2007) has stated that engineering students are required to acquire a range of skills, among which communication skills in English are a vital component for meeting academic and industry expectations. The lag in communication skills reflect adversely on the individual and the profession. This, in turn, affects recruitment and retention in

engineering studies. Oral communication and presentation skills are considered one of the best career enhancers and the single biggest factor in determining a student's career success or failure (Polack-Wahl 2000). The pedagogical intervention could be a possible solution to this major impediment faced by engineering students in the ESL context.

Scope of the Study

On analysing the English proficiency status of engineering graduates, it was appalling to note that their lack of speaking skills had immensely affected their general employability. They had not been able to perform well in job interviews and therefore, had lost career opportunities. The third edition of the *National Employability Report* revealed that in 2014, only 18.33% of engineering graduates had been employable and only 18.09% had actually got a job. A *Times of India* article stated that 1.2 candidates were surveyed across the country, and 73.63% of the candidates were found to lack English speaking and comprehension skills ("Only 18% engineering grads", 2014). In *Business Standard*, a report by Aspiring Minds, a recruiting and HR training firm, stated that "43 percent of engineers cannot write correct English and lack accuracy in English grammar." It further reported that 25-35% of engineers were not good at spoken discourses in English, which include day-to-day conversations, official meetings and presentations. Seetha (2012) argued that, "The incorporation of communication

skills courses in English for engineers at the universities is becoming an essential element of continuous learning. Bringing real world practices into the engineering curriculum through English communication programmes will expose the engineering students to have a broader vision" (p. 5). Rani (2014) stated, "Proficiency in English is a prerequisite for a successful engineering career. And difficulty with the same is an important factor that impedes career prospects. The development of linguistic proficiency in the learner is needed for the spontaneous and appropriate use of language in different situations" (p. 425).

Clement and Murugavel (2015) conducted a survey on 400 engineering students and found that many third-year students were lacking in confidence to face the campus interview. They pointed out that teaching methodology needed to be interactive to improve the students' speaking ability. Nayak (2016) attested, "There is an urgent need to streamline the English language training in engineering colleges to enhance the employability of the students and make them industry ready" (p. 395). In addition, during the 82nd annual meeting of the Association of Indian Universities, the former President of India, Dr. A. P. J. Abdul Kalam asserted that only 25% of graduating students were employable and students were lacking in areas such as technical knowledge, English proficiency and critical thinking. These reports had led to the necessity in taking immediate measures to enhance students' speaking proficiency.

Theoretical Background

Zhou (1991) and Ellis (1993) have claimed that when the students are made to interact in the target language in class, their language proficiency seems to improve. Kurpa-Kwiatkowski (1998) has mentioned in her study that, "Interaction involves participation, personal engagement, and taking of initiative in some way, activities, that in turn, are hypothesized to trigger cognitive processes conducive to language learning" (p. 133). Since oral interaction is a noticeable behaviour, studies in the field of language learning have focussed on the significance of students' oral interaction. The more the interaction among the students as well as between the teacher and the students, the better the language learning achieved by the students. Teachers play a pertinent role in promoting interaction among the students and facilitating them to focus on the learning process. These studies have confirmed a positive relationship between language learning and the amount of time spent on oral interaction in the English classroom.

In Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT), tasks play a significant role in achieving the desired outcome in the process of pedagogical intervention. Task-based language learning encourages learners to use language in the classroom interaction and help the teachers to use varied strategies to develop the speaking skills of the students. Norris (2009) has highlighted that TBLT integrates theoretical and empirical foundations for good pedagogy with a focus on tangible learning outcomes in the form

of 'tasks'. Cook (2008) has indicated that in TBLT, learning and teaching should be planned around a set of communicative tasks that are performed in the target language. Therefore, the task creates interaction in the language classroom. Additionally, communicative tasks can motivate learners and establish good relationships between the teacher and the students, as well as among the students, thereby encouraging a supportive environment for language learning. Littlewood (1992) has suggested that the classroom must be conducive to the learning environment pertaining to the needs of the learners. He has also emphasised that processes and products are important in engaging the learners in the classroom. Kumaravadivelu's (1993) description gives us the key idea for developing speaking skills through communicative tasks.

...a communicative classroom seeks to promote interpretation, expression, and negotiation of meaning. This means learners ought to be active, not just reactive in class. They should be encouraged to ask for information, seek clarification, express an opinion, agree and/or disagree with peers and teachers. More importantly, they should be guided to go beyond memorised patterns and monitored repetitions in order to participate in meaningful interaction.

Pair and group activities provide learners with more time to speak the target language than the teacher-fronted activities. In

addition, learners may feel less anxious and more confident when interacting with peers during pair or small-group activities (Mc Donough, 2004, p. 210). The most challenging task for any English teacher is facilitating students to speak English in class. This results from learners' lack of exposure to authentic English language environments that allow them to use English for communication and expression. Nunan (1999) and Thornby (2005) argue that psychological factors such as anxiety or shyness, lack of confidence, lack of motivation and fear of making mistakes hinder students from speaking. In addition, Shanmugasundaram (2012) in his research has broadly categorised the factors that affect students when performing speaking tasks as psychological, sociological, linguistic and pedagogical. He has substantiated the factors affecting speaking proficiency prevalent among students of government and private Arts and Science colleges. The resistance to English has not been so pronounced in the engineering setup as it has been in the Arts colleges; still, their lack of speaking skills is undeniable. This study has examined the avenues for improving the speaking proficiency of engineering students and has attempted to exhibit a model for the teaching community of higher institutes of engineering and technology in the ESL context. This study has reinforced the significance of oral communicative tasks and has provided language educators with teaching tools and techniques through both quantitative and qualitative inquiry.

Research Questions

The following research questions are addressed in this paper.

1. How do the oral communicative tasks improve the speaking ability of the experimental group?
2. What are the learners' constraints in performing the oral communicative tasks?
3. What is the role of pedagogical intervention in improving the speaking proficiency of the students?

INSTRUMENTS AND METHODS

Participants

The participants of the study are first-year Bachelor of Engineering (BE) students of Civil Engineering at the M.A.M College of Engineering and Technology, Tiruchirapalli. The participants (N=76) are selected based on simple random sampling, in which the samples have been assigned to the control and experimental groups using lottery method (Kothari, 2004). The control and experimental groups consist of 38 students respectively. Their ages range between 17 and 19 years. The participants comprise 22 females and 54 males. Most of them are from the same background pertaining to their first language, previous educational experience and learning context.

Oral Communicative Tasks (OCT)

Ellis (2003) has stated that tasks are tools for providing opportunities for learners to use the target language. Oral communicative

tasks enable the students to think and generate sentences on their own. Tasks are assigned in a graded structure from simple to complex and this sequencing of tasks encourages the students to volunteer in the OCT. The use of icebreakers at the initial stage of the OCT is to prepare the learners and elicit their interest in the OCT. Self-introduction is used as a pre-test to assess and mark the entry level of the control and the experimental group. The OCT is categorised as initial tasks, core tasks and supporting tasks. In this study, nine tasks have been planned for the experimental group. The initial tasks are: Listing 10 activities of the given professional; Listing five to-do's; Mentioning associated ideas on a topic; and Situation-based responses. The core tasks are: Long-answer interview; Comparing task; Story completion; Roleplay; and Group discussion. Tasks such as Roleplay and Situation-based responses resemble real life situations; hence; they help students by presenting them with situations with which they are likely to be familiar. Tasks such as Story completion and Roleplay are creative and students are expected to use their imagination and creativity. The rest of the tasks are informative and the students have to think on the content they should generate before presenting it. These tasks can be categorised as individual, pair and group work. The supporting task, 'Short-answer sessions', has been used to prepare the students to respond comprehensibly in English. An Impromptu speech, "The best gift I have ever received" has been given as the post-test to validate the exit level of the experimental group.

Questionnaire

A pre-study questionnaire has been administered to elicit details regarding the participants' profile. In addition, a post-study questionnaire has been administered to collect feedback on the implementation of the oral communicative tasks from the participants.

Observation Sheet

An observation sheet has been used to note down the students' performance of the oral communicative tasks i.e. ability to perform the task, diction, sentence construction, coherence and correct pronunciation of words. At the end of each task, the data from the observation sheet has been transferred to the scoring sheet comprising the assessing parameters as specified in the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR).

Scoring Rubric

Task performances of the students have been evaluated using analytic scoring proposed by the Common European Framework of Reference (CEF 2001). It includes assessing parameters such as range, accuracy, fluency, interaction and coherence. The assessment criteria and weightage of marks are tabulated.

Table 1
CEFR speaking assessment criteria

Components Tested	Weightage of Marks
Fluency and coherence	4 marks
Grammatical acceptability	2 marks
Ability to expand the idea	1 mark
Volume	2 marks
Pronunciation	1 mark
Maximum score	10 marks

Implementation

In this quasi-experimental study, a schedule of 24 classes of 50-minute duration spread over a period of 12 weeks was conducted to develop the speaking proficiency of the experimental group. The icebreaker session comprised the following two activities: Point out the imaginative uses of A) shoe lace, B) ruler, C) newspaper, D) pencil; and Make as many words as possible from the phrase 'Solving problems'. The students participated actively and expressed their ideas willingly in the two tasks. Two teams came with 18 different uses of newspapers for the first task. A team came forward with 40 words for the second task as this task made them think and reason out the possibilities. This was effective as the students participated voluntarily.

The session continued and the students were prompted to answer the questions asked in the activity. The students were expected to list the activities of the given professions in words and phrases in the initial task. The next task, 'List five to-do's to save money, to look beautiful, etc.' was done as a group task. In the third task, 'Mention five associated ideas with Facebook, Dream, etc.', the learners seemed to be more confident and did not consider the evaluation of friends negative. They corrected their mistakes based on the teacher's feedback. In the Situation-Based Responses, most of the students used general terms such as 'sorry', 'congrats' and 'excuse me' etc. Only a few responded appropriately. The core task, Long-Answer Interview, induced

interest in the learners, and they participated enthusiastically, despite their speaking constraints. It was generally observed that their anxiety level was reduced. Peer pressure and teacher's motivation influenced the slow learners to interact in the class. In the next task, Discuss similarities and differences, the students made a sincere attempt, and many of them showed steady improvement in delivering coherent content. The duration of interaction also duly increased over a period of time. This task turned out to be interactive and the students voluntarily contributed their ideas as in the case of the previous task. The seventh task, Story Completion, elicited instantaneous interaction and girls interacted well. In the subsequent task, Roleplay, although the students made a few grammatical errors, they were able to enact their roles skilfully. Pauses and fillers had reduced considerably. There was maximum participation in the following task, Group Discussion (GD). The initiators of GD had an influence on the reluctant performers. The Impromptu Speech, was administered as the post-test to both the control and experimental groups to examine the difference in attainment of speaking proficiency, and there was a substantial improvement in the experimental group. The control group were reluctant to perform the post-test. They were not able to perform the task, as they were not exposed to the nuances of content generation and the delivery mechanism of speaking skills and the strategic implication of oral communicative tasks.

Table 2
Participation percentage of students in the tasks

S. No	Name of the Activity	No. of Participants	% of Participation
1.	Pre-task: Self-Introduction	35/38	92%
2.	Icebreakers	35/38	92%
3.	Initial task: 10 activities of given professions	16/38	42%
4.	Initial task: Five to-do lists	28/38	74%
5.	Initial task: Five associated ideas on a topic	29/38	76%
6.	Initial task:-Situation-based response	32/38	84%
7.	Core task: Long-Answer interview	33/38	87%
8.	Core task: Discuss the similarities and differences	33/38	87%
9.	Core task: Story completion	13/38	34%
10.	Core task: Role play	24/38	64%
11.	Core task: Group discussion	34/38	89%
12.	Post-task: Impromptu speech	33/38	87%

RESULTS

Descriptive Analysis

The data were analysed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) 17. The focus of the study was to examine whether the OCT approach had a positive effect on first-year civil engineering

students, with respect to their spoken proficiency. The independent sample t-test was computed to compare the mean scores of each component in the pre- and post-test scores of the control and the experimental groups. The mean and standard deviation of the scores of 76 participants are tabulated in Table 3 and Table 4.

Table 3
Independent sample T-Test for spoken components in Pre-Task

Test Components	Group	N	Mean	SD	T Value	Level of Significance
Fluency and Coherence	Experiment	38	1.3816	0.53819	0.480	NS
	Control	38	1.3158	0.65162		
Grammar	Experiment	38	0.5921	0.19643	3.561	0.01
	Control	38	0.4474	0.15551		
Idea/Content	Experiment	38	0.5395	0.24333	1.209	NS
	Control	38	0.4737	0.23096		
Volume	Experiment	38	0.7632	0.25300	4.825	0.01
	Control	38	0.4868	0.24624		
Pronunciation	Experiment	38	0.6053	0.20658	3.764	0.01
	Control	38	0.4474	0.15551		
Total	Experiment	38	3.9079	1.01246	2.813	0.01
	Control	38	3.1579	1.29503		

Table 3 reveals that there was no significant difference between the control and experimental groups in terms of fluency and coherence and Idea/Content in the pre-test score. They were not able to generate ideas in the initial stage as they were lacking in content. There was a significant difference between the groups in terms of grammatical ability, volume, pronunciation and the

total score at the 0.01 level. The reason for this difference might be the reluctance of the control group to perform the pre-test. Moreover, volume, pronunciation and grammar were considered subsidiary parameters compared with the main scoring parameters such as fluency and content generation.

Table 4
Independent sample T-Test for spoken components in Post-Task

Test Components	Group	N	Mean	SD	T Value	Level of Significance
Fluency and Coherence	Experiment	38	2.2763	0.60065	7.451	0.01
	Control	38	1.1316	0.73231		
Grammar	Experiment	38	0.9605	0.21377	10.173	0.01
	Control	38	0.4211	0.24372		
Idea/Content	Experiment	38	0.7237	0.2519	5.155	0.01
	Control	38	0.4079	0.28129		
Volume	Experiment	38	0.8947	0.23704	6.00	0.01
	Control	38	0.5000	0.32880		
Pronunciation	Experiment	38	0.7368	0.25300	6.083	0.01
	Control	38	0.3947	0.23704		
Total	Experiment	38	5.6316	1.1251	8.463	0.01
	Control	38	2.8553	1.68020		

The above table reveals that there has been a substantial difference between the control and experimental groups in the post-test score in terms of fluency and coherence, grammatical ability, idea/content, volume, pronunciation and the total score is at the 0.01 level. It is obvious that the experimental group had shown considerable improvement compared with

the control group. Willis (1996) has stated that “tasks are always activities where the target language is used by the learner for a communicative purpose (goal) in order to achieve an outcome” (p. 23). The table explicitly indicates that pedagogical intervention using oral communicative tasks has enhanced the spoken performance of the experimental group effectively.

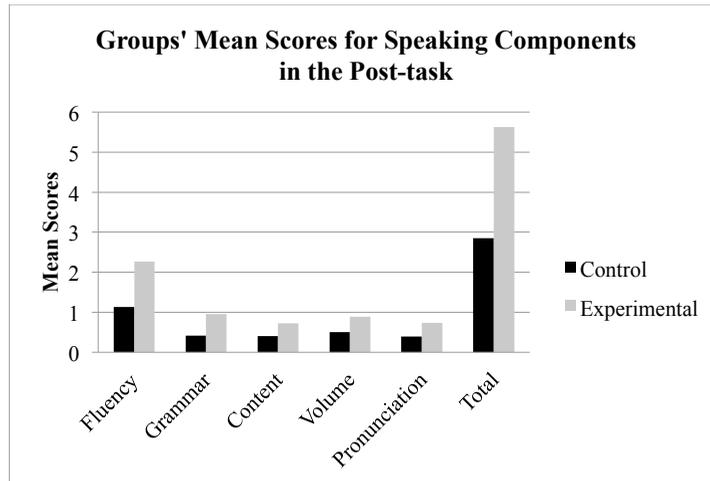


Figure 1. Results of comparison of speaking components in the post-test

Figure 1 also indicates that the experimental group has performed better than the control group in the post-test based on the analytic parameters of the Common European Framework of Reference. So it can be concluded that the experimental group has outperformed the control group in their speaking proficiency.

DISCUSSION

Research Question 1: Execution of OCT

The Oral Communicative Task (OCT) was administrated in a regular classroom environment by observing and recording students' progress, interacting and reflecting on various aspects of the tasks and students' outcomes. The demonstrative sessions at the beginning of every task enhanced the understanding of tasks by the learners and subdued their fears and inhibitions. In the self-introduction task a few felt interested in presenting themselves confidently in English

and a few replicated others' performances. Some relied on the teacher's assistance in organising their thoughts in framing sentences. Most of the students perceived this activity to be a new experience for them. For the first task on 10 activities of the given professions, the students searched for words and got struck mid way. The teacher and peers prompted words so as to enable them to continue with the task. Subsequently, for the next task on listing five to-do's, the students prepared the answer by discussing it with peers and seeking the help of the teacher. While a student presented the answer, the others tried to contribute their ideas. This kind of interaction was encouraged and appreciated by the teacher. Their confidence level improved considerably in performing the subsequent tasks, Situation-Based Responses, Long-Answer interview and the rest. In the final task, Impromptu Speech, many tried to outperform their peers by effortlessly participating in

the task. Meticulous preparation using dictionaries exemplified their involvement in the task. It was evident that negative factors like shyness, embarrassment and apprehensiveness minimised in due course. These tasks brought real-life situations into the classroom, and students were provided with opportunities to express their ideas and share their opinions. The students volunteered to participate in the tasks. They could express their ideas freely because they performed the activities in pairs and groups with their peer group and the classroom naturally evolved into a learner-centred environment.

In the class of 38 students, a substantial number of 23 students showed improvement in their speaking proficiency after attempting the oral communicative tasks. According to the data in the Table 4, it was evident that the implementation of oral communicative tasks had helped to develop the spoken performance of the experimental group, and the experimental group scored better than the control group in the post-task components. The majority of the students aspired for more OCT sessions, exhibiting their interest in the interactive learning environment. It is also important to highlight that some students were highly motivated in performing the tasks, since they perceived the significance of developing speaking skills in English and they realised it was a pertinent pre-requisite for their career prospects. Consequently, they actively took part in all the oral communicative tasks. The result of such active participation in the tasks increased their language proficiency in the due course. So it was confirmed that

the implementation of oral communicative tasks and pedagogical intervention enabled the experimental group to outperform the control group in their speaking proficiency.

Research Question 2: Learners'

Constraints

The experimental group faced many constraints while performing the Oral Communicative Task (OCT). Majority of the participants were first-time speakers and were affected by their fear of failure. Stage fear prevented them from speaking and comprehending the prompting cues. The students could not practise and prepare for the tasks in the home environment due to their inability to generate sentences in English on their own. The students who had had Tamil-medium schooling believed that they could not learn to speak in English and speaking in English was possible only for English-medium students. Another issue was the discouragement by peers. As Jianing (2007) indicated in her work "To protect themselves from being laughed at, the students are reluctant to speak English... the less they speak, the less they improve their speaking skills, and the more they are afraid of speaking" (p. 1), the students had fear of being insulted or teased if they tried to hold a conversation in English with friends. Liu and Jackson (2008) claimed in their study that lack of vocabulary was regarded as a predominant impediment for spoken communication by Chinese English learners. In this study too, the participants considered their inadequacy in vocabulary as a prevalent obstacle in

their task performance. Many found it difficult to convey a message or an idea. They seemed to be lacking in the discourse ability of organising a thought. This was found to be a major impediment in their oral proficiency. They either produced half sentences in their speech or had false starts. They were unable to speak clearly and their voice level dropped during their speech due to their shyness, inhibition and lack of confidence. Some of them mumbled and made unnecessary and unnatural pauses in their speech as they searched for the right word. Some used fillers like “aaah,” “uumm,” “and”, “I” and etc. Some students avoided eye contact with the audience during their performance.

Research Question 3: Pedagogical Intervention

A teacher can be instrumental in training students to attain oral proficiency in English. The English teacher can take up many roles, as Littlewood (1981) conceptualised, pointing out that the teacher can be a facilitator of learning, who plays sub-roles as classroom manager, consultant, adviser and co-communicator with the students. The teacher can subdue students' psychological barriers by providing motivation, encouragement and a conducive classroom environment. The teacher can overcome the linguistic constraints of the students by providing interactive classes and feedback sessions. The teacher must assure that all the students are given equal opportunity. The researcher-cum-facilitator in this study encouraged the students and motivated them

to participate in the tasks. The students were made to interact with peers to overcome their constraints in speaking. Their participation increased their confidence level in making an oral presentation. Yet some of the slow learners felt inhibited to participate in the class interaction and the facilitator paired them with enthusiastic high-performance learners and shared the challenging tasks. The slow learners started to acquire the nuances of delivering content with logical progression of ideas. The facilitator enabled them to select the right word, structure a sentence, suggest an alternative word, and correct an ill-constructed sentence or their mispronunciation. The facilitator also helped the students to think in English. The students were made to read aloud to overcome their pronunciation problems. During the oral communicative tasks (OCT), the comments and feedback provided by both their peers and the facilitator helped the students to perform better in the subsequent oral tasks. The facilitator motivated the learners by making them work in pairs and groups and acted as the audience. The majority of the students asked for more OCT sessions, exhibiting their interest in this interactive learning environment.

Level of Improvement

The level of improvement of the students was analysed from pre-test to post-test and four groups were categorised according to their improvement percentage from High level of improvement to Above Average, Average and Low level of improvement.

Table 5
Improvement level of students in four categories

Category	Level of Category	Percentage of Improvement	No. of Students
Category 1	High level of improvement	100%-83%	4
Category 2	Above average	71%-55%	7
Category 3	Average	50%-37.5%	12
Category 4	Low level of improvement	33%-18%	15

In Category 1, the motivation level of the students was high and they participated in all the activities. They gradually progressed in their oral performance. Although they found it difficult to perform the tasks, they tried hard with the help of the teacher and also sought the help of their peers. Participant 23 in the beginning could not speak clearly due to lack of vocabulary and grammatical knowledge, but her motivation level was high and she worked hard. She never hesitated to seek the teacher's help in performing the activities. In Category 2, students like Participant 2, Participant 9, Participant 15 and Participant 16 performed well in the later activities. They looked forward to the oral communicative task (OCT) sessions and they felt the need to improve their language proficiency. They really worked to make progress and approached the teacher and friends with interest for help. They sincerely approached the teacher to select a right word, or structure a sentence or correct grammar. In Category 3, the participants were highly inhibited and shy. Even those who were proficient enough to speak English were hesitant to take part in the classroom activities.

Some of them were bold enough to take part in the oral communicative tasks, but they were inadequate in vocabulary and grammar acquisition. Despite the teacher's support, they made slow progress. They could not show steady improvement, as they had some difficulty in constructing sentences and expressing their thoughts in speech. Category 4 had two different levels of students. The first were the better performers who did better in the pre-task and felt that the first task of listing down activities of given professionals was boring, and so, they were not patient to listen to their peers' performance. The second were reticent learners who did not get involved in the activities due to their lack of proficiency. The proficient participants were well ahead of the others in performing the tasks and moreover, they took part in all the tasks. The reticent students were reluctant and disinclined to participate in the oral communicative tasks. When they were compelled to perform activities, they were resistant and undemonstrative. They seemed to be uncomfortable throughout the session and absented themselves deliberately from some sessions.

CONCLUSION

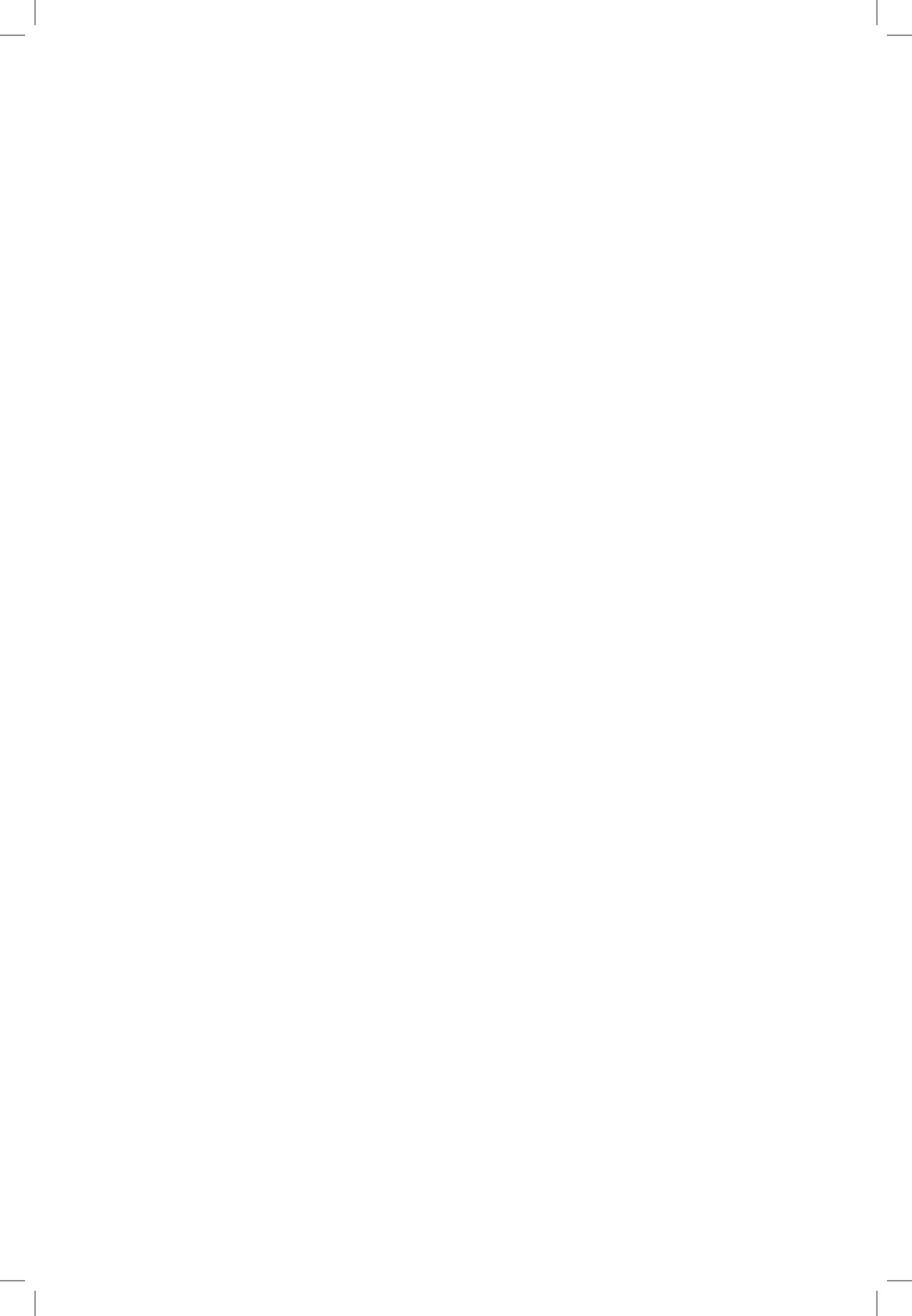
This study is an attempt to improve ESL learners' speaking skills through oral communicative tasks (OCT). The findings of this study supports the recommendation that oral communicative task-based learning is essential in the engineering curriculum, as this would promote situation-based activities that provide opportunities for the learners to speak English and prepare themselves for similar kinds of exposure in their future career. The OCT is an effective approach that can be implemented to improve speaking ability. The facilitator has played a pivotal role in devising the task for learners, preparing them for execution of the tasks and motivating them to accomplish the task successfully. The results have indicated that task-based language teaching enables students to improve their speaking ability. The transformation in the teacher's role from authoritarian to facilitator, counsellor, organiser and adviser has enabled the students to get involved in the speaking tasks, to express themselves freely and to assume more responsibility for their own learning. The students have progressed in their speaking performance and the teacher assisted the students in assessing their peers. The individual feedback of the facilitator has motivated the students to perform better. Self-assessment and peer evaluation have enabled the students to be conscious of their learning process and to get motivated to self-correct and improve their language proficiency. In the class of 38 students, 23 members have participated in the oral tasks with involvement. The results have clearly

indicated that the students can be made aware of their constraints and improve their speaking skills by involving them in the oral communicative tasks. This study has addressed one of the major impediments faced by engineering students in approaching the spoken component in the curriculum. This experimental study has explicitly indicated that the speaking proficiency of the students can be improved using OCT, and it also draws English teachers' attention to their vital role in improving their students' language proficiency.

REFERENCES

- Aspiring Minds. (2014). *National employability report - Engineers. Annual report 2014* (pp. 1–63). Retrieved from <http://www.aspiringminds.com/sites/default/files/National%20Employability%20Report%20%20Engineers%2C%20Annual%20Report%202014.pdf>
- BS. (2013, March 6). *Business Standard*. Retrieved from www.businessstandard.com
- Clement, A., & Murugavel, T. (2015) English for employability: A case study of the English language training needs analysis for engineering students in India. *English Language Teaching*, 8(2), 116-125.
- Cook, V. (2008). *Second language learning and language teaching* (4th ed.). London: Hodder Education & Hachette UK Company.
- Council of Europe. (2001). *Common European framework of reference for languages: Learning, teaching, assessment*. Cambridge: CUP.
- Ellis, R. (1993). *The study of second language acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, R. (2003). *Task-Based language learning and teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

- Jianing, X. (2007). Storytelling in the EFL speaking classroom. *The Internet TESL Journal*, 13(11), 1-8. Retrieved April 10, 2010, from www.iteslj.org.
- Kothari, C. R. (2004). *Research methodology: Methods and techniques*. New Age International: New Delhi.
- Kumaravadivelu, B. (1993). Maximizing learning potential in the communicative classroom. *ELT Journal*, 47(1), 12–21.
- Kurpa-Kwiatkowski, M. (1998). You shouldn't have brought me here! Interaction strategies in the silent period of an inner-direct second language learner. *Research on Language and Social Interaction*, 31(2), 133–175.
- Littlewood, W. (1981). *Communicative language teaching: An introduction*. Cambridge: University Press.
- Littlewood, W. (1992). *Teaching oral communication: A methodological framework*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Liu, M., & Jackson, J. (2009). Reticence in Chinese EFL students at varied proficiency levels. *TESL Canada Journal*, 26(2), 65–81.
- McDonough, K. (2004). Learner-learner interacting during pair and small group activities in a Thai EFL context. *Journal of System*, 32(2), 207–224.
- Nayak, S. (2016). English for engineers: Meeting their needs of language learning. *International Journal of English Language, Literature and Humanities*, 4(3), 392–396.
- Norris, J. M. (2009). Task-Based teaching and testing. In M. H. Long, & C. J. Doughty (Eds.), *The handbook of language teaching* (pp. 578–594). Oxford: Blackwell Publishing Ltd.
- Nunan, D. (1999). *Second language teaching and learning*. Boston: Newbury House Publication.
- Polack-Wahl, J. A. (2000). It is time to stand up and communicate. In *Proceedings of the 30th ASEE/IEEE Frontiers in Education Conference*. Kansas City, USA, F1G16-F1G21.
- Rani, S. M., & Jayachandran, J. (2014). Need for inclusive ESL curriculum incorporating necessities, lacks and wants. *Journal of ELT and Poetry*, 2(4), 424–431.
- Riemer, M. J. (2007). Communication skills for the 21st century engineer. *Global Journal of Engineering Education*, 11(1), 89–100.
- Seetha, S. (2012). Communication skills for engineers in global arena. *International Journal on Arts, Management and Humanities*, 1(1), 1–6.
- Shanmugasundaram, S. (2012). *Factors affecting the spoken English of tertiary level students from arts and science colleges in the district of Tiruchirapalli and Thanjavur – A study* (Doctoral dissertation), National Institute of Technology, Trichirapalli, India.
- Thornbury, S. (2005). *How to teach speaking*. Harlow, England: Longman.
- TNN. (2014, July 16). Only 18% engineering grads are employable, says survey. *The Times of India*. Retrieved from <http://timesofindia.indiatimes.com/city/mumbai/Only-18-engineering-grads-are-employable-says-survey/articleshow/38438996.cms>
- Willis, J. (1996). *A framework for task-based learning*. Harlow, UK: Longman Addison Wesley.
- Zhou, Y. P. (1991). The effect of explicit instruction on the acquisition of English grammatical structures by Chinese learners. In C. James & P. Garrett (Eds.), *Language awareness in the classroom* (pp. 254–277). London: Longman.



Impact of Public Expenditures on FDI Inflows into Developing Countries

Othman, N.^{1*}, Andaman, G.¹, Yusop, Z.^{1,2} and Ismail, M. M.³

¹*Department of Economics, Faculty of Economy and Management, Universiti Putra Malaysia, 43400 UPM, Serdang, Selangor, Malaysia*

²*Putra Business School, 43400 UPM, Serdang, Selangor, Malaysia*

³*Institute of Agricultural and Food Policy Studies, Universiti Putra Malaysia, 43400 UPM, Serdang, Selangor, Malaysia*

ABSTRACT

This paper uses Pesaran et al.'s (1999) Pooled Means Group (PMG) estimation to explore the role of government expenditures of the host countries on Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) inflows. The PMG estimator allows for a greater degree of parameter heterogeneity by imposing common long-run relationships across countries. A panel data from 24 developing countries was utilised for the study period between 1982 and 2014. The empirical results show government expenditure significantly promotes FDI inflows in the long-term. The results also suggest that market size plays an important role in FDI inflows.

Keywords: FDI inflows, Government expenditures, Pooled Means Group, Market Size

INTRODUCTION

Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) inflows is crucial element for economic development, especially for developing and emerging

economies (Li & Liu, 2005). The FDI inflows is in fact a convenient escape from foreign aid and debt which can lead to more problems in addition to being burdensome, due to various conditions attached to the soft or hard loans and debt servicing. FDI inflows promote technology transfers and generate positive technological spillover effects to local firms. The presence of multinational corporations (MNCs) in the local economy could help local firms form linkages with foreign firms to become part of a global supply chain.

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received: 24 August 2016

Accepted: 26 February 2018

E-mail addresses:

shida_hr87@yahoo.com (Othman, N.)

gul.andaman@gmail.com (Andaman, G.)

zulkornain@upm.edu.my (Yusop, Z.)

mkk@upm.edu.my (Ismail, M. M.)

*Corresponding author

Public expenditures is an extremely important government economic instrument (Le & Suruga, 2005). Consequently, understanding the effects of government expenditures on FDI inflows is vital in relation to promoting economic growth. Public expenditures are used to manage public utilities, such as education, health care, social security for more efficient human capital and improved physical capital (e.g., infrastructure), which are crucial in attracting FDI (Montagna & Molana, 2007).

Theoretically, development expenditure, such as infrastructure and tax concessions, accounts for the most in rapidly developing and emerging economies aimed at creating a conducive business environment to attract FDI inflows (He & Sun, 2014; Noorbakhsh et al., 2001; Panigrahi & Panda, 2012).

The FDI effect on the economic development and growth of the host country has been discussed in many studies. However, the degree of such impact depends on the absorptive capacity of the host country, such as its human capital, infrastructure, financial and institutional development, and trade policies (Makki & Somwaru, 2004). Higher public expenditures improves economic growth as it encourages more private investment (Chen & Lee, 2005; Kormendi & Meguire, 1986).

Several studies have suggested that an expansionary fiscal policy has a negative impact on economic growth. Specifically, increase in government expenditure leads to crowding out effect and reduces private investment ((Chen & Lee, 2005; Kormendi

& Meguire, 1986). These studies conclude that an expanding government size leads to decrease in returns as well as having a crowding out effect on private investment.

Indeed, other than private investments, FDI inflows could also be affected by size of the government expenditures. Scholars argue that higher public expenditures leads to complex bureaucracy and inefficiencies often associated with mismanagement and corruption. Therefore, under such circumstances, multinational companies may avoid or reduce investments in such countries (Bénassy-Quéré et al. 2007).

To date, the relationship between public expenditures and FDI inflows is empirically an under-explored theme. Therefore, the main purpose of this study is to examine long-run and short-run linkages between public expenditures and FDI inflows to developing countries.

The rest of the paper is organised as follows. Section 2 provides a brief literature review of the relationship between government spending and FDI while section 3 describes sources of data and presents econometric methodology. Section 4 discusses empirical findings and sensitivity test results while section 5 concludes the paper.

LITERATURE REVIEW

FDI inflows has received much attention due to its role in economic growth (Kaliappan et al., 2015). Literature suggests that FDI is a significant source of innovation and technology transfer (Caves, 1974;

Findlay, 1978; Mansfield & Romeo, 1980). Neoclassical growth model proposes that FDI increases capital stock, and thus promotes growth in the host economy via capital formation. The FDI is also a complement to domestic private investment. Hence, it is usually associated with new job opportunities, enhancing technology transfers, and boosting overall economic growth of its host countries (Chowdhury & Mavrotas, 2006).

In endogenous growth models, FDI is generally assumed to be more productive than domestic investment since it encourages the incorporation of new technologies in the production (Borensztein et al., 1998) while promoting long-run growth by enhancing knowledge in the host economy through labour training, skill acquisitions and advancing managerial skills (De Mello, 1997). Thus, through capital accumulation and knowledge spillover, FDI inflows improve the competitiveness of the economy and enhance the provision of goods and services for the domestic market (Chidlow et al., 2009). The FDI also accelerates the speed of technology adoption to improve production efficiency.

One of the most important economic determinant of FDI inflows is the market size of the host economy (Ang, 2008; Asiedu, 2002; Lucas, 1993; Tsai, 1994). Choong et al. (2015) explained that strategic government expenditures significantly attract more FDI, which ultimately leads to higher private investment and economic growth. Strong institutions and the presence of quality infrastructure also attract FDI

(Alam & Shah, 2013). Gwartney, Lawson, and Hall (2013) and Wu and Heerink (2016) used public expenditures as a proxy for institution quality, which reflects the degree of government intervention in economic freedom. The role of institutional quality in positively affecting FDI was confirmed by Buchanan et al. (2012) and Ahmad and Ahmed (2014). Busse and Hefeker (2007) concluded that political and institutional factors significantly affect FDI inflows into developing countries.

Groh and Wich (2012) calculated an FDI activity index for 127 countries, considering economic status, political environment, infrastructure and business atmosphere as independent variables. The primary reason why some economies receive more FDI is due to the quality of their infrastructure, a strong political and legal system, stable government, security, less corruption, higher government effectiveness, higher GDP per capita and lower corporate taxes. However, economies with high political risks (e.g., Cambodia) have also successfully attracted FDI in the region (Cuyvers et al., 2011). Therefore, of the institutional factors, high political stability is not specifically preferred for higher FDI, as compared with other factors (e.g., minimal or zero corruption, quality of infrastructure, business atmosphere).

Göndör and Nistor (2012) stated that fiscal policy (measured by corporate tax rates and a business-friendly environment) positively affects FDI inflows into emerging European economies. Similarly, Radulescu and Druica (2014) claimed that states in the

Eastern European region (e.g., Romania) must improve their investment environment by introducing good fiscal stimulus and budgetary policies to positively affect FDI inflows. The central government's main priority must be on improving infrastructure and becoming more competitive; this should be complemented by fiscal incentives (e.g., relatively low tax rates).

Many studies have examined the impact of public expenditures on economic growth Afxentiou & Serletis, 1996; Bagdigen & Cetintas, 2003; Singh & Sahni, 1984; Srinivasan, 2013; Verma & Arora, 2010). As one of the government's instruments, together with taxation and a welfare policy, public expenditures are claimed to be "the most powerful economic agent in all modern societies" (Arrow & Kurz (1970), as cited in Le & Suruga (2005)). However, the interrelationship between public expenditures and FDI in promoting economic growth appears to be quite complex. Le and Suruga (2005) show that the effect of the FDI on economic growth is reduced when the ratio to GDP of public current expenditures exceeds 25% for developing countries; this contradicts with findings from developed countries.

Friedman (1997), as cited in Altunc and Aydın (2013), argued that the optimal level of public expenditures should be between 15% and 50%. Yuan et al. (2010) showed that increase in government spending has a positive effect on FDI inflows and this effect is much more significant in developing countries. Hence, among all relevant factors

that affect FDI in the various regions, fiscal stimulus is not considered a primary factor.

Thus, most scholars agree that healthy macroeconomic indicators contribute to higher inward FDI. The roles of the government in strengthening institutions, improving governance and formulating reforms on liberalising the economy also play a crucial role in attracting FDI in developing countries. However, the picture is not black and white, because in some countries, higher political risk and government spending levels can also catch the attention of foreign investments. Few studies have conducted research on expansionary fiscal policy; most of the existing theoretical and empirical studies have examined the traditional macroeconomic and socio-economic determinants of FDI. This study claims that higher government expenditures can attract FDI if they are complemented by good infrastructure and strong institutions. In other words, more 'productive' government expenditures in developing countries draw more FDIs. This study will thus, examine the impact of government spending on FDI inflows in developing countries.

METHODOLOGY

This study used Pesaran et al. (1999) panel ARDL model, or Pooled Means Group (PMG) estimation. This model analyses the long-run and short-run relationship among the variables of interest, allowing for a greater degree of parameter heterogeneity by imposing common long-run relationships across countries. There are several

estimation methods used to estimate panel data models such as system Generalized Method of Moments (GMM) and Vector Error Correction Model (VECM) to address endogeneity issue. The uses of GMM is an ideal method for dynamic micro Panel data (such as firm level data). However, endogeneity is not an issue when dealing with heterogeneous dataset where variables are non-stationary and have time invariant effects. Pesaran et al. (1999) argued that the GMM estimation procedure for dynamic panel model (for instance, Arellano & Bond, 1991) can produce inconsistent and misleading coefficients of the long-run coefficients; a problem that is exacerbated when the period is long, unless they are truly identical (Pesaran, Shin, & Smith, 1999).

The main objective of VECM in this case is to get impulse response functions and forecast-error variance decompositions rather than examining the short run and long run relationship, this is not suitable to achieve the objectives of the current paper. Moreover, with large N, it is difficult to treat as system. Thus, VECM is avoided. The PMG allows for heterogeneity in short run coefficients and error variances while imposing homogeneity in long run coefficients across countries. Since the countries in this study have lower degree of heterogeneity, PMG is therefore a better option (see e.g. Lee & Wang, 2015). There are also quite number of studies that used PMG method without conducting VECM or GMM such as Mahyideen et al. (2012) who studied the impact of ICT on growth in 5-ASEAN'S; Bangake and Eggoh

(2012) who applied PMG in examining the relationship between savings and investment for 37 African countries. Ndambendia and Njoupouognigni (2010) also used similar method to study the relationship between foreign aid and economic growth.

The data used in this study is annual time series data from 1982 to 2014 (32 observations) for 24 selected developing countries (a list of the countries is in the Appendix). FDI is the dependent variable as FDI, net inflows (% of GDP). The explanatory or independent variables are GDP per capita (constant 2005 US\$) and general government final consumption expenditures (% of GDP) as a proxy for public expenditures (Altunc & Aydın, 2013; Landau, 1983). All variables are in the natural log form and were generated from the World Development Indicator (WDI) World Bank Online Database (2014). Some of the observations for FDI are negative. Therefore, this variable is transformed using the following procedure (Busse & Hefeker, 2007):

$$y = \ln (x + \sqrt{(x^2 + 1)}) \quad [1]$$

where: y is the transformed FDI and x is the smallest FDI inflows absolute values from a linear scale.

Panel unit root test

Since this study uses macro panel data, which consists of large T (times) and small N (groups), it is necessary to perform a panel unit root test to determine the order of integration among the variables before

proceeding to the PMG estimation analysis. In this study, unit root test proposed in Im, Pesaran and Shin (2003) also known as IPS is used and allows for heterogeneity on the

coefficient of the explanatory variable. The IPS set the Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) regression over an individual intercept and a time trend for each cross section, as follows:

$$\Delta y_{it} = \beta_i + \rho_i y_{i,t-j} + \sum_{j=1}^{\rho_i} \phi_{ij} \Delta y_{i,t-j} + \varepsilon_{it}; i = 1, 2, \dots, N; t = 1, 2, \dots, T. \quad [2]$$

where: y_{it} is a selected variable in country i and year t , β_i is the individual fixed effect and ρ is selected to make the residuals uncorrelated over time. The null hypothesis is that $\rho_i=0$ for all i , whereas the alternative hypothesis is that $\rho_i < 0$ for some $i=1, 2, \dots, N_1$ and $\rho_i=0$ for $i=N_{(1+1)}, \dots, N$. A panel cointegration test proposed by Pedroni (2004) is conducted once the order of stationarity has been identified.

Panel cointegration test

To confirm the existence of a long-run relationship between public expenditures and inward FDI, a panel cointegration test is conducted. There are various ways to conduct the panel cointegration test (e.g., the KAO (1999) test and Larsson et al. (2001)). For this study, we use the Pedroni (2004) panel cointegration test, since it allows for considerable heterogeneity. The special features of Pedroni's test include: allowing for multiple regressors, allowing for the cointegration vector to vary across different sections of the panel and for heterogeneity in the errors across the cross-sectional units to exist.

Seven different cointegration statistics are proposed in the Pedroni panel regression model to capture the within (pooled) and

between (group means) effects which are classified into two categories. Pooling along the within-dimension (pooled) includes four statistics (i.e., panel v -statistic, panel rho-statistic, panel PP-statistic and panel ADF-statistic) which involves the averaging test statistics for no cointegration in the time series across cross-sections. Pooling the between-dimension (group means) includes three statistics groups (i.e., rho-statistic, group PP-statistic and group ADF-statistic). This is conducted by averaging in pieces so that the limiting distributions are based on the limits of piecewise numerator and denominator terms.

If the null hypothesis of no cointegration is rejected, then a long-run relationship between the variables (i.e., inward FDI and public expenditures) exists. However, the result does not indicate the magnitude of this relationship. Therefore, this study uses econometric techniques (e.g., PMG) to identify the appropriate sign and the size of the energy coefficient in the long-run output equation. The results from the Means Group (MG) and Dynamic Fixed Effect (DFE) are shown for comparison purposes. The PMG method of estimation occupies an intermediate position between the MG method and the fixed effect method.

Pooled means group estimation

Many methods can be used to test a long-run cointegration, such as panel Fully Modified Ordinary Least Squares (FMOLS) and panel Dynamic Ordinary Least Squares (DOLS). However, a panel ARDL model, or PMG estimation, was utilised introduced by Pesaran et al. (1999). This model assumes that the long-run coefficients are identical, but the short-run coefficients and

error variances differ across the groups. This estimation framework enables us to capture the long-run and short-run relationship among the variables of interest and the convergence parameter (adjustment coefficient). The unrestricted specification for the ARDL system of equations for $t=1,2,\dots,T$, time periods and $i=1,2,\dots,N$, countries for the dependent variable Y is:

$$y_{it} = \sum_{j=0}^p \lambda_{ij} y_{i,t-j} + \sum_{j=0}^q \gamma'_{ij} x_{i,t-j} + \mu_i + \varepsilon_{it} \quad [3]$$

where: y_{it} is a scalar dependent variable, FDI inflows, and $x_{i,t,j}$ is the $(k \times 1)$ vector of independent variables for group i , which include public expenditures and GDP per capita. μ_i represents the fixed effects (country

specific-effects); λ_{ij} is the scalar coefficients of the lagged dependent variables and γ'_{ij} is the $k \times 1$ coefficient vectors.

The re-parameterised form of Equation (3) can be formulated as VECM system:

$$\Delta y_{it} = \phi_i (y_{i,t-1} + \beta'_i x_{i,t-1}) + \sum_{j=1}^{p-1} \lambda_{ij} lfdi_{i,t-j} + \sum_{j=0}^{q-1} lfdi_{ij} x_{i,t-j} + \mu_i + \mu_{it} \quad [4]$$

Where β_i are the long run parameters; ϕ_i is the equilibrium or error correction parameters.

The PMG restriction is that the elements of β are common across countries:

$$\Delta y_{it} = \phi_i (y_{i,t-1} + \beta' x_{i,t-1}) + \sum_{j=1}^{p-1} \lambda_{ij} lfdi_{i,t-j} + \sum_{j=0}^{q-1} lfdi_{ij} x_{i,t-j} + \mu_i + \mu_{it} \quad [5]$$

The group-specific short-run coefficients and the common long run coefficients are computed by the pooled maximum likelihood estimation and all the dynamics and the ECM terms are free to vary.

Under some regularity assumption, the parameter estimates of the PMG model are consistent and asymptotically normal for both stationary $I(0)$ and non-stationary $I(0)$ regressors.

RESULTS

Baseline results

A panel unit root test was calculated using EViews 7.1 statistical software. The results are shown in Table 1. As mentioned previously, the dependent variables of the

LFDI represent the FDI, net inflows (% of GDP), while the explanatory variables of LY represent the market size, which is the proxy for GDP per capita (constant 2005 US\$). The LPE general government final consumption expenditures (% of GDP) is a proxy for public expenditures.

Table 1
Panel unit root test

Series	LFDI		LY		LPE	
	No Trend	Trend	No Trend	Trend	No Trend	Trend
Level						
IPS	-4.005*** (0.000)	-4.060*** (0.000)	4.4109 (1.000)	0.1205 (0.548)	-1.604 (0.054)	0.472 (0.682)
ADF-Fisher	86.752*** (0.001)	91.761*** (0.000)	36.033 (0.898)	52.756 (0.295)	57.832 (0.156)	39.575 (0.802)
PP-ADF	125.473*** (0.000)	125.004*** (0.000)	40.924 (0.756)	67.460** (0.033)	56.911 (0.177)	49.157 (0.427)
First Different						
IPS	-20.121*** (0.000)	-10.402*** (0.000)	-12.621*** (0.000)			
ADF-Fisher	416.756*** (0.000)	200.991*** (0.000)	248.282*** (0.000)			
PP-ADF	617.569*** (0.000)	369.245*** (0.000)	484.397*** (0.000)			

Notes: The figures in parentheses are the probability values. ***, ** and * denote the rejection of the null of non-stationarity at the 1% ,5% and 10% levels of significance, respectively. The maximum number of the lags selection is determined by the Schwarz Bayesian Information Criterion (SBC).

The results in Table 1 shows that null hypothesis of unit roots for the panel data cannot be rejected in the level for LY (except the PP-ADF with a trend) and LPE. Only the LFDI (with and without the trend) are stationary at a 1% significance level. However, all the variables are stationary in the first-difference at the 1% level of significance. Therefore, the results suggest that panel variables are integrated at level I(0) and I (1) and none of the variables are I(2) or have a higher level of integration.

The individual Pedroni cointegration results (between LFDI and LY and between LFDI and LPE) in Table 2 show that six out of seven test statistics (with and without the trend) in the first two columns significantly rejects the null hypothesis of no cointegration at 1% significance level. The panel cointegration for the three variables (i.e., LFDI, LY and LPE) simultaneously were also estimated. The results show that six out of the seven (without a trend) and five out of the seven (with trend) test

statistics in the last columns significantly reject the null hypothesis of no cointegration at 1% significance level. Therefore, the results suggest the existence of cointegration and the variables in the model move together in the long-run. In other words, there is

long-run relationship between inward FDI, market size and public expenditures in the 24 developing countries (after allowing for a country-specific effect). The magnitude of this relationship can be tested by using the PMG technique.

Table 2
Panel cointegration results

Pedroni Cointegration	LFDI & LY		LFDI & LPE		LFDI, LY & LPE	
	Without trend	With trend	Without trend	With trend	Without trend	With trend
Panel v-Statistic	0.59	-3.20	0.78	-1.81	1.72	-1.22
Panel rho-Statistic	-10.87***	-6.43***	-7.69***	-6.82***	-4.94***	-2.96***
Panel PP-Statistic	-9.60***	-9.75***	-8.30***	-9.66***	-6.53***	-6.53***
Panel ADF-Statistic	-6.91***	-7.58***	-5.17***	-6.03***	-6.69***	-6.86***
Group rho-Statistic	-7.00***	-3.40***	-4.79***	-2.97***	-3.34***	-1.18
Group PP-Statistic	-8.12***	-8.04***	-8.08***	-8.08***	-8.32***	-7.92***
Group ADF-Statistic	-5.44***	-5.30***	-5.15***	-4.81***	-8.12***	-6.69***

Notes: *** denotes the significance level at 1%. Number of countries (N) = 24 and time periods (T) = 31. The maximum number of lags on the Schwarz Information Criterion (SIC) is 2

Table 3 reports the results of Pooled Means Group (PMG) panel cointegration estimation for long-run and short-run coefficient of the variables and the convergence parameter. The results obtained from the Means Group (MG) and Dynamic Fixed Effect (DFE) are used for comparison purposes only. The convergence coefficient (speed of adjustment) show the expected signs: -0.62,

-0.49 and -0.44 for MG, PMG and DFE respectively; these values are statistically significant at 1% level for all three panel cointegration estimations. This finding indicates the convergence parameter allows for an adjustment from the short-run to the long-run between variables across the selected countries.

Table 3
Panel cointegration estimation

Dependent variable (LFDI)	Means group (MG)	Pooled means group (PMG)	Dynamic fixed effect (DFE)
LONG-RUN			
LY	0.434*** (0.141)	0.216*** (0.064)	0.374*** (0.075)
LPE	0.153 (0.180)	0.326*** (0.062)	0.216* (0.113)
SHORT-RUN			
Speed of adjustment	-0.629*** (0.054)	-0.49*** (0.514)	-0.44*** (0.030)
Δ LY	0.769** (0.371)	0.93*** (0.344)	0.66*** (0.249)
Δ LPE	-0.025 (0.105)	0.02 (0.950)	-0.005 (0.109)
Maximised log likelihood		195.8715	
Hausman test		4.69 [0.09]	
Number of countries		24	
Number of observations		749	

Notes: All variables are expressed in natural logarithms. The value in parentheses denotes the standard error: * indicates significance at 10%; ** significance at 5% and *** significance at 1%. The P-values are reported in brackets for the Hausman test

A higher speed of adjustment from MG is expected, since MG estimator is the least restrictive procedure and it allows for the heterogeneity of all the parameters. In other words, the MG estimator does not take into account the fact that certain parameters may be the same across groups. However, the lowest speed of adjustment in the DFE estimator is also expected, since it imposes the homogeneity of all slope coefficients, allowing only the intercept to vary across countries. Thus, the MG and DFE models may lead to misleading results, and therefore, should be used cautiously.

The PMG method of estimation occupies an intermediate position between the MG and DFE, where it allows the intercepts, short-run coefficients and error variances

to differ freely across groups but constrains the long-run coefficients to be similar across groups. Therefore, the PMG is advantageous in determining the long-run and short-run dynamic relationships.

Before we proceed with the analysis, we need to determine the efficiency of the PMG estimator against the MG estimator. Applying the Hausman test, it is found that if the p-values are greater than 0.05, it indicates failure to reject the null hypothesis of the difference in the coefficients. Therefore, the PMG results are a more appropriate interpretation.

Our variable of interest is public expenditures (LPE). The PMG estimation results in Table 3 suggests a positive relationship between LPE and LFDI

in the long-run. The magnitude of the LPE coefficient is about 0.32 at the 1% significant level. This indicates that, for developing countries, a 1% increase in public expenditures leads to a 0.32% increase in the long-run inward FDI. The coefficient for the short-run is positive, but insignificant. These results indicate lack of a short-run relationship between public expenditures and inward FDI. The short-run coefficient primarily reflects the adjustment of the economy to shocks. Therefore, our results suggest the contemporaneous co-movement of government expenditures and FDI inflows react less, or perhaps do not react at all, to past shocks.

The PMG results also show a positive relationship between the market size (LY) and inward FDI for both the short-run and long-run, indicated by the significant coefficient at 5% and 1% level respectively. This result is in line with most empirical studies which show that market size is the most robust FDI determinant in economic studies (Ang, 2008; Asiedu, 2002; Tsai, 1994) The reliability of this result is confirmed by a significantly negative error correction term from the PMG estimators, with a value of -0.49. These results suggest that around 49% of the deviation from the long-term relationship is corrected in a year. In other words, the system is reversed to achieve an equilibrium in about two years.

Sensitivity Check

The regression is re-estimated using two methods. The first method would one country from the original dataset. The second method replace the explanatory variables of market size (LY) with gross fixed capital formation (% of GDP), denoted as LCAP, which is considered the main determinant of inward FDI.

The purpose of doing a re-estimation is to ensure the results are robust. Table 4 shows the results of the panel cointegration for MG, PMG and DFE estimation after removing one country i.e., China. However, only the PMG results will be discussed, while the rest are presented for comparison purposes.

China emerged as the largest FDI recipient in the world in 2014 (UNCTAD, 2015). By removing this country from the original dataset, the outliers are reduced. The estimated coefficient for PMG may be slightly different, but the sign does not show any significant difference; this illustrates a positive long-run relationship between both LY and LPE with the dependent variable (LFDI) at the 1% significant level. The coefficient for the short-run relationship between LFDI and LPE is negative, but insignificant. This result is confirmed by a significantly negative error correction term from the PMG estimators, with a value of -0.51 at the 1% significance level.

Table 4
Panel cointegration re-estimation (without China)

Dependent variable (LFDI)	Means group (MG)	Pooled means group (PMG)	Dynamic fixed effect (DFE)
LONG-RUN			
LY	0.447*** (0.146)	0.320*** (0.075)	0.508*** (0.092)
LPE	0.068 (0.166)	0.290*** (0.110)	0.191* (0.110)
SHORT-RUN			
Speed of adjustment	-0.649*** (0.052)	-0.515*** (0.049)	-0.458*** (0.031)
Δ LY	0.701* (0.381)	0.792** (0.342)	0.618*** (0.255)
Δ LPE	-0.048 (0.107)	-0.026 (0.093)	-0.022 (0.111)
Maximised log likelihood		195.8715	
Hausman test		4.67 [0.096]	
Number of countries		23	
Number of observations		717	

Notes: The value in parentheses denotes the standard error: * indicates significance at 10%; ** significance at 5% and *** significance at 1%. The P-values are reported in brackets for the Hausman test

Table 5 contains the results of the panel cointegration estimation after replacing the market size (LY) variables with the gross fixed capital formation (% of GDP), denoted as LCAP; this variable is also considered the main determinant of inward FDI. Based on the PMG estimation results, the LPE coefficients show the same results as in the previous model, which are positively and statistically significant at 1% level in

the long-run. The magnitude of a long-run relationship between the LPE and FDI net inflows is also confirmed by a significantly negative error correction term (-0.46) at 1% significance level. The PMG estimation also found that the short-run coefficient of public expenditures contributed negatively to the inflow of FDI, but this result was statistically not significant.

Table 5
Panel cointegration re-estimation (replace LY with LCAP)

Dependent variable (LFDI)	Means group (MG)	Pooled means group (PMG)	Dynamic fixed effect (DFE)
LONG-RUN			
LCAP	0.557*** (0.204)	0.197** (0.084)	0.407*** (0.127)
LPE	0.587** (0.279)	0.356*** (0.68)	0.247** (0.124)
SHORT-RUN			
Speed of adjustment	-0.594*** (0.051)	-0.467*** (0.053)	-0.405*** (0.029)
Δ LCAP	0.128 (0.087)	0.272*** (0.093)	0.194** (0.078)
Δ LPE	-0.077 (0.130)	-0.058 (0.099)	0.126 (0.110)
Maximised log likelihood		190.078	
Hausman test		3.30 [0.192]	
Number of countries		24	
Number of observations		749	

Notes: All variables are expressed in natural logarithms. The value in parentheses denotes the standard error: * indicates significance at 10%; ** significance at 5% and *** significance at 1%. The P-values are reported in brackets for the Hausman test

The results reveal that public expenditures have contributed significantly to FDI inflows in the long-run for all three PMG estimation results shown in tables 3, 4 and 5. The PMG estimation results also confirmed the positive relationship in both the short-run and long-run between the main determinants: market size (LY) and gross fixed capital formation (LCAP) towards inward FDI.

CONCLUSION

This study examined public expenditures and FDI inflows between 1981 and 2014 focusing on 24 developing countries. This study employed the PMG estimator and found a statistically significant relationship for public expenditures variables, which were proxy for general government

expenditures/GDP towards FDI inflows. Results revealed that government spending positively and significantly influences FDI inflows in the long-run.

We conclude that public expenditures encourage FDI inflows which in turn promote endogenous growth (e.g., education, training, research and development). This paper also suggests that government spending should be directed towards productive economic activities. Large FDI inflows into the country stimulate economic activities, especially in the long-run, and contribute to higher economic growth.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The authors acknowledge with gratitude the financial support via UPM research grant: UPM/700-2/1/GP-IPS/2016/9470800.

REFERENCES

- Afxentiou, P. C., & Serletis, A. (1996). Government expenditures in the European Union: Do they converge or follow Wagners Law. *International Economic Journal*, 10(3), 33-47. doi: 10.1080/10168739600000003
- Ahmad, M. H., & Ahmed, Q. M. (2014). Does the institutional quality matter to attract the foreign direct investment? An empirical investigation for Pakistan. *South Asia Economic Journal*, 15(1), 55-70. doi: 10.1177/1391561414525708
- Alam, A., & Shah, S. (2013). Determinants of Foreign Direct Investment in OECD member countries. *Journal of Economic Studies*, 40(4), 515-527. doi: 10.1108/JES-10-2011-0132
- Altunc, O. F., & Aydın, C. (2013). The relationship between optimal size of government and economic growth: Empirical evidence from Turkey, Romania and Bulgaria. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 92(2013), 66-75. doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.08.639
- Ang, J. B. (2008). Determinants of foreign direct investment in Malaysia. *Journal of Policy Modeling*, 30(1), 185-189. doi:10.1016/j.jpolmod.2007.06.014
- Asiedu, E. (2002). On the determinants of foreign direct investment to developing countries: Africa Different? *World Development*, 30(1), 107-119. doi: 10.2139/ssrn.280062
- Bagdigen, M., & Cetintas, H. (2003). Causality between public expenditure and economic growth: The Turkish case. *Journal of Economic and Social Research*, 6(1), 53-72. Retrieved from <https://mpra.ub.uni-muenchen.de/8576/>
- Bangake, C., & Eggoh, J. C. (2012). Pooled mean group estimation on international capital mobility in African countries. *Research in Economics*, 66(1), 7-17. doi:10.1016/j.rie.2011.06.001
- Borensztein, E., De Gregorio, J., & Lee, J. W. (1998). How does foreign direct investment affect economic growth. *Journal International Economy*, 45(1), 115-135. doi: 10.3386/w5057
- Buchanan, B. G., Le, Q. V., & Rishi, M. (2012). Foreign direct investment and institutional quality: Some empirical evidence. *International Review of Financial Analysis*, 21(24), 81-89. doi:10.1016/j.irfa.2011.10.001
- Busse, M., & Hefeker, C. (2007). Political risk, institutions and foreign direct investment. *European Journal of Political Economy*, 23(2), 397-415. doi:10.1016/j.ejpoleco.2006.02.003
- Bénassy-Quéré, A., Coupet, M., & Thierry, M. (2007). Institutional determinants of foreign direct investment. *The World Economy*, 30(5), 764-782. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-9701.2007.01022.x
- Caves, R. E. (1974). Multinational firms, competition and productivity in host-country markets. *Economica*, 41(162), 176-193. doi: 10.2307/2553765
- Chen, S. T., & Lee, C. C. (2005). Government size and economic growth in Taiwan: A threshold regression approach. *Journal of Policy Modelling*, 27(9), 1051-1066. doi:10.1016/j.jpolmod.2005.06.006
- Chidlow, A., Salciuviene, L., & Young, S. (2009). Regional determinates of inward FDI distribution in Poland. *International Business Review*, 18(3), 119-133. doi:10.1016/j.ibusrev.2009.02.004
- Choong, C. K., Siong-Hook, L., & Chuen-Khee, P. (2015). The linkages between private and public investments in Malaysia: The role of foreign direct investment. *International Journal of Economics and Management*, 9(1), 139-153. Retrieved from <http://psasir.upm.edu.my/41718/1>

- Chowdhury, A., & Mavrotas, G. (2006). FDI and growth: What causes what? *World Economy*, 29(1), 9-19. doi:10.1111/j.1467-9701.2006.00755.x
- Cuyvers, L., Soeng, R., Plasmans, J., & Van, D. B. (2011). Determinants of foreign direct investment in Cambodia. *Journal of Asian Economics*, 22(3), 222-234. doi: 10.1016/j.asieco.2011.02.002
- Dar, A., & Amirkhalkhali, S. (2002). Government size, factor accumulation, and economic growth: Evidence from OECD countries. *Journal of Policy Modelling*, 24(7-8), 679-692. doi:10.1016/S0161-8938(02)00163-1
- Dees, S. (1998). Foreign direct investment in China: Determinants and effects. *Economics of Planning*, 31(2), 175-194. doi:10.1023/A:1003576930461
- De Mello, L. R. (1997). Foreign direct investment in developing countries and growth: A selective survey. *The Journal of Development Studies*, 34(1), 1-34. doi: 10.1080/00220389708422501
- Findlay, R. (1978). Relative backwardness, direct foreign investment, and the transfer of technology: A simple dynamic model. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 92(1), 1-16. doi: 10.2307/1885996
- Fölster, S., & Henrekson, M. (2001). Growth effects of government expenditure and taxation in rich countries. *European Economic Review*, 45(8), 1501-1520. doi:10.1016/S0014-2921(00)00083-0
- Groh, A. P., & Wich, M. (2012). Emerging economies attraction of foreign direct investment. *Emerging Markets Review*, 13(2), 210-229. doi:10.1016/j.ememar.2012.03.005
- Gwartney, J., Lawson, R., & Hall, J. (2013). *Economic freedom of the world: 2013 annual report*. Vancouver: Fraser Institute. Retrieved from <http://www.freetheworld.com/2013/EFW2013-complete.pdf>
- Göndör, M., & Nistor, P. (2012). Fiscal policy and foreign direct investment: Evidence from some emerging EU economies. *Procedia- Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 58(2012), 1256-1266. doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2012.09.1108
- He, Q., & Sun, M. (2014). Does fiscal decentralization promote the inflow of FDI in China's. *Economic Modelling*, 43(2014), 361-371. doi:10.1016/j.econmod.2014.09.009
- Im, K. S., Pesaran, M. H., & Shin, Y. (2003). Testing for unit roots in heterogeneous panels. *Journal of Econometrics*, 115(1), 53-74. doi:10.1016/S0304-4076(03)00092-7.
- Kaliappan, S. R., Khamis, M., & Ismail, N. W. (2015). Determinants of services FDI inflows in ASEAN countries. *International Journal of Economics and Management*, 9(1), 45-69. Retrieved from <http://psasir.upm.edu.my/39597/>
- Kormendi, R. C., & Meguire, P. (1986). Government debt, government spending and private sector behavior. *American Economic Review*, 76(1), 191-203. Retrieved from <https://www.jstor.org/stable/1816482>
- Landau, D. (1983). Government expenditure and economic growth: A cross-country study. *Southern Economic Journal*, 49(3), 783-792. Retrieved from <https://www.jstor.org/stable/1058716>
- Le, M. V., & Suruga, T. (2005). The effects of FDI and public expenditure on economic growth: From theoretical model to empirical evidence. *GSICS Working Paper Series*. Retrieved from <http://www.research.kobe-u.ac.jp/gsics-publication/gwps/2005-02.pdf>.
- Li, X., & Liu, X. (2005). Foreign direct investment and economic growth: An increasingly endogenous relationship. *World Development*, 33(3), 393-407. doi:10.1016/j.worlddev.2004.11.001

- Lucas, R. E. B. (1993). On the determinants of Direct foreign investment: Evidence from East and Southeast Asia. *World Development*, 21(3), 391–406. doi:10.1016/0305-750X(93)90152-Y
- Mahyideen, J. M., Ismail, N. W., & Law, S. H. (2012). A pooled mean group estimation on ICT infrastructure and economic growth in Asean-5 countries. *International Journal of Economics and Management*, 6(2), 360-378.
- Makki, S., & Somwaru, A. (2004). Impact of foreign direct investment and trade on economic growth. *American Journal of Agricultural Economics*, 86(3), 795-801. doi: 10.1111/j.0002-9092.2004.00627.x
- Mansfield, E., & Romeo, A. (1980). Technology transfers to overseas subsidiaries by US-based firms. *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 95(4), 737-750. doi: 10.2307/1885489.
- Montagna, C., & Molana, H. (2007). Expansionary effects of the welfare state in a small open economy. *The North American Journal of Economics and Finance*, 18(3), 231-246. doi:10.1016/j.najef.2007.08.001
- Ndambendia, H., & Njoupouognigni, M. (2010). Foreign aid, foreign direct investment and economic growth in Sub-Saharan Africa: Evidence from Pooled Mean Group Estimator (PMG). *International Journal of Economics and Finance*, 2(3), 39-45.
- Noorbakhsh, F., Paloni, A., & Youssef, A. (2001). Human capital and FDI inflows to developing countries: New empirical evidence. *World Development*, 29(9), 1593–1610. doi: 10.1016/S0305-750X(01)00054-7
- Panigrahi, T. R., & Panda, B. D. (2012). Factors influencing FDI inflow to India, China and Malaysia: An empirical analysis. *Journal of Management Research and Innovation*, 8(2), 89–100. doi: 10.1177/2319510X1200800202
- Pedroni, P. (2004). Panel Cointegration: Asymptotic and finite sample properties of pooled time series tests with an application to the hypothesis, econometric theory. *Cambridge University Press*, 20(03), 597-625. doi: 10+10170S0266466604203073
- Pesaran, M. H., Yongcheol, S., & Ron, P. S. (1999). Pooled mean group estimation and dynamic heterogeneous panel. *Journal of the American Statistical Association*, 94(446), 621-634. doi: 10.1080/01621459.1999.10474156
- Radulescu, M., & Druica, E. (2014). The impact of fiscal policy on foreign direct investments. Empiric evidence from Romania. *Economic Research*, 27(1), 86-106. doi: 10.1080/1331677X.2014.947133
- Singh, B., & Sahni, B. S. (1984). Causality between public expenditure and national income. *The Review of Economics and Statistics*, 66(4), 630-644. Retrieved from http://www.sesrtaic.org/jecd/jecd_articles/art12090401-2.pdf
- Srinivasan, P. (2013). Causality between public expenditure and economic growth: The Indian case. *International Journal of Economics and Management*, 7(2), 335–347. Retrieved from <http://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.2376143>
- Tsai, P. (1994). Determinants of foreign direct investment and its impact on economic growth. *Journal of Economic Development*, 19(1), 137-163. Retrieved from <http://www.jed.or.kr/full-text/19-1/6.pdf>
- UNCTAD. (2015). *World Investment Report 2015. Reforming International Investment Governance*. United Nations Publication. Retrieved from: http://unctad.org/en/PublicationsLibrary/wir2015_en.pdf

- Verma, S., & Arora, S. (2010). Does the Indian economy support wagners law? An econometric analysis. *Eurasian Journal of Business and Economics*, 3(5), 77-91. Retrieved from <http://ejbe.org/EJBE2010Vol03No05p77VERMA-ARORA.pdf>
- Wu, Y., & Heerink, N. (2016). Foreign firect investment, fiscal decentralization and lLand conflicts in China. *China Economic Review*, 38(C), 92-107. doi:10.1016/j.chieco.2015.11.014
- Yuan, Y., Chen, Y., & Wang, L. (2010). Size of government and FDI: An empirical analysis based on the panel data of 81 countries. *Journal of Technology Management in China*, 5(2), 176–184. doi: 10.1108/17468771011053180.
- Yuan-Ming, L., & Kuan-Min, W. (2015). Dynamic heterogeneous panel analysis of the correlation between stock prices and exchange rates. *Economic Research-EkonomskaIstraživanja*, 28(1), 749-772. doi: 10.1080/1331677X.2015.1084889



Perception of Female Students towards Social Media-Related Crimes

Suriati Ghazali* and Norhayati Mat Ghani

Geography Section, School of Humanities, Universiti Sains Malaysia, 11800 USM, Pulau Pinang, Malaysia

ABSTRACT

Various social media platforms such as Facebook, YouTube and WhatsApp are often used by youths today to socialise, entertain themselves and to obtain the latest news. However, it has also led to rampant crimes. The objective of this paper is to investigate the perceptions of Malaysian female university students on social media crimes. Sixty female undergraduate students from Universiti Sains Malaysia were selected as respondents using simple random and convenient sampling. Meanwhile 10 of them were chosen for in-depth interviews. All respondents have social media accounts such as Facebook, Instagram, Twitter and WhatsApp. Majority of them were aware of crimes involving social media, however only 28% of them decided to limit their usage of social media due to concerns of becoming a potential victim. Meanwhile, 72 per cent use social media without any limitation. This study contributes to the knowledge of perceptions of young women at Malaysian universities and their vulnerability to social media crimes. It is suggested relevant bodies should take into account the possible dangers that can be generated from social media which can affect the psychological health of young women.

Keywords: Perception, social media crimes, female university students, Malaysia

INTRODUCTION

Social media is a relatively new medium that appeals to all segments of society, especially the youth. Social media such as Facebook, Twitter, MySpace, YouTube and Yahoo have brought changes to the way people communicate from face-to-face meeting to meeting online. The diverse ways of socialising online through social media

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received: 08 November 2016

Accepted: 26 February 2018

E-mail addresses:

suriati@usm.my (Suriati Ghazali)

nrhayatighani@gmail.com (Norhayati Mat Ghani)

*Corresponding author

has made Malaysia the fifth highest user of social media in the Asia-Pacific region, in which in 2015, it is expected that there will be around 25 million people using social media compared with 18 million people in 2012¹. Social media exposes youths, especially females, to crimes. Youth are said to be the most frequent users of social media in Malaysia and it is estimated that 94 percent of Internet users are teenagers². Around 90% per cent of 8.5 million children and teenagers between ages 5 and 18 in Malaysia are exposed to negative elements of the cyber world³. The National White Collar Crime Center (NW3C) (2011) suggests that social networking is a potential 'gold mine' for criminals to take advantage of users' personal details for unlawful financial gain. This paper focuses on matters that are of concern to today's community, which is social media-related crimes and how it affects female youth.

In recent years, many crimes involving social media have been widely reported in the local media. Among them are fraud, smuggling, blackmailing, illegal investment activities, hacking, cyber bullying, drug abuse, pornography, casual sex, rape, and molestation (Malek & Kamil, 2010). In addition, social media has become a weapon to discredit, defame, and to expose users to dangerous situations. The Harian Metro (2014) report on 'Keyboard Warriors' showed how users arrogantly preached ideas they believe are right while maintaining

their anonymity through pseudonym. Their activities are considered irresponsible to the public at large as it may cause public panic and may affect others, while the 'Keyboard Warriors' remain safe and anonymous. Thus, it is important for social media users, especially the youth, to be aware of this and to take precautions when using social media. The involvement of youth in social media could not be constrained in today's globalised world; however, it is important for society to make sure youths are aware of the risks involved in using social networks.

Section two of this paper reviews past research on social media crime while section three outlines its research methodology. Section four discusses results and findings while the final section summarises the paper.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Social network is defined as a web-based service in which a user is able to create a public or semi-public profile, connect and share connectivity with a list of other web users, and view the list of relationships that were made by other individuals in the system (Boyd & Ellison, 2007). Social media attracts youth mainly because they allow them to read social updates and informative articles which they can respond to. More importantly, they can socialise and communicate with their friends with virtually no limitations, post a video or stream an audio, share information, send pictures, and receive and send information interactively (Ghazali, Mapjabil, Nor, Samat & Jaafar, 2012; NW3C, 2011; Thelwall, Sud, & Vis, 2012; Wright & Ross, 1997).

¹Berita Harian (2014). Accessed: 25 June 2015

²Berita Harian (2012). Accessed: 18 June 2015

³Berita Harian (2012). Accessed: 18 June 2015

Social media offers an opportunity to its users to interact without the limitation of time and distance. As people become increasingly savvy in using technological gadgets, they could form a network of communication across cyberspace at any time (Tang, Tang, & Chiang, 2012). Personal data of a person ceases to be private and almost everything is voluntarily shared in social media. Youth are accustomed to sharing everything on their *wall*, updating their statuses or *tweets* when anything exciting happens in their life (House of Lords, 2014). Youths aged between 16 and 24 are the largest consumers of media via the mobile Internet, spending 1.88 up to 2.77 hours per day in 2012 (Mander, 2014). Globally, Internet users in 2014 spent an average of 6.09 hours a day on online media, compared with 2012. The online population in Thailand, Malaysia and Brazil are the most digital oriented of all, typically consuming eight hours or more a day (Mander, 2014).

Majority of youths use the social media for entertainment. Due to the long hours they spend on the Internet, youths are more exposed to the dangers of crimes that are often associated with social media, such as identity theft, cyberstalking, hacking, and cyberbullying. A federal study of offline stalking in the US (NW3C, 2011) found that one in every 12 women (from 8.2 million women studied) and one in every 45 men (from 2 million men studied) claim to have been stalked at some point. Women are twice as likely as men to be victims of stalking by strangers and eight times as likely to be victims of stalking by intimates

(NW3C, 2011). In addition, youths are more vulnerable to cyberbullying due to their lack of experience in using the Internet and their low awareness of its potential dangers (Bridging Refugee Youth and Children Service, 2009). According to Feinberg and Robey (2010), cyberbullying refers to online fights, threats, insults, and disguise. For example, when a person updates a status, he or she may receive hateful comments.

The existence of social media also contributes to identity theft. According to Reznik (2013), the usual scenario of online identity theft begins with the perpetrator creating a fictitious profile of the victim and uses that identity for online communications. The second technique is by stealing the victim's password, or indirectly gaining access to their social media account and then impersonating them by using that account. Sexual harassment is also often associated with the use of social media. The vast number of media reports regarding sexual offences over the Internet have shown that such activity is a widespread phenomenon. The exact rate of occurrence of sexually motivated crimes involving social media is difficult to determine, particularly when these cases involve young people (Loizou, 2012). For Yar (2006), sex offences mediated by social websites are not limited to sexual grooming although these cases attract the most media attention. Online exploitation of children can include 'cyber-rape', sexually explicit conversations and 'fantasy enactment' of sexual scenarios (Yar, 2006). According to Urban Dictionary (2005), cyber-rape means

the act of raping a person via the Internet. It is similar to cyber-sex, except that one of the two people does not consent to the sexually oriented messages, and the receiving party feels harassed and scared as the cyber rapist posts vulgar remarks.

Social media can influence youths to engage in sexual activities and in some instances, premarital pregnancy (Alavi et al., 2012). The influence and accessibility of social media has made it easy for both children and the youth to navigate themselves to access crime related and adult websites. Pornographic websites are among the most visited, which are in the fourth and fifth place out of the 100 sites frequented by children and youth in 2009 (Hassan & Rashid, 2012). Ideologies and sexual images, supported by the media, rumours, first-hand experiences and warnings from others, have a role in constructing fear in public space (Pain, 2000).

The New York Police Department has a social media unit that mines Facebook, Twitter, and other social media sites for evidence of crimes and potential criminal activity (Murphy & Fontecilla, 2013). Youth criminal behaviours are becoming increasingly more common and the various developments in social media have caused them to be more vulnerable (Malek & Kamil, 2010). Articles in the dailies, such as “Malang Si Gadis Sunti di Facebook (The Unfortunate fate of a Virgin on Facebook)” in *Berita Harian*, 2013, “Remaja dirogol kenalan WeChat di bilik kosong pasar (A teenager raped by WeChat acquaintance in empty supermarket room)” in *Berita Harian*,

2015, and “Jururawat Dikurung dan Dirogol Kenalan Facebook (Nurse locked up and raped by acquaintance from Facebook),” in *Berita Harian*, 2014 prove that social media users are increasingly being preyed upon by criminals and syndicates.

Studies have found that social networking sites are most popular with women and young adults under the age of 30. A study showed young adult women aged between 18 and 29 are the dominant users of social networking sites (Madden & Zickuhr, 2011). Liska and Baccaglioni (1990) found that the influence of social media is the strongest among females, elderly and poorly educated people - all of which are segments of the population who are more likely to be victimised (Davis & Dossetor, 2010). Nevertheless, researchers argue that women in particular should be careful so as to not expose themselves to criminals. Jewkes (2013) meanwhile says that “while we should be cautious not to make sweeping claims about media ‘effects’ or the media being responsible for ‘causing’ fear of crime, we should remain alert to the ways in which media are integral to the processes of meaning-making by which we make sense of our everyday lives”. This paper therefore, identifies the extent to which social media has been involved in the meaning-making, namely how young Malaysian women make sense of their everyday lives.

The Malaysia Computer Emergency Response Team (MyCERT) was formed under the Ministry of Science, Technology and Innovation (MOSTI) in 1997 to provide a point of reference for the Malaysian

Internet community to deal with cybercrimes (MyCERT, 2017). MyCERT provides assistance in handling incidents, such as intrusion, identity theft, malware infection, cyber harassment and other computer security related incidents. MyCERT

classified cybercrime into nine categories as shown in Table 1, which, in 2016, Fraud was the top cybercrime followed by Intrusion, Spam, Cyber Harassment, and Malicious Codes, among others (MyCERT, 2017).

Table 1
Reported incidents based on general incident classification statistics (2010-2016)

	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Content related	39	59	20	54	35	33	50
Cyber harassment	419	459	300	512	550	442	529
Denial of service	66	78	23	19	29	38	66
Fraud	2212	5328	4001	4485	4477	3257	3921
Intrusion	2160	3699	4326	2770	1125	1714	2476
Intrusion attempt	685	734	67	76	1302	303	277
Malicious codes	1199	1012	645	1751	716	567	435
Spam	1268	3751	526	950	3650	3539	545
Vulnerabilities report	42	98	78	19	34	22	35
Total	8090	15218	9986	10636	11918	9915	8334

Source: MyCert, 2010, 2011, 2012, 2013, 2014, 2015, 2016

This table shows that cybercrime is serious and prevalent. Cybercrime may affect the well-being of victims and society at large. Cybercrimes cause fear and distrust among Internet users, whether they have been victims or not. Thus, the vulnerability of the public, especially young women, must be tackled. This is because young women are among the most active social media users, as well as they are easily influenced by social media (Liska & Baccaglioni, 1990; Madden & Zickuhr, 2011).

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Social Learning Theory posits that social determinants affect adolescents' personality. The Social Learning Theory has three underlying themes, namely environmental, personal and behavioural. Figure 1 shows how behavioural, environmental and personal factors are interconnected with one another and influence adolescents' behaviour. Social Learning Theory suggests that children and youth learn by observing their surroundings, particularly those who are close to them (Bandura, 1977).

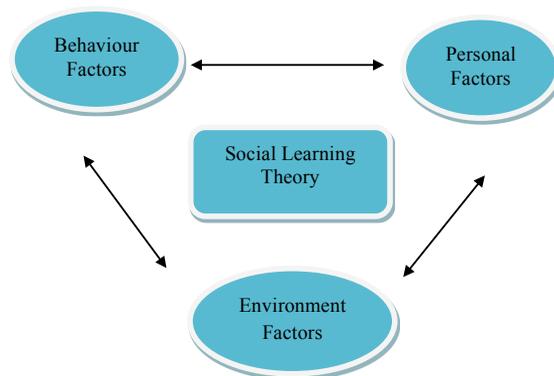


Figure 1. Social learning theory (Source: Bandura, 1977)

Youths live in a social environment defined as the space for interaction and activities in their daily lives (Ghazali & Rahim, 2013). Aggressive behaviour learned from their social environment during everyday interaction with family, peer group, mass media, and also their individual self-concept shapes youth's and children's behaviour. Since humans are influenced by their social environments, they would choose the environment that is dominant to them. If they are exposed to negative behaviours, there is a possibility that they would imitate such behaviours (Mohamed, 2001).

Entertainment media affects our lives. Behaviours viewed from television and movies that are considered appropriate to us will be learned and imitated in everyday lives (Anderson & Dill, 2000). Children and youth are easily influenced by actions and behaviours that they see in films, including those that are aggressive and violent (Huesmann & Taylor, 2006; Mohamad et al., 1998).

Huesmann and Taylor (2006) examined how children and adolescents are exposed

to violence in the media, for example television, which causes an increase in aggressive behaviour among the children and adolescent. In the US, children and adolescent spend an average of three and four hours per day watching television. Their findings showed children and adolescents who watch violent films behave more aggressively immediately afterwards than those who don't. This is explained by observational-learning theory, in which, when violence is portrayed as justified, viewers are likely to come to believe that their own aggressive responses to a perceived offence are also appropriate, which leads them behave aggressively.

Ghani and Ghazali (2016) found that Malaysian youths have the tendency to record violent behaviours using their smartphones and upload those in the YouTube. These videos usually record a large number of viewers, with some of them indicating "like" (thumbs up) to such aggressive behaviour, and even praise such behaviour as brave and heroic. This finding was supported by Huesmann and Taylor

who showed that some even imitate such aggressive behaviours in their daily lives. This also supports Bandura's (1977) Social Learning Theory, which states that people learn through observation, and learning from observation includes mimicking, imitating, and matching.

In recent years, high profile criminal cases have been discussed in social media (Ghani & Ghazali, 2016). Since youths are a vulnerable group and are active users of social media, it is inappropriate to broadcast violent behaviours in social media. However, to date, it seems that there is no way to limit social media users from uploading crime scenes or to prevent users from watching them.

While some adolescents may mimic criminal behaviours they see in the social media, others especially women, may experience fears. Past studies show that women experience fear of crime more than men, due to their vulnerability to sexual aggression, in which, women are 10 times more likely to be sexually assaulted than men (John Howard Society of Alberta, 1999; Crowell & Burgess, 1996). Therefore, this study will explore how female university students respond to the crimes they witness in social media especially, how it influences their pre-emptive behaviour, namely not to fall victim.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This study used inductive approach in designing methods of collecting data. Based

on the literature review and observation, we constructed a questionnaire survey using open and close-ended questions. The questions were designed to understand how female university students perceived crimes in social media and steps taken by them to avoid falling victim to social media crimes. The study sample was undergraduate women aged between 20 and 24 at Universiti Sains Malaysia, representing one of the vulnerable groups. Sixty ethnic Malay students, were randomly selected to fill in the questionnaires, and 10 of them were selected for in-depth interviews. The perception of respondents towards the use of social media and crimes associated with it was discussed at the interview. In Malaysia, university students use social media widely (Ghazali, Mapjabil, & Nor, 2011) thus, they could be easy prey (Liska & Baccaglioni, 1990; Madden & Zickuhr, 2011). Additionally, the local media commonly features social media crimes involving Malays (Ghazali, Mapjabil, & Nor, 2011).

Data from open ended questionnaires and in-depth interviews were analysed using manual qualitative method. The interviews were recorded and transcribed, and this data was analysed using manual qualitative analysis as suggested by Power and Renner (2003) based on the study objective. Content analysis was carried out using respondents' own words and which were described and discussed as recommended by Ghazali and Atang (2006) as an appropriate way in presenting qualitative data such as this.

THE PERCEPTION OF FEMALE STUDENTS TOWARDS SOCIAL MEDIA AND CRIME

This section discusses the perception of respondents towards social media and crime in three parts. The first part discusses the crime incidents witnessed by the respondents while using social media, the second part discusses crime incidents that hinder the respondents from using social media while the third discusses steps taken by the respondents to avoid falling victim to social media crimes.

Criminal incidents witnessed by the respondents while using the social media

Table 2 shows a list of crimes that were witnessed by the respondents when they use

social media. According to the respondents, Facebook, Instagram, Google, YouTube and WhatsApp contained the highest number of criminal incidents. Among the offences witnessed at these media include bullying, pornography, image theft, disinformation, robbery, abuse, abandonment of babies, defamation, murder, hacking, and sexual harassment. The criminal cases listed by the respondents show that they have often witnessed criminal events in social media. This finding was supported by a survey conducted by NW3C (2011) on stalking, Feinberg and Robey (2010) on cyber bullying, Loizou (2012) and Yar (2006) on sexual offences and pornography in social media, and Reznik (2013) on identity theft in social media.

Table 2
Criminal incidents witnessed by respondents while using the social media

Types of Social Media	Criminal incidents witnessed by respondents while using the Social Media
Facebook	Bullying, abandonment of babies, robbery, theft, slander, pornographic videos, hacking, abuse, cheating, image theft, spreading of rumours, phishing, paedophilia, rape, suicide, political crimes, murder, falsifying of images, sexual harassment, insulting, making sensitive issues viral
Instagram	Abandonment of babies, bullying, image theft, false images, pornography, indecent images, misuse of images, hacking, abuse, stalking, false information, vandalism, gangsterism, outrageous videos
Google	Pornography, cyber bullying, stalking, slander, kidnapping, hacking, false information, theft, child abuse, abandonment of babies, murder, rape, robbery, drugs
Twitter	Slander, hacking, bullying, beatings, false information, robbery, vandalism, murder, theft
Blog	Fake accounts, hacking, abuse, spreading of gossip, making sensitive issues viral
YouTube	Exposure of pornographic actions, bullying, abuse, beatings, editing false videos, spreading videos without permission, phishing, kidnapping, rape, murder, vandalism, robbery, theft, inappropriate videos
WhatsApp	Cyber bullying, bullying, blackmail, theft, false information, phishing, slander, beatings, sexual harassment, spreading of false information, making sensitive issues viral, spreading computer viruses
WeChat	Bullying, hacking, beatings, image theft
Viber	Hacking, abuse

Out of all the crimes described by the respondents, teenage girls being sexually harassed and raped tops the list. These cases occur because they use social media such as Facebook to communicate with strangers. Typically acquainted via social media, they would later be asked to meet in real life and this would sometimes lead to adultery and out of wedlock pregnancy. As Alavi et al. (2012) remarked, social media enable teenagers to access inappropriate contents, which has the potential to influence them. According to Yar (2006), online exploitation can include ‘cyber-rape’, sexually explicit conversations and ‘fantasy enactment’ of sexual scenarios. In addition, exposure to pornographic materials in social media has normalised the subject matter. This is supported by Loizou (2012) who states that the vast number of media reports with regards to sexual offences over the Internet have created the perception that such activity is a common phenomenon.

Do cybercrimes hinder female students from using social media?

A total of 28% of the respondents decided to limit their use of social media after watching crimes uploaded on the social media. They feared the same would happen to them. Among their reasons were fear, anxiety attacks and psychological disturbance. For example, Respondent 1, aged 22, explained;

“I limit my use of social media because the crimes I see affect my thinking”. (Respondent was shocked at what she saw on social media, as

she explained), “...someone sent me a YouTube link to my Facebook wall and I didn’t know what the content was all about. When I opened it, I was so shocked...there was a dead body of a woman...and a group of man, believed to be the guards of the mortuary, were raping the dead body. It was unbelievable that they could do it to the dead body! This makes me so scared. Imagine if the content of videos like these is seen by children or people who are inclined to do such things, they may imitate it! Inhumane acts such as these make me feel scared of people around me, and they always make me feel unsafe”.

Respondent 2, aged 22, said:

“I limit my use of social media because when I see them (the crimes) I got messed up and sometimes I become afraid of using social media. Crime articles and videos posted on Facebook by other people are always appearing on my Facebook wall. They are theft cases, murder, rape, slander and many others. I feel pity for the victims. I also once had become a victim of social media. My Facebook was hacked; my pictures that I uploaded were stolen, and they changed my pictures into pornographic images. At first, I did not notice that my pictures were stolen, but

then my close friend told me. I was so shocked and felt very ashamed. Now I do not share my pictures on social media any more. I'm afraid that this would happen again".

Respondent 3, aged 21, also shared her experience:

"Before I post something, I will think first. I won't believe the information I get straight away. If I think the news or the videos are rubbish, I will not view it. People always update their Facebook and whether we like it or not, it will appear on our wall. Therefore, we must be smart in picking up the information. Don't believe in everything that we receive. Social media is rife with slanders purposely uploaded to tarnish peoples' image - such as, gossip on artists, divorce cases, household rifts – all these are dispersed quickly".

Meanwhile, Respondent 4, aged 21, said;

"I now feel phobia in expressing my feelings or in sharing my opinions on Facebook. Since now everything can become viral, even though we post something as entertainment, it can become slanderous. I have posted something that I got from a cooking book in someone's Facebook. In that page there are a number of followers. In my post,

I simply asked, "can we drink the water that have ants in it?". My purpose for asking was just for fun, and furthermore, I asked because I want to know what people think about it. Unexpectedly, I received hundreds of comments, and most of the comments cursed me with words that hurt me. Many said that I'm stupid; I live in a cave that makes me don't even know simple things like that (can we drink the water that have ants in it); they accused my parents as guilty for not teaching me Islamic law; I am sinned because I have made the followers in that page fight each other... I was so traumatised and for almost a week I deactivated my Facebook because I fear if they will attack me on my Facebook account".

Four respondents mentioned above fear of crime after becoming victims of cybercrime (Respondent 1, 2, 3 and 4). Respondent 1 fell victim to cybercrime after watching a criminal incident in a video that was uploaded in YouTube. The crime traumatised her making her fearful always. This has made her live in the shadows of fear and she was not sure if that would last a life time. This proves that crimes watched online by the public can have a negative impact on the victim.

Respondent 2 was also a victim of cybercrime when her Facebook account was hacked, had her pictures stolen and then

edited onto pornographic images which was then posted online for everyone to view. This act has shamed the victim and leaving her a deep sense of fear. It invades the privacy and rights users while leaving long-lasting damage since anything uploaded onto the Internet remains there forever, as long as someone had saved the item.

Respondent 3 admitted to behaving cautiously on the social media, as he fears it can lead to potentially unsafe and humiliating situations. Furthermore, Respondent 4's experience who was attacked on social media for posting a comment with no ill will shows that such actions could have a negative impact on a user's psychological well-being, especially the victim's. A victim could suffer from trauma and phobia due to unexpected and unnecessary insults from social media users. It is clear that all four victims have been affected by cybercrimes with a long-lasting impact on their psychological well-being.

These cybercrimes are faced by many social media users, and they suffer similar negative outcomes, both emotionally and psychologically. According to Bridging Refugee Youth and Children Service (2009), Schneider, Smith, and O'Donnell (2013), Department for Children, Schools and Families (2009) and Lieberman and Cowan (2011), victims of cyber bullying faced issues such as anxiety, stress, isolation, low self-esteem, have troubles in forming social relationships, become panicky and aggressive, harm themselves physically, mentally, socially leading to low educational attainment and worst of all, they could be

driven to suicide. Some of them even resort to drug abuse just to deal with emotional damage caused by cybercrimes. In the cases studied, the respondents responded to cyber bullying by limiting their social media usage.

This was in order to avoid falling prey. This finding was supported by Murphy and Fontecilla's (2013) that social media are rife with evidence of crimes and potential criminal activities. Trends and patterns of crime in social media can be used by the responsible bodies be it government or civil society to minimise crimes by avoiding behaviours that may inadvertently lead them to resort to criminal activities, whether as criminals or as victims.

Regardless of the dangers of social media, 71.7% of the respondents stated they did not limit their use of them but instead took necessary precautions in order not to fall victim.

Precautions taken by respondents to avoid being victims

Among the precautions taken by the respondents are, they become cautious with the strangers that they met in social media, and they do not simply approve new friend requests from strangers. Respondents also tend to not to expose their personal details and their locations to the public. They also tend to be more careful when posting pictures or statuses in social networks. Respondents regard these steps as crucial and they believe most crimes involving young women in social media took place due to the carelessness of victims for trusting

strangers that they met in social media. The introduction of girls and young women to social media has led to the increase in criminal cases such as rape, murder, beatings and intimidation. The respondents' narrative is also supported by the local newspaper articles as discussed before (Berita Harian, 2015, 2014). Regarding this, Respondent 5, aged 22 said:

"If I see the crime incidents on Facebook, I become interested in wanting to know more about it, and I will find more information from the Internet. This is mainly because I'm the type who likes to walk alone, therefore, if there are any news about crimes from the social media, I will search the place where it happened, whether the crimes are bully, abandoning babies, or rape...I will become more alert... that way, I will no longer go the that place alone".

On the same matter, Respondent 2, aged 22, said;

"I try my best not to give out personal information and I would always log out after using any social media....so I know how to control myself in order not to become a victim".

Respondent 6, age 21 said;

"I will keep my personal details that can become the interest of criminals...such as my location, my biodata, my handphone number; all I make private. Even my pictures I did not upload; I am afraid someone will misuse it".

The three steps above were taken by Respondents 5, 2 and 6, in order to prevent them from becoming victims of cybercrime. Respondent 5 explained that she has strong feelings of wanting to know the details of the crimes that she watches in social media, such as the types of crime; either bully, rape, killing, and etc., and where the crimes took place. This information is important to her, so that she can take safety precautions and not go to such places alone. Meanwhile, Respondent 2 said that in order to avoid falling victim to cybercrime, she does not share any information about herself and always log out after using social media. Respondent 3 explained that she will not disclose her personal information, such as location, biodata and mobile phone number for fear of its misuse. Disclosure of personal information may threaten users, even if they have set their account at the highest security settings (Adweek, 18 November 2013). There will always be ways for hackers and cyber criminals to track and steal the personal information of internet

users. Most social network sites have information that is required, such as email address, telephone number, or birth date. All these information enable thieves to hack an email account (Adweek, 18 November 2013). Meanwhile, Gangopadhyay and Dhar (2014) found that some users were forced to delete their profiles due to embarrassment after their social media accounts were hacked. Hackers usually create fake profiles of the actual users, while continuing to update and post things that are disgraceful, using the account and profiles of actual users. Cases of identity theft, hacking of profiles and sharing of personal information is quite common among young users (Gangopadhyay & Dhar, 2014).

The above cases prove that the social media provides a platform for criminal activities. Therefore, precautionary measures by the respondents are very important. The number of youths using social media network increases every day, and this is not only due to its diverse functions, but also because it is seen as a part of modern lifestyle. Therefore, safety measures are crucial and all social media users, especially youths, must be aware of their dangers and take precaution in order to not fall victim. Among the precautions are: regulate privacy settings; prohibit strangers into our social networks; limit the personal information shared, and always stay informed. This study supports Jewkes's (2013) argument that we should not make claims about the media being responsible for causing fears of crime. Instead, social media is crucial in disseminating information, thus

assisting people in the process of meaning-making. From our case, we suggest that social media-related crime assists young Malaysian women youth today to redefine the meaning of safety in space and place, and thus become more aware of potential dangers that await them.

CONCLUSION

This study has discussed the perception of female university students in Malaysia on the dangers of social media. A majority of young women are aware of their vulnerability to crime while using social media. However due to the importance of social media in today's life, young women continue to use them for work, study, and most importantly, for leisure. This has exposed them unwittingly to dangers.

This study has shown how young women, as the main users of social media, are exposed to its dangers. Cruel crimes as witnessed on social media has disturbed the private lives of these young women who have become victims and are forced to live in fear, affecting their well-being. This study also contributed by exposing the behaviour of online community, with vulnerable young women being the main target of perverts and syndicates. Furthermore, this study highlights negative impacts of cybercrimes on vulnerable groups such as young women. As victims of assault and bullying, these women suffer from stress and trauma which affects their well-being. Social media crimes have denied the rights of a segment of the community to live a happy and free life. Though there have been campaigns

encouraging users to be more careful, these campaigns have not stopped the crimes from spiralling.

In line with Bandura's (1977) Social Learning Theory on how environment, personal and behavioural factors affect adolescents' personality, this study suggests that young women in Malaysia live in an environment where social media has become a necessity in life for both social, work and educational use. While they will continue to use social media, some of them would learn to compromise with crimes they seen in social media, while others would become its victims. The young women would define the meaning of safety/danger in the cyber world. This can be regarded as a process in meaning-making, namely to make sense of their everyday life. Thus, another contribution of this study is to help women to be aware of the dangers of social media and in real life. Media has influenced young women's perception towards crime, and the way they react to it. Meaning-making in this context is the way they give meaning to their safety according to their everyday experiences, and it is the media that shape their everyday experiences.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

We would like express our appreciation to Universiti Sains Malaysia for funding this research through RU TOP-DOWN research grant entitled "Crime and Public Safety" under the sub-topic "Youth, Media and Crime" (1001/CSL/870022), and RU-Team

Grant entitled Spatial Inequalities – Framing Phenomena, Formulating Policies (1001/PHUMANITI/856002).

REFERENCES

- Adweek. (2013, November 18). *5 threats to your security when using social media*. Retrieved from <http://www.adweek.com/digital/5-social-media-threats/>.
- Alavi, K., Nen, S., Ibrahim, F., Akhir, N. M, Mohamad, M. S., & Nordin, N. M. (2012). Hamil luar luar nikah dalam kalangan remaja [Out of wedlock pregnancy among teenageers]. *E-Bangi Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities*, 7(1), 131-140.
- Anderson, C. A., & Dill, K. E. (2000). Video games and aggressive thoughts, feelings, and behavior in the laboratory and in life. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 78(4), 772-790.
- Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. *Psychological Review*, 84(2), 191-215.
- Berita Harian. (2012). Jerat jenayah siber [Cyber crime trap]. *Berita Harian*. Retrieved from <http://www2.bharian.com.My/articles/Jeratjenayahsiber/Article/>.
- Berita Harian. (2014, January 16). Jururawat dikurung dan dirogol kenalan Facebook [Nurse locked up and raped by acquaintance from Facebook]. *Berita Harian*. Retrieved from <http://malaysianreview.com/37892/jururawat-dikurung-dan-dirogolkenalan-facebook/>.
- Berita Harian. (2015, February 3). Remaja dirogol kenalan WeChat di bilik kosong pasar raya [A teenager was raped by a WeChat acquaintance in the supermarket's empty room]. *Berita Harian*. Retrieved from <https://www.malaysianreview.com/107542/remaja-dirogol-kenalan-wechat-di-bilik-kosong-pasar-raya/>.

- Berita Harian Online. (2014, October 25). Bajet 2014: Pengguna internet Malaysia cecah 25 juta orang pada 2015 [Budget 2014: Malaysian internet users achieved 25 million people in 2015]. *Berita Harian*. Retrieved from http://www2.bharian.com.my/bharian/articles/Bajet2014_PenggunaInternetMalaysiacecah25jutaorangpada2015/belanjawan/belanjawan2014/article_html.
- Boyd, D., & Ellison, N. B. (2007). Social network sites. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication*, 13, 210-230.
- Bridging Refugee Youth and Children Service (BRYCS). (2009). *Refugee children in U.S. schools: A toolkit for teacher and school personnel*. Washington, DC: United States Conference of Catholic Bishops.
- Crowell, N. A., & Burgess, A. W. (Eds.). (1996). *Understanding violence against women*. Washington DC: National Academy Press.
- Davis, B., & Dossetor, K. (2010). Perceptions of crime in Australia. *Trends and issues in crime and criminal justice: No 396*. Retrieved from http://www.aic.gov.au/media_library/publications/tandi_pdf/tandi396.pdf.
- Department for Children, Schools and Families. (2009). *Safe from bullying in youth activities*. Nottingham: DCSF Publications.
- Feinberg, T., & Robey, N. (2010). *Cyberbullying: Intervention and prevention strategies*. Bethesda: National Association of School Psychologists. Retrieved from <http://www.nasponline.org/resources/bullying/cyberbullying.pdf>.
- Gangopadhyay, S., & Dhar, D. (2014). Social networking sites and privacy issues concerning youths. *Global Media Journal* 5(1), 1-7.
- Ghani, N. M., & Ghazali, S. (2015). Tindak balas pengguna YouTube terhadap kes buli dalam kalangan remaja di Malaysia [YouTube users' responses towards bully cases among the youth in Malaysia]. *Sains Humanika*, 6(1), 9-17.
- Ghazali, S., & Atang, C. (2006). Pencarian dan penafsiran maklumat kualitatif dalam penyelidikan geografi: Pengalaman daripada kajian kesejahteraan ketua keluarga wanita [Search and interpretation of qualitative information in geographical research: Experience from the study of the well-being of female headed households]. *Manusia dan Masyarakat (Man and Society)*, 16, 156-179.
- Ghazali, S., & Rahim, M. R. M. (2013). Jenayah juvana dalam persekitaran sosial di Pulau Pinang, Malaysia [Juvenile crime in the social environment of Pulau Pinang, Malaysia]. In J. L. S. Jaafar, Y. Mahamood & Z. Ishak (Eds.), *Menongkah arus globalisasi: Isu-isu psikologi di Malaysia dan Indonesia [Closing the flow of globalization: Psychological issues in Malaysia and Indonesia]* (pp. 71-89). Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia: Penerbit Universiti Malaya dan Jabatan Psikologi Pendidikan dan Kaunseling.
- Ghazali, S., Mapjabil, J., & Nor, A. M. (2011). Infrastruktur komuniti dan hubungannya dengan golongan transeksual di institusi pengajian tinggi awam Malaysia [Community infrastructure and its relation with the transsexual group at the Malaysian public higher education institutions]. *Jurnal Kemusiaan*, 18, 77-95.
- Ghazali, S., Mapjabil, J., Nor, A. M., Samat, N., & Jaafar, J. L. Z. (2012). Difusi ruangan budaya transeksualisme dan imaginasi geografi pelajar lelaki berpenampilan dilang di universiti tempatan Malaysia [Spatial diffusion of transsexualism and the geographical imagination of the male cross-dressed students at the Malaysian local universities]. *E-Bangi Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities*, 7(1), 252-266.

- Harian Metro. (2014). Keyboard Warrior. *Harian Metro*. Retrieved from <http://www.hmetro.com.my/node/19615>.
- Harian Metro Online. (2013). Malang Si Gadis Sunti di Facebook [The unlucky fate of A Girl on Facebook]. *Harian Metro Online*. Retrieved from <http://hmetroo.blogspot.com/2013/06/malang-sigadis-sunti-di-facebook.html>.
- Hassan, J., & Rashid, R. S. R. A. (2012). Ketagihan Penggunaan internet di kalangan remaja sekolah tingkatan 4 di bandaraya Johor Bahru [Increasing internet usage amongst the form 4 school teenagers in Johor Bahru city]. *Journal of Technical, Vocational and Engineering Education*, 6, 23-43.
- House of Lords. (2014). *Social media and criminal offences*. The Select Committee on Communications. 1st Report of Session 2014 – 15.
- Huesmann, L. R., & Taylor, L. D. (2006). The role of media violence in violent behavior. *Annual Reviews of Public Health*, 27, 393–415.
- Jewkes, Y. (2013). *Crime and media. Introduction to Volume 1: Theorizing crime and media Part 1: Media effects*. London: SAGE Publications Ltd.
- John Howard Society of Alberta. (1999). *Fear of crime*. Retrieved from www.johnhoward.ab.ca/pub/C49.htm#reaction.
- Lieberman, R., & Cowan, K. C. (2011). *Bullying and youth suicide: Breaking the connection*. Retrieved from https://www.google.com/url?sa=t&rct=j&q=&esrc=s&source=web&cd=1&cad=rja&uact=8&ved=0ahUK EwiVIIPWucrYAhUBp48KHXKk BxwQ FggoMAA&url=https%3A%2F%2Fwww.nas2FDocuments%2FResources%2520and%2520Publications%2FHandouts%2FFamilies%2520d%2520Educators%2FBullying_Suicide_Oct2011.pdf&usg=AOvVaw0qmEBOiaoCweToyOHFcysf.
- Liska, A., & Baccaglini, W. (1990). Feeling safe by comparison: Crime in the newspapers. *Social Problems*, 37(3), 360-374.
- Loizou, V. (2012). To what extent has Facebook become a conduit for criminal activity? *Internet Journal of Criminology*. ISSN 2045-6743 (Online). Retrieved from https://www.academia.edu/3434608/To_what_extent_has_Facebook_become_a_conduit_for_criminal_activity?auto=download.
- Madden, M., & Zickuhr, K. (2011). *65% of online adults use social networking sites*. Pew Research Center. Retrieved from <http://www.pew.internet.org/files/old-media/Files/Reports/2011/PIP-SNS-Update-2011.pdf>.
- Malek, M. D. A., & Kamil, I. S. M. (2010). *Jenayah dan masalah sosial di kalangan remaja: Cabaran dan realiti dunia siber* [Crime and social issues amongst teenagers: Cyber world challenges and reality]. Retrieved from <http://eprints.ums.edu.my/117/>.
- Mander, J. (2014). *Digital vs traditional media consumption*. Retrieved from http://insight.globalwebindex.net/hs-fs/hub/304927/file-1414878665-pdf/Reports/GWI_Media_Consumption_Summary_Q3_2014.pdf.
- Mohamad, K. M., Muhammad, M., Abu Bakar, D., Ashaari, M. S., & Hasan, H. (1998). *Impak media ke atas remaja: Satu analisis program maklumat hiburan di media massa* [Media impact on teenagers: An analysis of entertainment information program in mass media]. Retrieved from http://ir.uitm.edu.my/3599/1/LP_KASSIM_MOHAMAD_98_24.pdf.
- Mohamed, M. N. (2001). *Pengantar psikologi: Satu pengenalan asas kepada jiwa dan tingkah laku manusia* [Introduction to psychology: A basic introduction to the soul and human behaviour]. Kuala Lumpur: Dewan Bahasa dan Pustaka.

- Murphy, P., & Fontecilla, A. (2013). Social media evidence in government investigations and criminal proceedings: A frontier of new legal issues. *Richmond Journal of Law and Technology*, 19(3), 11-41.
- MyCERT. (2010). *MyCERT Incident Statistics*. Retrieved from <https://www.mycert.org.my/statistics/2010.php>.
- MyCERT. (2011). *MyCERT Incident Statistics*. Retrieved from <https://www.mycert.org.my/statistics/2011.php>.
- MyCERT. (2012). *MyCERT Incident Statistics*. Retrieved from <https://www.mycert.org.my/statistics/2012.php>.
- MyCERT. (2013). *MyCERT Incident Statistics*. Retrieved from <https://www.mycert.org.my/statistics/2013.php>.
- MyCERT. (2014). *MyCERT Incident Statistics*. Retrieved from <https://www.mycert.org.my/statistics/2014.php>.
- MyCERT. (2015). *MyCERT Incident Statistics*. Retrieved from <https://www.mycert.org.my/statistics/2015.php>.
- MyCERT. (2016). *MyCERT Incident Statistics*. Retrieved from <https://www.mycert.org.my/statistics/2016.php>.
- NWCCC. (2011). *Criminal use of social media. National white collar crime*. The National White Collar Crime Center. Research Section 5000 NASA Blvd., Suite 2400 Fairmont. Retrieved from <http://www.iacpsocialmedia.org/Portals/1/documents/External/NW3CArticle.pdf>.
- Pain, R. (2000). Place, social relations and the fear of crime: a review. *Progress in Human Geography* 24(3), 365–387.
- Power, E. T., & Renner, M. (2003). *Analyzing qualitative data*. Retrieved from <http://www.sedl.org/pembs/fam95/279.html>.
- Reznik, M. (2013). Identity theft on social networking sites: Developing issues of internet impersonation. *Touro Law Review*, 29(2), 455–483.
- Schneider, S. K., Smith, E., & O'Donnell, L. (2013). *Social media and cyberbullying: Implementation of school-based prevention efforts and implications for social media approaches*. Retrieved from http://www.promoteprevent.org/sites/www.promoteprevent.org/files/resources/Social_Media_and_Cyberbullying_FinalReport-EDC_0.pdf.
- Tang, J. T. E., Tang, T. I., & Chiang, C. H. (2012). Blog learning: Effects of users' usefulness and efficiency towards continuance intention. *Behaviour and Information Technology*, 33(1), 36-50.
- Thelwall, M., Sud, P., & Vis, F. (2012). Commenting on YouTube videos: From Guatemalan rock to el big bang. *Journal of the American Society for Information Science and Technology*, 63(3), 616–629.
- Urban Dictionary. (2005). *Urban dictionary*. Retrieved from <http://www.urbandictionary.com/define.php?term=cyber+rape>.
- Wright, J. W., & Ross, S. D. (1997). Trial by media: Media reliance, knowledge of crime and perception of criminal defendants. *Communication Law and Policy*, 2(4), 397-416.
- Yar, M. (2006). *Cybercrime and society*. London: Sage.

APPENDIX

Questionnaires

Title: Perception of Malaysian Female University Students on Social Media Crimes

Personal information:

-Age; Place of Residence; Types of Social Media used.

Questions:

- 1) Explain the types of crime in social media that you have ever seen and the types of social media involved.
 - 2) Is/are the crime/s scene you watch on social media has restricted you to using social media?
 - 3) Explain how you can limit the use of social media.
 - 4) Do you take precautionary measures to avoid becoming a victim of cybercrime?
 - 5) Explain the precautionary measures you should take to avoid becoming a victim of cybercrime.
 - 6) Provide suggestions.
-

The Development of Household Empowerment Index among Rural Household of Pakistan

Abrar-ul-Haq, M.^{1*}, Jali, M. R. M.² and Islam, G. M. N.³

¹*College of Administrative and Financial Sciences, AMA International University of Bahrain, Salmabad, Bahrain*

²*School of Economics, Finance and Banking, Universiti Utara Malaysia, 06010 UUM, Sintok, Kedah, Malaysia*

³*Tun Abdul Razak School of Government, Universiti Tun Abdul Razak, 50480 UNIRAZAK, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia*

ABSTRACT

The key objective of this study is to develop a household Empowerment Index for a quick description of household empowerment. Household empowerment was gauged through the first-hand data gathered through face-to-face interview of household head from the rural households of Pakistan. In the process of data collection, multi-stage cluster sampling method was employed which involved twenty-four villages of southern Punjab and 600 heads of the household who were interviewed. With a view to assigning a weight of indicator variables, Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was applied. The findings indicate that there are three pillars of the household empowerment: economic empowerment, social empowerment and above all political empowerment. The said three pillars are based upon the ten sub-pillars which further contain 42 indicators that contribute significantly to household empowerment.

Keywords: Composite index; economic empowerment; household empowerment; political empowerment; social empowerment; rural household

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received: 28 October 2016

Accepted: 26 February 2018

E-mail addresses:

abrarchudhary@hotmail.com (Abrar-ul-Haq, M.)

razani@uum.edu.my (Jali, M. R. M.)

gazinurul236@gmail.com (Islam, G. M. N.)

*Corresponding author

INTRODUCTION

Empowerment is an elusive, contested and ambiguous concept. So far, even many varying definitions of the term have not produced clarity on its meaning. While theorizing about empowerment, it

is crucial to mention that the term refers to an intrinsically subjective experience. Empowerment refers to a process of change. The fundamental essence of the word empowerment relies upon the idea of power. In discussing the concept of empowerment, Cattaneo and Goodman, (2015) claimed that empowerment refers to the people who are able to take care of their own lives as they have the ability to do things by their own being capable of determining their own goals and agendas. In this connection Kabeer (1999) pointed out that a useful way of thinking about empowerment is to reflect on its opposite 'disempowerment'.

The notion of empowerment is inescapably bound up with "disempowerment and refers to the process by which those who have been denied the ability to make choices acquire such an ability" (Kabeer, 1999, p. 2). Empowerment involves not only greater extrinsic control but also a growing intrinsic capability as well. In defining empowerment Sen and Batliwala (2002) argued that the term involves "greater self-confidence and an inner transformation of one's consciousness that enables one to overcome external barriers to accessing resources or changing traditional ideology" (p. 18). In essence, the concept of empowerment is entangled in the notion of agency, the ability to define one's goals and act upon them (Kabeer, 1999). A lot of research has been conducted on rural household poverty and analysed with the help of empowerment. A strong relationship between empowerment

and household welfare has been reported by many studies¹ though, none have measured household empowerment comprehensively for the rural household.

In the case of Pakistan, Table 1 shows the estimates of poverty and the incidence of poverty for urban and rural areas of Pakistan. A general consensus is that in the 1990s, absolute poverty increased. Conversely, in rural areas poverty increased more rapidly. In 1992-93, urban poverty levels were 20.0 percent while in 1998-99 it increased to 20.9 percent. The rural poverty level in 1992-93 was 27.6 percent and increased to 34.7 percent during 1998-99 (Government of Pakistan, 2002). The low economic growth of 4 percent in the 1990s was due to high absolute poverty and it was quite high (economic growth) in 1980s (6 percent per annum).

A significant decline in the incidence of poverty from 34.5 percent to 12.4 percent in 2011 to 2011 is shown by official measures of poverty in the past decade. Around 24 percent incidence of poverty declined in rural areas during that period compared to the urban counterpart (Government of Pakistan, 2014) as shown in Table 1. In contrast with the official trend of decreasing poverty incidence, using a national and a regional and time specific form of the

¹Khan, Rehman, & Abrar-ul-Haq, (2015), Chaudhry and Rehman (2009), Chaudhary et al., (2009): Qureshi and Arif (2001): Arif et al., (2000), Arif (2000)

official methodology, Nazli, Whitney and Mahrt (2015) demonstrates that poverty incidence rose steadily from 38.2 to 46.4

percent between 2001-02 to 2010-11 (Nazli et al., 2015; Whitney, Nazli & Mahrt, 2016).

Table 1
Trends in poverty indicators based on the official poverty line (1992 to 2011)

Year	Poverty Headcount			Poverty Gap			Severity of Poverty		
	Urban	Rural	National	Urban	Rural	National	Urban	Rural	National
1992-93	20.0	27.6	25.5	3.4	4.6	4.3	0.9	1.2	1.1
1993-94	15.9	33.5	28.2	2.7	6.3	5.2	0.7	1.8	1.4
1996-97	15.8	30.2	25.8	2.4	5.3	4.4	0.6	1.4	1.1
1998-99	20.9	34.7	30.6	4.3	7.6	6.4	1.3	2.4	2.0
2001-02	22.7	39.3	34.5	4.6	8.0	7.0	1.4	2.4	2.1
2004-05	14.9	28.1	23.9	2.9	5.6	4.8	0.8	1.8	1.5
2005-06	13.1	27.0	22.3	2.1	5.0	4.0	0.5	1.4	1.1
2007-08	10.7	20.6	17.2	-	-	-	-	-	-
2010-11	7.1	15.1	12.4	-	-	-	-	-	-

Source: Government of Pakistan (2008, 2014) and Nazli et al., (2015)

Note: “-” indicates that these results were not published for that year

However, poverty is multidimensional and the extent of poverty varies according to geographical locations. There is a significant difference between urban and rural areas in term of diversity and frequency of occurrence of poverty, especially in remote areas. In remote areas, people have limited access to the development infrastructure, employment and income opportunities. People living close to the towns and semi-urban areas have relatively more access to income generating resources and employment opportunities compared to the rural areas.

Likewise, tribal groups live in remote or rural areas, which are marginalized and they often face vulnerability due to acute shortage of basic necessities such as food and shelter. The incidence of poverty is

relatively higher in these communities (Nazli et al., 2015; Whitney et al., 2016). However, poverty reduction policies and strategies have rarely taken into account the diversity of poverty in rural and urban areas.

The poorest section of rural households failed to gain access to resources provided by various government programs. The poor failed to capture the benefits from these programs due to low education and lack of social networking within their community. Moreover, these programs did not focus on the social and political aspects of poverty. In addition, the poor have inadequate access to facilities provided by the government due to their low level of education and less social and economic empowerment. These factors account for more poverty than ever before. Therefore, due to the failure

of government policies, rural poverty has not been alleviated and it's getting worse (Whitney et al., 2016).

In this connection, the available poverty literature cannot explain how poverty-stricken people in these areas became reasonably well-off and respectable citizens by empowering them economically, socially and politically. The most previous studies used different proxy variables to measure household empowerment, whereas, the current research has developed a composite index to measure empowerment of rural households which may help to eradicate rural household poverty by adding in significantly in literature.

LITERATURE REVIEW

To understand the poor household's empowerment, Eyben et al. (2008) investigated the impact of social, economic, and political empowerment on household empowerment. A study based on survey data and qualitative interviews by Kabeer Mahmud and Tasneem (2011) examined the effect of women empowerment. They further investigated that how intra-household decisions are affected if paid women workers participate in the decision-making process. In this connection, Kondal (2014) challenged the relationship between provincial economy and juvenile young women. His study evaluated how operators add to both social and financial development. The research additionally highlighted the courses in which reciprocal benefactors and government can give compelling proficient and individual support to provincial young

women for their empowerment. However, empowerment as used here excludes those who are already enjoying some social and financial status. Moreover, the citizens by themselves, or with the help of others, are managing to achieve extra power over their lives. In this connection, the concept of household empowerment has been discussed in further three sub-sections namely; economic empowerment, social empowerment and political empowerment.

Economic Empowerment

Economic empowerment enables poor people to have greater control over their specific resources and lives. For example, it enables households to make their own choices regarding investments in education, health insurance, and taking risks to enhance their revenue. However, it is an established fact that some vulnerable groups' participation in decision making can be strengthened through economic empowerment. For example, programs of microfinance have strengthened women's power at a marketplace and the household. In addition, decision-making power and social status are increased by being empowered economically (Kabeer et al., 2011).

Moreover, economic empowerment will allow farmers to extract benefits from free trade agreements and facilitate access to markets, improve the terms in which producers assimilate markets, compete successfully and increase productivity.

However, there are risks associated with insertion and exports in global value chains and a tendency for programs and donors to

favour 'inclusive business' models which embrace commercial farmers compared to more marginalized rural producers (Dolinska & d'Aquino, 2016). Productivist approaches prefer economic empowerment over welfarist approaches (trade not aid). As per this approach, poverty is due to lack of market access and its solution is to introduce the producers into markets and support them through corporate social responsibility. This approach normally fails to understand poverty being the result of being subordinated by gender, ethnicity and class.

Social Empowerment

Social empowerment is an observed and established phenomenon which works by acting collectively and individually to change the social relationship and it develops a sense of self, autonomy and confidence. So-called social empowerment institutions have also excluded the poor in their discourse and hence kept them in poverty. Psychological (aspire to a better future, the ability to imagine, self-confidence and self-esteem), social (such as leadership relations, a sense of identity and social belonging), capabilities of all types (such as education and good health) and their individual assets strongly influence the ability to hold others accountable for the empowerment of poor people. People's capabilities and collective assets like identity, representation, organization and their voice are also important. Involvement of poor people in inter-community cooperation and local association's mechanisms may enable

them to enhance social empowerment by civilizing their self-perception, knowledge and skills (Khan & Bibi, 2011). Poor people organize their economic activities through self-help local associations, for example, microfinance groups and farming cooperatives. It is important to understand that associational life at the local level takes place predominantly in the informal sphere such as community-based groups, customary institutions, traditional and religious organizations.

Vulnerable groups like marginalized communities, women and the very poor often lack the confidence and skills to ensure community decision making, requiring appropriate support mechanisms. Collective action and public politics of poor people can be strengthened through participation in local associations. Research shows that building collective and individual capacities among the poor is a long-term process.

Political Empowerment

Participation is similar to political empowerment as coined by the United Nations Research Institute for Social Development (UNRISD). Political empowerment is characterized by producers organizing collectively and trying to enhance their bargaining power and influence in terms of developing policies process in relation to bodies such as donor agencies, non-governmental organizations (NGOs), global and regional institutions, national and local governments. The core aim of all these organizations is to evaluate if small-scale producers have a favorable or unfavorable

environment for their businesses (Barabas, 2002).

Political empowerment is about the limit of small producers to apply guarantees on such performing artists and foundations who are considered as responsible entities. Political empowerment is about the limit of small producers to have a voice and to exercise impact in the associations that claim to speak for them irrespective if are producer affiliations, NGOs or the developing cluster of private and multi-partner standard-setting activities, connected with a reasonable and moral exchange.

Also, it is equally necessary to know how they are governed as per the standards set by the regimes. The capacity to frame and re-frame the discourse, definitions of development and the struggle of ideas are also related to political empowerment. Political empowerment is about contradictions meant to ensure that blind spots, bodies of knowledge, the ability to contest approaches and assumptions which are taken for granted are exposed (Sen & Mukherjee, 2014).

In industrialized countries, political empowerment was central in the mid-twentieth century which was developing some degree of an agrarian welfare state. Protection against the vagaries of the market was provided through such arrangements for farmers. They were fundamentally an institutional outcome which was based on farmer's political empowerment that could negotiate policy as it was well organized. Generally, with economic empowerment strategies alone, none of this would have happened. The interests of the governance

of fair trade and encroachment of corporate sector would have increased through an exclusively economic approach (Abrar-ul-haq, Jali & Islam, 2016a). This would have implications in term of standards, its price and also who pays the associated costs. When the market access and price reconfigure by economic empowerment, it also requires to be complemented by political empowerment which reconfigures the power relations.

The development of household Empowerment index for rural households in Pakistan is far from over. Even though there are few studies they used the empowerment as a factor of poverty alleviation, their analysis was limited in the sense that they used a proxy variable to measure the empowerment such as education, income, wealth, access to market and household accessories. Moreover, the impact of these proxy variables was only limited to one aspect of empowerment, as the household empowerment is a multi-dimensional aspect. Therefore, these proxy variables are not a complete representation of household empowerment. The current study is more detailed and specific in term of household empowerment in the relation to poverty eradication and measures the composite index of empowerment among rural households.

Theory of Poverty

Bradshaw (2007), Aigbokhan (2000) and Rocha (1998) approached the theory of poverty from the perspective of its cause. Bradshaw submitted that since most

rural community development effort is to eradicate causes or symptoms of poverty, it therefore, makes sense to uncover the theory of poverty responsible for the problem. Anyway, with a view to observing factors which have strongly affected poverty rate, one finds increased employment rates, loss of job opportunities, movement of people from rural areas to urban areas, worse health conditions because of different kinds of sickness, lower availability of medical facilities and exploitation of resources by the previous management. Bradshaw (2007) asserted that “interdependence of factors creating poverty actually accelerates once a cycle of decline is started” (p. 14).

In the past few decades, the literature on poverty suggests that the structure of the economic system does not allow the poor to be in the equation. Bradshaw (2007) further stressed that poor families hardly get better jobs. This is complicated by the limited number of jobs available near them as well as lack of growth in the sector that supports lower-skilled workers. Households headed by women cannot be sufficient economically because the so-called minimum wage is too low. To compound the problem of the poor Oyekale (2011) suggests that incentives that are meant for the rural poor in southern Punjab, Pakistan are often diverted by the non-poor.

People, institutions and cultures in certain areas lack the objective resources needed to generate well-being and income and are unable to claim redistribution. Ghalib, Malki and Imai, (2015) pointed out that the geography of poverty is a spatial

expression of the capitalist system which is a perfect description of Pakistan’s rural poverty.

Likewise, De-Magalhaes and Santaaulalia-Llopis, (2015) observed that most studies find a rural differential in poverty. An increasing body of literature holds that advantaged areas stand to grow more than disadvantaged areas, even in the periods of general economic growth. These perspectives relate to this study, in that it recognizes the inherent problems associated with the rural communities of the southern Punjab, Pakistan and its inhabitants economically, politically, socially and geographically.

METHODOLOGY AND DATA COLLECTION

The area chosen for data collection was southern Punjab, Pakistan where more than twenty million people are inhabited. The three divisions of this region (Multan, D.G. Khan and Bahawalpur division) have the same environment, basic infrastructure and demographic elements. Therefore, the current study has employed multi-stage cluster sampling for the purpose of data collection. In this connection, the data was collected in four stages. In the first stage, three districts were randomly selected which include Vahari district from Multan division and Layyah from D.G. Khan and district Bahawalpur from Bahawalpur division. In the second stage, two tehsils (City) were selected out of every district. From Bahawalpur, tehsil Hasilpur and Kheirpur-tamywale whereas from district

Vehari, tehsil Mailsi and tehsil Vehari and two tehsils from district Layyah, tehsil Fatehpur and tehsil Layyah were chosen for data collection. In the third stage, two union councils from each tehsil and then two villages from each union council were chosen for data collection. Lastly, from each village, almost equal number of samples were selected as targeted population. The required information was duly collected from the household heads via structured interviews and 600 households from twenty-four villages (almost identical number of household form each village) were selected as a sample size. However, the sample size was adapted from Krejcie, & Morgan (1970)'s table.

Selection and Measurement of Variables

The aim of empowerment is to improve the terms under which producers integrate markets, enhance productivity and facilitate

market access and the income level of the household has been affected positively by empowerment. Table 2 depicts the measurements of various proxies such as political, social, and economic conditions which have been used to measure the household empowerment. Several items were identified by the researcher to measure a rural household's empowerment which includes household assets and factors that affect household's empowerment. Three dimensions have been used to measure household empowerment index namely; economic empowerment, social empowerment and political empowerment. In addition, the index was constructed based on ten sub-factors; namely: assets and property, livestock, health within household, house accessories, groups and networks, gender of household head, shelter, education, political participation and political action.

Table 2
Pillar and sub-pillar of household empowerment index

Index	Pillar	Sub-pillar	Items
		Assets and Property	Tube well Farm equipment Tractor Land leased Land owned Gold / silver / bonds
		Live Stock	Buffalo and cow Sheep and goat Availability of healthcare services Distance of Medical Center Serious disease (T.B, hepatitis, etc.)

Table 2 (continue)

Index	Pillar	Sub-pillar	Items
Household Empowerment	Economic Empowerment	House	Separate kitchen
		Accessories	Sewing machine
			Motorcycle
			Car / jeep
			Water pump
			Air-conditioner
			Refrigerator
			Television
			Personal computer or laptop
			Cell phone
			Room-cooler
		Washing machine	
	Radio		
	Social Empowerment	Groups and Networks	Membership in formal or informal organizations or associations
			Ability to get support from those other than family members and relatives in case of hardship
		Gender of Household Head	Head of Household is male or female
			Marital Status of head of household
		Shelter	Building types (size and type of martial)
			The availability of electricity
			Sanitation system (latrines)
			Personal house or rented
			Size of the house
			Access to school
			Average education of the household
Distance of School			
Education of household head			
Political Empowerment	Political Participation	Registration of vote	
		Vote cast in the last election	
	Political Action	Political knowledge	
		Political interest	
		Political contacts	

Likewise, the first pillar measuring economic empowerment is based on twenty-four items grouped into four sub-pillars: assets and property, livestock and health in the household and household accessories. The

pillar aimed at measuring the ability to perform basic arithmetic operations supposed necessary for household's information about its economic empowerment. The pillar social empowerment gathered together thirteen

indicators grouped in four sub-pillars: education, shelter, gender of the household head and groups and networks. The pillar described the actual knowledge about social empowerment of that household. The third and last pillar political empowerment gathered five indicators grouped into two sub-pillars namely; political participation and political action. The current pillar described the information about political empowerment of that household.

Construction of Household Empowerment Index (HMPI)

A useful technique to evaluate the empowerment of poor people is to assess their participation in the decision-making process and in social affairs. There are different methods to assign weights to indicator variables such as ad-hoc weights. Considering the difficulties of previously used processes for weights, this study used Principal Component Analysis (PCA) to allocate weights.

The PCA refers to a statistical method used to convert the possibly correlated variables into the smaller and uncorrelated set of variables. Firstly, the applied PCA accounts for much of the variability in the dataset and the succeeding application of PCA accounts for the remaining variation in the data. “The PCA allows the reduction of a number of variables into one or fewer variables. However, in this connection, as per the following research (Abrarul-haq, Jali, & Islam, 2016; Alkire et al., 2013; Fukuda-Parr, 2006; Johnson & Measure, 2004; Rutstein, 2008; Rutstein, Rutstein,

1999) the PCA is an appropriate technique for assessing multidimensional components of household empowerment. In fact, a framework becomes authentic only if the latent factors are equal to the amount of the specific pillar or the sub-pillars of the said index.” Likewise, a pillar / sub-pillars dimension is confirmed if a unique latent dimension is found. The PCA method was employed to gauge the household empowerment that analysed the multiple correlation principles and can illustrate the variance of the controlled variable. The principal component analysis selects factors with eigenvalues greater than one which is deemed significant by employing the following formula:

$$I = \sum_{i=1}^n W_i X_i \quad (1)$$

Where, I = the weighted index; W = percentage contribution of each selected variable as the weight; X= the value of each variable; and \sum = the summation sign.

The loadings of factors, sub-pillar and pillar of “the household empowerment are calculated by using PCA. The PCA starts with the calculation of standardized values of variables and evaluates the eigenvalues that refer to the variance of the factors and then these values can be used to determine the components. If the manifested variables are homogeneous, then its mean is zero and the variance is equal to one for each. If there are ‘N’ identical manifest variables in our analysis, the summation of their variances is ‘N’. The PCA transforms the data such as the total variance components N distributed

at random between the components. The first eigenvalue is higher than the second one and the next to persevere with the n^{th} lowest eigenvalue. Currently, the factor coefficient ratings or factor loadings usually are calculated by block and sum of all eigenvectors. The value which we usually acquire is regarded as commonalities, factor loadings or extraction value.”

Besides, household empowerment index is generated through PCA is applied to choose these factors from correlation matrix; every factor is independent in this

method. Factors loadings extracted from this process are further used to develop household empowerment index; each indicator is given an equal weight within the index. Jolliffe and Cadima, (2016) claimed that normalizing the range of each indicator by dividing each indicator with its range and summing across the indicators.... It can be seen that the dominant dimension led to an enhancement in household empowerment with a higher value of loading factor or extraction value.

Table 3
Description of variables

Name of Items	Measurement
Tubewell	If yes Assigned value 1, otherwise 0
Farm equipment	If yes Assigned value 1, otherwise 0
Tractor	If yes Assigned value 1, otherwise 0
Land leased	If yes Assigned value 1, otherwise 0
Land owned	If yes Assigned value 1, otherwise 0
Gold / silver / bonds	If yes Assigned value 1, otherwise 0
Buffalo and cow	Assign value 1 for one sheep or Goat
Sheep and goat	Assign value 5 for one Buffalo or cow
Availability of healthcare services	If yes Assigned value 1, otherwise 0
Distance of Medical Centre	Number of Kilo Meters
Serious disease (T.B, hepatitis, etc)	If yes Assigned value 0, otherwise 1
Separate kitchen	If yes Assigned value 1, otherwise 0
Sewing machine	If yes Assigned value 1, otherwise 0
Motorcycle	If yes Assigned value 1, otherwise 0
Car / jeep	If yes Assigned value 1, otherwise 0
Water pump	If yes Assigned value 1, otherwise 0
Air-conditioner	If yes Assigned value 1, otherwise 0
Refrigerator	If yes Assigned value 1, otherwise 0
Television	If yes Assigned value 1, otherwise 0
Personal computer or laptop	If yes Assigned value 1, otherwise 0
Cell phone	If yes Assigned value 1, otherwise 0
Room-cooler	If yes Assigned value 1, otherwise 0
Washing machine	If yes Assigned value 1, otherwise 0

Table 3 (continue)

Name of Items	Measurement
Radio	If yes Assigned value 1, otherwise 0
Membership in formal or informal organizations or associations	If yes Assigned value 1, otherwise 0
Ability to get support from those other than family members and relatives in case of hardship	If yes Assigned value 1, otherwise 0
Head of Household is male or female	If Household head is male assign value 1, otherwise 0.
Marital Status of head of household	If household head is married assign 1, otherwise 0
Building types (size and type of martial)	If the house is Mud assign value 0, for Sami- bricked assign 1 and for bricked assign 2.
The availability of electricity	If yes Assigned value 1, otherwise 0
Sanitation system (latrines)	If yes Assigned value 1, otherwise 0
Personal house or rented	If Personal Assigned value 1, otherwise 0
Size of the house	Assign value 0 if house is less the 3 (Marla), assign value 1 if house is up to 7 (Marla), otherwise 2
Access to school	If yes Assigned value 1, otherwise 0
Average education of the household	Assign value 0 if no education; assign value 5 if the education is at middle-level assign value 10 if the education is at college or university level
Distance of School	Number of Kilometres
Education of household head	Assign value 0 if no education; assign value 5 if the education is at middle-level assign value 10 if the education is at college or university level
Registration of vote	If yes Assigned value 1, otherwise 0
Vote cast in the last election	If yes Assigned value 1, otherwise 0
Political knowledge	If yes Assigned value 1, otherwise 0
Political interest	If yes Assigned value 1, otherwise 0
Political contacts	If yes Assigned value 1, otherwise 0

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The current study finalizes the index in three stages. In the first stage, the researchers conducted the PCA on items of each sub-pillar separately, in the second step the PCA was applied on the sub-pillars of each pillar separately and in the third step, again the PCA was applied on the pillars with a view to obtaining the value of household

empowerment index. The reliability of the construct was calculated through Cronbach's Alpha which is 0.664.

Step 1: Calculating Sub-pillars

In the first step, the factor loadings are computed for items of each sub-pillar separately and they generate sub-pillars by using these loadings as shown in Table 4.

Table 4
Results of the PCA at items level

HEMPI	Pillar	Sub-pillar	Factors	Factor Loading	Percentage of Sub-pillar	Percentage of Index		
Household Empowerment	Economic Empowerment	Assets and Property	Tube well	0.747	15.03	2.39		
			Farm equipment	0.879	17.69	2.82		
			Tractor	0.872	17.55	2.80		
			Land leased	0.980	19.72	3.14		
			Land owned	0.511	10.28	1.64		
			Gold / silver / bonds	0.981	19.74	3.14		
		Livestock	Buffalo and cow	0.961	50.0	3.1		
			Sheep and goat	0.961	50.0	3.1		
		Health within Household	Availability of healthcare services	0.760	34.2	2.4		
			Distance of Medical Center	0.872	39.2	2.8		
			Serious disease (T.B, hepatitis, etc.)	0.591	26.6	1.9		
		Household Empowerment	Economic Empowerment	House Accessories	Separate kitchen	0.564	6.47	1.81
					Sewing machine	0.532	6.10	1.71
	Motorcycle				0.565	6.48	1.81	
	Car / jeep				0.798	9.15	2.56	
	Water pump				0.603	6.92	1.93	
	Air-conditioner				0.805	9.23	2.58	
	Refrigerator				0.660	7.57	2.12	
	Television				0.613	7.03	1.97	
Personal computer or laptop	0.576				6.61	1.85		
Cell phone	0.932				10.69	2.99		
Room-cooler	0.664				7.62	2.13		
Washing machine	0.696				7.98	2.23		
Radio	0.710				8.14	2.28		
Groups and Networks	Membership in formal or informal organizations or associations				0.631	50.0	2.0	
	Ability to get support from those other than family members and relatives in case of hardship				0.631	50.0	2.0	
Gender of Household Head	Head of Household is male or female				0.871	50.0	2.8	
	Marital Status of head of household	0.871	50.0	2.8				

Table 4 (continue)

HEMPI	Pillar	Sub-pillar	Factors	Factor Loading	Percentage of Sub-pillar	Percentage of Index
	Social Empowerment	Shelter	Building types (size and type of martial)	0.714	20.5	2.3
			The availability of electricity	0.666	19.1	2.1
			Sanitation system (latrines)	0.714	20.5	2.3
			Personal house or Rented	0.558	16.0	1.8
			Size of the house	0.829	23.8	2.6
			Access to school	0.552	20.1	1.8
	Political Empowerment	Education	Average education of the household	0.702	25.6	2.2
			Education of household head	0.735	26.8	2.3
			Distance of School	0.755	27.5	2.4
		Political Participation Action	Registration of vote	0.746	50.0	2.4
			Vote cast in last election	0.746	50.0	2.4
			Political knowledge	0.989	37.5	3.2
			Political interest	0.862	32.7	2.8
		Political contacts	0.788	29.9	2.5	

Source: Calculated from the Household Survey Data (2016)

Assets and Property. The study used six measures to assess the level of household's property and assets namely, land owned with loading value 0.511 represents 10.28 percent contribution in sub-pillar of asset and property, land leased with loading value 0.980 which contributes 19.72 percent, farm equipment with loading value 0.879 that contributes 17.69 percent, tractor with loading value 0.872 that contributes 17.55 percent, tube-well with loading value 0.747 contributes 15.03 percent and gold/silver/bonds with loading value 0.981 contributes 19.74 percent in asset and property (sub-pillar) as shown in Table 4.

Assets and Property = 10.28%(Land Owned) + 19.72%(Land Leased) + 17.55%(Tractor) + 17.69%(Farm Equipment) + 15.03%(Tubewell) + 19.74%(Gold/Silver/Bonds)

Livestock. Similarly, livestock is a crucial asset of rural households in Pakistan and have positive correlation with income. In this study cow/buffalo and sheep/goat are used to represent livestock. Both factors are significant with the same loading value 0.961 that represents 50 percent of each factor in the sub-pillar of livestock as shown in Table 4.

Livestock = 50%(Cow/Buffalo) + 50%(Sheep/Goat)

Health Status of the Households. In the current study, three proxies were used to assess the health status of the head of the household; they are, the availability of healthcare services, a distance between the medical centre and disease status (Chaudhary et al., 2009). The results of the study indicate that availability of healthcare services is significant with loading value 0.760 that represent 34.2 percent of health status of households, distance of medical centre was significant with loading value 0.872 which contributes 39.2 percent and serious disease also significant with loading value 0.591 that contributes 26.6 percent in household health as shown in Table 4.

Health Status of the Households = 34.2%(Availability of health care services) + 39.2%(Distance of medical centre) + 26.6%(Serious disease)

Household Accessories. House accessories are measured using thirteen indicators. These accessories consist of material things which economically beneficial to households. The accessories taken into account in this study including motorcycle, car/jeep, water pump, air conditioner, refrigerator, television, personal computer, cell phone, room colour, separate kitchen, sewing machine, washing machine and radio.

The results show that indicators were significant with extraction values 0.565 (6.48 percent), 0.798 (9.15 percent), 0.603

(6.92 percent), 0.805 (9.23 percent), 0.660 (7.57 percent), 0.613 (7.03 percent), 0.576 (6.61 percent), 0.932 (10.69 percent), 0.664 (7.62 percent), 0.696 (7.98 percent), 0.564 (6.47 percent), 0.532 (6.10 percent) and 0.710 (8.14 percent) contribute in household accessories respectively.

House Accessories = 5.47%(Separate kitchen) + 6.10%(Sewing machine) + 6.48%(Motorcycle) + 9.15%(Car/Jeep) + 6.92%(Water pump) + 9.23%(Air-conditioner) + 7.57%(Refrigerator) + 7.03%(Television) + 6.61%(Personal computer) + 10.69%(Cell phone) + 7.62%(Room colour) + 7.98%(Washing Machine) + 8.14%(Radio)

Groups and Networks. The study uses two factors to measure groups and networks, namely, membership in formal or informal organizations or associations and ability to get support from those outside the family at times of hardship. These factors are significant with the same factor loading which is 0.631 that represents 50 percent contribution from each factor as shown in Table 4.

Groups and Networks = 50%(Membership in formal/informal organizations) + 50%(support other than family members and relatives in case of hardship)

Gender of Household Head. The gender of the household heads has a significant effect on its participation in social and political activities. A strong relationship between

gender of the household head and rural poverty is reported by Bogale et al. (2005). This study used two factors namely, gender of the household head and marital status of head of household head. Both these factors are significant with the same factor loadings which are 0.871 and contribute 50 percent of each factor to sub-pillar of the social empowerment.

Gender of Household Head = 50%(Gender of household head) + 50%(Marital Status)

Shelter. Good housing atmosphere leads to good health and provides the base for enhancing economic productivity within the household and social empowerment. Five components were taken to explain shelter in the current study namely, types of building (a type of house material), the availability of electricity, the environmental indicator is concerned with the level of sanitation system (latrine), own house/rented and the size of the house. These indicators have been found significant with loading value 0.714 (20.5 percent contribute in shelter), 0.666 (19.1 percent), 0.714 (20.5 percent), 0.558 (16.0 percent) and 0.829 (23.8 percent) respectively as shown in Table 4.

Shelter = 20.5%(Types of building) + 19.1%(The availability of electricity) + 20.5%(Sanitation system) + 16%(Own house/rented) + 23.8%(Size of the house)

Education. Employment opportunities get better as a result of high educational ability, especially in the rural areas as the best knowledge of growing crops with new

agricultural technologies correlates with the best practices in their respective field. Results show that four indicators access to school, average education of the household, education of head of household and distance of school are significant with factor value 0.552 (20.1 percent), 0.702 (25.6 percent), 0.735 (26.8 percent) and 0.755 (27.5 percent) respectively as shown in Table 4.

Education = 20.1%(Access to school) + 25.6%(Average education of the household) + 26.8%(Education of head of household) + 27.5%(Distance of school)

Political Participation. To measure political participation, this study takes two indicators namely, registration of vote and vote cast in the last general elections. Both these factors are significant with the same factor loadings 0.746 which show each of the factors contributes 50 percent in political participation as shown in above Table 4.

Political Participation = 50%(Registration of vote) + 50%(Vote cast in last general election)

Political Action. The current study used three indicators to measure political action namely, political knowledge, political interest and political contacts. These factors are significant with the factor loading 0.989 which contributes 37.5 percent in political action, 0.862 that represents 32.7 percent of political action and 0.788 that shows 29.9 percent contribution in political action respectively as shown in Table 4.

Political Action = 37.5%(Political knowledge) + 32.7%(Political interest) + 29.9%(Political contacts)

Step 2: Calculating Pillars

Similarly, in the second step, this study calculates sub-pillars by multiplying the

factor loading with their items and get a summation of these factors separately for each sub-pillar. Once sub-pillar is applied to the principal component analysis at sub-pillar, its factor loading is obtained as shown in Table 4.

Table 5
Results of the PCA at Sub-pillar level

HEMPI	Pillar	Sub-pillar	Factor Loading	Percentage of Sub-pillar	Percentage of Index
	Economic Empowerment	Assets and Property	0.750	21.52	9.60
		Live Stock	0.979	28.09	12.54
		Health within Household	0.996	28.58	12.75
		House Accessories	0.760	21.81	9.73
Household Empowerment	Social Empowerment	Groups and Networks	0.592	20.31	7.60
		Gender of Household Head	0.980	33.62	12.58
		Shelter	0.690	23.67	8.86
		Education	0.653	22.40	8.38
	Political Empowerment	Political Participation	0.705	50.00	9.05
		Political Action	0.705	50.00	9.05

Source: Calculated from the Household Survey Data (2016)

Economic Empowerment. In the current study, economic empowerment consists of four sub-factors: livestock, property and assets, household accessories and household health. The percentage contribution of these factors is discussed in the following section. The PCA ensures that every sub-pillar is independent. These extraction values or factor loadings have been used to construct pillars. These four sub-pillars are significant with factor loading greater than 0.5 threshold value as cited by Falkenbach, Poythress, Falki, and Manchak (2007). Assets and property are significant with 0.750 factor

loading which contributes 21.52 percent in economic empowerment as shown and 9.60 percent contribute to household empowerment index in Table 5. Livestock has 0.979 factor loading which represents 28.09 percent in economic empowerment and contributed 12.54 percent in household empowerment as shown in Table 5. The third sub-pillar, health within a household has 0.996 factor loading, which contributes 28.58 percent in economic empowerment and contributes 12.75 percent in household empowerment index as shown in Table 5. The last fourth sub-pillar household

accessories' is significant with factor loading 0.760 which represents 21.81 percent of economic empowerment, moreover, this sub-pillar contributes 9.73 percent in household empowerment as shown in Table 5.

Economic Empowerment = 21.58% (Assets and property) + 28.09% (Livestock) + 28.51% (Health within Household) + 21.81% (Household Accessories)

Social Empowerment. Social empowerment comprises four sub-factors based on thirteen indicators. The four sub-pillars of social empowerment are groups and networks, the gender of household head, education and shelter. But these four pillars further consist of thirteen indicators. In this study, the sub-pillar with extraction value greater than 0.5 has been considered as significant. The following section checks its distribution in sub-pillar and its effect on social empowerment. The first sub-pillar, groups and networks are significant with the factor loading 0.592 which represents 20.31 percent of social empowerment, meanwhile, this sub-pillar contributes 7.60 percent in household empowerment index as shown in Table 5. The second sub-pillar, gender of the household head is significant with factor loading 0.98 which represents 33.62 percent contribution in social empowerment and its contribution in household empowerment is 12.58 percent as shown in Table 5.

The third sub-pillar education of the household is significant with factor loading

0.654 which contributes 22.38 percent in social empowerment and it contributes 8.38 percent in household empowerment index as shown in Table 5. The fourth sub-pillar, shelter is significant with factor loading 0.690 which represents 23.67 percent contribution in social empowerment and it represents 8.86 percent contribution in household empowerment index as shown in Table 5.

Social Empowerment = 20.31% (Groups and Networks) + 33.62% (Gender of household head) + 22.40% (Education) + 23.67% (Shelter)

Political Empowerment. The current study used two sub-pillars to measure political empowerment namely, political participation, political action, with sub-pillars further consist of five factors. The first sub-pillar, political participation is significant with factor loading 0.705 which represents 50 percent contribution in political empowerment, however, this sub-pillar contributes 9.05 percent in household empowerment index as shown in Table 5. The second sub-pillar, political action is also significant with the same factor loading 0.705 which also represents 50 percent contribution in political empowerment and its contribution in household empowerment is also 9.05 percent as shown in Table 5.

Political Empowerment = 50% (Political Participation) + 50% (Political action)

Step 3: Measuring the Household Empowerment Index

In the third step, this study calculated household empowerment index. The pillars are calculated by multiplying the factor loading of the sub-pillars to get a summation of these sub-pillars separately for each

pillar. Once pillar was generated then the principal component analysis is applied on these pillars to obtain its factor loading which is further used to establish household empowerment index as shown in Table 6 and Figure 1.

Table 6
Results of the factor analysis at pillar level

Index	Pillar	Factor Loading	Percentage
Household Empowerment (HEMPI)	Economic Empowerment	0.524	29.09
	Social Empowerment	0.637	35.37
	Political Empowerment	0.640	35.54

Source: Calculated from the Household Survey Data (2016)

Household Empowerment Index (HEMPI) = 29.09% (Economic Empowerment) + 35.37% (Social Empowerment) + 35.54% (Political Empowerment)

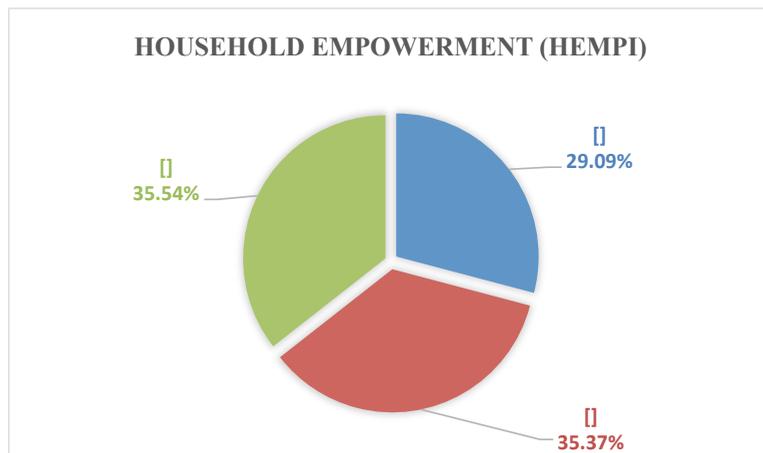


Figure 1. Household empowerment index

While discussing empowerment, Cattaneo and Goodman, (2015), posit that empowerment is about people taking control over their own lives: gaining the ability to do things, to set their own agendas, to change events in a way previously lacking. Kabeer et al. (2011) point out that a useful way of thinking about empowerment is to reflect on its opposite disempowerment. The current study develops an index for the measurement of household empowerment. For the measurement of household empowerment, three pillars are taken namely, economic empowerment, social empowerment and political empowerment of that household. These dimensions are a significant contribution to household empowerment. The factor loading of economic empowerment is 0.524 which represents 29.09 percent contribution in household empowerment index as shown in Table 6 and in Figure 1. The second dimension, social empowerment is a significant contribution to household empowerment with factor loading 0.637 that shows 35.37 percent contribution in household empowerment index. The third pillar, political empowerment is also significant with factor loading 0.640 that contributes 35.54 percent in household empowerment index as shown in Figure 1 and Table 6.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The Household empowerment index (HEMPI) is a pilot exercise to take a quick glance of rural household poverty of the

Southern Punjab, Pakistan. Although, this study is not capable of addressing household poverty problem comprehensively it boosts the debate on household empowerment and its importance in protecting and elevating poverty through improving household empowerment. The article describes the steps followed in the construction of the index of rural household empowerment using three dimensions namely; economic empowerment, social empowerment and political empowerment.

These dimensions are further based on ten sub-pillars namely; education, gender of household head, networks & groups, shelter from social empowerment, assets and property, livestock, the health status of household's head, household accessories from economic empowerment, political participation and political action from political empowerment. These sub-pillars further consist of forty-two indicators namely: Tube well, Farm equipment, Tractor, Land leased, Land owned, Gold / silver / bonds, Buffalo & cow, Sheep & goat, Availability of health care services, Distance of Medical Centre, Serious disease (T.B, hepatitis, etc.), Separate kitchen, Sewing machine. Motorcycle, Car / jeep, Water pump, Air-conditioner, Refrigerator, Television, Personal computer / laptop, Cell phone, Room-cooler, Washing machine, Radio, Membership in formal or informal organizations or associations, ability to get support from those other than family members and relatives in case of hardship, Gender of Head of the Household, Marital Status of the head of

household, Building types (size and type of martial), the availability of electricity, Sanitation system (latrines), Personal house or rented, Size of the house, Access to school, Average education of the household, Distance of School, Education of household head, Registration of vote, vote cast in last election, Political knowledge, Political interest and Political contacts.

The study used primary data collected through the multi-stage cluster sampling from villages of Southern Punjab Pakistan and the sample size consists of twenty-four villages and 600 households are taken as respondents. The Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was used for deriving weights for the policy variables. The index has three stages: in the first stage, the researchers applied the PCA on items of each sub-pillar separately, in the second step, the PCA has been applied on the sub-pillars of each pillar separately and in the third step, again the PCA has been applied on pillars to obtain the value of household empowerment index.

Empirical results show that 29.09 percent household empowerment is represented by the economic empowerment, 35.37 percent household empowerment is represented by social empowerment and 35.54 percent household empowerment is represented by political empowerment of that household. The study concludes that the above-stated variables significantly contributed to household empowerment of rural households which may eradicate poverty incidence. The study may be helpful in formulating effective poverty reduction

policies for rural households by enhancing the household empowerment through improving in education, market access, better and favourable agriculture policies, health facilities as well as their political awareness. In addition the household empowerment index (HEMPI) developed in this study can be used for research whether the household empowerment is affecting another economic indicator significantly or not.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This study is area-specific confined to the rural areas of the Southern Punjab, Pakistan. This study was only quantitative in nature, using a survey instrument to collect data.

REFERENCE

- Abrar-ul-haq, M., Jali, M. R. M., & Islam, G. M. N. (2016a). Empowering rural women in Pakistan: empirical evidence from Southern Punjab. *Quality and Quantity*, 51(4), 1777-1787.
- Abrar-ul-haq, M., Jali, R. M., & Islam, G. N. (2016). Measuring the Socio-economic Empowerment of Rural Households in Pakistan. *Journal of Governance and Development*, 12(1), 107-122.
- Alkire, S., Meinzen-Dick, R., Peterman, A., Quisumbing, A., Seymour, G., & Vaz, A. (2013). The women's empowerment in agriculture index. *World Development*, 52, 71-91.
- Arif, G. M. (2000). Recent rise in poverty and its implications for poor households in Pakistan. *The Pakistan Development Review*, 39(4), 1153-1170.
- Arif, G. M., Nazli, H., Haq, R., & Qureshi, S. K. (2000). Rural non-agriculture employment and poverty in Pakistan. *The Pakistan Development Review*, 39(4), 1089-1110.

- Barabas, J. (2002). Another look at the measurement of political knowledge. *Political Analysis*, 10(2), 209-209.
- Batliwala, S. (2007). Taking the power out of empowerment—an experiential account. *Development in Practice*, 17(4-5), 557-565.
- Bogale, A., Hagedorn, K., & Korf, B. (2005). Determinants of poverty in rural Ethiopia. *Quarterly Journal of International Agriculture*, 44(2), 101-120.
- Bradshaw, T. (2007). Theories of poverty and anti-poverty programs in community development. *Community Development*, 38(1), 7–25.
- Cattaneo, L. B., & Goodman, L. A. (2015). What is empowerment anyway? A model for domestic violence practice, research, and evaluation. *Psychology of Violence*, 5(1), 84-94.
- Chaudhry, I. S., & Rahman, S. (2009). The impact of gender inequality in education on rural poverty in Pakistan: an empirical analysis. *European Journal of Economics, Finance and Administrative Sciences*, 15(1), 174-188.
- Chaudhry, I. S., Malik, S., & ul Hassan, A. (2009). The impact of socioeconomic and demographic variables on poverty. *The Lahore Journal of Economics*, 14(1), 39-68.
- De-Magalhaes, L., & Santaaulalia-Llopis, R. (2015). *The consumption, income, and wealth of the poorest: cross-sectional facts of rural and urban Sub-Saharan Africa for macroeconomists*. Paper presented at The Econometric Society World Congress, Montreal.
- Dolinska, A., & d’Aquino, P. (2016). Farmers as agents in innovation systems. Empowering farmers for innovation through communities of practice. *Agricultural Systems*, 142, 122-130.
- Eyben, R., Kabeer, N., & Cornwall, A. (2008). Conceptualizing empowerment and the implications for pro poor growth. *Institute of Development Studies at the University of Sussex, Brighton*, 12, 1-37.
- Falkenbach, D., Poythress, N., Falki, M., & Manchak, S. (2007). Reliability and validity of two self-report measures of psychopathy. *Assessment*, 14(4), 341-350.
- Fukuda-Parr, S. (2006). The human poverty index: A multidimensional measure. Poverty in focus: What is poverty? *Concepts and Measures*, 2, 1-53.
- Ghalib, A. K., Malki, I., & Imai, K. S. (2015). Microfinance and household poverty reduction: Empirical evidence from rural Pakistan. *Oxford Development Studies*, 43(1), 84-104.
- GP. (2002). *Pakistan human condition report*. Government of Pakistan. Islamabad, Pakistan.
- GP. (2008). *Pakistan economic survey*. Government of Pakistan. Islamabad, Pakistan.
- GP. (2014). *Pakistan economic survey*. Government of Pakistan. Islamabad, Pakistan.
- Houtzager, P. P., & Acharya, A. K. (2011). Associations, active citizenship, and the quality of democracy in Brazil and Mexico. *Theory and Society*, 40(1), 1-36.
- Jolliffe, I. T., & Cadima, J. (2016). Principal component analysis: a review and recent developments. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society A*, 374(2065), 20150202.
- Kabeer, N. (1999). Resources, agency, achievements: Reflections on the measurement of women’s empowerment. *Development and Change*, 30(3), 435-464.

- Kabeer, N., Mahmud, S., & Tasneem, S. (2011). *Does paid work provide a pathway to women's empowerment?* Empirical findings from Bangladesh. Bangladesh: BDI Publiher.
- Khan, A. R., & Bibi, Z. (2011). Women's socio-economic empowerment through participatory approach: a critical assessment. *Pakistan Economic and Social Review*, 49(1), 133-148.
- Khan, R. E. A., Rehman, H., & Abrar-ul-haq, M. (2015). Determinants of rural household poverty: the role of household socioeconomic empowerment. *American-Eurasian Journal of Agricultural and Environmental Science*, 15(1), 93-98.
- Kondal, K. (2014). Women empowerment through self-help groups in Andhra Pradesh, India. *International Research Journal of Social Sciences*, 3(1), 13-16.
- Krejcie, R. V., & Morgan, D. W. (1970). Determining sample size for research activities. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 30(3), 607-610.
- Nazli, H., Whitney, E., & Mahrt, K. (2015). *Poverty trends in Pakistan* (No. UNU-WIDER Research Paper wp2015-136).
- Oyekale, T. (2011). Impact of poverty reduction programs on multidimensional poverty in rural Nigeria. *Journal of Sustainable Development in Africa*, 13(6), 1-11.
- Qureshi, S. K., & Arif, G. M. (2001). Profile of poverty in Pakistan, 1998-99. *Pakistan Institute of Development Economics (PIDE)*, 5, 1-27.
- Rutstein, S. O. (1999). *Wealth versus expenditure: Comparison between the DHS wealth index and household expenditures in four departments of Guatemala*. Calverton, Maryland: ORC Macro.
- Rutstein, S. O. (2008). *The DHS Wealth Index: Approaches for rural and urban areas*. (DHS Working Papers No. 60).
- Rutstein, S. O., Johnson, K., & Measure, O. M. (2004). The DHS wealth index. ORC Macro, *MEASURE DHS*, 6, 1-77.
- Sen, A., & Batliwala, S. (2002). Grassroots movements as transnational actors: Implications for global civil society. *Voluntas: International Journal of Voluntary and Nonprofit Organizations*, 13(4), 393-409.
- Sen, G., & Mukherjee, A. (2014). No empowerment without rights, no rights without politics: Gender-equality, MDGs and the post-2015 development agenda. *Journal of Human Development and Capabilities*, 15(2-3), 188-202.
- Whitney, E., Nazli, H., & Mahrt, K. (2016). Poverty Trends in Pakistan. In C. Arndt & F. Tarp (Eds.), *Measuring poverty and wellbeing in developing countries* (pp. 121-139). United Kingdom, UK: Oxford University Press.



Online-Newspaper Reports of 2015 Nigerian Presidential Election: The Impact of Readers' Comments on Voters

Adelakun, Lateef Adekunle^{1,2}

¹*Department of Mass Communication, Faculty of Social Sciences, National Open University of Nigeria, Jabi, Abuja, Nigeria*

²*Department of Media Studies, Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences, University of Malaya, 50603 UM, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia*

ABSTRACT

This study did a content analysis on readers' comments to online-newspaper reports of the 2015 presidential election in Nigeria. Using two online newspapers as a case study, readers' comments on randomly selected 10 political news stories in the 30 days prior to the election were used as samples. Readers' comments were rated based on their analytical and persuasive content. An opinion survey of 200 voters following the election was also conducted to justify the influence of the comments on voting behaviour of readers. Using gate-keeping and public-agenda in readers' comments as theoretical underpinning, this study found that the direction of more than three-quarter of online readers' comments influenced the voting behaviour for more than 90% of online-newspaper audience. It concluded that the platform could be an avenue not only to boost political campaigns but also to measure public opinion on political issues.

Keywords: Agenda transition, Feedback, Online-newspaper, Political behaviours, Readers' comments

INTRODUCTION

Readers-comments on political issues and its implication on voting behaviours in online

newspaper reports is an area of importance in influencing voting behaviour.

Mobile phones with internet facilities have made reading online newspapers a public enlightenment avenue most especially among literate Nigerian youths. Reading and participating in online newspaper reports according to Brossoie et al. (2012) only requires internet access, a personalized site user name (most often unreal i.e. nick-

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received: 20 October 2016

Accepted: 26 February 2018

E-mail address:

delak058@yahoo.co.uk;

adelakunlateefadekunle@gmail.com (Adelakun, Lateef Adekunle)

name), and agreement to abide by site posting rules. The readers' comment forums broaden the commenters' understanding on news reports as they express their thoughts.

Brossoie et al. (2012) cite (Bentley et al., 2007; Cenite & Zhang, 2010; Goode, 2009; Lee & Jang, 2010) to succinctly describe online-newspapers and readers' relationships as participatory journalism, the concept that has become a household to the researchers and journalism scholars. They submitted that:

The readers posting comments (i.e., posters) are creating news, ideas, and public discussion rather than just consuming information. Their exchange of comments fosters communication that is more provocative than traditional media formats and influences a broader audience about how to think about solutions to community problems especially among persons less inclined to analyze and contemplate issues.

The attention is on the benefits of online comment forums most significantly on its all-encompassing opportunity to increase public awareness, free of media agenda and propaganda; scrape the dictatorial and information monopolistic of the media; and to potentially influence the users' political decisions and participations.

Two main reasons inspired this study. The first is to assess readers' comments on online newspaper reports on political

issues. The second is to verify whether online comments on political news reports, particularly during 2015 polls influenced public voting behaviours. To study this issue the following questions will be examined:

- RQ1: What are readers' comments on 2015 presidential news reports in online newspapers framed?
- RQ2: How do members of the public perceive the feedback advantage (readers' comments) in online-newspapers?
- RQ3: What influence do comments on political reports in online newspapers have on readers' political decision?

LITERATURE REVIEW

Development of Online-Newspaper and the Trends of Readers' Comments

The integration of social media into the world of communication and information sharing has redefined the media audience-relationship. The common social media (such as YouTube, Twitter, and Facebook) are interactive, but they do not conform to journalistic formats and principles and therefore create unstructured responses and comments unlike the user-generated news media that are manned by professional journalists (Holt & Karlsson, 2011). According to Holt and Karlsson, such news media are "*Ohmynews* in Korea, *Newsvine* in the USA, *Janjannews* in Japan and *Newsmill* and *Sourze* in Sweden – who mainly publish articles written by their users – are often presented as enterprises that stem from visions about a better democracy”.

Sahara Reporter focus on Nigeria is one of the user-generated online news media, which activities are likening to *Janjannews* and others.

The idea of the online newspaper germinated as a result of the widespread of internet connectivity and the increase in accessibility and public acceptability. The idea was first experienced in America when *Chicago Tribune*, in partnership with America Online, launched *Chicago Online* in May 1992 (Chung & Yoo, 2008; Singer, 2003). As a result of competitive nature of the media market and the keen interest of the newspaper audience in the online edition, as well as the introduction of World Wide Web (www), which allowed online publication to flourish as emphasized in Peng et al. (1999), some other newspapers not only in America but also across the globe fleet their online versions.

The online newspaper publication alongside other online news sites are recently major concerns of media researchers as the avenues are gaining more momentum. The concerns are not about the assumed elusive future of professional journalism and the traditional media institutions due to the threat that online editions posed to the number of copied published and sold upon which the newspaper houses fret (Fortunati & Sarrica, 2010). Sylvie and Chyi (2007) discuss how the online editions affect the offline newspaper readership in America. They ascribe the effect to two different newspaper markets competing for the same audience, which necessitates that one necessarily needs to give in to the other to

thrive. This might result from what Chyi and Lewis (2009) describe as monopolistic nature of the local media market highly common in different part of the state. On the contrary, local and national newspapers in Nigeria hardly enjoy monopoly of audience market.

Online audience constitute more than the offline newspaper readers partly due to low level of computer literacy among the aged literate. Similarly, the offline newspaper readers constitute more than the online newspaper audience owing to limited economic means to afford a copy daily, compared to online, where different editions could be accessed with no cost. The concern is far beyond losing the market to online edition since according to Obijiofor and Green (2001) and Scheufele and Nisbet (2002), the emergence of radio in 1920s and television in 1950s did not result to the demise of offline newspaper publication as predicted by researches around the periods despite the shift in the market interests.

The concerns are with the management of online editions; the exploration of the interactive advantage for the improvement of the news values; the integration of readers' news judgments and analyses in the newspaper philosophy and its understanding of the society in which it operates; and the modality to monitor and protect the ill-use of the readers' forum.

All these put together is a non-issue when compared to the attention given to the feedback vantage and the opportunity to turn master-servant news dissemination pattern of the mainstream media to horizontal

pattern, where news become discussions rather than information. And the media audiences become active (Schultz, 2000) rather than passive; their comments, in addition to helping sieving news stories, also act as checks on what information news media disseminate (Garman & Folayan, 2004).

The feedback opportunity, which restructure newspaper-readers relationship by turning news stories from one-way directional information to two-way communication model, has been discussed as: Citizen Journalism (Carpenter, 2008, 2010; Goode, 2009); Participatory Journalism or Participatory Media (Domingo et al., 2008; Nguyen, 2006); and Online journalism (Garman & Folayan, 2004; Ihlstrom, 2005; Sanlier & Tag, 2005).

The Fear and Gains of Going Online among Nigerian Newspapers

The fear of losing journalistic values and audience markets has been the major consideration why many Nigerian newspapers initially refused to publish online editions. However, having realised that traditional journalism might lose its authority by unrestricted access and speed in which information is available on internet has led Nigerian newspapers to diversify.

Audience Involvement in Online-newspaper Reports of 2015 Presidential Election

The role of the media in the democratic process and political development at various

capacities substantiate the essence of the media as the fourth estate of the realm (Kaufhold et al., 2010). The involvement of the media in political processes and governance is not only essential for development of politics but also to define the content of political structures and practices in many societies. The kind of media practice in a society is always a perfect reflection of the political structure of the society because a vibrant media suppresses absolute political power.

The mass media had found it difficult to ensure that public interests top the priorities during an election because of the top-down structure of the media-audience relationship (reeked of minimum feedback), which beclouded the media proper understanding of the public interests and reactions. This key aspect of the democratic process (public interests) used to be formally measured by the outcome of electoral polls; all other forms of public reactions to politics or political change and policies are not structured (though may have constitution backing) and as a result regarded informal. The polls were characterised by the media agenda, which are the products of political campaigns and party manifestos with no room for public analyses, filtrations and dissections of the one-way (stage-managed) information that convincingly confused the electorates during the polls.

Many factors significantly differentiate the 2011 electoral poll from the 2015 election in Nigeria. One notable factor and the concern of this study is the structural change in media output composition through

online-newspaper feedback. No sooner the newspapers released online editions (which appear earlier in the day than offline editions) readers began commenting. Interestingly, the comments are not restricted to the context of the online-newspaper stories but also the analyses of the related radio and television news/programmes aired. The readers' comments take many forms:

- a. Various analyses and interpretations of the news stories and related stories from other media reports based on the facts detectable from the story and the perspectives of the analysts;
- b. Arguments and counter arguments for supporting or rejecting the direction(s) of a news stories by refuting, supplementing or confirming the fact cited;
- c. Criticisms of the credibility and authenticity of the news stories (in parts or in whole); the integrity of the sources quoted; the measure of media objectivity displayed; and the deviation from or conformity of the stories with reports on the same issues from other media; and
- d. Media noise, which comes inform of advertisements or promotions posts, raising abuses or curses on fellow commenters in the forum, and other form of irrelevant and condemnable participations.

After studying 583 journalists' perceptions of readers' comments in online American newspapers (Nielsen, 2014, p. 471)

speculates that journalists may have seen the comment forums as avenues for "readers to make contributions, to allow readers to converse with other readers, or as a space to open a conversation between readers and journalists." Schultz (2000) agrees that the interactive media has given the media audience their voice to control and criticise journalism, influence how issues are framed and chase journalists towards standardization of their reports.

Gate-keeping and Agenda-setting Transfer Theoretical Perspectives to Readers' Comments in Online- Newspaper Reports of 2015 Presidential Election

An important demarcation between raw information and news reports is the sieving and severing of information for blemishes which are dregs in the media profession and not consumable by an audience. Journalists see the uncensored and unverified readers' comments, not only on the same page with their reports as a slap on the profession. Such is the reason why Deuze et al. (2007) wrote that "journalists have been generally resistant to interactivity as it challenges their traditions of gatekeeping and conception of professional identity".

Gatekeeping is a measure that ensures the sanctity of the professionalism in journalism and repels all forms of junk journalism practices. It goes beyond newsroom affairs. It entails news or story filtering, selectivity, editing, placing, covering, authenticating and attribution, killing, and many others that dictate the

inclusion or exclusion of a story in a publication. It is also a ceaseless routine that empowers mass media (off-line newspapers) to remain the custodian of information and exert domination on the readers. Comment forums in online-newspapers have striped mass media of the gatekeeping functions as journalists' jurisdiction is limited to their online news reports. Nielsen (2014) argues that the same technology (internet) that allows readers to express their opinions by anonymously posting online comments on newspaper websites without being censored, also robs the journalists of their professional roles not only to decide on what information is good for public consumption but also to refine the information to meet public tastes. It does not cover the readers' comments, which appear on the same page with the news reports and most often appeared having more influence on the audience than the news reports.

Similarly, online media and its tag-along citizen journalism is changing the face of traditional media role in agenda-setting. Discussions on media agenda-setting are now focusing on agenda sharing between producers and consumers of information as the mass media succumbs to audience involvement in news making (Cenite & Zhang, 2010). As a result, arguments on who sets the agenda is becoming non-vital. It appears the gatekeeping function of the media is gradually slipping away from the media to media audience (Adelakun & Adnan, 2016).

Commenters on online news reports are most often instrumental to agenda-setting transfer – from media agenda to public agenda, as the reports are given interpretations from the commenters' perspectives leaving other commenters or readers of the follow-up comments with new perspective to debate on. Adelakun and Adnan (2016) cite studies (Kim et al., 2002; Kiouisis & McCombs, 2004; Moon, 2013) that use Agenda-setting transfer to depict how media agenda translate to what the audience consider as the most important issue. The concept mostly explains how “issue attributes salient in the media were functioning as significant dimensions of issue evaluation among audience member” (Kim et al., 2002, p. 9). Some of the studies emphasised that agenda setting role is no more a monopoly function of the media but rather interchange role between the media and the public. Though the question on ‘where does agenda setting of an issue originate?’ is still debatable, comment forums in online-newspaper substantiate that the media agenda-setting role could be transfer to the audience (readers/commenters), who assumed active role.

MATERIALS AND METHOD

Mixed method was employed to link the structure of the comments to audience voting decision. Content analyses to understand the frequency and structure of the comments and opinion survey to link the voters' perceptions of the comments

to voting decisions. Comments of online newspapers readers on ten major political news stories each from *The Punch* and *The Sun* newspapers was analysed. Each pair of news stories from the two newspapers are on the same news material to ensure that not only the newspapers were given equal treatment on the stories but also readers interests in them. The newspapers were chosen because they allow readers to comment on their news reportage and large online followership (audience).

Three major variables were considered as measures in the analyses:

- a. Number of comments from readers in each newspaper; each comment was counted once. Repetitions of the same comment were not considered in the analyses.
- b. Direction of the comments contents: who or which party is favoured by a comment.
- c. Evaluation of the comments analyses: whether analytical or otherwise. A comment was considered analytical if it analyses key issues in the news story or related issues by raising points, quoting sources, giving fact and figure and establishing justification for its standpoint.

A Pilot test was conducted on 10 per cent of the texts data (1,147 comments on ten news reports of 2015 poll) from the sample

newspapers using four independent coders. Employing Scott's pi intercoder reliability on the three variables to be tested in the readers' comments gives 0.92 mean reliability coefficient within the range of 0.86 to 1.0, which is within the recommended intercoder reliability coefficient value for the liberal index employed (Lombard et al., 2002).

Opinion survey of 200 online-newspaper readers was conducted using self-administered questionnaire as a data gathering instrument on systematic randomly selected sample among certain age and education criteria of online users. Data were elicited on variables concerning the perceptions and influence of online-newspaper readers' comments on the audience political decisions. Both major variables were measured on a five-point Likert scale (From -1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree) with a reliability coefficient of the scale items above $\alpha=0.70$ minimum recommended.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

RQI focuses on how the readers' comments were framed (structured) to influence the readers and co-commenters or to spawn further comments. Two parameters were used to understand the content of the comments – the message direction (percentage distribution) and the message quality (analytical significance) as portrayed in table 1.

Table 1
Structure of readers' comments in term of directions and qualities

Comment Direction/Framing		Comment Quality		Total
		Analytical	Non-analytical	
In favour of Buhari/ APC	Count	189	300	489
	% within Comment Direction	38.65%	61.35%	100.00%
	% of Total	16.48%	26.16%	42.64%
In favour of Jonathan/ PDP	Count	62	179	241
	% within Comment Direction	25.73%	74.27%	100.00%
	% of Total	5.41%	15.61%	21.02%
In favour of other aspirants/parties	Count	5	31	36
	% within Comment Direction	13.89%	86.11%	100.00%
	% of Total	0.43%	2.70%	3.13%
Challenge Media/ Stories credibility	Count	35	31	66
	% within Comment Direction	53.03%	46.97%	100.00%
	% of Total	3.05%	2.70%	5.75%
Noise	Count	8	211	219
	% within Comment Direction	3.65%	96.36%	100.00%
	% of Total	0.69%	18.39%	19.08%
Neutral	Count	34	62	96
	% within Comment Direction	35.42%	64.58%	100.00%
	% of Total	2.96%	5.41%	8.37%
Total	Count	333	814	1147
	% within Comment Direction	29.03%	70.97%	100.00%
	% of Total	29.03%	70.97%	100.00%

Based on the message direction, above two out of every five comments on the selected news stories are favourable to Buhari or his party, APC (42.64% of the total comments) while an approximately one-fifth of the total comments support Jonathan/PDP (21.02%). Accompanied a news report titled "Buhari promises to end terrorism in Nigeria" in the December 22, 2014 edition of Online Punch, for instance, are comments:

***excel** • 2 years ago* "PMB has shown that the boko haram are not invisible. and they are defeatable,

soon enough the final onslaught will be carried on the boko haram and the issue of insurgent will be thing on the past once we elect him"

***favourtalk** • 2 years ago* "PMB will be the good thing that will happen to Nigeria in 2015, we should bless God by electing him, he will really shows d the way in winning the deadly bokoharam that is giving Jonathan nightmare"

***ParallaxSnap** • 2 years ago* "Shai Baba"

Almost equivalent percentage of comments in favour of Jonathan dwells on character assassination, abusive and offensive comments against co-commenters, as well as posting of adverts and other irrelevances. These are considered Noise, and accounted for 19.1% of the aggregate comments. More than eight per cent of total comments did support any candidate or political affiliate but rather constitutes a balanced presentation of arguments while the remaining 5.8% of the comments criticise the credibility and objectivity of the media reports. Based on the quality of the comments approximately 39% supported Buhari/APC were analytical. This proportion beats the quality of the comments in favour of Jonathan/PDP, where about one-quarter (25.73%) of the comments were analytical in content.

The analysis of readers' comment is seemingly justifying the results of the March 2015 presidential election, in which according to the Independent National Electoral Commission (INEC), APC/Buhari has 52.4% of the total vote cast and the major contender, PDP/Jonathan polled 43.7% (www.inecnigeria.org) if compared with the margin ratio in Figure 1. The association between the overwhelming direction of the readers' comments on media reports of presidential election and the actual results of the election signifies the flux in agenda-setting as well as gatekeeping roles. Rather than commenting on the news angles that were mostly emphasised in the reports, online media audience most often deviate by commenting on issues that are not even

discussed in the reports on the news page or platform.

However, the overwhelming number of comments are merely one-word; short-phrase or short-sentence contributions just to support or against the earlier comments or the news story itself. About one-quarter of the comments are analytical – analyse key issues in the news story or related issues and earlier comments by raising cogent points, quoting sources, giving fact and figure and establishing justifications for a standpoint. Approximately one out every twenty comments accused the media of running afoul of one journalistic principle or the other while reporting the news stories. Readers' exuberance for objective and balanced media reports causes comments to be critical in the interest of establishing authenticity. Challenging the gatekeeping role of the media are issues the mass media has to contend with to protect the profession (Lewis, Kaufhold, & Lasorsa, 2010).

Analysis of Opinion Survey

The demography of the respondents shows that there is age distributions bias as the segment that were disenfranchise during the election on the bases of age were not considered as respondents. Respondents within age 18 and 38, which are considered as youth constitutes 70.5% of the 200 respondents sampled while the respondents within (39-59) and (above 59) age bracket constitutes 24% and 5.5% respectively. Respondents education attainment was also considered relevant as it affects online audience ability to read, understand and

comment on the news reported. Only the respondents with minimum of secondary school education were considered. The education distributions of the respondents are: 15.5%, 64% and 20.5% of secondary, tertiary and post-tertiary education levels

respectively. All the respondents claimed that their level of internet/online literacy could afford them to search and read and comment on reports in online newspapers with more than 60% access the newspaper through their mobile phone.

Table 2
Respondents' assessment of readers comments

Perceived Readers' Comments	Level of Agreement* (%)					M	SD	Over all (%)
	1	2	3	4	5			
Interesting	8.0	14.5	13.0	32.0	32.5	3.66	1.29	73.2
Factual	15.0	25.5	9.5	27.0	23.0	3.18	1.42	63.6
Analytical	21.0	22.5	7.5	23.0	26.0	3.10	1.52	62.0
Persuasive	8.5	15.0	17.0	32.5	27.0	3.54	1.27	70.8
Credible	16.0	29.5	13.0	29.5	12.0	2.92	1.31	58.4
Objective	24.0	26.5	11.0	26.0	12.5	2.76	1.39	55.2
Total						3.19	1.37	63.87

*Scale: 1=Strongly Disagree (1-20%), 2=Disagree (21-40%), 3=Slightly Agree (41-60%), 4=Agree (61-80%), 5=Strongly Agree (81-100%)

The survey analysis focuses on audience assessment of the readers' comment on 2015 presidential election online reports as well as the influence such comments had on their political behaviours to answer RQ2 and RQ3 respectively. Out of the six items used to measure how the respondents perceived the comments, there was higher percentage

of agreement among the respondents that the comments are interesting and persuasive. The respondents slightly agreed on the credibility and objectivity of the comments, while their percentage of agreement on how factual and analytical the comments were just a bit higher than its credibility and objectivity qualities.

Table 3
Perceived influence of readers' comments on audience behaviours

Perceived Influence on Audience	Level of Agreement* (%)					M	SD	Over all (%)
	1	2	3	4	5			
Political Interest	3.0	16.5	24.0	32.0	24.5	3.58	1.12	71.6
Political participation	5.0	18.5	20.5	47.0	9.0	3.36	1.04	67.2
Sympathy for Political party	10.0	28.0	25.0	34.0	3.0	2.92	1.07	58.4
Sympathy for Aspirant	3.5	16.5	27.5	32.5	20.0	3.49	1.09	69.8
Voting Decision	11.5	21.5	25.5	34.0	7.5	3.04	1.15	60.8
Total						3.28	1.09	65.56

*Scale: 1=Strongly Disagree (1-20%), 2=Disagree (21-40%), 3=Slightly Agree (41-60%), 4=Agree (61-80%), 5=Strongly Agree (81-100%)

The results also show that respondents did not strongly agree on the comments influence on any of the five measurement items although the comments had much more influence on the political interest of the readers and the co-commenters than other measurement items with 71.6% level of agreement among the respondents (M=3.58, SD=1.12). They also agreed that the comments influenced the readers' sympathy for party aspirants (M=3.49, SD=1.09), readers' political participation (M=3.36, SD=1.04), and readers' voting decisions (M=3.04, SD=1.15). But they slightly agreed that the comments had considerable influence on the readers' sympathy for political parties (M=2.92, SD=1.07).

CONCLUSION

Commenting on the online-newspaper reports by the readers is more of a benefit than a challenge to professionalism status of online journalism in Nigeria like others

across the globe. The anonymity of the commenters (which in many studies is considered a hindrance) can cast doubts on professionalism and intelligence. It should be noted that media audience do not evaluate the professionalism of media reports by the pedigree of the journalists, but rather by the quality of their reportage. The comments serve as a check-and-balance on media excesses.

As the readers' forum in online-newspapers grow, media audiences are finding relief in the analyses of the media agenda and political discussions. This may induce politicians to find high potential in using this medium to actualise their political interests.

REFERENCES

- Adelakun, L. A., & Adnan, H. (2016). *Between Ebola epidemics and Boko-Haram insurgency: Media agenda transition interplay*. Paper presented at the International Conference on Media and Communication, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia.

- Bentley, C., Hamman, B., Littau, J., Meyer, H., Watson, B., & Welsh, B. (2007). Citizen journalism: A case study. In M. Tremayne (Ed.), *Blogging, citizenship and the future of media* (pp. 239-259). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Brossoie, N., Roberto, K. A., & Barrow, K. M. (2012). Making sense of intimate partner violence in Late life: Comments from online news readers. *Gerontologist*, 52(6), 792-801. doi: 10.1093/geront/gns046
- Carpenter, S. (2008). How online citizen journalism publications and online newspapers utilize the objectivity standard and rely on external sources. *Journalism and Mass Communication Quarterly*, 85(3), 531-548.
- Carpenter, S. (2010). A study of content diversity in online citizen journalism and online newspaper articles. *New Media and Society*, 12(7), 1064-1084.
- Cenite, M., & Zhang, Y. (2010). Recommendations for hosting audience comments based on discourse ethics. *Journal of Mass Media Ethics*, 25(4), 293-309.
- Chung, D. S., & Yoo, C. Y. (2008). Audience motivations for using interactive features: Distinguishing use of different types of interactivity on an online newspaper. *Mass Communication and Society*, 11(4), 375-397.
- Chyi, H. I., & Lewis, S. C. (2009). Use of online newspaper sites lags behind print editions. *Newspaper Research Journal*, 30(4), 38-53.
- Deuze, M., Bruns, A., & Neuberger, C. (2007). Preparing for an age of participatory news. *Journalism Practice*, 1(3), 322-338.
- Domingo, D., Quandt, T., Heinonen, A., Paulussen, S., Singer, J. B., & Vujnovic, M. (2008). Participatory journalism practices in the media and beyond: An international comparative study of initiatives in online newspapers. *Journalism Practice*, 2(3), 326-342.
- Fortunati, L., & Sarrica, M. (2010). The future of the press: Insights from the sociotechnical approach. *Information Society*, 26(4), 247-255. doi: 10.1080/01972243.2010.489500
- Garman, A., & Folayan, O. O. (2004). *Interactivity in online journalism: A case study of the interactive nature of Nigeria's online guardian* (Doctoral dissertation), Rhodes University, South Africa.
- Goode, L. (2009). Social news, citizen journalism and democracy. *New Media and Society*, 11(8), 1287-1305.
- Holt, K., & Karlsson, M. (2011). Edited participation comparing editorial influence on traditional and participatory online newspapers in Sweden. *Javnost-the Public*, 18(2), 19-35.
- Ihlström, C. (2005). *The e-newspaper innovation-converging print and online*. Paper presented at the International Workshop on Innovation and Media: Managing changes in Technology, Products and Processes, Stockholm.
- Kaufhold, K., Valenzuela, S., & De Zúñiga, H. G. (2010). Citizen journalism and democracy: How user-generated news use relates to political knowledge and participation. *Journalism and Mass Communication Quarterly*, 87(3-4), 515-529.
- Kim, S. H., Scheufele, D. A., & Shanahan, J. (2002). Think about it this way: Attribute agenda-setting function of the press and the public's evaluation of a local issue. *Journalism and Mass Communication Quarterly*, 79(1), 7-25.
- Kiousis, S., & McCombs, M. (2004). Agenda-Setting effects and attitude strength political figures during the 1996 presidential election. *Communication Research*, 31(1), 36-57.
- Lee, E. J., & Jang, Y. J. (2010). What do others' reactions to news on internet portal sites tell us? Effects of presentation format and readers' need for cognition on reality perception. *Communication Research*, 37(6), 825-846.

- Lewis, S. C., Kaufhold, K., & Lasorsa, D. L. (2010). Thinking about citizen journalism: The philosophical and practical challenges of user-generated content for community newspapers. *Journalism Practice*, 4(2), 163-179.
- Moon, S. J. (2013). Attention, attitude, and behavior: Second-level agenda-setting effects as a mediator of media use and political participation. *Communication Research*, 40(5), 698-719. doi: 10.1177/0093650211423021
- Nguyen, A. (2006). Journalism in the wake of participatory publishing. *Australian Journalism Review*, 28(1), 47-59.
- Nielsen, C. E. (2014). Coproduction or cohabitation: Are anonymous online comments on newspaper websites shaping news content? *New Media and Society*, 16(3), 470-487. doi: 10.1177/1461444813487958
- Obijiofor, L., & Green, K. (2001). New technologies and future of newspapers. *Asia Pacific Media Educator*, 1(11), 87-99.
- Peng, F. Y., Tham, N. I., & Xiaoming, H. (1999). Trends in online newspapers: A look at the US web. *Newspaper Research Journal*, 20(2), 52-63.
- Şanlıer, Ö. İ., & Tag, Ş. (2005). *Interactive features of online newspapers and news portals in Turkey*. Paper presented at the Proceedings of 3rd International Symposium Communication in the Millennium.
- Scheufele, D. A., & Nisbet, M. C. (2002). Being a citizen online new opportunities and dead ends. *The Harvard International Journal of Press/Politics*, 7(3), 55-75.
- Schultz, T. (2000). Mass media and the concept of interactivity: an exploratory study of online forums and reader email. *Media, Culture and Society*, 22(2), 205-221.
- Singer, J. B. (2003). Campaign contributions: Online newspaper coverage of Election 2000. *Journalism and Mass Communication Quarterly*, 80(1), 39-56.
- Sylvie, G., & Chyi, H. I. (2007). One product, two markets: How geography differentiates online newspaper audiences. *Journalism and Mass Communication Quarterly*, 84(3), 562-581.



Women Competence on Home Gardening to Support Food Diversification

Conny Naomi Manoppo^{1*}, Siti Amanah², Pang S Asngari² and Prabowo Tjitropranoto²

¹Indonesian Agency for Agricultural Research and Development, Manado, Jakarta, 12540, Indonesia

²Faculty of Human Ecology IPB, Bogor Agricultural University, Bogor, Indonesia

ABSTRACT

The objective of this study is to analyse competence in home gardening among women in Minahasa and Bitung, North Sulawesi. The respondents were 267 housewives selected out of 803 women participating in home gardening intensification programs. Data was analysed using the Structural Equation Model. Results indicated that the level of competence is high and affected directly by extension and perceptions of home gardening, and indirectly by the environment and group roles.

Keywords: Competence of women, food diversification, home gardening

INTRODUCTION

The demand of food is always on the increase; on the other, there is a declining capacity of resources, especially those supporting food production. In addition, the impact of global climate change as well as land conversion has also threatened the

provision of food. So far the government has been quite successful in ensuring the availability of food for the Indonesian people although very often it is through imports.

A home garden has a great potential to meet the family's food needs and increase family incomes. Nationally, the total area of home gardens is around 10.3 million Ha or 14% of the total agricultural land area. Undoubtedly, home gardens are potential sources to be food providers for various foodstuffs with high nutritional values, and, at the same time, they can be economically profitable (BP2TP, 2011).

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received: 19 October 2016

Accepted: 06 March 2018

E-mail addresses:

conny_manoppo@yahoo.com (Conny Naomi Manoppo)

siti_amanah@apps.ipb.ac.id (Siti Amanah)

pangsasngari@gmail.com (Pang S Asngari)

prabowo26t@gmail.com (Prabowo Tjitropranoto)

*Corresponding author

Indonesian women have great potential to achieve food security at the household level. To achieve household food security, the housewives require competencies on food diversification, which can be achieved through the utilization of the home gardens in a sustainable manner.

Results of 13 case studies by Howard (2006) on home gardens in South America reveals that women are the main managers of home gardens in the region. As the manager of the home garden, they need to have useful knowledge on the needs of the family.

Optimising the utilisation of home gardens in a sustainable manner should be supported with the competence or ability of the owners (women). However, most women still have relatively low competence in managing their home gardens, resulting in the low productivity of their home gardens.

Competence is an integration of knowledge, attitudes, and skills needed someone to do the job (Boyatzis, 1982; Spencer and Spencer, 1993). Competence can be developed through training and practicing the skill. This study aims to analyse the level of competence among women in the utilization of home garden to support food diversification and analyse factors that influence the competence.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Competence is a combination of knowledge, attitudes, and skills that people need in carrying out their work. According to Spencer and Spencer (1993), competence shows the underlying characteristics of behaviours

that describe the motives, personal traits, self-concept, values, knowledge or skills that a superior performer brings into the workplace. According to Boyatzis (1984), competence is the ability and skills that a person has to achieve his or her goal. To meet the standards, the three aspects of competence can be developed through training and development (Sumardjo, 2008). Thus, in the context of home garden management, it can be stated that women's competence in utilising a home garden to support food diversification is a combination of accumulated knowledge, attitudes, and skills in women that make them able to utilise their home gardens well in their effort to meet the family's food needs. This study used the following concepts and theories to achieve its objectives: (1) perception (Asngari, 1984); (2) Competence (Boyatzis (1984), Spencer and Spencer (1993) and Sumardjo (2008), (3) application of technology, group solidity and behavioural change Hare et al. (1962); Kerlinger (2000).

Competence or ability based on knowledge, skill and supported by attitude measured in this research are (1) technical competence, that is woman's knowledge and skills level related to technical norms in managing the home gardens as source of food diversification; (2) managerial competence, the level of knowledge and skills women have in organising and developing existing resources to utilise their home gardens; (3) Social competence, that is woman's knowledge and skills in communicating, interacting, building relationships and networking with others.

Sajogyo (1994); Bachrein et al. (2000); and Elizabeth (2007) found women contributed greatly to agricultural development. Anna (2011) stated that there was a positive impact in every activity involving women's empowerment, especially in social, economy and health. Komalawati et al. (2012) showed women have a dominant role in the planning, management and decision making related to their home gardens. Suhartini (2012), Zainap et al. (2012), Belem (2002), Jannah (2013) and Metalisa et al. (2014) reported that many factors affected women's participation and management of their home garden, such as their age, education, income, motivation, technology and information, extension, socio-culture, home ownership status, agroecosystem condition, time devotion to home garden utilisation, availability of production facilities, group atmosphere, and cosmopolitan-like behaviour.

RESEARCH METHODS

The survey was conducted from March 2015 to December 2015. The study location was purposively selected in two areas in North Sulawesi province, namely Bitung, the urban area, which cover three sub districts - Matuari, Ranowulu and Girian, and Minahasa District, and the rural area which covers 12 sub districts, namely East Tondano, North Tondano, Eris, West Kakas, East Langowan, South Langowan, North Langowan, Kawangkoan, North Kawangkoan, West Kawangkoan, Tombulu and Tompaso. Those locations were selected

by the local government to carry out their food intensification programmes (Acceleration of Food Consumption Diversification Program-P2KP and Sustainability Food House Area Model- MKRPL). This study looked at sample of 267 housewives out of 803 housewives participating in the Slovin formula programme. Respondents were selected using a random sampling method among active housewives in each village.

Data was collected through observations, interviews using valid and reliable questionnaires, observation, as well as in-depth interviews. The following are the variables:

Characteristics of the housewives ($X_{1,1}$ Education, $X_{1,2}$ Non-formal education, $X_{1,3}$ Number of family members, $X_{1,4}$ Household income, $X_{1,5}$ Time allocation on home garden, $X_{1,6}$ Motivation); Accessibility to information ($X_{2,1}$ Information availability, $X_{2,2}$ Information conformity, $X_{2,3}$ Credibility of the informants); Environment ($X_{3,1}$ Acreage of the home gardens, $X_{3,2}$ Availability of production facilities, $X_{3,3}$ Social culture, $X_{3,4}$ Family support); The role of the women's group ($X_{4,1}$ Learning class, $X_{4,2}$ Production unit, $X_{4,3}$ Cooperation); Extension activity ($X_{5,1}$ Material, $X_{5,2}$ Extension method, $X_{5,3}$ The intensity of extension, $X_{5,4}$ Ability extension); Perception ($Y_{1,1}$ Perception of utilisation of the home garden, $Y_{1,2}$ Perception about food diversification, $Y_{1,3}$ Perception about healthy foods) and Competencies of the housewives

on the utilisation of home garden ($Y_{2,1}$ Technical competence, $Y_{2,2}$ Managerial competence, $X_{2,3}$ Social competence).

Reliability test was conducted on 30 respondents. The reliability coefficient was calculated using Alpha Cronbach. The reliability coefficient value obtained is 0.991 which means 90.60% (270 of 298 questions) of the items were valid. The questionnaire is structured as a tool to measure the level of female competence in their home gardens. Data processing and data analysis using descriptive analysis and Structural Equation Model (SEM) were useful in modelling what factors affected women's competence in the utilisation of home gardens to support food diversification. Data was processed using Lisrel. Re-specification model was done by removing non-significant variables with reference to t-value and goodness of fit model.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Women's Socioeconomic Characteristics

Table 1 shows women's socioeconomic characteristics. Most of the women have formal education up to senior high school level. Hardinsyah (2007) stated the level of formal education reflected the person's ability to understand various aspects of knowledge. Galhena et al. (2013) found the level of female education in Sri Lanka determines the level of available opportunities to improve their livelihood

strategies and managerial capability in production. Education is positively correlated with agricultural productivity and household welfare (Yamasaki, 2012).

The frequency of women attending non-formal education is in a low category (1-5 times in the past year) and is significantly different between the two locations. Abdullah (2013) stated that the frequency farmers participates in extension, dealing significantly with competence of seaweed farmers. The average family size is not more than 4. According to Taridala et al. (2010) the size of household is the most important determinant in achievement of household food security.

The average household income of the women is less than IDR. 2.827,5 million per month and considered low. According to McLachlan et al. (Adenkule, 2013), socio-economic conditions play an important role in household food security because it not only depends on food supply, but also on purchasing power. Suryastiri (2008) also stated purchasing power is a prominent factor in determining food consumption variation and balance. This is supported by Weol et al. (2014) who found household income in South Minahasa Regency significantly affected their consumption of meat and eggs. Meanwhile, Baiyegunhi (2015) noted that household income has statistically significant and positive effect on adoption of water harvesting technology (RWHT).

Table 1
Characteristics of women

Characteristics of women	Category	Frequency		Total	U Test
		Minahasa	Bitung		
Education (year)	Low (0-6)	19	18	37	0.162
	Moderate (7-9)	30	17	47	
	High (10-12)	82	78	160	
	Very high (>12)	9	14	23	
Non-formal education	Never (0)	0	1	1	0.001**
	Seldom (1- 5)	132	100	232	
	Often (6 – 10)	8	25	33	
	Very often (11 -16)	0	1	1	
Number of family members (people)	Small (1 – 2)	30	16	46	0.028*
	Middle (3 – 4)	79	72	151	
Income (IDR)	Big (5 – 6)	30	36	66	0.120
	Very big (7 – 8)	1	3	4	
	Low (<2.827.500)	92	71	163	
	Moderate (2.837.501–5.225.000)	41	49	90	
Time allocation on home garden (hours / week)	High (5.225.001 – 7.612.500)	5	6	11	0.219
	Very high (>7.612.501)	2	1	3	
	Less (0.25-5.43)	108	73	181	
	Middling (5.44-10.62)	21	39	60	
Motivation	Often (10.63-15.81)	8	12	20	0.502
	Very often (15.82-21)	3	3	6	
	Low	0	0	0	
	Moderate	1	5	6	
	High	138	119	257	
	Very high	1	3	4	

Note: * = Significant $\alpha = 0.05$ ** = Significant $\alpha = 0.01$

Women allocated 4.67 hours per week on their home gardening. Their motivation is high and it is to ensure the sustainability of home gardening and efforts to increase its productivity.

Accessibility of Information, Environment, Group Roles, Guidance and Perceptions

The availability of information on utilisation of the home gardens and food processing are

in adequate category. Women access related information from field officers of the food intensification programmes, printed matters and electronic media. Information obtained through print and electronic media are in line with their need, but the information from field officers of the programs are inadequate. This finding contrasts with that of Nwankwo et al. (2010) who showed that Nigerian farmers trust the biotechnology information from their extension officers.

The credibility of informants is in low category, as the information provider (programme officers) are not active in providing the needed information. However, they provide guidance on technical matters and programme implementation.

The majority of women have limited land acreage, i.e. less than 120 m² in Bitung and 120 m² - 400 m² in Minahasa. The limited land acreage in Bitung is because their home gardens are in the residential area. The required production inputs are available, but the price is high. Socio-cultural conditions though support home gardening.

Family support in home gardening and food processing are limited, because the husband, as head of family, spends limited time in supporting activities of home gardening. Similarly, children spend their time on school activities. However, all of the family members support the women to participate in extension activities and training. Galhena et al. (2013) stated household members participate in home garden management. When household members are empowered with better skills and knowledge, they are able to reduce crop losses and other negative implications of home gardening.

Women's groups play a role in home garden management. They are mostly social and religious groups and have been established before the implementation of food intensification programmes. Routine weekly group meetings mainly are for

religious purposes and other social activities, and occasionally, they discuss home gardening activity. The women's group is an asset to extension activity in improving the competence of women in home garden management. Baiyegunhi (2015) stated farmers who are members of associations or groups adopt water harvesting technology (RWHT) more efficiently and quickly than the others. Nwankwo et al. (2010) also stated that the information technology derived from the cooperative farmers positively correlated with the farmer's adoption rate of biotechnology.

Women consider extension materials, methods, frequency and capability of extension officers are appropriate with their needs. However, the extension are mostly on production technology. They however, need more information on post harvested technology, marketing product, as well as home gardening management.

Extension methods utilised are field school and demonstration plot on a piece of land which functions as a nursery for the women's group. Other activities such as training on using home garden technology is also conducted in the nursery. Through the demonstration plot approach, the women are expected to change their attitudes to accept the introduced new technology (Tjitropranoto, 2005). Demonstrating the results of specific practices is a strategy to improve awareness of farmers (Leeuwis, 2009). The demonstration advantage, among others, is to attract, retain their attention and

convince farmers (Suprijanto, 2011). The women perceive that the extension methods are appropriate. Field school provides opportunity for the women observe directly the stages of cultivation technique, and gain knowledge to boost productivity of their home gardens. They also suggest visiting other home gardens as learning site for strengthening communication and exchange experiences on home gardening.

Women feel that the frequency of monthly extension meeting is appropriate. They suggest, however, that the extension activity on home gardening will not be limited during the implementation of the programme in order to boost their competence level.

Most of the women consider that extension officers are capable in implementing extension activities, particularly in collecting and processing data of potential area, planning extension programs, preparing and mastering extension materials establishing and using extension media, develop guidance techniques, provide technical guidance, the ability to interact with the community, manage time, and work cooperatively with other officials.

Women's perception of utilisation of the home gardens is high. Home garden

is considered important to support food diversification. All of the home garden products are not only for daily family food consumption; some are sold to increase household income.

Competence of the Women on Home Gardening

Technical competence of women respondents is high, and significantly different between the two locations. They are highly competent in: (1) selecting commodities of home gardens; (2) arranging commodity in home garden for sunlight; (3) processing to food; and (4) meeting the target in terms of food quantity. Technical competence is still low and the areas that need improvements are: (1) maintenance of plants in a sustainable manner; (2) control of plant pests and diseases; (3) the arrangement commodities home garden area for aesthetic looks and land area; and (4) waste management. The low technical competence relates to the level of knowledge on planting medium, seed quality, the ability to produce seeds from the home garden, pests and diseases, environmentally friendly pest control techniques, as well as awareness of the need in processing household waste.

Table 2
Competency level of home gardening

Indicator of Competencies	Category	Frequency		Total	U Test
		M	B		
Technical	Low	0	0	0	0.000**
	Moderate	70	38	108	
	High	70	87	157	
	Very high	0	2	2	
Managerial	Low	0	0	0	0.218
	Moderate	40	22	62	
	High	88	100	188	
	Very high	12	5	17	
Social	Low	0	0	0	0.698
	Moderate	10	5	15	
	High	111	106	217	
	Very high	19	16	35	

Note: * = Significant $\alpha = 0.05$ ** = Significant $\alpha = 0.01$ M = Minahasa, B = Bitung

Managerial competence of the women respondents is high in the arrangement of land uses based on the suitability of soil type and rainfall intensity. The level of managerial competence is in moderate category and needs improvement in: (1) required production input; and (2) crop rotation. These are due to their lack of knowledge of production inputs and crop rotation.

Social competence relates to women's ability to communicate, interact and build relationships with others. Women's social competence is high, but the relationship is still in medium category as it is still limited to the relationships among members of the group.

Factors Affecting the Housewife Competencies in Home Garden Utilisation to Support Food Diversification

The hypothesis of this study was: competency on utilisation of the home gardening is influenced by characteristics of women (X_1), accessibility to information (X_2), the environment (X_3), the role of the group (X_4), extension (X_5), and perception (Y_1). Through the stages of the path analysis, women characteristics (X_1) and accessibility to information (X_2) showed no significant effect on the perception and competence of utilizing home garden. The accepted model is shown in Figure 1 that show competence in utilisation of home gardens is directly

influenced by Extension activity (X_5) and perception on the utilisation of home garden (Y_1) is indirectly affected by environmental factors (X_3) and the role of the women group (X_4) through perception on the utilisation of home garden (Y_1).

Figure 1 shows the availability of production inputs are most influential in determining positive perceptions of women

on utilising their home gardens. This means that the availability of production inputs, both in quantity and price, will facilitate the women in adopting technology in a sustainable utilisation of their home garden as a source of diverse and healthy food for the family. The availability of production inputs is a basic requirement in agricultural development (Mosher, 1987).

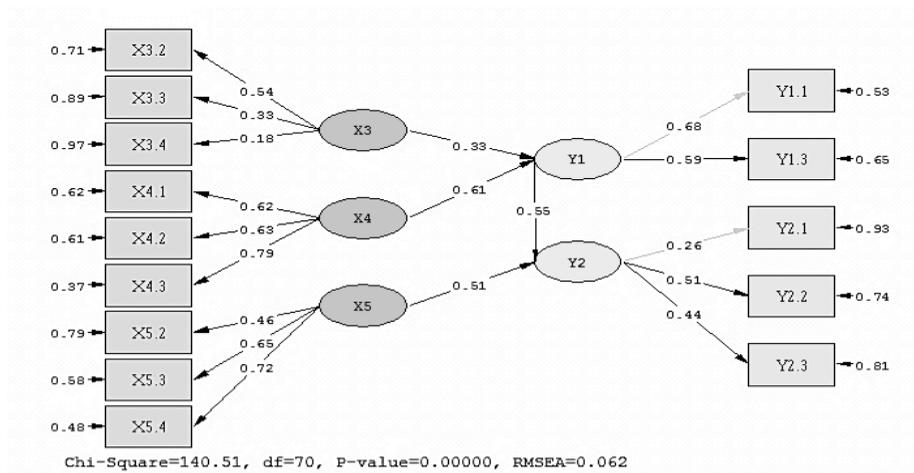


Figure 1. Diagram of competency model of the housewives in the home garden utilisation to support food diversification

Notes:

- X_3 = Environmental
- $X_{3.2}$ = Availability of production facilities
- $X_{3.3}$ = Social culture
- $X_{3.4}$ = Family support
- X_4 = Group roles
- $X_{4.1}$ = Learning class
- $X_{4.2}$ = Unit production
- $X_{4.3}$ = Cooperation
- X_5 = Extension
- $X_{5.2}$ = Extension Method

- $X_{5.3}$ = The intensity of extension
- $X_{5.4}$ = Ability extension
- Y_1 = Perceptions of utilization of the home garden
- $Y_{1.1}$ = Perceptions of the functions and benefits of the home garden
- $Y_{1.3}$ = Perception of healthy foods
- Y_2 = Competence utilisation of the home garden
- $Y_{2.1}$ = Technical competence
- $Y_{2.2}$ = Managerial competence
- $Y_{2.3}$ = Social competence

The social function of home garden is to foster closer relations among the neighbours. Communication among neighbours strengthen the relationship between the women as the owner of the home garden. Any time a neighbour who requires certain food commodity such as lemongrass, basil, lime leaves, turmeric leaves, chili or other commodities that is not available in her home garden, they should be able to obtain them from the neighbouring garden. Khan et al. (Shaheb et al., 2014) stated to strengthen social relationships, harvested vegetables from the home garden should also be distributed to neighbours.

Family support in home gardening for diversification of food could be provided through direct involvement in the activities of utilisation of the home gardening. Each family member has certain tasks on the utilisation home garden. Their direct involvement in home gardening would help the success of utilisation of home gardening and also improve women's competence in home gardening.

The role of women's group indirectly affects utilisation of home garden. Women groups in the study site are social and religious groups. Regular meetings and interaction in the group, and other group activities have positive impact for the members. An exchange of information through interaction during weekly meetings provide positive impact among the members. Baiyegunhi (2015) stated participation in group activities show positive correlation with the use of new technology. He also noted the higher the level of interaction

of members of the community / group, the easier it will be to transfer information and obtain the information needed. The social and religious functions of group improve as farming groups include home garden in their efforts. The group may be a good medium in the dissemination and implementation of activities of food intensification programmes and improving efficiency of home gardening.

Local government support is needed to ensure availability of production inputs such as highly quality seeds of specific location variety, affordable price of production inputs, encourage active involvement of community leaders and village officials in activities of utilization of the home gardens, as well as family support through direct involvement of family members in the activities of utilization of home gardens. The general regression equation of factors that influence the perception of utilisation of home gardening is as follows:

$$\hat{Y}_1 = 0.33 X_3 + 0.61 X_4 \text{ with } R^2 = 63\%$$

Environmental factors (X_3) and the role of a group (X_4) simultaneously have significant effect as much as 63% on the perception of women in utilisation of home gardening; while the other factors that are not included in this research influence the rest. Findings show that not all exogenous variables have significant effect on the competence of women in the utilisation of home garden to support food diversification. Only two variables are significant, namely extension activity (X_5) and respondents' perceptions

of utilization home gardening (Y_1). The regression equation competency model (see Figure 1) can be expressed as follows:

$$Y_2 = 0.55 Y_1 + 0.51 X_5 \quad \text{with } R^2 = 93\%$$

The coefficient of determination (R^2) of the equation model indicates that women perception on the utilisation of home garden and extension account for 93% and the rest are effects of other variables that are not included in the model. Extension has direct influence on competence in home gardening. The extension indicator variables are: methods, intensity, and extension capabilities, which significant affect the competence of women in the utilisation of home gardening. It means that extension activities to support home gardening are needed in order to change women's behaviour and in increasing competence of the women.

Variable of capability extension officers (Figure 1) has the biggest loading factor in determining the extension of the latent variables. This means the key success of extension education is determined by the capability of extension officers. Extension officers as a mediator, should be good communicator and motivator, to encourage women groups to play active role in utilisation their home gardens in a sustainable manner. Amanah (2007) stated the extension is a behavioural transformation approach through non-formal education. Sumardjo (1999) also stated behavioural changes can be achieved through a series of efforts made through non-formal education.

The intensive extension activity, will improve women's competencies to utilise their home garden. The method used is in line with the needs of the extension audiences to ensure the success of the programme. Good extension materials will not be able to change the behaviour of extension audiences if the extension methods used are inappropriate. The competence and performance of agricultural extension officers significantly affect behavioural changes of corn farmers. It can be concluded that the extension activity using extension method suitable with the audiences, supported by the extension officer's competence, as well as sufficient extension intensity are deciding factors to improve the competence of respondents in using home garden to support food diversification.

Perceptions of the housewives on the functions and benefits of the home gardens and the importance of a healthy diet significantly influence their competence. The positive perception of housewives on the functions and benefits of the home garden as a source of food diversity determine intensity in the activities of utilisation home gardens. The proper utilisation of home gardens in planting and maintaining diverse commodities determine the production of home gardens, and continuous utilisation of home gardening will increase the women's competence. Thus, the positive perception of housewives on the function and benefits of home garden as a source of food diversity, as well as the importance of healthy food for the family impact on the housewife's

competencies in utilisation of the home garden.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The level of competence of women in the utilization of home gardening to support food diversification is high. Competence aspects that are still low are: (i) sustainable maintenance of plants; (ii) plant pests and diseases control; (iii) the arrangement commodities of home garden based on aesthetic value and land area; and (iv) waste management. The low technical competence relates to the level of knowledge of the respondents to the maintenance of plants, especially on planting medium, quality seeds, the ability to produce seeds from the home garden, the knowledge of the respondents about the types of pests and diseases, environmentally friendly pest control techniques, ways and purposes of processing household waste is still low, and they do not understand the purpose of identifying the needs of facilities before starting the home gardens business, as well as the plants they plant are the plants they need so they do not need the rotation of crops. Local governments need to support through sustainable extension activities on utilisation of the home gardens.

The improvement of the utilisation of home gardens for women can be done by increasing their perception on the function, the benefit of home garden and the importance of healthy food, as well as extension support. Extension using appropriate methods became a determining

factor in increasing the competence of respondents in using the home garden to support food diversification.

Increasing competence of women in utilising their home garden are affected by environmental factors and the role of community groups. Additionally, production inputs, involvement of community leaders and village officials, family support, women cooperative works as well as improving roles of women's groups in the utilisation of home garden all play a role.

POLICY IMPLICATIONS

The policy recommendations of this study based on its findings are: (1) Human resources strengthen transformation. Women and local community as well as extension workers should be encouraged to change their mindset to innovate by utilising the potential of local resources for creative and sustainable home gardens; (2) Coordination and networking between related sectors on home garden business should be encouraged and the support of central and local governments are important to encourage the implementation of technological innovation model for sustainable home gardens; (3) Institutional empowerment at community level in the area of sustainable utilisation of home gardens; (4) The necessity of developing a village nursery garden managed by women and the community. (5) Active involvement of stakeholders, along with consistent monitoring to encourage technological innovation for sustainable utilisation of home gardens. (6) Village nurseries that

are managed by women and the community should be developed and supported by local government technical institutions. (7) Need substantial action from sub-district and village government, and religious institutions for better utilisation n of home gardens in sub-district offices, village offices, health centres, schools and houses of worship with cultivation of food crops.

The strategy to increase women's competence in the utilisation of a home garden to support food diversification has policy implications for the development of science: (1) Developing relevant curriculum from elementary school up to university, especially on local content aimed at inculcating the love of young generation to planting culture via home gardens as food source; and (2) Encouraging more research and development for efficient ways to process local food-based products that meet the needs of the community.

REFERENCES

- Abdullah, S. (2013). The competence of farmers on farming of seaweed. *Journal Agriplus*, 23(02), 163-170. Retrieved from www.faperta.uho.ac.id/agriplus/fulltext/2013/AGP2302012.pdf
- Adenkule, O. O. (2014). The role of home gardens in household food security in Eastern Cape: A case study of three villages in Nkonkobe Municipality. *Journal of Agricultural Science*, 5(10), 67-76. Retrieved from <http://www.ccsenet.org>
- Amanah, S. (2007). The meaning of extension as behavioral transformation. *Journal of Extension*, 3, 64-67. Retrieved from <http://journal.ipb.ac.id>
- Anna, S. (2011). *Assessment of project needs for Aceh women in agriculture*. Australian Center for International Agricultural Research and Nanggroe Aceh Darussalam's Research Center of Agricultural Technology.
- Ashari, S., & Purwantini, T. B. (2012). Potential and prospects of land use the home gardens to support food security. *Agro Economic Research Forum*, 30, 13-30. Retrieved from <http://pse.litbang.pertanian.go.id>.
- Bachrein, S., Ishaq, I., & Rufaidah, V. W. (2000). Role of women in farming development in West Java (Case Study: Cikelet Sub-district, Garut). *JPPTP Journal*, 3(1), 6-18.
- Baiyegunhi, L. J. S. (2015). Determinants of rainwater harvesting technology (RWHT) adoption for home gardening in Msinga, KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa. *African Journals Online*, 41(1), 33-39. Retrieved from www.ajol.info.
- Belem, W. (2002). *Several factors related to women in the utilization of the home gardens (Case of Konda Sub-district, Kendari Regency, Southeast Sulawesi)*. (Thesis). Postgraduate of IPB. Bogor.
- Boyatzis, R. E. (1982). *The competent manager: a model for effective performance*. Retrieved from <http://books.google.com/books?isbn=047109031X>.
- CADAT. (2011). *General handbook of implementation of M-KRPL*. Center for Assessment and Development of Agricultural Technology, Bogor.
- Elizabeth, R. (2007). *Remittance of working abroad and household's business diversification in rural areas* (Thesis), Graduate School of Bogor Agricultural University, Bogor.
- Galhena, D. H., Freed, R., & Maredia, K. M. (2013). Home gardens: a promising approach to enhance household food security and wellbeing. *Journal of Agriculture and Food Security*, 2(1), 1-13. Retrieved from <http://agricultureandfoodsecurity.biomedcentral.com>

- Hardinsyah. (2007). Review determinant factors diversity food consumption. *Journal of Nutrition and Food*, 2, 55-74.
- Hare, A. P., Borgatta, E. F., & Bales, R. F. (1962). *Small groups: Studies in social interaction*. Oxford, England: Alfred A. Knopf.
- Howard, P. L. (2006). Gender and social dynamics in Swidden and home gardens in Latin America. In B. M. Kumar & P. K. R. Nair (Eds.), *Tropical home gardens: a time-tested example of sustainable agroforestry* (pp. 159-182). Netherlands: Springer.
- Jannah, M. (2013). *Participation of female group members in optimizing home garden activity in Bogor City, West Java Province* (Thesis), Postgraduate Program of Sebelas Maret University Surakarta.
- Kerlinger, N. F. (2002). *Principles of behavioral research*. Yogyakarta: Gadjah Mada University Press.
- Komalawati, Renie, O., Agus, H., & Ahmad, R. (2012). The role of women in utilizing the home gardens to support food security. In *Proceedings of the National Seminar on Optimizing The home gardens*. Semarang, Undip Press.
- Leeuwis, C. (2009). Communication for rural innovation. In B. E. Sumarah (Ed.), *Communication for rural innovation: Rethinking agricultural extension*. Denpasar Bali: Doubleday.
- Manoppo, C. N. (2009). *Factors correlated to participation of woman farmers in Cacao Cultivation in Palolo district of Donggala in Central Sulawesi* (Thesis), Graduate School of Bogor Agricultural University, Bogor.
- Metalisa, R., Amiruddin, S., & Prabowo, T. (2014). Role of women farmers group in sustainable the home gardens land use. *Journal of Extension*, 2, 158-170.
- Mosher, A. T. (1987). Moving and building agriculture. In S. Krisnandhi & B. Samad (Eds.), *Getting agriculture moving*. Jakarta: CV. Yasaguna.
- Nwankwo, U. M., Kurt, J., Peters, K. J., & Bokelmann, W. (2010). Can cooperative membership and participation affect adoption decisions? Dissemination issues for sustainable biotechnology. *The Journal of Agrobiotechnology Management and Economics*, 12, 437-451. Retrieved from <http://www.agbioforum.org>.
- Rosihan, A., & Rahmah, B. N. (2010). Understanding nutrition analysis mother households in food diversification. *Agriculture Social Economic Journal*, 10, 1-10. Retrieved from <http://agrise.ub.ac.id>.
- Sajogyo, P. (1994). *The role of women in economic development*. Jakarta: Obor Foundation.
- Shaheb, M. R., Nazrul, M. I., & Sarker, A. (2014). Improvement of livelihood, food and nutrition security through homestead vegetables and fruit tree production management in Bangladesh. *Journal of Bangladesh Agricultural University*, 12, 377-387. Retrieved from <http://www.banglajol.info>
- Soetomo. (2006). *Community development strategies*. Yogyakarta: Pustaka Pelajar.
- Spencer, M. L., & Spencer, M. S. (1993). *Competence at work: models for superior performance*. New York, USA: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Suhartini. (2012). *Biodiversity in the home gardens as an effort to support food security of turgu hamlet people, Pakem*. The paper presented in the national seminar on research, education and teaching MIPA. Yogyakarta State University.
- Sumardjo. (1999). *Transforming agricultural extension model development towards independence farmers*. Indonesia: Bogor Agricultural University.

- Sumardjo. (2008). *Is the standardization of competence necessary?* The paper presented in seminar on community empowerment. Faculty of Human Ecology IPB.
- Suprijanto, H. (2011). *Adult education from theory to application*. Jakarta: Earth Literacy.
- Suryastiri, N. M. (2008). Staple food consumption diversification based local potential to realize rural household food security in District of Gunung Kidul Semin. *Journal of Development Economics*, 13, 51 - 60. Retrieved from <http://journal.unnes.ac.id>
- Taridala, S. A. A., Harianto, Siregar, H., & Hardinsyah. (2010). Analysis of gender roles in achieving food security farmer households in Konawe South, Southeast Sulawesi Province. *Post Graduate Forum*, 33(4), 263-274. Retrieved from <http://journal.ipb.ac.id>
- Tjitropranoto, P. (2005). The concept of self-understanding, potential / readiness, and the introduction of innovations. *Journal of Extension*, 1, 62-67. Retrieved from <http://journal.ipb.ac.id>
- Weol, E. F., Rorimpandey, B., Lenzun, G. D., & Endoh, E. K. M. (2014). Analysis of the effect of household income consumption of meat and eggs in the District Suluun Tareran South Minahasa regency. *Journal Zooteck*, 34, 37-47. Retrieved from <http://www.ejournal.unsrat.ac.id>
- Yamasaki, C. (2012). Food security: The challenges faced by rural women and the impact of food insecurity on women's personal security. *Journal Human Right Advocates*, 61, 1-15. Retrieved from www.humanrightadvocates.org.
- Zainap, N., Athaillah, M., Yusuf, A., & Zuraida, T. M. (2012). Community participation in the environmental management of home gardens areas in the Kelurahan of North Loktabat, Banjarbaru City. *Enviro Scienteeae*, 8, 146-153.



Enhancing Meaningful Learning of Poems Using Edmodo

Nagaletchimee Annamalai^{1*}, Muhammad Kamarul Kabilan² and Suraswaran Annamalai³

¹*School of Distance Education, Universiti Sains Malaysia, 11800 USM, Penang, Malaysia*

²*School of Educational Studies, Universiti Sains Malaysia, 11800 USM, Penang, Malaysia*

³*Sekolah Kebangsaan Bukit Jana, 34600 Kamunting, Taiping, Perak, Malaysia*

ABSTRACT

The study aimed to survey the acceptance level and the collaboration power of students in using the microblogging site Edmodo to learn poems. The survey was conducted in semi-urban schools in Perak. The study employed the mixed method survey to collect data. In the quantitative method 150 participants were involved in answering the questionnaire. The focus group interview was carried out and the online artifacts were used to support the qualitative data. The quantitative and qualitative data show that the acceptance towards Edmodo and the collaboration among students were positive.

Keywords: Edmodo, collaboration, learning of poems, social networking site

INTRODUCTION

Many scholars and researchers have acknowledged that literature components such as drama, poetry and the short story, contribute to the holistic development of a learner (Horner, 1983; Maley, 2012),

become meaningful resources for language learning (Maley, 1989; Nair et al., 2012) and enrich valuable language learning experiences (Collie & Slater 1990). Rogers (2006) postulated that when learners experience learning literature as an element of enjoyment and intellectual stimulation, they will develop critical reading and thinking skills. Thus, teachers should create a literature classroom that is rich, imaginative and critical in nature.

Learning of poetry, in particular, when approached using the Socratic discussion technique, motivates learners to think critically (Newstreet, 2008). In terms of

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received: 16 August 2017

Accepted: 09 January 2018

E-mail addresses:

naga@usm.my (Nagaletchimee Annamalai)

kabilan@usm.my (Muhammad Kamarul Kabilan)

asuras66@gmail.com (Suraswaran Annamalai)

*Corresponding author

writing, Szabo (2008) postulated that poems and elements of poetry can be used as effective learning tools to encourage “creative writing and reflective thinking about the literacy vocabulary and content information” that are being learnt (p. 23). Writing structured poems also helps learners scaffold as they can be creative in selecting words and phrases that are specifically meaningful to them (Sampson, Rasinski, & Sampson, 2003).

Nevertheless, many teachers do not have the needed experience, pedagogical and content knowledge and skill to teach poetry (Dymoke & Hughes, 2009; Stenberg & Whealy, 2009). As such, learning poems and the elements of poetry becomes unenjoyable, difficult and strenuous for learners. In Malaysia, this emerged (and remained) as critical issues when the literature component was introduced in Malaysian public examinations for the English subject at the secondary school level (Nor Fadzleen, 2012). Learners with low proficiency and limited knowledge struggle to understand some poems as it is difficult to assimilate the ideas and events in the poem with their own experiences. Furthermore, there are limited resources available, while limited time in the classroom means teachers are not able to discuss at length certain ideas and meaning and to attend to the different needs and interests of learners.

Web-based applications are rich with features that may have the potential for helping learners and teachers overcome some of the problems they face. Some of these features include extensive sharing of

materials (such as videos, pictures, links and articles), synchronous and asynchronous discussion and messaging capabilities and networking. Teachers can use resources containing pictures, discussion and questions to provide students with the best methods and techniques during literature lessons. Similarly, students can use the web resources to gather more information and interact in the virtual environment with their peers and teachers. Such features have dramatically altered the way learners (and teachers) communicate, interact, collaborate and engage to maximise learning tasks, as well as become independent, reflective and autonomous learners.

Recent studies have demonstrated how the use of web applications may enhance the teaching of the literature component. Hassan et al. (2012) used the online environment in the teaching of *pantun* (four-line poem in Bahasa Malaysia) and found that students enjoyed using online software to learn *pantun*. Many studies have concluded that exemplary and meaningful use of technology leads to the effectual learning of literature (Barad, 2009; Meskill & Ranglova, 2000) but very little investigate the use of web-based applications for learning poems (with the notable exception of Puziah et al., 2012). In fact, little has been done to investigate studies related to newer applications such as Edmodo in the learning of poems. Edmodo, an academic social networking site (SNS), was created to encourage and facilitate teacher-student communication in an educational sphere that fosters discussion and collaboration in

a safe online learning environment (Stroud, 2010). Therefore, this study was carried out to investigate whether the use of Edmodo would facilitate the effective learning of poems. The research questions for this study were:

1. What is the state of acceptance of Edmodo in the learning of poems?
2. Does the Edmodo site enhance collaboration in the learning of poems?
3. What are the students' experience of using Edmodo to learn poems?

Literature Review (LR) and Theoretical Perspectives

Studies indicate that certain functions and features of SNS and web applications are pedagogically useful and support online interaction, collaboration and autonomous learning. For example, regular use of Twitter leads learners to practise language creatively outside the classroom and to share ideas and feedback and to reflect on their work constructively as a community of practice (Lomicka & Lord, 2011). Also, commenting and giving feedback through blogs and forums motivate students to write critically and improve their writing skills, especially when there is a collaborative blogging experience, where the focus is on producing good quality writing or assignments through thoughtful individualistic writing engagements aided by constructive feedback (Drexler, Dawson, & Ferdig, 2007). Quite similarly, writing in closed groups in Facebook encouraged critical practices related to writing as it provided students

a space for formal academic discussion in which ideas were constructed, deconstructed and re-constructed (Reid, 2011). In short, based on these three examples, it can be concluded that the notion of learners of the 21st century control their own learning via peer-to-peer collaboration, sharing and reconstruction of ideas and dynamicity and flexibility of learning. These are some forms of engagement that are promoted by the many features of the SNS and web applications that facilitate learners to be managers of their own learning, "connecting within rich and dynamic social environments, rather than studying in solitude through impersonal learning management systems designed by administrators" (McLoughlin & Lee, 2007, p. 672).

Nevertheless, studies have also indicated that SNS are not positively correlated with learner engagement. For example, Hamat, Embi and Hassan (2012) reported that SNS such as Facebook is used to interact with lecturers for informal learning and participants prefer to spend more time on social networking sites for socialising rather than for academic purposes. Studies have also shown that learners can be inactive even when collaborative tasks are given in blogs (Farmer, 2006) or when learning is planned in Facebook (McCarthy, 2013). One plausible reason is that these SNS are not designed for teaching and learning purposes but for socialisation, business and entertainment, and therefore, lack the pedagogical strengths and control (McCarthy, 2015) that are very much needed for a structured form of learning.

In addition, there is ongoing debate on whether the uses of social networking sites are safe for educational purposes. Parents and schools have negative views of SNS and demand a safe and reliable online platform that is appropriate for learning aims and that is strictly managed by educators (Sanders, 2012). Online platforms such as Edmodo are considered academic social networking sites that are safe and able to facilitate communication, collaboration and networking among educators and learners (Stroud, 2010).

There are a number of studies that have investigated the use of Edmodo in an educational context. Karyawati (2014) examined the use of Edmodo in the writing process and reported positive as well as negative findings. The study also reported the strengths and weaknesses of Edmodo compared with other social media. In another study, Bright (2013) used Edmodo as a method of communication and discovered it increased parents' satisfaction and students' achievement, mainly due to the dynamics of Edmodo that allow it to be used as a teaching platform to encourage active and responsible learning (Sanders, 2012). Chado's (2013) study indicated that Edmodo is a user-friendly social networking site that allows even a non-techno-savvy teacher to design online classes. Similarly, learners also viewed Edmodo positively and highlighted that they enjoyed writing in an online class. These studies demonstrated the potential of Edmodo for teaching and learning in a non-threatening environment for both teachers and learners.

When social networking sites such as Edmodo are used in an educational context we need to realise that learners' engagements in social media are more self-directed (Drotner, 2008). This means that learners have various ways of presenting and expressing themselves during their learning activities. This is also an indication that social networking sites such as Edmodo represent a serious pedagogical dilemma for teachers. Therefore, understanding and relating to the uses of Edmodo in different settings and contexts will provide more meaningful insight into the different learning experiences across cultures and social and institutional groups. This study differed from previous work related to Edmodo as it investigated if and in what case Edmodo could serve as an extended space for learning poems in the second-language learning context of Malaysia and what were students' learning experiences using Edmodo.

In comprehending Edmodo as a learning space for the learning of poems, it would be more meaningful to explore this nexus from the perspective of community of practice, as according to Wenger et al. (2002), knowledge is deepened and expertise is established when groups of people "share a concern, a set of problems or a passion about a topic" by interacting and engaging with each other and the knowledge/materials "on an ongoing basis" (p. 4). Wenger (1998) called this situated learning, in which communities of practice are initiated and steadily developed (Squire & Johnson, 2000).

At the initial stage of participation in such a community, learners are considered peripheral, and it is believed that they should always take the initiative to interact with experts. As they begin to grasp the knowledge presented and learn more through interaction and engagement with others in the community, they become active participants, but not as active as core group members. After a certain duration of time, active members will become core members i.e. participants who are considered the centre of any community of practice (CoP) (Lave & Wenger, 1991). This core principle of CoP is termed legitimate peripheral participation (LPP). In this process, participants' identity and relationship are not static because any changes in relationships result in enhanced learning, commitment and participation of members (Tsai, 2012). CoP offers students and teachers the opportunity to move from reflection as a private endeavour to reflection as a social practice that will eventually benefit teachers and students.

In this study CoP refers to a group of learners with mutual engagement, joint enterprise and shared repertoire as suggested by Wenger (1998). Similarly, within the Edmodo learning environment, the current study attempted to expose learners to the above learning experiences that the CoP propagates so that they would be able to grasp knowledge and interact in meaningful and active discourse related to understanding poems. The participants in the Edmodo learning environment, as members of CoP, were involved in submitting useful posts and activities related to the learning of poems such as reading, grammar, vocabulary and writing provided by the teacher regularly. The learners were also engaged in online collaboration to share ideas and challenges related to the learning of poems. Also observed was the shared repertoire through links and websites to provide participants with information related to the learning of poems. Figure 1 illustrates the conceptual model of learning poems in a CoP.

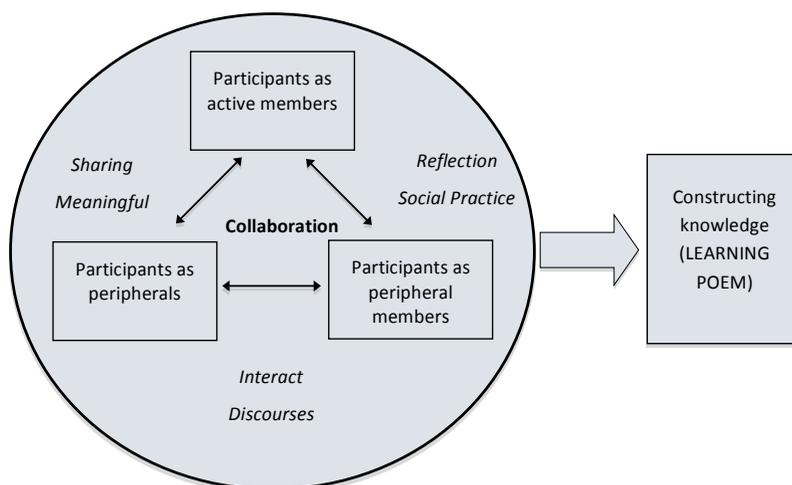


Figure 1. Edmodo as a community of practice in learning poems

This paper studied the experience of Malaysian students who used Edmodo for learning poems. As such, it intended to bring their positive and negative experiences to the fore and to explore the factors that contributed to their online learning and that of the community of practice.

METHOD

Design and Instrument

A mixed method case study was used to gather quantitative and qualitative data. Quantitative case study data were obtained using a questionnaire that was developed based on previous studies by Kabilan and Khan (2010) and Mar and Er (2009) that aimed to understand and examine the use of Edmodo in teaching a literature component. The questionnaire had two main constructs i.e. (i) Demographic and generic items and (ii) Collaboration and learning of the poem that were based on a 4-point Likert Scale (strongly disagree, disagree, agree and strongly agree). There were 10 items in each section. The SPSS statistical analysis data version 2.0 was used to analyse the students' responses in the questionnaire.

As for collecting qualitative data, focus group interview sessions were carried out to determine the participants' experiences and to understand how and why the participants arrived at certain perspectives. The interviews were transcribed and coded and the themes were identified. Miles and Huberman's (1994) three important stages in qualitative data analysis procedures were considered in this study: data reduction, data display and conclusion drawing/

verification. Data reduction refers to the process of discarding irrelevant information. Data display is the good display of data in the form of charts, networks and graphical formats and conclusion is developing conclusions based on the results of the study.

The qualitative data were coded based on Tesch (1990 pp. 142–145):

1. Read the transcription carefully and jot down the ideas as that come to mind.
2. Pick one of the interviews and go through it by asking, "What is this about?"
3. When Step 2 is completed by several participants, make a list of topics.
4. Turn the topics into themes.
5. Reduce the number of themes by grouping similar themes.
6. Finalise abbreviations- alphabetical codes
7. Perform preliminary analysis of material belonging to each theme.
8. If necessary, recode existing data.

Population and Sampling

The participants were 150 Form Four students (average age of 16) from three secondary schools (Schools A, B and C) in the state of Perak, Malaysia. The researcher considered purposive stratified sampling. These students were selected based on their English language achievement in the national public examination in the previous year. For each school, 17 students with Grade A (advanced level), 17 students with Grade B (intermediate level) and 16 students

who obtained Grade C (low level) were identified and selected. The students were made aware of this selection process and agreed to participate in this study. These 150 students were also techno-savvy students and were familiar with the use of Facebook and other web-based applications.

Research Procedure

Step 1: Preparation phase. The researchers chose the materials based on two criteria. The first criterion was the suitability of the materials to the learning objectives listed in the English language syllabus in Form Four. The second criterion was that materials such as worksheets and synopsis that were to be uploaded in Edmodo for learning purposes had to be relevant to the textbook and tested in the national public examination. The researchers visited the three schools and briefed the participants of the aims, objectives and the research procedures so that they would have a better understanding of the study.

Step 2: Training of teachers. The second stage of this study was training of the English teachers' who were involved in the actual study. The teacher participants were invited to implement the study on a voluntary basis. They were experienced teachers and familiar with the expectations of the SPM examination (public examination). Approximately an hour was spent with each teacher. Three teachers were trained individually at their homes. These three teachers had ICT capabilities and were

enthusiastic about learning how to use the Edmodo site as it was something new, innovative and beneficial to their students. The researchers guided the teachers on how to register for use of the application and how to access the information uploaded. The teachers were also provided with a hard-copy manual of Edmodo that provided all the information they needed. The teachers went online and tried out the site. This allowed the researcher to address any problems faced by the teachers immediately.

Step 3: Pilot study and improvement of instruments. Before the actual study, the researchers conducted a pilot study with 30 students from School A to ensure the clarity and appropriateness of the questionnaire and the interview items, especially in terms of getting data that would answer the research questions and thus, address the issues of validity and reliability (Note: The 30 students were not involved in the actual study).

The researchers considered the validity evidence for the questionnaire by reviewing the items using the main principles suggested by Fowler (2002) i.e. 1) clarity in wording; 2) relevance of the items; 3) use of standard English; 4) absence of biased words and phrases; 5) formatting of items and 6) clarity of instructions. Two lecturers from a local university reviewed the instruments based on the above guidelines. The interview questions were also clear and well understood by the teacher and the students. There were no difficult or ambiguous questions.

The questionnaire was further pilot-tested in School A. Thirty students were involved in this pilot study. The Cronbach's Alpha (Gay et al., 2006), which is an internal consistency technique, was used to establish the reliability of the questionnaire, which was 0.7, which according to Hair et al. (2006), indicated that the items were homogeneous and measuring the same constant.

Step 4: Main study. The main study was carried out in the three schools in the months of March to May but not simultaneously as each school had its own schedule, examinations and learning activities that had been planned much earlier than this research. The participants were instructed to go online and explore and engage in

the learning activities in the Edmodo environment after school hours. Before each session, the teacher would brief the participants on the learning activities that were required of them and their tasks to be completed in Edmodo. The following are the learning activities and tasks that they were required to participate and engage in in Edmodo:

1. Read the notes uploaded by the teacher in the Edmodo site.
2. Watch the uploaded video (for the day).
3. Attempt the quizzes.
4. Discuss with friends and teacher.

Some snapshots of the site are highlighted in Table 2.



Figure 2. Snapshot of the Edmodo site

DATA ANALYSIS

A total of 150 students participated in the questionnaire, and the participants

were categorised according to background details, namely gender, race age, form, availability of computer and the Internet service, knowledge of social network and

total hours used on social network sites to learn English. Sixty male (40%) and 90 female (60%) students participated in this research. Table 1 shows the frequency and percentage of hours the students spent on social networking sites based on their response.

Table 1
Number of hours participants use social network sites per week

No of Hours Spent on Social Network Sites	Frequency	Percentage (%)
0 to 3 hours	106	70.7
4 to 6 hours	26	17.3
7 to 9 hours	18	12

Table 2
Mean and standard deviation for acceptance of the Edmodo site

	Mean	Std. Dev
1. I can retrieve easily the information about poems uploaded in Edmodo.	2.88	0.802
2. I can access Edmodo at any place convenient to me to study poems.	2.98	0.806
3. I can access Edmodo at any time convenient to me to study poems.	3.03	0.768
4. I can post questions related to poems to my friends easily using Edmodo.	2.92	0.769
5. I can get online feedback that helps me to know my weaknesses in understanding poems.	2.97	0.768
6. I can understand the poems better by doing the quizzes uploaded in Edmodo.	2.94	0.792
7. I look forward to accessing materials on poems using the visual aids in Edmodo.	2.84	0.777
8. I look forward to accessing materials on poems using the audio aids in Edmodo.	2.92	0.769
9. I like sharing ideas about poems using Edmodo as it helps me to improve my critical thinking.	3.00	0.911
10. I am stimulated to do additional research on topics discussed online.	2.94	0.849

The findings indicated that all the 10 items in this construct seemed to have an overall mean score of 2.94. The highest score was obtained for item 3 (“I can access Edmodo at any time convenient to me to study

Research Question 1

The first research question was: What is the state of acceptance of Edmodo in the learning of poems?

The findings of Construct 2 related to the participants’ acceptance level of the use of the Edmodo site. Under this construct, the participants were administered 10 questions or items. The results of the findings based on the mean score and standard deviation are as shown in Table 2.

poems.”) with a mean score of 3.03. This was followed by item 9 (“I like sharing ideas about poems using Edmodo as it helps me to improve my critical thinking.”), which obtained a mean score of 3.00. The lowest

mean score found in this construct was for item 7 (“I look forward to accessing materials on poems using the visual aids in Edmodo.”), with its score value of 2.84. The percentage score received for the construct

related to acceptance indicated that the Edmodo site provided ease of use for the participants. The details of the percentage scores are as illustrated in Table 3.

Table 3
Percentage scores for acceptance of the Edmodo site

	Agree (%)	Strongly Agree (%)	Total
1. I can retrieve easily the information about poems uploaded in Edmodo.	50.7	21.3	72.0
2. I can access Edmodo at any place convenient to me to study poems.	47.3	27.3	74.6
3. I can access Edmodo at any time convenient to me to study poems.	47.3	28.3	75.6
4. I can post questions related to poems to my friends easily using Edmodo.	48.7	23.3	72
5. I can get online feedback that helps me to know my weaknesses in understanding poems.	51.3	24.7	76
6. I can understand the poems better by doing the quizzes uploaded in Edmodo.	47.3	25.3	72.6
7. I look forward to accessing materials on poems using the visual aids in Edmodo.	51.3	18.7	70
8. I look forward to accessing materials on poems using the audio aids in Edmodo.	48.7	23.3	72
9. I like sharing ideas about poems using Edmodo as it helps me to improve my critical thinking.	44.7	29.3	74
10. I am stimulated to do additional research on topics discussed online.	44.0	26.7	70.7

Based on the results of the findings related to the score for the acceptance construct, it was found that generally all the items had a percentage score of 70.0% or more, with the highest percentage score of 76.0% for item 5 and the lowest percentage at 70.0% for item 7. The second highest percentage score was 75.6 % for item 3 of the construct. Meanwhile, for the percentage score on the “strongly agree” scale, it was found that the highest score, at 29.3%, was for item 9.

Thus, in general, based on the percentage score obtained from the findings of this study, 70% and more of the participants agreed that Edmodo was accepted as a tool for learning for the learning of the poem.

Research Question 2

The second research question was: Does the Edmodo site enhance collaboration in learning of poems?

The analysis carried out on the second construct to identify the power of collaboration in using the Edmodo site showed a slightly lower index from the perspective of mean score, with the overall mean for this construct being 2.646.

Nevertheless, the score it still indicated that the trend was positive and similar to the general question on use of computers in the earlier construct. The details of the findings are shown in Table 4 below.

Table 4
Mean and standard deviation for collaboration on the Edmodo site

	Mean	Std. Dev
1. I use Edmodo to get ideas from my classmates when I am online.	2.58	0.779
2. I feel comfortable exchanging ideas about poems online using Edmodo.	2.65	0.882
3. I feel comfortable sharing ideas about poems online using Edmodo.	2.63	0.772
4. I debate online using the Edmodo with other students from different schools to understand the poems better.	2.38	0.774
5. I am comfortable exchanging information with other students online about poems.	2.59	0.729
6. I ask [my] English teachers for help on poems outside of class time using Edmodo.	2.61	0.882
7. I like seeing other students responding to what I posted on Edmodo about poems.	2.69	0.881
8. I am alert and focused while using Edmodo to learn poems.	2.73	0.756
9. I have learnt in different ways than I do in the classroom using Edmodo.	2.87	0.816
10. I prefer to collaborate to learn poems using Edmodo.	2.73	0.785

The findings of the study indicated that most of the participants preferred the use of the Edmodo site to learn poems compared to learning in the regular classroom setting. This was indicated by the mean score of 2.87. A lower mean was obtained for the

item on the use of Edmodo to debate online. Pertaining to the acquiring of understanding of the poem through debate, the mean score was found to be at 2.38. Nevertheless, this was still proportionately inclined to agreement, as illustrated in Table 4 below:

Table 5
Percentage scores for collaboration on the Edmodo site

	Agree (%)	Strongly Agree (%)	Total
1. I use Edmodo to get ideas from my classmates when I am online.	48.0	9.3	57.3
2. I feel comfortable exchanging ideas about poems online using Edmodo.	54.0	10.7	64.7
3. I feel comfortable sharing ideas about poems online using Edmodo.	53.3	9.3	62.6
4. I debate online using the Edmodo with other students from different schools to understand the poems better.	40.0	5.3	45.3
5. I am comfortable exchanging information with other students online about poems.	48.7	10.0	58.7
6. I ask [my] English teachers for help on poems outside of class time using Edmodo.	44.0	14.7	58.7
7. I like seeing other students responding to what I posted on Edmodo about poems.	47.3	16.7	64.0
8. I am alert and focused while using Edmodo to learn poems.	64.0	9.3	73.3
9. I have learnt in different ways than I do in the classroom using Edmodo.	50.0	20.7	70.7
10. I prefer to collaborate to learn poems using Edmodo.	50.7	14.0	64.7

Based on the findings as illustrated in Table 5, the pattern shows that in general, the participants generally agreed with the use of Edmodo for learning, and the agreement of the participants indicated that the use of Edmodo inculcated and promoted collaboration between the students from the same and different schools. Largely, all the items and the results of the findings were positive, as more than 57.3 % agreed compared with only 45.3% agreeing that the participants use Edmodo as a tool to debate with other students in their school and with participants from other schools.

Apart from that, the participants indicated that they believed that Edmodo actually helped them to attain higher motivation and desire towards learning. This can be seen from the participant response to

the item, “I am alert and focused while using Edmodo to learn poems,” which scored a high percentage of responses at 73.3%. Furthermore, 70.7% agreed positively with the item, “I have learnt in different ways than I do in the classroom using Edmodo.”

Since the percentage score, from the findings, showed that 9 out of 10 items were found to be more than the value 50% in agreement, except for item 4, it can be generalised that the Edmodo site helped and assisted participants in learning and indirectly indicated that the level of collaboration that Edmodo provided was actually high. This also implies that the power of collaboration in the use of the Edmodo site as an online learning tool for the learning of poems is considerably good and a positive attempt.

QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS

The qualitative data analysis refers to the the focus group interview transcript and the artifacts found at the Edmodo site.

Research Question 3

The third research question was: Does the Edmodo site enhance students' learning of poems?

The interview transcripts were categorised by theme, as described in the following section. The themes were enjoyable, interesting, useful and collaboration. The following sub-sections discuss the themes in greater detail.

Enjoyable and Interesting

The participants were generally positive about the use of the Edmodo site to learn the poems. All the participants agreed that they enjoyed the use of Edmodo in learning the poems. The participants' response was supported by feedback such as: "I can see cartoon on the poems," "can chat," "many fun games" and "got video." They also found that the Edmodo site was enjoyable because they "like using computer." Interestingly, one of the students pointed out that it was enjoyable since "it is like the Facebook." The artifacts also indicated that the students enjoyed the Edmodo site. This can be seen in these examples: "[Y]es teacher . . . its fun and I just learned few words with correct spelling" and "Edmodo is much more fun than learning in the classroom." Another positive comment was: "[I]t has beautiful and attractive homepage . . . interesting to

learn." One of the participants was excited as the experience was "interesting because I can meet different people from other schools "Can gave idea. Get idea." Similar excerpts were also found in the artifact, such as, "quiz is interesting" and "is interesting I enjoy answering the quizzes."

Useful

Participants reported that they were actively engaged in the Edmodo site as it was useful. The participants acknowledged that the quizzes helped them to understand the poem better. One of the participants highlighted that there were "a lot of questions and if get wrong it shows the answer." Another student reported "that quizzes are useful." Students also found that they were able to find the meaning of difficult words; for example, they found that "words got meaning for each stanza." Another student highlighted that the notes were "very clear we can refer many time." Students expressed that the Edmodo site was useful as it helped them to improve their English. The participants' comments on this aspect were: "improve my English, grammar", "nowadays my English is better," "can study in English," "I know the meaning of the words" and "my English are better." The artifacts further reinforced the idea that the participants found Edmodo to be useful; for example, the teacher stated, "I am glad to know it is of help especially with your spelling."

One of the students explained that the Edmodo site was useful as the students were able to redo the questions. The participants were also able to communicate at any time.

In other words, there were no restrictions in terms of time taken to learn the poem or to work on the quizzes. This is evident from the following remarks from some of the participants: “can do revision,” “Can go anytime” and “if busy can go later.” Another students responded, “I am able to do exercise online and get my answers checked without having to buy books.” The participants also found that they were able to “discuss with friends and teachers after school.” More comments related to usefulness are “Edmodo has helped . . . because explanation on the website is simple,” “It is a great help for my SPM”, “cut down the time of learning poems” and “can get ideas from other schools.” They pointed out that engaging at the Edmodo site was “not same like the class” and “different from the classroom . . . cheerful environment.”

Collaboration

Another interesting point in this study was that the participants preferred the collaborative learning environment provided by Edmodo as, they responded, by collaborating they were able to “see many points” and “friend can explain.” They were comfortable interacting with their friends and were able to generate more information on the poem. The following comments from the interview illustrated their optimistic experiences: “we can learn what our mistake . . . with our discussion team from other school” and “can get more ideas from other schools.” The participants importantly stressed that “it is good, because

can communicate with teachers and friends about literature English.” Despite the favourable results discussed above, the participants highlighted that they were not able to actively participate in the Edmodo site because they were busy with school work and “don’t like when friends comment . . . bad comments.” Another negative comment was related to the difficulty in interacting at the same time because, for example, “Some of them no time to go online or go online at different time.” However, the participants responded positively when they were asked whether they would agree to the use of the Edmodo site being continued in the teaching of poems. Some positive comments from the participants were, “I believe I can score good results in examinations if Edmodo is continued in teaching process” and “it helps me to prepare for my exam.”

DISCUSSION

The quantitative data collected through the survey on three constructs namely, general perception on technology, acceptance and collaboration reflected positively. The overall mean score of all three constructs was found to be at 2.908; this indicated the level of agreement. The results of the quantitative findings can be summed up as that the participants generally accepted the use of Edmodo in learning poems. The finding is consistent with the view of Bright (2013), Chado (2013) and Sanders (2012), who stated that Edmodo is a reliable and effective platform for learning. Furthermore, the Edmodo site also enhances the power of collaboration among the participants. Such

findings also lend support to the principle of the community of practice (CoP) suggested by Lave and Wenger (1991) that interaction, commitment and collaboration among participants will expose students to positive learning experiences. The participants as members of CoP in this study collaborated on the Edmodo platform. The findings also echoed Sanders (2012), Motteram and Sharma (2008) and Alexander (2008), who stated that social networking sites can be manipulated easily without difficulty.

This quantitative finding positively supports the premise that Edmodo has a significantly positive impact on participants and encourages the learning of poems and of the English language in general. The qualitative findings further strengthened the idea that the Edmodo site is a valuable site for the learning of poems. The qualitative data highlighted themes that were related to enjoyment, usefulness and collaboration. A number of participants highlighted certain difficulties but these can be avoided with more effective pedagogical practices. Therefore, it can be concluded that the qualitative analysis supported the quantitative analysis. Additionally, some of the examples from the artifacts also make clear that the students' experience of the use of Edmodo in learning poems was positive.

CONCLUSION

The findings of this study revealed that the use of Edmodo to learn poems by secondary school students in Perak, Malaysia was positive and meaningful. The study illustrated that the Edmodo site is a current

environment that can make a difference in the learning of texts in the literature component of the English Language subject taught in secondary schools in Malaysia. However, it needs to be stressed that the use of Edmodo in the Malaysian educational context is at the early stage. It can be concluded that extensive studies related to Edmodo should be carried out to confirm the acceptance and the students' experience of the Edmodo site that were found in this study. Future research should also focus on the use of Edmodo to teach subjects like Mathematics, Science and Bahasa Malaysia.

REFERENCES

- Barad, D. P. (2009). Experimenting ICT in teaching English language and literature. *Asia Call Online Journal*, 4(1), 47–57.
- Collie, J., & Slater, S. (1990). *Literature in the language classroom: A resource book of ideas and activities*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Drexler, W., Dawson, K., & Ferdig, R. E. (2007). Collaborative blogging as a means to develop elementary expository writing skills. *Electronic Journal for the Integration of Technology in Education*, 6, 140–160.
- Dymoke, S., & Hughes, J. (2009). Using a poetry Wiki: How can the medium support pre-service teachers of English in their professional learning about writing poetry and teaching poetry writing in a digital age? *English Teaching: Practice and Critique*, 8(3), 91–106.
- Fadzleen, N. (2012). Utilizing Web 2.0 technologies in teaching the KBSM English literature component via MY LIT PROJECT. In M. K. Kabilan, K. T. Wei, & H. P. Widodo (Eds.), *ICT and ELT research practices in South East Asia* (pp. 92–110). Universiti Sains Malaysia, Penang.

- Fowler Jr, F. J. (2013). *Survey research methods*. United States of America, USA: Sage Publications.
- Gao, F. (2009). A case study of using social annotation to support collaborative learning. *Internet and Higher Education*, 17, 76–83.
- Gay, L. R., Mills, G. E., & Airasian, P. (2006). *Educational research: Competencies for analysis and applications*. New Jersey: Pearson Merrill Prentice Hall.
- Hamat, A., Embi, M. A., & Hassan, H. A. (2012). The use of social networking sites among Malaysian university students. *International Education Studies*, 5(3), 56–66.
- Hassan, P. M., Mat, N. H. C., & Ali, N. S. (2012). Using pantuns in greetings as a tool to promote learners' use of metacognitive strategies in online ESL learning. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 67, 500–512.
- Horner, S. (1983). *Best laid plans: English teachers at work for school council*. New York, NY: Longman.
- Johnson, C. M. (2001). A survey of current research on online communities of practice. *The Internet and Higher Education*, 4(1), 45–60.
- Kabilan, M. K., & Khan, M. A. (2012). Assessing pre-service English language teachers' learning using e-portfolios: Benefits, challenges and competencies gained. *Computers and Education*, 58(4), 1007–1020.
- Karyawati, A. (2014). *A descriptive study on the use of Edmodo website for English teaching and learning process in Salatiga State Institute for Islamic studies* (Unpublished Thesis), Salatiga: Salatiga State Institute for Islamic Studies.
- Lave, J., & Wenger, E. (1991). *Situated learning: Legitimate peripheral participation*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Lomicka, L., & Lord, G. (2012). A tale of tweets: Analyzing microblogging among language learners. *System*, 40(1), 48–63.
- Maley, A. (1989). Down from the pedestal: Literature as resource. In *Literature and the learner: Methodological approaches*. *ELT Documents 130*. London: Macmillan.
- McCarthy, J. (2013). Learning in Facebook: First year tertiary student reflections from 2008 to 2011. *Australasian Journal of Educational Technology*, 29(3), 337–356.
- McLoughlin, C., & Lee, M. J. (2007). Social software and participatory learning: Pedagogical choices with technology affordances in the Web 2.0 era. In *ICT: Providing Choices for Learners and Learning*. *Proceedings of ASCILITE* (pp. 664–675). Singapore.
- Meskill, C., & Ranglova, K. (2000). Socio collaborative language learning in Bulgaria. *Network-based language teaching: Concepts and practice* (pp. 20–40). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis: An expanded sourcebook*. United States of America, USA: Sage Publications.
- Nair, G. K. S., Setia, R., Ghazali, S. N., Sabapathy, E., Mohamad, R., Ali, M. M., & Hassan, N. S. I. C. (2012). Can literature improve English proficiency: The students' perspective. *Asian Social Science*, 8(12), 21–27.
- Newstreet, C. (2008). Paul Revere rides through high school government class: Teacher research and the power of discussion to motivate thinking. *The Social Studies*, 99(1), 9–12.
- Reid, J. (2011). "We don't Twitter, we Facebook": An alternative pedagogical space that enables critical practices in relation to writing. *English Teaching*, 10(1), 58–80.

- Rogers, T. (2006). Imaginative and critical presence in the teaching of young adult literature. In T. W. Keong (Ed.), *Engaging young adult readers through young adult literature* (pp. 47–64). Petaling Jaya, Malaysia: Sasbadi.
- Sampson, M., Rasinski, T., & Sampson, M. (2003). *Total literacy: Reading, writing and learning* (3rd ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing.
- Sanders, K. S. S. (2012). *An examination of the academic networking site Edmodo on student engagement and responsible learning* (Doctoral dissertation), University of South Carolina, South Carolina.
- Stenberg, S., & Whealy, D. (2009). Chaos is the poetry: From outcomes to inquiry in service-learning pedagogy. *College Composition and Communication*, 60(4), 683–706.
- Stroud, C. (2010). *Edmodo: A white paper*. Connecting Technology and Curriculum, Wintrop University, South Carolina.
- Szabo, S. (2008). Patterned poetry writing helps preservice teachers summarize content learning. *Delta Kappa Gamma Bulletin*, 75(1), 23–26.
- Tesch, R. (1990). *Qualitative research: Analysis types and software tools*. London: Falmer.
- Tsai, P. S., & Tsai, C. C. (2013). College students' experience of online argumentation: Conceptions, approaches and the condition of using question prompts. *Internet and Higher Education*, 17, 38–47.
- Wenger, E. (1998). Communities of practice: Learning, meaning, and identity. *Journal of Mathematics Teacher Education*, 6(2), 185-194.
- Wenger, E., McDermott, R. A., & Snyder, W. (2002). *Cultivating communities of practice: A guide to managing knowledge*. United of States America, USA: Harvard Business Press.



Homi K. Bhabha's Concept of Ambivalence in J. M. Coetzee's *Disgrace*

Alireza Farahbakhsh* and Rezvaneh Ranjbar Sheykhani

Department of English Language and Literature, Faculty of Humanities, University of Guilan, Rasht, Iran

ABSTRACT

The purpose of the present article is to explore Homi Bhabha's notion of ambivalence in J. M. Coetzee's *Disgrace*, one of Coetzee's most popular works. The main concern of the article is to demonstrate how colonial authority is evidenced in Coetzee's *Disgrace*. After giving a general summary of Bhabha's postcolonial ideas and a brief synopsis of *Disgrace*, the researchers analyse the main character's conduct and relationships with other characters in terms of Bhabha's concept of ambivalence. The article shows that ambivalence destabilises the discourse of colonial authority and discloses the uncertainties and anxieties within colonial powers. It reveals that not only does Coetzee show traces of the coloniser's authority and white supremacy through David's demeanour and his relationship with non-white people, he also emphasises David's anxiety and uncertainty.

Keywords: Discourse of colonial authority, conduct, relationships, white supremacy, ambivalence, anxiety

INTRODUCTION

Homi Bhabha, one of the leading voices in postcolonial studies, focusses mainly on the culture emerging from interaction between the coloniser and the colonised.

According to Hernandez (2010), the term ambivalence "underpins Bhabha's critique of colonial discourse" (p. 39). The key concept discussed in the present paper is ambivalence. The paper provides the reader with significant details about ambivalence towards colonial authority and the coloniser's identity crisis. The present research aimed to do a postcolonial reading of J. M. Coetzee's *Disgrace* using Bhabha's most significant ideas on postcolonialism, including ambivalence. The central questions, therefore, were: Is Bhabha's

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received: 26 March 2017

Accepted: 27 November 2017

E-mail addresses:

farahbakhsh2000@yahoo.com (Alireza Farahbakhsh)

rezvaneh_ranjbar@yahoo.com (Rezvaneh Ranjbar Sheykhani)

*Corresponding author

concept of ambivalence traceable in J. M. Coetzee's *Disgrace*? Can the manifestation of colonial authority be evidenced in J. M. Coetzee's *Disgrace*? The researchers did an observation and interpretation of Coetzee's *Disgrace* with regard to Bhabha's perception of ambivalence. This method was chosen as it regards the text as the subject matter of the discussion. This research is the first to focus on Bhabha's notion of ambivalence in Coetzee's *Disgrace*. The paper starts with a review of Bhabha's concept of ambivalence and a summary of *Disgrace* and then examines the major character's conduct, relationships and interaction with others in terms of Bhabha's notion of ambivalence.

The Discussion section contains two main sections. The first section probes the main character's conduct and relationships with other characters in the novel in order to discover elements of colonial power. David's relationship with women and his treatment of dark-skinned people are explored in terms of the concept of white supremacy. The second section attempts to indicate ambivalence towards colonial authority in the novel. David's encounter with the colonised and with country life and his relationship with his daughter, Lucy, are explained with reference to the notion of the unhomely.

DISCUSSION

In this section, first the sense of superiority and white supremacy are examined in David's relationships with non-white people. Then, David's identity crisis and his interaction with other characters are

investigated in terms of the notion of ambivalence. Before moving on to the analysis, the researchers review Bhabha's ideas and present a summary of *Disgrace*.

Bhabha's works draw attention to issues of culture and identity. In *The Location of Culture*, Bhabha (1994) wrote about the ambivalent nature of colonial discourse. According to Bhabha (1994), "The objective of 'colonial discourse' is to construe the colonized as a population of degenerate types on the basis of racial origin, in order to justify conquest and to establish systems of administration and instruction" (p. 70). However, he considers ambivalence as a positive trope for expressing the "necessary deformation and displacement of all sites of discrimination and domination" (p. 112). In this regard, Hernandez (2010) asserted that for Bhabha, colonial discourse is characterised by an inherent contradiction, an ambivalence that occurs in the process of constructing authority through the representation of colonised subjects (p. 43). To shed light on this point, Huddart (2006) wrote that for Bhabha,

the colonizer rules the colonized due to innate superiority. However . . . there is a simultaneous anxiety built into the operations of colonial knowledge . . . authority recognizes its basis in stereotypes, producing prejudiced and discriminatory structures of governance that work on the basis of forms of stereotyping knowledge . . . but at the same time that anxiety troubles the source of colonial authority. (p. 37)

By stereotype, Bhabha meant that colonial discourse presumes that the culture and identity of both the coloniser and the colonised are always and already fixed as unchangeable. However, Bhabha believed that the encounter between the coloniser and the colonised depicts a hybrid space which “is itself the productive and aesthetic space of a new cultural formation and consists of all the doubts, split selves, and ambivalences that constitute the colonial encounter itself” (Krishna, 2009, p. 95). Bhabha (1994) stated that “the colonial presence is always ambivalent, split between its appearance as original and authoritative and its articulation as repetition and difference” (p. 107). Two aspects are exposed in relation to Bhabha's notion of ambivalence: the uncanny and the unhomely. For Bhabha, the unhomely is used interchangeably with the uncanny. In Bhabha's view, “all the hesitations, uncertainties, and ambivalences with which colonial authority and its figures are imbued are characterized in terms of the uncanny” (Huddart, 2006, p. 54). Generally speaking, the authority of colonial discourse is undermined by the menace of ambivalence.

Set in post-apartheid South Africa, *Disgrace* narrates the story of David Lurie, a white, 52-year-old professor teaching Romantic Poetry at a technical university in Cape Town. He is twice-divorced and has a daughter named Lucy, who prefers to live in the country as a farmer. His position at the university is reduced to a communications professor. David visits a prostitute named Soraya once a week, but

their relationship ends when David spots her with her children. He does not feel passion for anything in his life until he notices Melanie Isaacs, a student in his Romantic Poetry course. David sees Melanie in the university campus and invites her over to his house for dinner. He begins an affair with Melanie. Their affair is revealed to the university, when Melanie and his father file a complaint against David with the university. An academic committee is assembled to pass judgement on his actions. Deprived of all benefits, he goes to the country to live with his daughter, Lucy, on her farm in the Eastern Cape.

In the Eastern Cape, Lucy turns to rural life. David begins a new life there, assisting Lucy at the market. Then one day, everything changes. David and Lucy are attacked by three black strangers. The men take Lucy into the house and lock the door behind them. The men gang-rape and impregnate Lucy. When David comes to, he finds himself locked in the lavatory and wonders what has happened to Lucy. During the assault, Petrus (Lucy's assistant) is nowhere to be found. David believes Petrus deliberately left the house unprotected so that it could be robbed. When Petrus invites Lucy and David to his party to celebrate his transfer of land, Lucy encounters one of her attackers, named Pollux. Pollux is Petrus' brother-in-law. Lucy becomes depressed after the attack. David is enraged since the rapists are not arrested and Lucy dreads that they may return. He offers to send her to Holland, where her mother lives. But Lucy is determined to stay in Salem. David returns

to Cape Town. Returning home to his house in Cape Town, he finds it destroyed. Then, he goes back to the Eastern Cape.

This section is concerned with the issue of authority. In order to elucidate further the implications of David's conduct, first a few points about the term 'white supremacy' are presented. Then, David's sexual relationships with non-white women (Soraya and Melanie) are evaluated respectively in terms of the notions of the coloniser's sense of superiority and white supremacy. Finally, David's treatment of black people is examined in terms of the concepts of the stereotype and white supremacy.

Disgrace takes place in modern South Africa, just five years after the end of apartheid. It seems that apartheid still has an important impact on the lives and experiences of South African people. Apartheid was established in 1948, and with it, blacks lost all rights and freedom in the country. According to Mallaby (1992), "the majority of whites . . . know blacks as servants or office colleagues, but rarely as friends" (p. 72). Needless to say, South Africa is a multicultural society. The construct of race is founded on the notion that white people are superior and coloured people, especially black people, are inferior. Such 'inferior' groups are menaced and governed by the superior ones. This construction of white people as superior over coloured people is known as 'white supremacy'. In the words of Fredrickson (1981), "white supremacy refers to the attitudes, ideologies, and policies associated with the rise of blatant

forms of white or European dominance over 'nonwhite' populations" (p. xi). It makes sense, then, that David's demeanour and his sense of superiority are rooted in apartheid beliefs, particularly white supremacy.

David's sense of superiority over others can be seen in his relationship with women. At the outset of the novel, the narrator tells us that David thinks he "solved the problem of sex rather well" (Coetzee, 1999, p. 1) by meeting a black Muslim prostitute named Soraya for 90 minutes a week. During their meetings he speaks to Soraya with "a certain freedom" (Coetzee, 1999, p. 3). As Marais (2006) has noted, David "reduces women to the status of objects with which to gratify his desires . . . he conceives of himself as an individual who is free to realize his every desire even if this means violating the rights of other individuals" (p. 76). Considering Soraya's life outside of Windsor Mansion, David becomes aware that Soraya has left the agency. However, instead of closing the chapter, David pays a detective agency to track her down outside their arranged sexual contract. This may be due to his innate sense of superiority rather than due to love: "In the field of sex his temperament, though intense, has never been passionate" (Coetzee, 1999, p. 2). In this respect, Cooper (2005) claimed that Soraya "ceases to be an essence of feminine desirability, the almost-anonymous guarantor of Lurie's poised, protected world" (p. 24). In his article, Herron (2005) has related David's acts to the animal kingdom. Herron writes: "David is in fact rather fond of describing himself and, more pointedly, his relationships with women, in

terms drawn from the animal kingdom" (p. 476). For instance, from the standpoint of David, his affair with Soraya resembles "the copulation of snakes" (Coetzee, 1999, p. 2).

Evidence of sexual harassment and David's sense of domination over non-whites can also be depicted in his relationship with Melanie. It seems that for David having an affair with the colonised women can be seen as a sign of superiority and an assertion of power. David, connecting the idea of superiority with sexuality, shows his patriarchal views over the subaltern. Therefore, it is not astonishing that when he ends his relationship with Soraya, he goes a step further and has another sexual relationship with his student, Melanie Isaacs: "His sentiments are, he is aware, complacent" (Coetzee, 1999, p. 2). There is no clear indication about Melanie's ethnicity. But Melanie seems to be colored since David defines Melanie's name as "the dark one" (Coetzee, 1999, p. 18), adding a stereotype to his relationship with her. According to Poyner (2009), "this renaming, though unspoken, establishes a historical loop whereby the past is brought to bear on the present by alluding to the obsessive categorisation of race under apartheid" (p. 149). Similarly, Graham (2003) argued that the setting of the private injustice towards Melanie signals injustice done on a larger scale. The unjust treatment of Melanie by David is a reflection of power in relation to sex, but also within the white establishment during the apartheid period. Coetzee demonstrates very obviously that during the disciplinary hearing Farodia

Rassol (a member of the university committee) comments on David's refusal to acknowledge the long history of exploitation of which [his treatment of Melanie] is a part. Rassooll's comments seem to point to the sexual abuse of black women throughout history (pp. 437–438).

While inviting Melanie to his house for supper and attempting to persuade her to spend the night with him, David asserts, with a sense of power that "a woman's beauty does not belong to her alone. It is part of the bounty she brings into the world. She has a duty to share it" (Coetzee, 1999, p. 16). By this way of thinking, he claims his supremacy over black people, especially black women. However, David nonchalantly attributes his actions to an uncontrollable sexual impulse, which he claims belies mere explanation. The unaccountable rationale for his conduct seems to contain a concerted effort to deny any wrongdoing. Seemingly, the source of his impulse may be his sense of domination. In Cooper's view (2005), David's relationship with Melanie is an attempt to retrieve sexual privilege and to stress the patriarchal procedure of the European culture in which sexual privilege, like David himself seeks and exercises, is embedded (p. 25). Likewise, Tark (2009) claimed that David's "position on the objectified status of women is a direct result of his misogynist and racist South African education, conditioning him to dehumanize women of color into objects of sexual desire and punishment" (p. 206).

Another aspect of David's sense of superiority can be found in his treatment of

dark-skinned people and his attitude toward them. It seems that David compares the racial superiority of whites in South Africa with the treatment of dogs on Lucy's farm. This is depicted in the conversation Lucy has with David about animals when David says that

as for animals, by all means let us be kind to them. But let us not lose perspective. We are of a different order of creation from animals. Not higher necessarily, just different. So if we are going to be kind, let it be out of simple generosity, not because we feel guilty or fear retribution. (Coetzee, 1999, p. 74)

Apparently, David here is speaking about white people and their perspective towards black people. To put it in another way, whites treat blacks "like things" (Coetzee, 1999, p. 78). Here, black and coloured people are viewed through the lens of a stereotype. Herron (2005) asserted that, "Animals may mean nothing, may be nothing in the larger world of the novel" (p. 472). When David comes to stay with his daughter after his disgrace, she senses that he wishes she were learning Russian or painting, leading a higher life. Against this she argues that there is no higher life: "this is the only life we have. Which we share with animals" (Coetzee, 1999, p. 74). David agrees that this is the only life there is, but he cannot accept the proposition that humans and animals [blacks] are the same or in any way equal.

David's assertion of white supremacy can also be seen in the stereotypes that come to mind in the midst of the horror of the attack on the farm. Locked in the lavatory, unable to save his daughter, he thinks:

He speaks Italian, he speaks French, but Italian and French will not save him here in darkest Africa. He is helpless, an Aunt Sally, a figure from a cartoon, a missionary in cassock and topi waiting with clasped hands and upcast eyes while the savages jaw away in their own lingo preparatory to plunging him into their boiling cauldron. (Coetzee, 1999, p. 95)

As is obvious, David makes reference to African savagery. In the words of Coleman (2009), this image of "darkest Africa signal the limitations-the racialism-of Lurie's outlook" (p. 598). In contrast, Stratton (2002) pointed out that "Coetzee thought that in contemporary culture the figure of the African cannibal would, regardless of the context of its occurrence, be instantly recognized, and hence immediately dismissed, as a racist stereotype, long since outmoded" (p. 93). It seems that here the creation of 'darkest Africa' and 'savages' is suggestive of an attempt on David's part to reassert his superiority over others. One last reference to David's sense of superiority occurs in the final pages of the novel when Petrus intends to take Lucy as a third wife for her protection. Regarding South Africans like Petrus as the other, David

identifies himself with the culture of the Western world by asserting that, "This is not something I want to hear. This is not how we do things. We: he is on the point of saying, We Westerners" (Coetzee, 1999, p. 202). Clarkson's remarks are illuminating in this regard. Clarkson (2014) has argued that 'we' in contemporary South African literature such as Coetzee's *Disgrace* "has the effect of drawing attention to the tenuousness of presumed cultural limits. The use of the first-person plural may register acts of violence perpetrated against those excluded from the 'we'" (p. 166). The suggestion that Petrus will take Lucy as a third wife seems acceptable to Petrus, but it is unreasonable to David since he emphasises the difference between the two cultures.

In the previous pages, several examples of David's sense of superiority were put forward. The main concern of this section is to expose the ambivalence of colonial power in *Disgrace*. First, David's sense of unhomeliness and his encounter with the colonised and with country life are explained in terms of the notion of disorientation. Then, David's identity crisis and his communication and relationship with Lucy are challenged and scrutinised in terms of the notions of the uncanny, anxiety and uncertainty.

David's cultural identity crisis can be traced in his encounter with the colonised and the country life. As mentioned earlier, David loses his job due to his scandalous sexual relations with one of his students, Melanie. Feeling unhomed, he prefers to live with his daughter in the rural landscape

in the Eastern Cape. David enters the in-between moment and takes us to the brink of a new space. Attridge (2000) has said that "the mood begins to shift and deepen when David reaches the Eastern Cape, as both he and the reader begin to understand the scale of his gesture of opposition" (p. 103). For instance, the moment he arrives at Lucy's farm in Salem, he does not recognise Lucy; Lucy is barefoot in a flowered dress. He cannot help showing his dislike of country life: "Poor land, poor soil, he thinks. Exhausted. Good only for goats" (Coetzee, 1999, p. 46). He wonders whether Lucy really intends to spend her life here: "He hopes it is only a phase" (Coetzee, 1999, p. 46). On cold winter mornings, Lucy takes David to the market with her. The market is also a place full of dissatisfaction: "The smell of burning meat . . . people rub their hands, stamp their feet, curse" (Coetzee, 1999, p. 71). In contrast to Cape Town, which in David's view is considered to be "a city prodigal of beauty, of beauties" (Coetzee, 1999, p. 12), the Eastern Cape is surrounded by unattractive people such as Bew and Bill Shaw. Lucy suggests that David should engage in charity work in order to help Bev Shaw in the animal refuge. When he visits Bew's animal refuge, David is repulsed by the smell of animals in their house: "cat urine . . . dog minge . . . birds in cages . . . cats everywhere underfoot" (Coetzee, 1999, p. 73). These scenes reflect that David rejects Lucy's country life. It cannot be denied that in part, this is because of the apartheid regime. Although apartheid has legally ended, its ideologies haunt South

Africa. In his book about J. M. Coetzee, Leusmann (2004) wrote that the culture of country life is “mysterious to him [David], even repulsive-but at the same time it evokes desires and lusts, sometimes also feeling of shame with regard to the destructive powers of his own culture” (p. 61). Attridge (2000) has pointed out that there is little to say that David

intends his stand as a principled challenge to the entire establishment in the name of desire (the novel opens, after all, with his perfectly calculated sexual regimen), nor that he is consciously and deliberately embarking on a complete reinvention of his way of living. In its emotional resonance it seems more like a matter of pique, irritation, and hurt pride taking him willy-nilly down a road whose destination is obscure. (p. 103)

The above statements indicate that David has simultaneously opposing feelings toward country life. David unconsciously starts to find a new space through his relationship with Lucy. As the plot unfolds, we see that David gradually adjusts himself to country life. Yet, one morning everything changes and David’s country life is enclosed by threat. David’s sense of unhomeliness and hybrid identity intensifies when arriving back in Cape Town after the assault. After the incident, Lucy’s situation is aggravated. The rape leaves her feeling morose and she decides to stay at home. Looking after Lucy’s farm, he remembers his position in Cape Town: “He wants to be able to sit

at his own desk again, sleep in his own bed. But Cape Town is far away, almost another country” (Coetzee, 1999, p. 141). Having been considered “a country recluse” (Coetzee, 1999, p. 120), he arrives back in Cape Town, to a ransacked house. Surprisingly, he is inclined to dream of his time on Lucy’s farm. He romanticises “country life in all its idiot simplicity” (Coetzee, 2009, p. 178). For example, there are things he misses – the duck family, for instance: Mother Duck tacking about on the surface of the dam. In another scene, David sees a child herding a stray cow off the road and he thinks that, “The country is coming to the city” (Coetzee, 1999, p. 175). Poyner (2009) stated that David “wavers between disdain and admiration” (p. 157) for country life. It can be understood that David moves and stands between two worlds; in other words, he does not feel at home in either culture and therefore, he does not feel at home in himself. Kossew (2003) said that *Disgrace* “is a complex exploration of the collision between private and public worlds; intellect and body; desire and love; and public disgrace or shame and the idea of individual grace or salvation” (p. 155). As is obvious from Kossew’s assertion, David is living in an in-between space and gets stuck in between the two worlds of the public and the private. Barnard’s remarks in *Apartheid and Beyond: South African Writers and the Politics of Place* are illuminating in this regard. Barnard (2007) stated that

the notion of the country as refugee, is decisively challenged in the course of

the novel. The crime that takes place on the farm to which David retreats in disgrace only plunges him further into that abject state. But it is not only the binary pair of country and city that is undermined in the novel: all established oppositions and boundaries seem to be under threat of collapse . . . A crisis of definitions, relationships, and responsibilities thus lies at the heart of *Disgrace*. (p. 35)

For David, the borders between country and city (two different cultures) are undermined; it is no longer possible to view the city as the site of progress and the country as the site of old simplicities. To put it another way, there is a sense of disorientation and cultural confusion in David's cultural identity.

As noted, all the anxieties and uncertainties are characterised in terms of the concepts of the uncanny and ambivalence. Such anxieties and uncertainties can be detected in David's sense of identity after the attack. After David's arrival on Lucy's farm, David and Lucy are beaten by three black men who kill all the dogs, attack David and gang-rape and impregnate Lucy. This causes a sense of despair, uncertainty and anxiety in David. This is what he has to face in the course of the novel. David's sense of uncanniness is illustrated as follows:

Aimlessly he roams about the garden. A grey mood is settling on him. It is not just that he does not know what to do with himself. The events of yesterday have shocked him to the depths. The

trembling, the weakness are only the first and most superficial signs of that shock. He has a sense that, inside him, a vital organ has been bruised, abused - perhaps even his heart. For the first time he has a taste of what it will be like to be an old man, tired to the bone, without hopes, without desires, indifferent to the future . . . he will be like a flycasing in a spiderweb, brittle to the touch, lighter than rice-chaff, ready to float away. (Coetzee, 1999, p. 107)

The above description is similar to Bhabha's understanding of the notion of the uncanny. As Bhabha (1994) has stated, the borders between home and world becomes confused; uncannily, the private and the public become part of each other, forcing upon us a vision that is as divided as it is disorienting (p. 9). The foregoing passage indicates that Coetzee attempts to show the ambivalence of the coloniser's authority or to quote Castle (2007), "the unstable nature of identity" (p. 306). The reason lies in the way the rapists behave. To put it simply, the rapists' acts intensify David's feelings of despair, indifference and anxiety. To put it differently, "The blood of life is leaving his body and despair is taking its place, despair that is like a gas, odourless, tasteless, without nourishment" (Coetzee, 1999, pp. 107-108).

David's cultural identity crisis becomes more obvious through his inability to save his daughter. While he is locked in the lavatory, he understands that his daughter is in the hands of strangers. He must do

something to help his daughter, but he is locked in the lavatory. He batters the door, shouting his daughter's name and suddenly the door is opened by one of the strangers. David entreats the black men to take everything that they need and instead leave his daughter alone. However, the men do not care for it and lock him in the lavatory again. All he can do is ask himself, "is it possible that what the house has to offer will be enough for them? Is it possible they will leave Lucy unharmed too?" (Coetzee, 1999, p. 95). However, the worst of crimes is committed. While David is locked in the lavatory, the men rape Lucy. The men also kill Lucy's dogs.

In the course of the novel, we witness David's doubts in being able to save his daughter from being attacked: "If he had had a gun, would he have saved Lucy? He doubts it" (Coetzee, 1999, p. 100). Like Elizabeth in *Elizabeth Costello*, David has a troubled relationship with his child. David's sense of uncertainty may be a result of lack of communication and anxiety inherent in his relationship with his daughter. Marais (2006) claimed that like Curren in *Age of Iron* and Dostoevsky in *The Master of Petersburg*, David must sympathise not only with Lucy, but also with the culprits. According to him, if David is to complete the task of the imagination that Coetzee assigns him in *Disgrace*, "he must do what Dostoevsky tries to do in *The Master of Petersburg*, that is, attain an uncommitted non-position. It follows that he must sympathize not only with Lucy . . . but also with Pollux and his fellow rapists"

(p. 82). Thus, David, who aggressively asserts his superiority to the colonised, is now unhomed, helpless and powerless to communicate with Lucy and protect her and himself. In the words of Marais (2006), Coetzee "introduces his protagonist to realms of experience from which he has previously been excluded" (p. 78).

According to Segall (2005), after the rape of Lucy and the attack on himself, symbolic figures emerge in David's dreams, reminding him of the past (p. 42). David meets Lucy's ghost, a "little girl" in a "field of white light," (Coetzee, 1999, p. 103). David "has had a vision: Lucy has spoken to him; her words – 'Come to me, save me!' – still echo in his ears" (Coetzee, 1999, p. 103). For David, the traces of past memories and experiences are present in the mind. There seems to be a feeling of the uncanny that exists within David that confuses borders between the self and the other or the past and the present in his mind. In other words, David lives in an unhomey world.

The crisis of cultural identity can also be observed in Lucy's encounter with country life. Lucy has internalised the cultural values of country life: "The dogs, the gardening, the astrology books, the asexual clothes" (Coetzee, 1999, p. 89). She is, flowered dress, bare feet, living in a house full of the smell of baking, "no longer a child playing at farming but a solid countrywoman, a boervrou" (Coetzee, 1999, p. 60). She makes a living from the kennels, and from selling flowers and garden produce. This shows that the country life leaves Lucy altered in her own unique ways, a modern countrywoman.

In other words, the Eastern Cape, with its rural surroundings and different way of life (her encounter with blacks), plays a pivotal role in shaping Lucy's cultural identity: "She is stubborn, and immersed, too, in the life she has chosen" (Coetzee, 1999, p. 134). David wonders that he and his ex-wife should have produced this young settler. However, the narrator intervenes to comment on David's thought: "perhaps it was not they who produced her: perhaps history had the larger share" (Coetzee, 1999, p. 61). This history may refer to Achebe's crossroad of culture or mirror Bhabha's notion of hybridity and ambivalence. According to Castle (2007), "Hybridity thus refers to a pluralized identity, open to contingency and change" (p. 313). This in-between moment gives the space for Lucy, as the only white in Salem, to have an ambivalent cultural identity. Lucy's hybrid and ambivalent personality shows that whites can imitate blacks who are considered poor. Lucy's character rejects the assumption that whites are superior to blacks. In Attridge's words (2000), "The distribution of power is no longer underwritten by racial difference, and the result is a new fluidity in human relations, and a sense that the governing terms and conditions can, and must, be written from scratch" (p. 105). Lucy's identity crisis becomes evident when David suggests that Lucy should leave the Eastern Cape and make a new start somewhere else, for instance, Holland. But Lucy insists that she does not want to, in fact cannot live anywhere else: "If that way of life is doomed, what is left for her to love?"

(Coetzee, 1999, p. 113). Lucy loves the land and "the old, landliche way of life" (Coetzee, 1999, p. 113). Strictly speaking, she is here because she has adapted to country life.

CONCLUSION

The article has attempted to show that in *Disgrace*, ambivalence disrupts the authority of colonial discourse and discloses the gaps and anxieties that make colonial power vulnerable. The crisis of cultural identity lies at the heart of *Disgrace*. *Disgrace* has been analysed in terms of Bhabha's notion of ambivalence as well as the power relations between the coloniser and the colonised. Coetzee here shows that the interaction between the coloniser and the colonised reproduce as well as transform how they see the world and how they act within it. David attempts to maintain the relationship between the colonised and the coloniser, but simultaneously has an ambivalent potential to alter the very same relationship. The encounter between the coloniser and the colonised creates a space that depicts neither the superiority of the coloniser over the colonised nor the inferiority of the colonised. Although the main character, David, still considers himself to be superior to the colonised, his power and authority have declined in the course of the novel, leaving the white individual in a state of anxiety and uncertainty. Initially, David is in a role of authority, but as the text progresses the ambivalence of his authority becomes obvious. David's relationship with women is founded on colonialism's domination over

others. He tries to show his superiority by putting himself in a situation where he is depicted as the dominant one and black or coloured people as the colonised. Differently put, David tries to prove his superiority by having sexual relationships with non-white women. Though David's conduct seems to be a matter of imposing power on the colonised, *Disgrace* depicts that colonial discourses and authority are "never wholly under the control of the colonizer" (Childs & Williams, 1997, p. 136). The concept of unhomeliness divulge both the processes of change and the feelings of anxiety and despair in David and Lucy's cultural identity. This is similar to Bhabha's understanding of the notion of ambivalence. David feels stuck between the two cultures at times and does not feel at ease on either side. David could be seen as a metaphor for the coloniser's ambivalent sense of authority.

REFERENCES

- Attridge, D. (2000). Age of bronze, state of grace: Music and dogs in Coetzee's disgrace. *NOVEL: A Forum on Fiction*, 34(1), 98–121. doi:10.2307/1346141
- Barnard, R. (2007). *Apartheid and beyond: South African writers and the politics of place*. Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.
- Bhabha, H. (1994). *The location of culture*. London, England: Routledge.
- Castle, G. (2007). *The Blackwell guide to literary theory*. Malden, MA: Blackwell.
- Childs, W., & Williams, P. (1997). *An introduction to post-colonial theory*. London, England: Prentice Hall.
- Clarkson, C. (2014). *Drawing the line: Toward an aesthetics of transitional justice*. New York, NY: Fordham University Press.
- Coetzee, J. M. (1999). *Disgrace*. New York, NY: Penguin.
- Coleman, D. (2009). The 'dog-man': Race, sex, species, and lineage in Coetzee's disgrace. *Twentieth Century Literature*, 55(4), 597–617. doi: 10.1215/0041462X-2009-1007
- Cooper, P. (2005). Metamorphosis and sexuality: Reading the strange passions of disgrace. *Research in African Literatures*, 36(4), 22–39. doi: 10.2979/ral.2005.36.4.22
- Fredrickson, G. M. (1981). *White supremacy: A comparative study of American and South African history*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Graham, L. V. (2003). Reading the unspeakable: Rape in J. M. Coetzee's disgrace. *Journal of Southern African Studies*, 29(2), 433–444. doi:10.1080/03057070306207
- Hernandez, F. (2010). *Bhabha for architects*. London, England: Routledge.
- Herron, T. (2005). The dog man: Becoming animal in Coetzee's disgrace. *Twentieth-Century Literature*, 51(4), 467–490. doi: 10.1215/0041462x-2005-1004
- Huddart, D. (2006). *Homi K. Bhabha*. London, England: Routledge.
- Kosew, S. (2003). The politics of shame and redemption in J. M. Coetzee's disgrace. *Research in African Literatures*, 32(2), 155–162. doi: 10.2979/ral.2003.34.2.155
- Krishna, S. (2009). *Globalization and postcolonialism: Hegemony and resistance in the twenty-first century*. Plymouth, England: Rowman & Littlefield.

- Leusmann, H. (2004). J. M. Coetzee's cultural critique. *World Literature Today*, 78(3), 60–63. doi: 10.2307/40158503
- Mallaby, S. (1992). *After apartheid: The future of South Africa*. New York, NY: Random House.
- Marais, M. (2006). J. M. Coetzee's disgrace and the task of the imagination. *Journal of Modern Literature*, 29(2), 75–93. doi: 10.1353/jml.2006.0022
- Poyner, J. (2009). *J. M. Coetzee and the paradox of postcolonial authorship*. Farnham, England: Ashgate.
- Segall, K. W. (2005). Pursuing ghosts: The traumatic sublime in J. M. Coetzee's disgrace. *Research in African Literatures*, 36(4), 40–54. doi: 10.2979/ral.2005.36.4.40
- Stratton, F. (2002). Imperial fictions: J. M. Coetzee's disgrace. *A Review of International English Literature*, 33(3), 83–104.
- Tark, A. M. (2009). Postcolonial studies as re-education: learning from J. M. Coetzee's disgrace. In R. Coloma (Ed.), *Postcolonial challenges in education* (pp. 195–214). New York, NY: Peter Lang Publishing.



Cultural Conceptualisations of Edible Items in Persian

Fatemeh Irajzad* and Mohsen Kafi

*Department of English Language and Literature, Faculty of Letters and Humanities,
Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Azadi Sq., Mashhad, Khorasan Razavi, Iran*

ABSTRACT

Metaphorical language is used extensively in everyday speech as well as in literary discourse. Since metaphors are mainly culturally-determined, they sometimes become the source of misinterpretation in intercultural interactions. Due to their concreteness and highly sensuous nature, edible items are liable to function as a source domain that can be mapped onto several target domains, including human traits. In line with this view, the current study aims to investigate the metaphorical conceptualisations of edible items in contemporary Persian from the perspective of Cultural Linguistics. Accordingly, a list of edibles was prepared and 237 Persian speakers in Iran wrote down their conceptualisations of each item. The results indicated that in Persian, edibles are associated with PERSONALITY and APPEARANCE as target domains. The paper concludes that edible conceptualisations can be largely attributed to the similarities between some traits of human beings and those of the food items. The findings of this study should lead to a better understanding of the Persian culture and language.

Keywords: Cultural conceptualisation, Cultural Linguistics, cultural metaphor, edible items

INTRODUCTION

An expression that is deviated from its original meaning to cast a distinctive and

rhetoical effect is known as a figure of speech (Alm-Arvius, 2003). There are two main types of figures of speech, namely schemes and tropes. According to the

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received: 27 March 2017

Accepted: 03 January 2018

E-mail addresses:

fatemeh.irajzad@vuw.ac.nz (Fatemeh Irajzad)

mohsen.kafi@vuw.ac.nz (Mohsen Kafi)

*Corresponding author

Current Affiliation:

Fatemeh Irajzad

School of Education, Victoria University of Wellington,
New Zealand

Mohsen Kafi

School of Languages and Cultures, Victoria University of
Wellington, New Zealand

“Merriam-Webster Online-Dictionary”, the term ‘trope’ comes from the Greek verb ‘trepein’ meaning ‘to turn’. Typically, in tropes, a word is associated with its secondary and less normalised meanings, while the literal meaning is left aside (Alm-Arvius, 2003). One of the main types of tropes is the metaphor, which associates two things that are perceived as different, but that have some traits in common (Burke, 1969).

The metaphor has been traditionally thought of as a poetic device rather than a common feature of everyday language. However, Lakoff and Johnson (1980) regarded the metaphor as a central feature of human perception and action. They maintained that our conceptual system determines how we make sense of the world; therefore, our mundane activities and interactions are underpinned by metaphors.

Food metaphors are pervasive across many cultures (Jacobsen, 2004). As Goode (1992) has stated, food is “a cultural domain that is often elaborated into complex systems of meaning” (p. 233). In fact, in many cultures, words referring to edible items are extended beyond the range of literal meanings and are hence used as insults, endearments or simply descriptions of human beings’ personality, mental states and appearance. This phenomenon, commonly referred to as ‘semantic extension’, occurs based on a link between the literal meaning of the item and its secondary associated meanings. In the case of edibles, this association is mainly based on the size, shape, colour and/or flavour of the items.

In fact, edible items are tangible and can be experienced through our senses as having distinct qualities. Based on these experiences, people conceptualise those who happen to have similar qualities in terms of certain edible items. We typically conceptualise “the nonphysical in terms of the physical-or the less clearly delineated in terms of the more clearly delineated” (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980). However, due to different cultural experiences with food and taste, there might be a disparity in the conceptualisation of these metaphors in various languages and cultures. For example, in Spanish, a good-looking person is associated with *queso* (cheese), whereas in American English, different types of cheese (e.g. velveeta, cheeseball and fromage) are associated with ugly women (Eble, 1996).

There are many idioms and expressions that are motivated by the conceptual metaphor of A HUMAN BEING IS FOOD. These idiomatic expressions have a secondary role in determining the mindset of people and shaping their conceptualisation of edibles. In fact, a metaphorical conceptualisation is first set in an expression. The frequent use of such expressions gradually leads members of a cultural group to internalise the associated conceptualisation. This is quite in line with what Sharifian (2011) states: “language can be viewed as one of the primary mechanisms which stores and communicates cultural conceptualisations. It acts as both a memory bank and a fluid vehicle for the (re)transmission of these socio-culturally embodied cultural conceptualizations” (p. 39).

Kövecses (2005) believes that “metaphors vary not only cross-culturally but also within cultures” (p. 89). He considers social variables (e.g. gender and age) among the major causes of disparity in metaphorical conceptualisation. Accordingly, the current research aimed to explore the conceptualisation of edibles in Persian and the impact of gender and age on such conceptualisation.

Investigating the relationship between culture, language and conceptualisation is the main focus of a branch of Linguistics known as Cultural Linguistics (Palmer, 1996; Sharifian, 2011). In order to examine the cultural conceptualisation underlying human languages, Cultural Linguistics provides a theoretical as well as an analytical framework (Sharifian, 2015). The theoretical framework considers ‘cultural cognition’ as its major concept. Cultural cognition is a form of ‘enactive cognition’ that is the result of social and linguistic exchanges between individuals through time and space (Sharifian, 2017). Also, cultural cognition is heterogeneously distributed (Sharifian, 2008). In other words, members of a society do not have equal access to their community’s cultural cognition. As for the analytical framework, Cultural Linguistics offers some tools, i.e. cultural schema, cultural category and cultural metaphor, for analysing cultural conceptualisations embedded in different features of human languages (Sharifian, 2003). Therefore, the current study aimed to explore culinary items as potential source domains mapping

onto the domain of human traits by using the framework of Cultural Linguistics.

The motivation for focussing on Persian food conceptualisation emerged from the fact that Persian abounds with food-related metaphors. This might be due to the strong gastronomic culture of Iran. However, outside of a few exceptions (Khajeh & Imran-Ho, 2012; Khajeh, Imran-Ho, & Tan, 2014a; Khajeh, Imran-Ho, & Tan, 2014b), inquiry on Persian conceptualisation of food items has been slow to emerge. In fact, food-related metaphors have been investigated from different perspectives and with respect to different target domains. However, the representation of human disposition and/or appearance in the guise of food items has not yet been investigated in the context of Persian language and culture.

First and foremost, the findings of this study would raise the awareness of Persian speakers as to the use of food metaphors, which have become part of everyday life. Moreover, the findings would help the speakers of other languages to gain a more comprehensive understanding of Persian food metaphors so as to establish better relationships with Persian speakers. In addition, the findings of this study would be of use to language mediators. As stated by Newmark (1988), the most challenging problem for translators is the translation of metaphors. In fact, translators might fail to convey the true message of a metaphor if not familiar with the underlying conceptualisation. In order to avoid such failure, there is a need to raise meta-cultural competence.

BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Cultural Linguistics and Metaphor

As a multi-disciplinary field of study, Cultural Linguistics examines the examples of conceptualisations that are culturally determined and reflected in features of human languages (Sharifian, 2015). Cultural Linguistics employs three analytical tools for that matter, namely ‘cultural schema’, ‘cultural category’ and ‘cultural-conceptual metaphor’. These tools are collectively known as cultural conceptualisation (Sharifian, 2003). According to Sharifian (2015), Cultural Linguistics views these conceptualisations “as heterogeneously distributed across the members of a group, rather than equally shared by the speakers” (p. 477). Such conceptualisations may be represented in different components of language such as metaphors, idioms and discourse markers (Palmer, 1996; Sharifian, 2003).

As a central notion in Cultural Linguistics, the conceptual metaphor is described as a means of perceiving one domain in the guise of another (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980). Each conceptual metaphor, therefore, comprises two domains, namely a source domain that is physical and concrete, and a target domain that is abstract (Kövecses, 2005). To be more precise, the source domain is a conceptual domain in which the basic meaning is rooted (e.g. John is an *iceberg*) and the target domain is the one that is described in a metaphorical expression (e.g. *John is an iceberg*). Lakoff (1993) introduced two types of conceptual metaphor, namely

generic-level (primary/(near) universal) and specific-level (complex/cultural) metaphors. Generic-level metaphors are formed based on universal human experience (Kövecses, 2010). Typically, each culture/language has a distinctive way to put these primary metaphors together in order to form complex metaphors. However, even such (near) universal metaphors, which might be traced back to the shared experience of human beings, are not necessarily employed identically across different cultures/languages (Kövecses, 2010). For instance, the generic metaphor, ‘A HUMAN BEING IS FOOD’ may have different combinations or instantiations in various cultures.

The investigation of culturally-specific metaphors is of great significance within Cultural Linguistics (e.g. Palmer, 1996; Sharifian, 2011). Accordingly, several studies have discovered Persian cultural metaphors from the perspective of Cultural Linguistics. For instance, Sharifian (2009) presented and analysed several cultural metaphorical instances used in the speeches of Iranian politicians. Furthermore, he provided a number of examples to highlight the semantic shifts that occur in the process of rendering a Persian metaphor into English. In another study, Sharifian and Jamarani (2015) introduced temperature as a source domain in terms of which one can comprehend the target domain of emotion. For instance, the Persian expression ‘*xâk sard-e*’ translated as “*soil is cold*” metaphorically denotes that emotional attachment to a dead person diminishes after their burial.

Food Studies

A large number of scholars have looked at food-related metaphors from different perspectives and with diverse scopes and objectives. For instance, Lin and Depner (2016) aimed to find food-related metaphors in the Hakka language in order to investigate metaphorical expressions and food categorisations. Also, they intended to examine the cognitive and cultural perception of the Hakka people with respect to food metaphors. They concluded that in Hakka, food is used to comprehend several target domains such as PERSONALITY, LIFE and HUMAN RELATIONS.

In another study, Faycel (2012) looked for food-related metaphors and their meanings in Tunisian Arabic proverbs. He found three main generic metaphors in these proverbial expressions, namely A HUMAN BEING IS FOOD, LIFE IS FOOD and EMOTIONS ARE FOOD. In fact, A HUMAN BEING IS FOOD WAS the most frequently seen conceptual metaphor in food proverbs.

In a book entitled '*Bite me: Food in Popular Culture*', Parasecoli (2008) explored the significance of food in popular culture. In fact, he analysed a number of books and movies with respect to food, body and booty metaphors. Parasecoli demonstrated that culinary themes are pervasively used in blues music. In this context, food-related terms are often used in a pejorative sense. For instance, 'biscuit' refers to a lovable female and 'biscuit roller' is used to refer to the "lover". In this type of metaphor, features of physical appearance

(e.g. skin colour) also play a vital role. For instance, 'honey' symbolises light-complexioned individuals and 'coffee' is used to refer to dark-complexioned people, leading to the formation of metaphorical expressions such as 'honey dripper' and 'coffee grinder' for describing a lover.

Berrada (2007) conducted a comparative study concerning the use of food metaphors in Moroccan and Classical Arabic. The findings of this study indicated that daily interaction in Moroccan Arabic is rife with culinary metaphors, while limited instances of such metaphors exist in Classical Arabic. He presumed that the existence of such metaphors in Moroccan Arabic might be the result of cultural borrowings.

Rodriguez (2007) examined the metaphorical identification of women in teenage and women's magazines. It turned out that these magazines frequently conceptualise women using edibles, body parts, members of royal families, animals and supernatural creatures as the source domains. She maintained that the frequent associations between women and such source domains convey sexist attitudes towards the status of women in the society.

Also, Achugar (2001) analysed the *piropo*, which is a flirtatious compliment coined by Spanish men to address women. He considered the *piropo* in Spanish discourse as both a speech event and a cognitive metaphor. In *piropos*, women are mainly depicted as objects. Due to some similarities between the physical qualities of women and food items, they are frequently characterised as edibles.

In spite of the abundance of culinary metaphors in Persian, few studies have empirically explored this topic. However, Persian food metaphors have recently attracted more scholarly attention. For instance, Khajeh et al. (2014a) conducted a comparative study to investigate the metaphorical conceptualisation of thought/ideas as food in English and Persian. Moreover, Khajeh et al. (2014b) explored food-related metaphors in order to determine the conceptualisations of anger in Persian and English.

In the reviewed studies, food metaphors were found to be closely related to PERSONALITY, LIFE, HUMAN RELATIONS and EMOTION. However, the conceptual metaphor of A HUMAN BEING IS FOOD or more specifically, the application of edibles as a source domain to refer to target domains such as human beings' personality traits and appearance has not yet been addressed in Persian. To fill this gap, the current study aims to look into this topic from the viewpoint of Cultural Linguistics.

METHOD

The present study is a qualitative attempt to identify the conceptualisations of culinary items among Persian speakers. The theoretical and analytical framework of Cultural Linguistics was adopted to analyse the collected data.

The data for the current study were collected in November 2016. The population of this study consisted of native speakers of Persian in Iran. Using the convenience sampling technique, a total of 237 native

Persian speakers residing in Iran participated in this study (58% female and 42% male). The average age of the participants was approximately 25.1. The participants were recruited on a voluntarily basis from among community groups, university students, students in private/public academic institutes and members of social networking websites.

As for the instrument of data collection, the researchers first prepared a list containing 29 edible items in Persian. The items were chosen based on the authors' intuition as native speakers of Persian and also derived from several online sources containing Persian food-related metaphors and slangs¹. In order to test the content validity of the questionnaire, it was given to four Persian-speaking experts in Linguistics and Cultural Studies. Based on the experts' feedback, the researchers omitted three of the items and added two. The questionnaire was then piloted with 20 participants from around the country in order to evaluate its comprehensibility and identify potential problematic issues of design and format. Also, the pilot study aimed at determining whether or not the items yielded the kind of data that were needed. According to the collective feedback provided by the pilot study participants, some slight changes were made to the instruction section as well as some of the items. In fact, the list was shortened to 20 edible items that had the potential for being used metaphorically.

¹<http://aryaadib.blogfa.com/post-564.aspx>; <http://ehsan-news123.blogfa.com/category/100>; <http://parsvideo.at/2014/03/05/>

Alongside a printed version, the researchers designed an online version of the questionnaire via Google Forms in order to collect the necessary data from different regions of Iran, taking into consideration the diversity of ethnic and cultural backgrounds. Since the researchers aimed to examine the impact of age and gender on the conceptualisation of edible items in Persian, there were no age or gender limits for participating in the study. In this way, the data would allow for a look at the conceptualisation of different age groups, also opening a window into the differences between the conceptualisation of male and female participants. Therefore, the participants were asked to indicate their age and gender at the top of the questionnaire. They were also asked to write all the conceptualisations that they associated with each edible item, skipping the items that brought nothing particular to mind.

As for the online version, the participants were contacted via email or social media websites. In the first phase of data collection, a link to the online version of the questionnaire was sent to around 800 Iranians from different regions of the country, giving priority to the contact lists of the researchers and their colleagues. An email address was provided in the online version in case the respondents had any questions regarding the items or the purpose of the study. After one week, 163 completed online questionnaires were received (20.3% response rate).

In the second phase of data collection, the researchers visited several universities,

public/private academic institutes and public places (e.g. libraries and parks) in Mashhad, Iran, to distribute the printed questionnaires. The researchers' colleagues, friends and fellow students also took part in this phase of the study. Overall, 150 completed questionnaires were collected through face-to-face contact.

A total of 76 questionnaires (24 printed and 52 online) contained irrelevant responses and were hence excluded from the data analysis process. Therefore, the researchers were left with 237 valid questionnaires. Since the items and their conceptualisations were written in Persian, they were all translated into English by a professional Persian-English translator and then proofread by a professional editor.

The next step was to make a list of the conceptualisations associated with each edible item and to determine their frequency of occurrence. Furthermore, the researchers analysed the differences in the conceptualisations made by male/female and young (18-30)/old (30-55) participants.

Finally, the researchers set a threshold to distinguish between idiosyncratic and cultural conceptualisations. Accordingly, conceptualisations that were mentioned by more than 50% of the participants were considered to be 'cultural'.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In this section, the obtained results are presented and the conceptualisations of each item are discussed in detail using the Cultural Linguistics framework.

Kövecses (2010) claimed that social factors such as age and gender might yield disparity in metaphorical conceptualisation; however, there were no significant differences between the conceptualisations of male and female participants in the current study. Also, there were no significant differences between the conceptualisations of younger

(18-30) and older (30-55) participants, except that older participants left more items unanswered. Therefore, these two variables were abandoned throughout the analysis.

The following table contains Persian conceptualisations of edibles and their frequency of occurrence.

Table 1
Conceptualization of edible items in Persian

Edibles Items	Persian Conceptualisation						
	Frequency						
1 Pear	Dumb	Useless	Fat	Lazy	Naïve	Curvy figure	3
2 <i>Chilgoza</i> ²	Useless	Out of shape	Dumb	Annoying	Tiny
3 Pickled cucumber	Unfunny	Funny	Lanky
4 Turnip	Useless	Indifferent	Dumb	Bland	Ugly
5 Potato	<i>Bi gheirat</i> ³	Indifferent	Useless	Fat	Dumb
6 Sweet Tea	Sycophantic	Funny	Unfunny
7 Hazelnut	Cute	Tiny	Dumb	Chubby	Energetic
8 Rice pudding	Sluggish	Pale-skinned	Passive	Clumsy
9 Yogurt	Sluggish	Passive	Useless	Pale-skinned
10 <i>Shirin asal</i> ⁴	Sycophantic	Lovely	Unfunny

²Pine nuts from the chilgoza pine tree

³Lacking honour or manhood

⁴An Iranian confectionery product

Table 1 (continue)

Edibles Items		Persian Conceptualisation					
		Frequency					
11	Pepper	Agile	Hot-tempered	Sneaky	Cute	Sarcastic
		92	56	46	30	23
12	Chickpea	Nosy	Tiny	Useless	Dumb
		94	44	40	12
13	Peach	Pretty	Lovely
		173	56
14	Nectarine	Dumb	Pretty	Lovely	Useless	Fat
		33	30	24	24	32
15	Carrot	Useless	Dumb	Lanky	Red-haired
		71	47	17	9
16	Coconut	Headstrong	Experienced	Lovely	Hairy	Ugly
		34	32	31	11	7
17	Radish	Tiny	Cute	Chubby	Unfriendly
		87	49	23	4
18	Chocolate	Lovely	Sycophantic	Tanned
		143	16	7
19	Cotton candy	Dumb	Useless	Cute	Hairy	Sycophantic	Light-skinned
		32	31	30	28	7	5
20	Liver	Lovely	Pretty
		161	46

Pear

The participants in this study mentioned six conceptualisations for ‘pear’. Four of these conceptualisations (i.e. dumb, useless, lazy and naive) are associated with the PERSONALITY domain, while the other two (i.e., fat and curvy figure) are from the APPEARANCE domain.

As presented in Table 1, a large number of participants ($n=141$) conceptualised ‘pear’ as a ‘dumb’ individual. The high frequency of this conceptualisation might

stem from the Persian expression ‘*baboo golâbi*’, literally meaning ‘stupid pear’, but metaphorically referring to ‘a stupid person’.

The pear is known for its soothing properties, particularly in the digestive tract (McIntyre, 2000). It is, in fact, a soft and easily digested fruit. According to Faycel (2012), soft edibles are used to conceptualise inexperienced and naive people.

Pear was also mapped onto a person with a ‘fat’ and ‘curvy’ body. In fact, the

association between ‘pear’ and curvy body was more evident in the case of a female body.

The following are some authentic examples taken from daily conversations among native speakers of Persian in which the term ‘pear’ has been used metaphorically.

(1) Chetor-ee golâbi?
How-be.PRS.2SG pear?
“What’s up, fatty?”

(2) Moshkel az khodemoon-e ke ye âdame golâbi o
Problem from ourselves-be.PRS.1PL that a person pear Do marker (râ)
miresooneem be hadde zaferoon.
reach-PRS.PROG.1PL to saffron.
“We are to be blamed for falsely raising the status of a person.”

(3) Boro bâbâ golâbi.
Go.IMP father pear
“Go away dumbass.”

(4) (a) Boro az un bepors.
Go.IMP.2SG of him/her ask.IMP.2SG
“Go ask him.”

(b) Fekr mikon-ee un baboo golâbi chizi midune?!
Think do.PRS.2SG he/she stupid pear thing know.PRS.3SG
“Do you really think that stupid guy knows anything?!”

Chilgoza

Chilgoza is a small, elongated seed that is mostly found in India, Pakistan and Afghanistan. It received five conceptualisations from the participants of this study. Three of these associations

(i.e. useless, dumb and annoying) are of the PERSONALITY domain, whereas two of them (i.e., out of shape and tiny) are of the APPEARANCE domain. Consider the following example:

(5) Khial mikone man-am mesle khodesh chalghooz-am!
Think do-PRS.3SG I too like himself/herself chilgoza-be.PRS.1SG.
“He thinks that I am as chilgoza/dumb as him!”

In Persian, the tininess of edibles is mostly associated with small brain size, which explains its figurative usage to refer to dumb individuals. This is also the case with the other two seed items in the questionnaire, namely ‘hazelnut’ and ‘chickpea’. A tiny and ‘dumb’ person is conceptualised as being a ‘chilgoza’, ‘hazelnut’ or ‘chickpea’, all of which are characterised by their small size.

Tininess is also associated with uselessness in Persian. Accordingly, the participants conceptualised ‘Chilgoza’ to mean a useless person.

Pickled Cucumber

The third edible item is ‘*khiar shoor*’, which is literally translated as ‘salty cucumber’, but commonly called ‘pickled cucumber’ in English. The participants of this study mentioned three conceptualisations for this edible item. Two of these conceptualisations (i.e. funny and unfunny) come from the PERSONALITY domain, while the other one (i.e. lanky) refers to the APPEARANCE domain.

There are a number of Persian expressions containing the word ‘salt’ that are used to describe a funny person or someone who tries to be funny. For instance, ‘*namakdoon*’ (saltshaker) refers to a person who tells lame jokes and is considered unfunny. Also, ‘*namak rikhtan*’ literally means ‘pouring salt’, but metaphorically refers to an attempt to be funny by cracking lame jokes. The following example is another metaphorical expression containing ‘salt’.

(6) Dishab tu namak khâbidi?

Last night in salt sleep-PST.2SG

lit. “Did you sleep in salt last night?”

“Do you really think you are funny?!”

A pickled cucumber is left in brine; therefore, someone who tells lame jokes is conceptualised as having lain in salt i.e. someone who is trying to sound funny. These expressions might have informed the participants’ conceptualisations of ‘pickled cucumber’. In addition to taste, other features of ‘pickled cucumber’, such as its size, may have influenced the participants’ conceptualisations of this edible item (e.g. a lanky person).

Turnip

The participants of this study mentioned five conceptualisations for ‘turnip’. Four (i.e. useless, indifferent, dumb and bland) belong to the PERSONALITY domain, while ‘ugly’ belongs to the APPEARANCE domain. ‘Useless’, which is the most frequent conceptualisation of ‘turnip’, refers to an incapable and redundant person. In general, the conceptualisations of ‘turnip’ are attributable to its taste and appearance.

According to Faycel (2012) and Berrada (2007), food consumption involves a number of processes (e.g. seeing, desiring, tasting, smelling and digesting) that facilitate understanding of abstract domains. Turnip conceptualisations are, therefore, shaped through our experience with consuming this vegetable. For instance,

the participants use ‘turnip’ to describe a ‘bland’ individual, presumably because this edible item has a bland taste. In fact, a person is normally associated with a sweet edible item due to his/her social acceptance, while conceptualising someone in terms of a tasteless food item points to his/her social rejection (Faycel, 2012).

Potato

‘Potato’ was the third most common edible metaphor reported by the participants. It had five conceptualisations, four of which (i.e. *bi-gheirat*, indifferent, useless and dumb) are associated with the PERSONALITY domain, while only one (i.e. fat) is associated with the APPEARANCE domain. It should be noted that most of the conceptualisations of ‘potato’ stem from the shape and taste of this food crop.

The ‘potato’ metaphor is mostly associated with individuals who lack *gheirat* (roughly honour and manhood) or are *bi-gheirat*. Before discussing the conceptualisations of ‘potato’, a short explanation of the concept of *gheirat* is necessary. *Gheirat* is an integral part of Persian culture, as men are expected to protect the female members of their family. According to Zare (2011), when a man does not fulfil this responsibility, he is called *bi-gheirat* (lacking honour and manhood). In fact, there are a number of expressions related to the concept of *gheirat* in Persian. For instance, ‘*rag-e gheiratesh bâlâ zade*’ is literally translated as “his *gheirat* vein

has been raised,” but it metaphorically means “he has become *gheirati*” or “he has become angry as a result of something which has threatened his manhood/honour.” Particularly relevant to the discussion on ‘potatoes’ is the Persian expression, ‘*bi rag*’, literally translated as “without vein,” but which metaphorically means ‘without manhood and honour’ (*bi-gheirat*).

A major characteristic of ‘*gheirati*’ individuals is that they become angry very quickly. Due to its significant influence on blood pressure, anger causes the veins to become more visible (Hendricks, Bore, Aslinia, & Morriss, 2013). Accordingly, in Persian, the schema of *gheirat* has been associated with the vein. Iranians believe that the potato is ‘*bi rag*’ (or without veins) due to the fact that the crop can easily adapt to various climates and is indifferent to its position in the garden, being almost unaffected by soil and growing conditions (Bell, 2011). In the Persian language and culture, being *bi-gheirat* is also associated with being ‘indifferent’ and ‘useless’.

Sweet Tea

‘Sweet tea’ received three conceptualisations from the participants, all of which (i.e. sycophantic, funny and unfunny) are associated with the PERSONALITY domain.

The salient feature of sweet tea is its sweet taste. As Berrada (2007) maintained, the taste of a sweet edible provides an experiential model for the conceptualisation of positive human traits. This is in fact

contrary to the findings of this study, as the participants associated sweet tea with two negative traits, namely sycophancy and unfunniness. A sycophant is someone who says insincere sweet words to another person in order to gain some kind of advantage. Therefore, associating a sycophantic person with sweet tea is not only metaphorical, but also ironic. This is also the case with other sweet-tasting edibles included in the list, namely *shirin asal*, chocolate and cotton candy. The participants of

this study associated all these items with ‘sycophantic’ individuals. On the other hand, the sweetness of this item gave rise to its positive association with ‘funny’ individuals.

Hazelnut

‘Hazelnut’ was mapped onto two domains of APPEARANCE and PERSONALITY. There are, in fact, a number of Persian expressions that are motivated by the ‘hazelnut’ metaphor. For instance:

- (7) Maghz-esh andâze-ye yek fandogh-e./ Maghz fandogh-ee
 Brain-POSS.3SG size a hazelnut-be.PRS.3SG/ Brain hazelnut.ADJ
 lit. “His/her brain is as small as a hazelnut.”
 “He/she is dumb.”

As stated previously, the distinct feature of hazelnut is its small size. Therefore, the only property of ‘hazelnut’ that is visualised in these expressions is its size, which is often associated with dumbness.

Although tininess is sometimes associated with dumbness, when something

is both small and round, it can suggest ‘cute’ and ‘chubby’ children, as is the case with ‘hazelnut’ and ‘radish’ in Persian. From a nutritional standpoint, hazelnuts are a rich source of energy; therefore, they are associated with ‘energetic’ people.

Rice Pudding/Yogurt

‘Rice pudding’ and ‘yogurt’ are two culinary items that are alike in colour and nature. Both of these edibles have three conceptualisations related to the PERSONALITY domain and one associated with the APPEARANCE domain. Participants of this study associated both ‘rice pudding’ and ‘yogurt’ with ‘sluggish’, ‘pale-skinned’ and ‘passive’ individuals.

Due to their white colour, these edibles are associated with pale-skinned and passive individuals. In Persian, the term pale-skinned is used in two senses. It either refers to someone whose face has turned white due to shock, sudden fear or illness, or to a person who naturally has a very light complexion. Associating white substances with passive individuals springs from the fact that white is an achromatic and neutral color⁵.

In addition to their colour, the texture of these items has also been used to conceptualise human characteristics. In fact, ‘rice pudding’ and ‘yogurt’ are soft foods that are easily devoured without the need for chewing. Therefore, due to their soft and liquid nature, they are described in terms of ‘*shol-o vâ raft-e*’ in Persian. The best English equivalent for this Persian adjective would be ‘sluggish’. The word ‘sluggish’ is derived from ‘slug,’ a slow-moving snail. In fact, the metaphorical meaning of ‘rice pudding’ and ‘yogurt’ can

be best understood via the image of a slug. It is noteworthy that based on the results of this study, ‘yogurt’ is the second most frequently occurring edible metaphor.

Shirin Asal

‘*Shirin asal*’, an Iranian confectionery product, may be literally translated as ‘sweet honey’. Similar to ‘sweet tea’, this edible has three conceptualisations (i.e. sycophantic, lovely and unfunny), all of which are associated with the PERSONALITY domain. As stated previously, associating a sweet edible with negative traits such as sycophancy or unfunniness is both metaphorical and ironic. Regarding the ‘lovely’ conceptualisation, Faycel (2012) stated that “the experience of tasting a sweet and delicious food served to understand the appreciation of a kind and lovely person” (p. 21).

Pepper

In this study, ‘pepper’ refers to chili pepper. The ‘pepper’ metaphor, which is the most frequently used edible metaphor among the participants, has five conceptualisations. Of these, four (i.e. agile, hot-tempered, sneaky and sarcastic) belong to the PERSONALITY domain, while only one (i.e. cute) is associated with the APPEARANCE domain. These associations are mostly derived from the spicy flavour of this item. In fact, extensive consumption of chili pepper has a number of physiological effects, such as increased heart rate and blood pressure. It can even make one sweat and go red in

⁵https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Color_theory

the face. The experience associated with consuming chilli pepper is mapped onto the experience of getting angry and thus, provides the mental image of a hot-tempered person.

There are a number of commonly used Persian expressions that are motivated by the associations mentioned for ‘pepper’. For instance:

- (8) Felfel nabin che riz-e,
 Pepper NEG-see.IMP.2SG how tiny-be.PRS.3SG
 beshkan bebin che tiz-e.
 crack.IMP.2SG see.IMP.2SG how hot-be.PRS.3SG
 lit. “Do not see pepper as something tiny; crack it to see how hot it is.”
 “Do not judge the capabilities of someone by his/her size.”
- (9) Zabun-esh tond-o tiz-e.
 Tongue-POSS.3SG hot and spicy-be.3SG
 lit. “His/her tongue is spicy and hot.”
 “He/she has a sharp tongue.”

In Persian, the taste of ‘pepper’ is called ‘*tond-o tiz*’ (hot and spicy). The state of being ‘*tond-o tiz*’ also refers to a ‘sarcastic’ or ‘agile’ person. Persian speakers also use ‘pepper’ to describe children who are ‘cute’ in a mischievous way.

Chickpea

The ‘chickpea’ metaphor has four conceptualisations, three of which belong to the PERSONALITY domain (i.e. nosy, useless and dumb), while only one (i.e. tiny) is associated with the APPEARANCE domain.

There are a number of Persian expressions reflecting ‘tiny’ and ‘dumb’ as conceptualisations of ‘chickpea’, such as ‘*nokhod maghz*’, meaning ‘pea-sized

brain’ or ‘pea-brain’, and ‘*Maghz-esh andâze-ye yek nokhod-e*’, meaning “his/her brain is as small as a chickpea.” Besides these metaphorical expressions for ‘tiny’ and ‘dumb’ individuals, there are other Persian expressions that reflect the ‘nosy’ and ‘useless’ associations. For instance, ‘*nokhodi*’ refers to someone who is useless, particularly in a group game. Generally, the participants associated ‘chickpea’ with a ‘nosy’ person. This association is manifested in the Persian idiom ‘*Nokhode har âshî⁶ boodan*’, literally translated as “to be a chickpea in every âsh”. This idiom is used to refer to nosy individuals.

⁶Broth

Peach/Nectarine

Peaches and nectarines both belong to the *Prunus* genus family. The two are very similar, except for the fact that peaches have a fuzzy skin, whereas nectarines have a smooth covering. The participants in this study mentioned two positive conceptualisations for ‘peach’, one belonging to the APPEARANCE domain (i.e. pretty) and the other belonging to the PERSONALITY domain (i.e. lovely). However, ‘nectarine’ had five conceptualisations, three of them (i.e. dumb, lovely and useless) belonging to the PERSONALITY domain and the remaining two (i.e. pretty and fat) referring to the APPEARANCE domain.

In a study conducted by Lin and Depner (2016), the peach was found to be conceptualised by the Hakka people as an over-protected person. Interestingly, the participants of the current study used both ‘peach’ and ‘nectarine’ to refer to ‘pretty’ and ‘lovely’ women. This association is, of course, due to the similarities between some physical traits of women and these fruits that are implicitly transmitted to their metaphoric usage. ‘Peach’ and ‘nectarine’ are, in fact, sweet-tasting and mouth-watering. As well as having a sweet taste, the colour of these fruits is a shade of orange, which is a known as the colour of warmth and desire⁷. These positive associations explain the figurative use of peach and nectarine to refer to ‘lovely’ and ‘pretty’ women. In fact, Iranians

use the metaphoric expression ‘*holoo-e poost kand-e*’ meaning ‘peeled peach’ to describe attractive women. The remaining three conceptualisations of ‘nectarine’ are derived from its round shape.

Carrot

The ‘carrot’ metaphor had four conceptualisations among the participants. Two of them (i.e. useless and dumb) refer to the PERSONALITY domain, while the other two (i.e. lanky and red-haired) belong to the APPEARANCE domain. The participants of this study mostly used carrot to refer to ‘useless’ (i.e. incapable and redundant) individuals. Also, due to its colour and size, ‘carrot’ was associated with ‘red-haired’ and ‘lanky’ people.

Coconut

The ‘coconut’ metaphor had five conceptualisations, three of which refer to the PERSONALITY domain (i.e. headstrong, experienced and lovely), while the remaining two belong to the APPEARANCE domain (i.e. ugly and hairy). The term ‘coconut’ is derived from the 16th-century Portuguese and Spanish word ‘coco’, meaning ‘head’. Coconuts have a very hard and woody shell. Presumably, due to this hard shell, the participants described ‘headstrong’ and ‘experienced’ individuals with reference to this tropical fruit. As Faycel (2012) stated, “foods that are hard to eat are recruited to characterize experienced persons that are difficult to be deceived” (p. 8).

⁷<http://www.payvand.com/news/12/mar/1051.html>; <http://www.universeofsymbolism.com/color-meaning.html>

The paradoxical outer and inner colours of the coconut have also made people from the southern parts of Iran use it for describing themselves and claim that although their skin colour is dark, their inside is white and pure. There is even a very famous traditional southern song called '*siyahe nargile*', translated as "the black is a coconut," that is motivated by the 'lovely' conceptualisation of 'coconut'. However, 'coconut' is also associated with negative conceptualisations, mainly drawn from its physical appearance. For instance, because of its hairy husk, the coconut is used to describe 'hairy' and 'ugly' people.

Radish

In the current study, 'radish' was metaphorically mapped onto the APPEARANCE and PERSONALITY domains. The conceptualisations associated with the APPEARANCE domain (i.e. tiny, cute and chubby) has been discussed in the previous sections. The 'unfriendly' conceptualisation presumably springs from the sharp flavour and skin colour of the radish. According to Faycel (2012), while sweet edibles are associated with positive traits such as kindness and social acceptability, foods with a bitter, sharp or sour taste are associated with negative human traits. In the same vein, Lin and Depner (2016) found that ". . . radish with dark heart but sleek skin is mapped onto a person with a friendly look but evil heart . . ." (p. 15).

Chocolate

From the participants' point of view, the 'chocolate' metaphor had three conceptualisations, two of which (i.e. lovely and sycophantic) are associated with the PERSONALITY domain, while the remaining one (i.e. tanned) belongs to the APPEARANCE domain. The two PERSONALITY conceptualisations have been discussed in the previous sections. Except for the 'sycophantic' conceptualisation, 'chocolate' is mostly used to refer to women rather than men. According to Rodriguez (2007) ". . . there seems to be a clear tendency to portray women in the guise of sweets . . ." (pp. 22-23). It is indeed the dark colour of 'chocolate' that explains its figurative usage for 'tanned' women.

Cotton Candy

'Cotton candy' is metaphorically mapped onto the PERSONALITY and APPEARANCE domains. More specifically, 'dumb', 'useless' and 'sycophantic' belong to the domain of PERSONALITY, whereas 'cute', 'hairy' and 'light-skinned' refer to the APPEARANCE domain.

'Cotton candy' is used for 'hairy' and 'cute' people on the grounds of its fluffy and cotton-like appearance. Moreover, it has a soft and light texture and melts as soon as it touches the tongue. Eating cotton candy does not involve any strenuous activity like chewing and swallowing. It is as if nothing is being eaten at all. Furthermore, Faycel (2012) stated that being useless is described

in terms of foods with low nutritional benefits. These might be the reasons for associating ‘cotton candy’ with ‘dumb’ or ‘useless’ individuals. In addition to taste, texture and nutritional value, colour is also of significance in the metaphoric use of ‘cotton candy’, where the participants associated this edible item with ‘light-skinned’ people.

Liver

Roasted beef liver is a common dish among Iranians. The source domain ‘liver’ is mapped onto two domains of PERSONALITY and APPEARANCE by being associated with ‘lovely’ and ‘pretty’ women in the target domain. A number of Persian idiomatic expressions are based on the conceptualisations of ‘liver’. For instance:

(10) Jeegar-e man-ee.

Liver-EZ I-be.PRS.2SG

lit. “You are my liver.”

“I love you.”

(11) Jeegar-e-to bokhor-am.

Liver-EZ.POSS.2SG eat.PRS.1SG

lit. “I want to eat your liver.”

I love you.”

These conceptualisations are presumably motivated by the Iranians’ love for roasted liver. Furthermore, it may be common for people from different cultures to associate emotional experience with different body organs such as the heart, liver, belly or

even the throat (Sharifian, Dirven, Yu, & Niemeier, 2008). Apparently, one seat of emotion for Iranians is the liver.

CONCLUSION

The current study employed the framework of Cultural Linguistics to present an account of the conceptualisations of edible items in contemporary Persian. In general, people use many metaphoric words in their daily conversation; however, they may not be able to verbalise the underlying meaning of those words. Therefore, this study has attempted to bring to the surface the cultural conceptualisations underlying certain edible items in Persian.

The findings of this study demonstrate how edible items can be a palpable source domain for describing abstract target domains such as human traits. The data analysis indicated that in Persian, edible items are metaphorically mapped onto two target domains: (1) PERSONALITY and (2) APPEARANCE. Contrary to the researchers’ expectations, the data revealed that gender and age do not have any significant impact on the conceptualisations of edible items in Persian. Furthermore, the observations made in this paper revealed that cultural conceptualisation of edible items in Persian reflect certain commonalities between the experience associated with food and human traits. However, the disparate experiences with food and taste have led to cross-cultural or even within-cultural variation in the metaphorical conceptualisation of these items. In fact, a major contribution of the current study is raising language

practitioners' (e.g. translators, interpreters and teachers) awareness of the underlying conceptualisation of such items in Persian. In fact, language teachers can incorporate these edible items into their lesson plans so as to provide the opportunity for the learners to move one step further and become familiar with the cultural conceptualisations underlying these items. Furthermore, exploring the metaphorical conceptualisation of edible items in contemporary Persian helps members of other cultural groups to communicate more effectively with native Persian speakers.

The current study is the first attempt to explore food conceptualisations among Persian speakers. Hence, there are certain limitations associated with this study. First of all, the recruited sample of participants is not fully representative of the diverse cultural communities in Iran. Therefore, the findings may be generalised to the whole population only if supported by future studies with larger and, perhaps, more diverse samples. Also, the food items included in this study are not the only Persian edibles with metaphorical conceptualisations. Future studies on the topic may include other edibles, gradually leading to a large corpus of metaphorically-used edible items in Persian. Moreover, similar studies can be conducted to identify the underlying conceptualisations of the same edible items in other languages, such as English. Such studies would provide interesting information regarding the cross-language commonalities or variations in the conceptualisation of these items. This

would, in fact, allow for more generalised results regarding the impact of culture on the metaphorical usage of edibles.

REFERENCES

- Achugar, M. (2001). Piropos as metaphors for gender roles in Spanish-speaking cultures. *Pragmatics*, 11(2), 127–138.
- Alm-Arvius, C. (2003). *Figures of speech*. Lund: Student Literature.
- Bell, G. D. H. (2011). *Cultivated plants of the farm*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Berrada, K. (2007). Food metaphors: A contrastive approach. *Metaphorik.de*, 13(1), 1–38.
- Burke, K. (1969). *A grammar of motives*. Berkeley: University of California Press.
- Eble, C. (1996). *Slang and sociability: In-group language among college students*. Chapel Hill, NC: University of North Carolina Press.
- Faycel, D. (2012). Food metaphors in Tunisian Arabic proverbs. *Rice Working Papers in Linguistics*, 3(12), 1–23.
- Goode, J. (1992). Food. In R. Baumann (Ed.), *Folklore, cultural practices, and popular entertainments: A communications-centered handbook* (pp. 233–245). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Hendricks, L., Bore, S., Aslinia, D., & Morriss, G. (2013). The effects of anger on the brain and body. *National Forum Journal of Counseling and Addiction*, 2(1), 2–5.
- Jacobsen, E. (2004). The rhetoric of food. In M. Lien & B. Nerlich (Eds.), *The politics of food* (pp. 59–62). Oxford: Berg.
- Khajeh, Z., & Imran-Ho, A. (2012). Persian culinary metaphors: A cross-cultural conceptualization. *GEMA Online Journal of Language Studies*, 12(1), 69–87.

- Khajeh, Z., Imran-Ho, A., & Tan, K. H. (2014a). A cross-cultural account of the metaphor conceptualisations of thought as food in Persian. *Pertanika Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities*, 22(4), 1115–1131.
- Khajeh, Z., Imran-Ho, A., & Tan, K. H. (2014b). Emotional temperament in food-related metaphors: A cross-cultural account of the conceptualisations of anger. *3L: The Southeast Asian Journal of English Language Studies*, 20(1), 33–48.
- Kövecses, Z. (2005). *Metaphor in culture: Universality and variation*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Kövecses, Z. (2010). Metaphor and culture. *Acta Universitatis Sapientiae Philologica*, 2(2), 197–220.
- Lakoff, G. (1993). The contemporary theory of metaphor. In A. Ortony (Ed.), *Metaphor and thought* (pp. 202–251). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Lakoff, G., & Johnson, M. (1980). *Metaphors we live by*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Lin, C. Y. H., & Depner, S. C. (2016). Food metaphors in Taiwan Hakka. In S. C. Depner (Ed.), *Embodiment in Language* (pp. 7–20). Singapore: Springer. doi: 10.1007/978-981-10-1799-5
- McIntyre, A. (2000). *Drink to your health: Delicious juices, teas, soups, and smoothies that help you look and feel great*. New York: Touchstone.
- Newmark, P. (1988). *A textbook of translation*. New York, NY: Prentice Hall.
- Palmer, G. B. (1996). *Toward a theory of cultural linguistics*. Austin: University of Texas Press.
- Parasecoli, F. (2008). *Bite me: Food in popular culture*. Oxford: Berg.
- Rodríguez, I. L. (2007). The representation of women in teenage and women's magazines: Recurring metaphors in English. *Estudios Ingleses de la Universidad Complutense*, 15(1), 15–42.
- Sharifian, F. (2003). On cultural conceptualisations. *Journal of Cognition and Culture*, 3(3), 187–207.
- Sharifian, F. (2009). Figurative language in international political discourse: The case of Iran. *Journal of Language and Politics*, 8(3), 416–432.
- Sharifian, F. (2011). *Cultural conceptualisations and language: Theoretical framework and applications*. Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- Sharifian, F. (2015). Cultural linguistics. In F. Sharifian (Ed.), *The Routledge handbook of language and culture* (pp. 473–492). London/New York: Routledge.
- Sharifian, F., & Jamarani, M. (2015). Conceptualizations of damâ, “temperature” in Persian: A cultural linguistic study. *Cognitive Linguistic Studies*, 2(2), 239–256.
- Sharifian, F., Dirven, R., Yu, N., & Niemeier, S. (2008). *Culture, body, and language: Conceptualizations of internal body organs across cultures and languages*. Berlin/New York: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Zare, S. (2011). *Home and away: Blogging emotions in a Persian virtual dowreh* (Doctoral dissertation), Massey University, New Zealand. Retrieved from <http://mro.massey.ac.nz/>

The Chaotic English Language Policy and Planning in Bangladesh: Areas of Apprehension

Mohammad Mosiur Rahman* and Ambigapathy Pandian

School of Languages, Literacies and Translation, Universiti Sains Malaysia, 11800 USM, Penang, Malaysia

ABSTRACT

This article describes and explains the policies related to the use and teaching of English in Education Policy and Planning (LPP) in Bangladesh. From Independence, the nation faced a problem in selecting a consistent English language policy; the selections that were made resulted in poor English language teaching in the country. A historical timeline of the English-in-Education policy is presented and discussed in this article to identify the inconsistencies in the language policy. Although a number of challenges since achieving Independence have been addressed, in the past two decades the problem of selecting a suitable education policy for English as a subject has become more critical with the introduction of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) as a method of English language teaching. Therefore, the present article critically examines Bangladesh's current language in education policy through the framework of Kaplan and Baldauf (2003). This paper is entirely based on secondary sources and entails analysis of the extant literature. From data obtained from articles and manuscripts, this article sketches the problem from historical accounts, empirical studies and experts' points of view.

Keywords: Language Policy and Planning (LPP), English Language Teaching (ELT), Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), Bangladesh

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received: 27 March 2017

Accepted: 13 December 2017

E-mail addresses:

mosiurbhai@gmail.com (Mohammad Mosiur Rahman)

ambiga@usm.my (Ambigapathy Pandian)

*Corresponding author

INTRODUCTION

Due to the absence of local expertise and a lack of funding for research, Bangladesh has not received much attention in language-in-education policy research (Hamid & Erling, 2016). English language education policy and planning in Bangladesh has

been influenced by numerous forces at the national, supra-national and sub-national levels. There has been little research into language in education in connection with historical factors, national priorities, educational NGOs and international development agencies (Chowdhury & Kabir, 2014). This complex set of factors makes it difficult to find simple explanations for the use of English as a language for economic development, the prominence of the language in the national curriculum and, conversely, the modest outcomes of English language teaching in Bangladesh (Rahman, Pandian & Kaur, 2018).

This article discusses two aspects of English use in the language policy and planning in Bangladesh. Firstly, the article critically examines English language policy and planning in Bangladesh to provide an in-depth understanding of how, over time, the English in Education policy has changed. Secondly, this article critically analyses policy outcomes and the complex set of factors that have hindered the successful implementation of quality English language teaching in Bangladesh. The theoretical framework of language in education policy by Kaplan and Baldauf (2003) was used in the analysis.

English Language Policy in Bangladesh

The legacy of English language teaching and learning began with the Macaulay Minutes of 1835. Thomas Babington Macaulay, in the late 1800s, was sent to Calcutta as the advisor to the governor of British India. One of his tasks was to ease the challenges

faced by the British rulers of India as a result of the complex mix of languages that was a fact of life in the vast sub-continent. Macaulay provided a unified blueprint for introducing the English language and its associated culture to the education system of British India. Witnessing its success in India, the British used the same blueprint in other parts of Asia and Africa that were part of their empire. Macaulay had no knowledge of the complex and diverse languages of South Asian countries, where more than 250 languages coexist. Bangladesh, then called Bengal, received that same blueprint for the use of English in education and still bears the legacy of colonial Britain's language education policies. In the period of Pakistan's rule in Bangladesh, English was used between Dhaka and Islamabad as the medium of communication. So, education in English has a deep-rooted history in Bangladesh, mostly to serve the needs of oppression and communication (Chowdhury & Kabir, 2014; Hamid & Erling, 2016).

English has become the present-day global *lingua franca*, and the growing importance of learning English is a fact. Therefore, a national language policy that includes the use of English can bring value in internationalising a country's economy and promoting economic solvency. Bangladesh's English in language policy and planning (LPP) is an exemplary case study of this. English in language policy and planning has not been static in Bangladesh's history (Chowdhury & Kabir, 2014). It has been adapted for political reasons and has been directly and indirectly influenced by

international donors and NGOs that have had their own interests in mind (Hamid & Erling, 2016).

Hamid (2010) pointed out that poor-quality English language teaching (ELT) was inherited through inconsistent language policy and planning (see Table 1). According to Hamid, Bangladesh does not have a clear and planned language policy. Currently, the country suffers from a policy-practice gap resulting from the use of the communicative English method that was introduced in the late 1990s (Hamid & Honan, 2012). For a long time questions have arisen regarding English in language policy and planning (LPP) in Bangladesh, a term defined by many scholars, such as Rubin and Jernudd (1971) and Kaplan and Baldauf (2003), as a structured activity to study language issues for solving language problems in a given context.

There is no denial that the ELT policy of Bangladesh lacks clear vision. According to Chowdhury and Kabir (2014), until the creation of the National Education Policy (NEP) in 2010, Bangladesh neither had any plan nor did it display consistency in the status accorded to English in the country's Education Policy. After Independence, six education commissions were founded to develop the blueprint for a National Education Policy of Bangladesh. These were: the Education Commission Report, 1974, the English Teaching Taskforce Commission, 1976, the Bangladesh National Education Commission Report, 1988, the National Curriculum Committee, 1991, the National Education Policy, 2000, the Bari Commission Report, 2002, the Miah Commission Report, 2004 and the National Education Policy, 2010. Nevertheless, the status of English was consistently inconsistent from the first task force to the National Education Policy Report of 2010.

Table 1
Chronological summary of English Language policy in Bangladesh

Education Policies and Commission Reports	The Position of English and English Education
1974 Bangladesh Education Commission	English language given priority as a foreign language, to be taught from Class 6 General emphasis on English language
1976 English Teaching Taskforce Commission	English language to be taught either in Class 3 or Class 6, subject to availability of English teachers
1988 Bangladesh National Education Commission	Grade 3 suggested as <i>recommended</i> starting point for English language education Grade 6 suggested as <i>uniform starting point</i> for English language education
1991 National Curriculum Committee	English language education introduced in Class 3 English language was introduced as a compulsory subject in Class 1 (1992)
2000 National Education Policy	English language set as medium of instruction for kindergartens Curriculum and all text material used in kindergartens translated into English Introduction of English language as an <i>extra</i> subject from Class 1 and 2 and as a <i>compulsory</i> subject from Class 3

Table 1 (continue)

Education Policies and Commission Reports	The Position of English and English Education
2003 National Education Commission	<p>Along with Bengali, English language could be medium of instruction from the secondary level (Class 7)</p> <p>Emphasis on English language as medium of instruction at the tertiary level</p> <p>Reemphasis on English language learning from the primary level</p> <p>One objective of primary education to acquaint learners with English language skills as a foreign language</p> <p>Emphasis on rebuilding the overall English language curriculum</p> <p>Emphasis on organising foreign training for trainers of Primary Teachers Institute (PTI) and National Academy for Primary Education (NAPE) and local training for all secondary school teachers to improve English education</p> <p>Emphasis on introducing a six-month English language course at the tertiary level</p>
2010 National Education Policy	<p>English language was recognised as an essential tool for building a knowledge-based society</p> <p>Emphasis on English language writing and speaking from the very beginning of primary education</p> <p>English language to be set as a compulsory subject adopted in all streams from the secondary level</p> <p>English language as medium of instruction could be introduced from the secondary level</p> <p>Emphasis on appointing adequate number of English language teachers at secondary level</p> <p>English language to be a compulsory subject in all colleges and universities</p> <p>English language (along with Bengali) to be the medium of instruction at the tertiary level</p> <p>Emphasis on the need to translate books written in English to Bengali</p>

(Chowdhury & Kabir, 2014, p.10)

Table 1 shows that over time, English was given preference in the National Education Policy. An intentional and goal-orientated language policy, as stated above, can be a blessing for a nation. However, in the case of Bangladesh, this did not happen. Unfortunately, it did not happen due to the lack of planning and clear vision behind the policy (Ali & Walker, 2014). More importantly, it resulted in poor quality of English language education in the country.

According to Hamid and Jahan (2015), the quality of overall English language education is so poor that even a Bengali-medium, Master's-degree-level student cannot speak decent English. Considering the inevitable significance of the English language in the modern era, the policy on English has shifted from a highly monolingual educational system dominated by Bengali to mandatory English language instruction from primary to tertiary level

and the use of English as the medium of instruction. However, new language policies have to be evaluated based on existing resources.

METHODS

This study drew on Kaplan and Baldur's (2003) framework that identifies six key areas of policy development for LPP implementation. These areas include access, curriculum, materials and methods, personnel, resources, evaluation and community policy. Baldauf's (2003) language-in-education policy framework is useful in interpreting findings based on the secondary data collected from internal (education policy documents) and external (scholarly articles) sources.

Secondary data analysis is described by Boslaugh (2007) as: "In the broadest sense, analysis of data collected by someone else" (p. 9). In order to search peer-reviewed articles, a systematic search was conducted in SCOPUS and Google Scholar, filtered by different years with relevant keywords (e.g. Language Policy in Bangladesh, ELT in Bangladesh, CLT in Bangladesh). The findings and discussion are presented under the six policies that Kaplan and Baldauf's (2003) framework theorised. The implication of the findings in the context of English Language Teaching in Bangladesh is discussed with a view to improving these policies.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Kaplan and Baldauf's (2003) language-in-education framework is a strong analytical

tool that covers every aspect of language policy and associates all the stockholders within an educational system. The components of the framework are:

- Access policy: Access policy means when to and who will learn what language.
- Personnel policy: Personnel policy refers to the in-service and pre-service training of teachers.
- Curriculum, methods and materials policy: These three policies are related to one another and are often called micro-teaching policy, with specific teaching goals. The curriculum sets the goal and objectives of the micro-teaching. Methodology and materials policy involves the teaching methods and teaching materials adopted during a particular period. In other words, through method and materials the goals of the curriculum are implemented.
- Resourcing policy: Resourcing policy is financing for language education.
- Community policy: Community policy contains guidelines on parental attitudes, funding sources and recruiting teachers and students.
- Evaluation policy: Evaluation policy involves evaluation of curriculum, assessment of student success and evaluation of teaching.

English Language Access Policy in Bangladesh

According to the English language access policy of Bangladesh, English is to be

introduced as a mandatory subject in Grade 1 among six-year-olds. Providing English for all from a very early stage of language development appears to be a particularly ambitious policy when taking into account the requirements for policy implementation discussed by Kaplan and Baldauf (2003). The allocated class time for English in schools is 35 minutes each day, five days a week. Early introduction of English in schools was justified by setting communicative competence as the goal of instruction for national participation in the global economy and for improving the standard of English in the country.

Early access to English language teaching can be analysed from different dimensions due to the nature of the language's introduction and the practical constraints in providing access to English to every learner. Although some other policies in Asia have also introduced English from Grade 1 (Kirkpatrick, 2012), the case of Bangladesh is different due to the socio-economical differences among its population. If access to English brings positive benefits to individuals, then English should be made accessible to all citizens, equally. However, the quality of English language teaching was not carefully planned in that quality of teaching has not been equal across the country (Hamid & Erling, 2016).

In addition, the access policy in Bangladesh is not in line with the recent development in the field of language education. The notion that early language learning is better is strongly challenged by Second Language Acquisition (SLA)

researchers. Studies have found that other than picking up pronunciation, early language learners do not benefit more than late language learners (Muñoz, 2008; Rahman, Pandian; Karim & Shahed, 2017). It is ideal to give a second-language learner the necessary environment for learning a second language and the input so he/she can recognise the target language faster (Muñoz, 2008). The policies of early access to English and medium of instruction are not free from external forces (e.g. international donors and NGOs). Rather, these policies are highly forced on the country and policymakers by external stakeholders to import English language teaching as a product (Hamid, 2010; Hamid, Nguyen, & Baldauf, 2013). Moreover, according to Hamid and Baldauf (2011), the English access policy in Bangladesh did not help the cause much and created social inequity within the citizenry because access to English is not equal in rural and urban areas. This inequality has several dimensions, such as infrastructure, teacher skill and expertise and logistics. As Huq (2004) explained, "Physical conditions of most of the schools were miserable: poor classroom environment, poor furniture (inappropriate, broken and inadequate), insufficient (or non-existent) library and laboratory facility and finally poor and uncared surroundings" (p. 52)

Since an access policy cannot be devised without an understanding of ground realities, what unfortunately has happened in Bangladesh is that efforts to improve teaching and learning of the English

language have been impeded. Therefore, Bangladesh's access policy is worthy of re-evaluation by policy makers regarding when and who will learn the language.

Personnel Policy

The core of a national education policy is developing its teachers in accordance with the nation's goals (Hargraves & Fullan, 1992). In the language Policy and Planning of Bangladesh, the personnel policy is the real concern. Language teachers require specialised training that cannot be interspersed with other requirements. The overall poor quality of the teachers and insufficient training restrain implementing the macro-level policy (curriculum) at the micro level (pedagogy). Teachers of English in Bangladesh severely lack ELT qualifications, which affects the quality of language teaching (Hamid & Baldauf, 2008). According to Kirkwood and Rae (2011), teachers' qualifications, education and their competency are not at the appropriate level to practise CLT in the classroom.

The qualification needs to match the primary or secondary schools in Bangladesh, but this is still below the quality needed to teach CLT effectively (Kirkwood, 2013). A Bachelor's or first degree from any background is needed to apply for a job in schools. After recruitment, primary-school teachers need to attend a Certificate-in-Education and secondary-school teachers need to attend a Bachelor-in-Education programme within the first year through the National University of Bangladesh. However, the syllabus of these courses is too

general to be effective for language teachers in Bangladesh (Hamid, 2010).

Teachers' professional development becomes a daunting task when there is an enormous number of low-quality teachers. However, this issue was overlooked and badly handled by policy-makers (Erling, Seargeant, & Solly, 2014; Kirkwood & Rae, 2011). The problem is related to teacher training in Bangladesh and is multifaceted. Bangladesh greatly depends on donor-funded projects from the very outset of introducing CLT in Bangladesh. According to Hamid (2010) and Ali and Walker (2014), the donor-funded teacher-training programme proved to be ineffective in increasing teacher quality (e.g. Orientation to Secondary School Teachers for Teaching of English in Bangladesh [OSSTTEB]; English Language Teaching Improvement Project [ELTIP]; English in Action [EiA]). One of the prime reasons behind the failure of efforts to promote teacher quality has been the nature of regularity among the training providers. Lack of regularity has ensured that the professional growth of teachers has not been possible (Hamid, 2010).

Another serious problem is that the training sessions are not held in a school setting. School-based training is considered very effective; its absence is what is lacking in the existing national training system (Maruf, Sohail, & Banks, 2012). The major problem that inhibits school-based training is the absence of permanent teaching-training programmes that can contribute to a long-term qualitative development

among teachers (Hamid, 2010). As a result, English-language teachers lack professional support in the form of no access to academic journals and periodicals to read, little scope for conducting action research and unavailability of school-based teacher training (Hoque, Alam, & Abdullah, 2010; Karim, Mohamed, & Rahman, 2017). Since teachers are the implementers of language policy and are often regarded as the agents of change, a policy from the macro-level often fails due to the failure of the teachers. In Bangladesh, the weak personnel policy is ultimately linked to the failure of the macro language policy of the country.

Curriculum, Methods and Materials Policy

Over the last three decades, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) has dominated curriculum, method and material policies worldwide as the preferred language teaching approach, especially in countries where English is spoken as a second or third language. However, the story of CLT is not fruitful everywhere. In Bangladesh, the introduction of CLT in the English language curriculum, method and material policies took place in the mid-1990s but its implementation in the classroom has yet to achieve its goals or to reduce the gap between policy and reality in the classroom (Kirkwood & Rae, 2011; Hamid, 2010; Ali & Walker, 2014).

Hamid (2011) stated clearly that the introduction of CLT in the curriculum made English Language Teaching problematic. The curriculum could not penetrate deeply

into ELT in Bangladesh because there is hardly any collaboration between the classroom teachers and the policy-makers in the development of curriculum (Ali, 2010). Ultimately, the needs of classroom teachers are eliminated at the very beginning (Ali & Walker, 2014) by introducing CLT without rationalising whether the teachers have the capability to implement it. This results in lack of clarity among the teachers regarding curriculum, which is exactly what happened with English language teachers in Bangladesh.

There are complexities that surround the CLT method and inhibit its ability to flourish in Bangladesh. This points to the presence of cultural differences in language programming. Chowdhury and Ha (2008) questioned the suitability of imported, Westernised CLT methods in a typical Eastern ELT context like Bangladesh. The cultural norms and values are completely different, and so are the teaching practices (Huda, 2013). In the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA), findings cannot be generalised in every context (Rahman & Pandian, 2016); this was found to be true in the context of English Language Education in Bangladesh. In a typical Bangladeshi classroom, the teacher is the ultimate source of knowledge. Hence, the practice of CLT is impossible in the classroom, as pointed out very rightly by Yasmin (2009). She has explained that the teacher-centred classroom is characterised by a minimum or lack of activities in the classroom. An unfriendly relationship between teachers and students

is the typical characteristic of English Language classrooms in Bangladesh.

CLT needs linguistics input outside the classroom to develop the language skills of the learner; in Bangladesh this is not possible because English is rarely spoken in the community (Hamid & Baldauf, 2008). However, this is also found to be true for many countries in Asia. English is not spoken widely, and mastering it is solely dependent on the classroom practice using a few topics (Baldauf, Kaplan, Kamwangamalu, & Bryant, 2011). This has not been found to be an effective language method.

The policy of excluding the traditional Grammar Translation Method (GTM) by CLT needs a deep-seated change in the curriculum, method and materials, but this did not take place in Bangladesh even after two decades. Abedin (2012) has reported that the practice of CLT in Bangladeshi classrooms is nothing but a disguised mode of old GTM. It was similarly reported by Khan (2010), who identified teachers' practice in the classroom as having a washback effect of GTM. They were not able to leave behind old practices they were used to and students were also unable to communicate in the classroom.

Resourcing Policy

The resourcing policy is an enormous challenge that nations using English language teaching are facing (Hamid & Erling, 2016). Bangladesh mostly relies on foreign donor agencies when it comes

to funding language teaching (Hamid, 2010). The statement is found to be true, particularly when we see, in comparison with its counterparts in Southeast Asia, the budget for education is very low (Habib & Adhikary, 2016). However, the allocated funds are mostly used in building infrastructure, with few monies available for purchasing teaching and learning materials, resources and library facilities (Hamid, 2010). Teachers' minimum wages are very low, so much so that teachers have to rely heavily on different sources of income. This encourages teachers to practise private tutoring across the country (Anwaruddin, 2016). The matter is more prevalent in the rural areas, where resources are much less. Moreover, a hidden dissatisfaction with these ordinary resources in the rural areas is strong because the school does not provide good teaching and resources. For good English teaching instruction, students must pay a private tutor for extra teaching, which is expensive for rural parents to provide. Their income level is comparatively lower than that in urban areas (Hamid, Sussex, & Khan, 2009). Nevertheless, in terms of resourcing policy for language teaching, Bangladesh has much room to improve and the policy should allow everyone a fair opportunity to learn the language that the constitution of Bangladesh promises its citizens. However, according to Baldauf et al. (2011), presently, the language policy is quite impossible to implement because the British Council and other foreign supported language projects and private language

learning programmes for those able to afford them will only create further divisions in society.

Community Policy

The socio-economic benefits of English are well understood by the government and the community. The dream of the nation to grow its economy is impossible without developing skilled manpower that is characterised by competitive English communication skills. The linguistic market of Bangladesh, therefore, has seen enormous growth and has attracted both national and international investors (Hamid, 2016, 2010). International organisations like the British Council operate in Bangladesh more dominantly and English-medium schools are increasing in number and becoming more popular (Hamid, 2016). This highlights the parental emphasis on English language teaching for children. Parents who send their children to the mainstream Bengali-medium schools are not willing to fall behind either, and they send their children to after-school classes and tutoring in English language education, investing heavily in their children's language learning (Hamid, Sussex, & Khan, 2009). The positive outlook of the community towards English is established in Bangladesh because most of the parents perceive proficiency in the English language as beneficial to the economic future of their children (Baldauf et al., 2011).

Evaluation Policy

Many studies have highlighted the difficulties of introducing a new assessment approach, including resistance from different stakeholders (see Quader, 2001). According to Khan (2010), grammar-based tests that depend on rote memorisation is the method students employ to pass the communicative English tests. The assessment is highly dependent on a summative approach, despite the curriculum articulating the need to assess rote learning (Das, Shaheen, Shrestha, Rahman, & Khan, 2014). In consequence, in a highly exam-orientated system like Bangladesh's, the tendency for learners to memorise for examinations is left as the only choice for passing the exams (Rahman, Kabir, & Afroze, 2006).

Another major problem that besets the evaluation policy is the unmatched curriculum content and evaluation policy. Presently, in Bangladesh, the evaluation policy does not match the curriculum policy, but rather, contradicts it. According to Das et al. (2015), neither teachers nor head teachers of different schools have any clear idea about the English curriculum. The validity and reliability of national tests in Asia (e.g. primary, secondary or higher secondary) is questioned by Baldauf et al. (2011) because no specification and explanation are given for the tests and the use of one system for all is forcefully justified. Das et al. (2015), therefore, emphasised that the assessment system needs to be redesigned

because despite top priority being given to developing speaking and listening skills in the materials, they remain unassessed in exams.

IMPLICATION OF THE FINDINGS

The above discussion raises several questions regarding language policy in Bangladesh and explains different aspects of the problem. Among the policies theorised by Kaplan and Baldauf (2003), only the community policy has a positive outlook for Bangladeshi citizens regarding the importance of learning English. Otherwise, growing problems with the rest of the policies will need a multi-dimensional approach for resolving them. However, considering the nature of the problems, a few implications of the findings are discussed below.

Access Policy

In the context of Bangladesh, early introduction to English language has become critical. The notion of an early start in second language development was changed and new studies (Rahman, Pandian, Karim, & Shahed, 2017) have found early introduction to have no advantages over late introduction. Moreover, late introduction to a second language may develop other cognitive skills in children. Furthermore, in an education policy, early introduction to a second language touches on other important considerations in the Bangladeshi context (e.g. personnel policy, resourcing policy etc.). Therefore, it will be wise to start

teaching English from the secondary level, instead of the primary.

Personnel Policy

Revolutionary alteration is needed in personnel policy in implementing the language policy in Bangladesh. On the one hand, qualified teachers need to be recruited, and on the other, their professional development needs to be ensured. Relevant background at least should be mandatory for recruiting teachers in schools. A graduate in English with a major in ELT/Teaching English to the Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL)/Applied Linguistics should be given preference in teaching language.

In terms of teacher development, a permanent training division should be established to train language teachers. The ad hoc basis of training by donor organisations could be implemented for a short time to train teacher trainers. However, a permanent training division specialising in English Education and driven by local expertise is feasible for the sustainable professional development of language teachers. This approach would be economical, and possibly will offer school-based training to the teachers.

Curriculum, methods and materials policy. The micro-level language policy in Bangladesh is a failure altogether. None of the curriculum, method and material policies work effectively. A blend of culture and language teaching can bring success. The CLT curriculum is not implemented yet

in schools in Bangladesh due to teachers' beliefs, cultural distance and lack of facilities etc. Therefore, a possible alternative to the CLT method of ELT should be discovered.

Hence, in the policy level, it should be clear what the language teaching and learning goals are and how they can be achieved. In the post-method era, there should not be any strict methodological philosophy based on one particular method, rather mixed methods or multi-methods to English teaching should be introduced (Kumaravadivelu, 2003). In the curriculum, the strict "English only policy" in the classroom has not offered any success in ELT in Bangladesh; rather, Bengali is found to be used more frequently than English (Abedin, 2012). Bangladesh should consider the example of Singapore in this regard; there, an empathy to first language was given in order to facilitate better understanding by the learners. Language teaching and learning is highly context-biased; the methodology and materials should, therefore, accommodate the culture. In an eastern culture like Bangladesh, there is no point to enforcing CLT as it only invites failure. If the aim is to teach English properly to learners, the policy targeting the micro and macro level ought to be reshuffled.

Resource policy. Resourcing is and will always be insufficient in Bangladesh, considering the big population and limited resources that are allocated for education in the national budget. However, best use of the available resources can improve the

problem. Like other developing nations, Bangladesh had regular access to NGOs and international donors to support the implementation of its language-in-education policies. However, none of the funds was utilised effectively (Hamid & Erling, 2016). The first utilisation of the funds should be to improve teachers' lives. This will allow them to reflect on their work. Teachers' salaries need to be increased to minimise the practice of teachers in Bangladesh providing private tuition after school hours. Teachers will then be encouraged to teach more effectively in the classroom, and this will decrease the social discrimination that poor students face due to not being able to afford private tuition.

Resourcing does not only mean building infrastructure, such as schools or classrooms, but also equipping these facilities with modern technology. This is an equally important issue. Technology is an important part of language teaching today. To develop reading and listening skills, it would be meaningful to use audio-visual equipment. However, technology is rarely utilised in the English classroom in Bangladesh. In addition, teachers need to be resourced professionally as well. Teacher development programmes can be more efficient economically if directed by the locals. Presently, around the globe, Bangladeshis are working as researchers and university professionals in the world's best universities. They are more than capable of training the whole English-language teaching population of Bangladesh at minimum wages in order to serve the nation.

Evaluation policy. In the evaluation policy, a thorough revision is needed to comply with the curriculum methodology. Formative assessment is recommended through a continuous assessment framework to evaluate the learners' achievement. However, the present system of assessment, which is summative assessment, should not be ignored entirely due to its deep-rooted practice. A blend of both will work better in the context of Bangladesh. This will allow teachers to teach language more independently, without fearing exams. Communicative language teaching will prevail. Continuous assessment can be introduced and learners can be slowly weaned from memorising content and drawn instead to active learning.

CONCLUSION

Bangladesh is one of the largest English-learning populations of the world. However, there has been little research into the problems associated with English language education in the country (Chowdhury & Kabir, 2014; Hamid, 2015). An obvious consequence was the existence of ambitious policy aspirations that were far from the realities on the ground, causing instruction in English in schools to become dysfunctional. This has welcomed expected critical insight into language policy, leading especially to the establishment of social equity and the availability of resources (May, 2014). This article relates to the language policy and planning framework of Kaplan and Baldauf (1997) in the context of Bangladesh. Involvement of all

stakeholders in policy making is the key to executing language planning, as Kaplan and Baldauf believed. They combined access, resources, pedagogy, learning outcomes and community attachment in a comprehensive framework for implementing language-in-education planning; this framework was used in this article to explain the bizarre condition of English language policy and planning in Bangladesh. However, to make manpower more skilful, despite the economical constraints faced by the country, Bangladesh has to provide resources and invest in language education and, more generally, in education.

RECOMMENDATIONS

In this article, some of the most critical issues related to the English-in-Education policy and planning in Bangladesh were discussed. Bangladesh has not been able to build necessary capacity in English language teaching in order to attain self-sufficiency. Therefore, the following recommendations focus on the measures that can be taken to improve the indicators, while acknowledging the depth of the complexity and without looking for any simplistic solutions.

- Policy-makers (Ministry of Education) should acknowledge the complex situation that was created due to their inconsistent policy making.
- Policy-makers should reconsider the access policy in the most realistic manner. The existing environment is not suitable for introducing learners

to English from Grade 1. The recommendation of the Education Policy 2010 should be implemented.

- ELT projects should be used for attaining sustainability and self-dependence by establishing permanent teacher-training centres, which are now missing in Bangladesh.
- Speaking and listening skills should be included in the examinations. Currently, these two skills are not being practised in the classroom and absence of these two skills in the assessment has contributed to this. This policy reformation will impact pedagogy in the classroom.
- Policy-makers should re-evaluate the suitability of the CLT method-based curriculum in the context of Bangladesh. Instead, they should adapt an education policy to embrace bilingual aims and means and choose teaching methods, curriculum and materials accordingly.

REFERENCES

- Abedin, M., Mojlis, K., & Akter, S., (2009). Listening skills in tertiary level: A reflection. *The Dhaka University Journal of Linguistics*, 2(3), 69–90.
- Abedin, M. M. (2012). The present mode of teaching in the ELT classes at the higher secondary level in Bangladesh: Is it the practice of CLT or disguised GTM? *Stamford Journal of English*, 7, 1–15.
- Ali, M., & Walker, A. L. (2014). ‘Bogged down’ ELT in Bangladesh: Problems and policy. *English Today*, 30(02), 33–38.
- Ali, M. M. (2010). Revisiting the English Language Teaching (ELT) curriculum design: How appropriate is Bangladesh higher secondary level national ELT curriculum as a learner-centred one? *IJUC Studies*, 7(1), 283–296.
- Anwaruddin, S. M. (2016). ICT and language teacher development in the global south: A new materialist discourse analysis. *Educational Studies*, 52(3), 260–278.
- Baldauf Jr, R. B., Kaplan, R. B., Kamwangamalu, N., & Bryant, P. (2011). Success or failure of primary second/foreign language programmes in Asia: What do the data tell us? *Current Issues in Language Planning*, 12(2), 309–323.
- Boslaugh, S. (2007). *Secondary data sources for public health: A practical guide*. United States of America, USA: Cambridge University Press.
- Chowdhury, R., & Ha, P. L. (2008). Reflecting on western TESOL training and communicative language teaching: Bangladeshi teachers’ voices. *Asia Pacific Journal of Education*, 28(3), 305–316.
- Chowdhury, R., & Kabir, A. H. (2014). Language wars: English education policy and practice in Bangladesh. *Multilingual Education*, 4(1), 1–16.
- Das, S., Shaheen, R., Shrestha, P., Rahman, A., & Khan, R. (2014). Policy versus ground reality: Secondary English language assessment system in Bangladesh. *Curriculum Journal*, 25(3), 326–343.
- Erling, E. J., Seargeant, P., & Solly, M. (2014). English in rural Bangladesh. *English Today*, 30(4), 15–21.
- Habib, W., & Adhikary, T. S. (2016, May 31). Too inadequate to raise quality. *The Daily Star*. Retrieved from <https://www.thedailystar.net/frontpage/too-inadequate-raise-quality-1232116>.

- Hamid, M. O. (2010). Globalisation, English for everyone and English teacher capacity: Language policy discourse and realities in Bangladesh. *Current Issues in Language Planning, 11*(4), 289–310.
- Hamid, M. O. (2011). Planning for failure: English and language policy and planning in Bangladesh. In J. A. Fishman & O. Garcia (Eds.), *Handbook of language and ethnic identity: The success–failure continuum in language and ethnic identity efforts* (Vol. 2, pp. 192–203). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Hamid, M. O. (2016). The linguistic market for English in Bangladesh. *Current Issues in Language Planning, 17*(1), 36–55.
- Hamid, M. O., & Baldauf, R. B. (2008). Will CLT bail out the bogged down ELT in Bangladesh? *English Today, 24*(03), 16–24.
- Hamid, M. O., & Baldauf Jr, R. B. (2011). English and socio-economic disadvantage: Learner voices from rural Bangladesh. *Language Learning Journal, 39*(2), 201–217.
- Hamid, M. O., & Erling, E. J. (2016). English-in-education policy and planning in Bangladesh: A critical examination. In R. Kirkpatrick (Ed.), *English language education policy in Asia* (pp. 25–48). Switzerland: Springer International Publishing.
- Hamid, M. O., & Honan, E. (2012). Communicative English in the primary classroom: Implications for English-in-education policy and practice in Bangladesh. *Language, Culture and Curriculum, 25*(2), 139–156.
- Hamid, M. O., & Jahan, I. (2015). Language, identity, and social divides: Medium of instruction debates in Bangladeshi print media. *Comparative Education Review, 59*(1), 75–101.
- Hamid, M. O., Nguyen, H. T. M., & Baldauf Jr, R. B. (2013). Medium of instruction in Asia: Context, processes and outcomes. *Current Issues in Language Planning, 14*(1), 1–15.
- Hamid, M. O., Sussex, R. D., & Khan, A. (2009). Private tutoring in English for secondary school students in Bangladesh. *TESOL Quarterly, 43*(2), 281–308.
- Haq, M. N. (2004). A baseline survey of rural secondary schools: A quest for teaching-learning quality. *Bangladesh Education Journal, 3*(2), 31–54.
- Hargreaves, A., & Fullan, M. G. (1992). *Understanding teacher development*. New York, NY: Teachers College Press.
- Hoque, K. E., Alam, G. M., & Abdullah, A. G. K. (2011). Impact of teachers' professional development on school improvement – An analysis at Bangladesh standpoint. *Asia Pacific Education Review, 12*(3), 337–348.
- Huda, M. E. (2013). Cultural model of classroom instruction for ELT in Bangladesh. *International Journal of English Linguistics, 3*(1), 67–74.
- Kabir, A. H., & Chowdhury, R. (2017). 9 'Donor logic', NGOs, the ruling elite and the decolonisation of education in Bangladesh. *Governance, Resistance and the Post-Colonial State: Management and State Building, 13*, 162.
- Kaplan, R., & Baldauf Jr, R. B. (2003). *Language and language-in-education planning in the Pacific Basin*. Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic Publishers.
- Kaplan, R. B., & Baldauf Jr, R. B. (1997). *Language planning: From practice to theory*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Karim, A., Mohamed, A. R. P., & Rahman, M. M. (2017). EIA – A teacher education project in Bangladesh: An analysis from diversified perspectives. *International Journal of Instruction, 10*(4), 51–66.
- Khan, R. (2010). English language assessment in Bangladesh: Developments and challenges. In Y. Moon & B. Spolsky (Eds.), *Language assessment in Asia: Local, regional or global?* (pp. 121–157). South Korea: Asia TEFL.

- Kirkpatrick, A. (2012). English as an Asian Lingua Franca: the 'Lingua Franca Approach' and implications for language education policy. *Journal of English as a Lingua Franca*, 1(1), 121–139.
- Kirkwood, A. (2013). English for communication in Bangladesh: Baseline research to establish the pre-existing environment for the 'English in Action' project. *System*, 41(3), 866-879.
- Kirkwood, A. T., & Rae, J. (2011). A framework for evaluating qualitative changes in learners' experience and engagement: Developing communicative English teaching and learning in Bangladesh. *Evaluation and Research in Education*, 24(3), 203–216.
- Kumaravadivelu, B. (2003). A postmethod perspective on English language teaching. *World Englishes*, 22(4), 539–550.
- Mahruf, C. Shohel, M., & Banks, F. (2012). School-based teachers' professional development through technology-enhanced learning in Bangladesh. *Teacher Development*, 16(1), 25-42.
- May, S. (2014). Contesting public monolingualism and diglossia: Rethinking political theory and language policy for a multilingual world. *Language Policy*, 13(4), 371–393.
- Muñoz, C. (2008). Symmetries and asymmetries of age effects in naturalistic and instructed L2 learning. *Applied Linguistics*, 29(4), 578–596.
- Quader, D. A. (2001). Reaction to innovation in a language teaching project. *Journal of the Institute of Modern Languages*, 12, 5-22.
- Rahman, A., Kabir, M. M., & Afroze, R. (2006). Effect of BRAC-PACE training on English language teachers of rural non-government secondary schools. *Research and Evaluation Division, BRAC*. Retrieved from http://www.bracresearch.org/srch_dtls.php.
- Rahman, M. M., & Pandian, A. (2016). The gap between research and practice in the field of SLA: The rationale behind it and bridging the gap. *Journal of Applied Linguistics and Language Research*, 3(3), 162–172.
- Rahman, M. M., & Pandian, A. (2018). A critical investigation of English language teaching in Bangladesh: Unfulfilled expectations after two decades of communicative language teaching. *English Today*, 1-7.
- Rahman, M. M., Pandian, A., & Kaur, M. (2018). Factors Affecting Teachers' Implementation of Communicative Language Teaching Curriculum in Secondary Schools in Bangladesh. *The Qualitative Report*, 23(5), 1104-1126.
- Rahman, M. M., Pandian, A., Karim, A., & Shahed, F. H. (2017). Effect of age in second language acquisition: A critical review from the perspective of critical period hypothesis and ultimate attainment. *International Journal of English Linguistics*, 7(5), 1-7.
- Rubin, J., & Jernudd, B. H. (1971). *Can language be planned? Sociolinguistic theory and practice for developing nations*. Hawaii: The University Press of Hawaii.
- Seargeant, P., & Erling, E. J. (2011). The discourse of "English as a language for international development": Policy assumptions and practical challenges. In H. Coleman (Ed.), *Dreams and realities: Developing countries and the English Language* (pp. 248-268). London: British Council.
- Yasmin, F. (2009). Attitude of Bangladeshi students towards communicative language teaching (CLT) and their English textbook. *Teacher's World: Journal of Education and Research*, 34, 49–59.

Teaching News Writing in English: From Genre to Lexicogrammar

Tri Wiratno

Department of English, Universitas Sebelas Maret, Jl. Ir. Sutami 36 A Surakarta 57126, Indonesia

ABSTRACT

This paper reports on a classroom action research study on teaching news writing in English to two different classes of English Department students. Twelve students from the Diploma Programme and 12 others from the Undergraduate Programme enrolled in the course, English for Journalism, were purposively selected to participate in this research. Teaching of this kind requires a unique strategy because the students are faced with the problem of news content on the one hand and that of how to convey the content on the other. In addition to strengthening the news content through field observation and interviews of the source of information, students should create suitable kinds of genre at the discourse level and select appropriate types of lexicogrammar at the clause level. Basically, news falls into the recount genre, but there are usually some sub-genres embedded within this larger genre. How concepts of genre work and how lexicogrammar should be employed in teaching English news writing are the focus of discussion in this paper. The results of this research show that regardless of the different learning performance of the two groups of students, it is evident that in transferring field knowledge to a well-arranged news piece consisting of relevant sentences, students in the different classes need knowledge of both text organisation associated with genre and linguistic skills associated with lexicogrammar choices.

Keywords: Genre, lexicogrammar, news, teaching procedure

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received: 22 May 2017

Accepted: 03 January 2018

E-mail address:

wiratno.tri@gmail.com (Tri Wiratno)

INTRODUCTION

Much effort to find out how to implement better teaching of news writing has long been made. For example, Hresan (1991) applied the process method, which engages students in producing and editing texts. With such a process to improve news writing students

can use “Wiki” when revising their work (Ma & Yuen, 2008). Olson and Dickson (1995) offered a solution to bridge the gap between learning to write news pieces and writing news pieces, where before students are trained in writing news, they should first be well trained in English composition. In addition, Wiist (1996) proposed a learner-centred coaching style, where theory is first introduced through collaboration between student reporters and the instructor/editor. This style is similar to what Parks (2015) highlighted as learning how to write news pieces while being immersed in the process of editing self-produced journalistic works.

More recently, many other methods have been introduced. Fleming (2014) suggested that in order to have media literacy and news literacy, students should access, evaluate and analyse news. Moore and Jones (2015) pointed out that teaching news writing skills to undergraduates by means of a hybrid course is more acceptable than online grammar teaching. Finally, Thier’s (2016) application of solutions in journalism courses can inspire both educators and students, and at the same time, improve students’ understanding of journalism as a whole.

However, teaching English news writing is not only a matter of making the students understand the theory of news and apply it to writing practice. Teaching how to write news requires a unique strategy. This is so because students are faced with both the problem of news content and how to convey the content by selecting the appropriate type of media discourse and linguistic

characteristics (Knapp & Watkins, 2005). This paper reports on a classroom action research study on two different groups of students by exploring the teaching activities allowing them to be engaged with such an experience. Through the engagement, the students were facilitated in being aware that news is a type of media discourse that has specific linguistic characteristics (Bednarek & Caple, 2012). The theory used for exploration was Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) developed by Halliday and Matthiessen (2014) and others, while the teaching procedure used was the Genre-Based Approach introduced by Martin and his colleagues (Dreyfus, Humphrey, Mahboob, & Martin, 2016; Martin & Rose, 2008; Rose & Martin, 2012). The objectives of this research were to explore how the Genre-Based Approach could be applied in the two classes and how lexicogrammar should be employed in teaching English news writing using this approach. The students’ performance was also to be observed for differences in news writing between the two groups in producing English news.

The reasons for choosing the Genre-Based Approach in the present research were that the approach is effective for engaging students in collaborative writing and that “there is enough evidence . . . to confidently recommend to ESL writing teachers” (Caplan & Farling, 2016). The evidence is clearly demonstrated in many studies conducted so far on teaching certain genres of writing e.g. narrative summary (Chen & Su, 2012), essay (Donohue, 2012)

and workplace emails (Albino, 2017). More evidence is also obvious from the studies conducted by Flowerdew (2014) and Staples and Reppen (2016) focussing on the use of lexicogrammar in building up written academic genres. The studies highlighting the evidence can be further discussed as follows.

Firstly, in the study of Chen and Su (2012) on teaching how to summarise narratives by concentrating on the evaluation of its “content, organization, vocabulary, and language use,” the application of the Genre-Based Approach proves to be effective as students improve their “overall summarization performance of a narrative source text” and they see more benefit in “content and organization than in vocabulary and language use” (Chen and Su, 2012). Then, Donohue’s (2012) study on essay writing about film that draws on Halliday’s SFL, Martin’s Sydney School genre and Lemke’s concept of thematic formulation indicated that having competence in writing assignment essays is the key for students for transforming knowledge about the film they are analysing. It also implies that the Genre-Based Approach can enhance the teaching of academic writing in the context of a film course. Finally, the study on writing workplace emails conducted by Albino (2017) suggested that by applying the Genre-Based Approach, teaching and learning activities can allow students to produce good, readable business emails as they fully consider the notion of genre and the linguistic forms required.

With regards to the lexicogrammatical approach, on the other hand, Flowerdew (2014) underlined that many studies showed that lexicogrammar applied in the Genre-Based approach plays a fundamental role in students’ “writing across a wide range of genres and disciplines.” Similarly, Staples and Reppen (2016) showed that by means of the Genre-Based Approach, students were able to write cohesive argumentative texts with appropriate lexicogrammatical features. They could, for example, identify and connect grammatical patterns to express stance and argumentation.

Nevertheless, although there have been many studies applying the Genre-Based Approach to teaching written genres in various disciplines, the absence of studies on teaching English news writing that applies this approach still leaves a gap that should be bridged. The studies concentrating on teaching news writing found in the literature, such as the ones already reviewed above (Hresan, 1991; Ma & Yuen, 2008; Moore & Jones, 2015; Olson & Dickson, 1995; Thier, 2016; Wiist, 1996; Fleming, 2014) do not apply the Genre-Based Approach. It is mainly for this reason that the present research was carried out.

The rest of this paper is organised as follows. A review on genre (including lexicogrammar) and news will be presented after this introduction. Before the results and discussions section is put forward, the research methodology will be delivered. The paper ends with the conclusion.

NEWS AS GENRE

In news writing, genre has so far been developed in three traditions: the New Rhetoric School, the English for Specific Purposes School and the Sydney School (Hyon, 1996; Hyland, 2007; Martin, 2009). In this paper, the discussion on genre focusses on the Sydney School.

The Sydney School was developed under the umbrella of Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL). SFL is a school of linguistics that is concerned with how language is functionally used as text in a social context (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014). Since language should always be considered as text, using a language means creating a text through the use of grammatical forms (See “Lexicogrammar”, below). There are three functions of language: ideational, interpersonal and textual (Halliday, 1985; Halliday & Martin, 1993; Halliday & Matthiessen, 1999). These functions are termed as metafunctions, and the meanings derived from them is called metafunctional meanings, which cover ideational meaning, interpersonal meaning and textual meaning.

The three functions represent different realities. First, ideationally, language constitutes experiential and logical sub-functions. Experientially, language is used to express physical realities representing worldly things. Logically, language is seen as how one linguistic unit relates to the others. Second, interpersonally, language is used to express social realities representing how language users take roles in interaction. Third, textually, language is used to

express symbolic realities representing how information is structured through how linguistic features are organised into a coherent text (Martin, 1992). For the purpose of this research, as news belongs to the written genre where dialogic aspects within interpersonal metafunction are rarely found, only ideational and textual metafunctions were explored.

The Sydney School is defined under the SFL framework. In the Sydney School, genre can be seen as a social process and as a text type. From the point of view of the social process, genre is technically defined as “a staged, goal-oriented social process” (Martin, 1992; Martin, 1997). It is “social” because people participate in genre with others; “goal-oriented” because people use genre to get things done; and “staged” because to reach the goals, people usually take some steps (Martin & Rose, 2007; Martin & Rose, 2008; Martin, 2009). The steps can be identified from generic structure or text structure i.e. the way a text is organised. Different texts employ different generic structures and different lexicogrammar (Wiratno, 2006; Wiratno & Dzakiria, 2016). For example, to make past events come alive, people use the recount method organised in the generic structure: “Orientation^Chronological Events^Reorientation” realised by such lexicogrammar types as human participants, material processes, past tenses and circumstances of time and place.

From the point of view of text type, genre is used to classify types of text. Both spoken and written types of genre are encountered

in daily life. Spoken genres include service encounters, telephone conversations, games, interviews, advertisements, lectures, instructions etc. Written genres include letters, book/film reviews, brochures, news, editorials, journal articles etc.

Within each broad category of genres (macrogenres), many specific genres (microgenres) may be found. For example, within a journal article genre, there may be such specific genres as description, recount, explanation, exposition and discussion (Wiratno, 2006).

Genre is realised through register, and register is realised through lexicogrammar (Martin, 1992; Gardner, 2012). Simply speaking, register is language variations and lexicogrammar is words in a meaningful arrangement (Matthiessen, Teruya, & Lam, 2010). Lexicogrammar is a combination of “lexis” or words and “grammar”. In SFL, words are always within context and cannot be separated from grammar. In other words, “lexicogrammar is the system of wording, representing the linguistic resources for construing meanings through words and structures” (Sardinha, 2013). Lexicogrammar construes ideational, interpersonal and textual meanings (semantics) at the levels of word groups, clause and discourse. In SFL, morphology, syntax and semantics are in one combination, but in linguistics other than SFL, they are separate domains (Halliday & Matthiessen, 1999; Liu & Jiang, 2009; Tucker, 1998).

In the context of this research, news must belong to a type of genre and a type of register. At the level of macrogenre, it is

basically a recount, but within it, there may be some microgenres. It socially functions to provide recent information about events or happenings. Like other genres, to fulfil its functions, news must employ specific features of lexicogrammar and must be organised in a certain generic structure.

The definition of news put forward in the following are the most familiar ones. Based on these definitions, another practical definition should be made in order to provide a guide for the students chosen in this research. Such a guide would be used by them as a starting point to identify the nature of the news that they should write on their own.

According to Anna McKane, the most popular definition of news up to the present time is the one proposed by Charles Dana, namely “News is anything which interests a large part of the community and which has never been brought to their attention” (McKane, 2006, p. 1). On the other hand, the dictionary defines news quite differently. For example, the *Essential English Dictionary* defines news as “information about recent events in the world, reported on radio, or television, or in newspapers” (Higgleton & Seaton, 1995, p. 632). For the sake of this research, news is defined as information about recent events or happenings commonly reported in printed or electronic media and on websites. Similarly, for practical reasons, images were not considered.

In response to what information news contains and what channels are used to report it, it can be underlined that news must be interesting. Meanwhile, in order

to be interesting, news must be recent or actual (Phillips, 2007). The other important characteristics of news seen from its content are that it should be factual and accurate (Harrison, 2006).

Seen from the linguistics angle, news has specific characteristics, such as: (1) News is the name of a macrogenre, containing some microgenres within it; (2) It is a recount-based type of text; (3) Its generic structure is "Title^News Outline^Events (with Sources)" or "Title^News Outline^Events^Sources"; (4) It makes use of transitivity in terms of: (a) human or non-human **participants** involving, "Who did what where and when" or "What happened where and when," realised by Nouns or Nominal Groups, (b) **processes** (realised by material, verbal, relational, mental, behavioural verbs), and (c) **circumstances** realised by Adverbials of time and place; (5) It employs verbs of projection in quoting and reporting clauses to show objectivity and accuracy (Bednarek & Caple, 2012); and (6) It mainly employs the use of the past tense.

Based on the way news titles are formulated, there are four major types of news, namely: Type 1, Subject + Verb 1, e.g. "**China puts** a limit on Russian ambition" (Bremmer, 2016); Type 2, Subject + to-Verb, e.g. "**RI to improve** data sharing with Turkey" (Halim, 2017); Type 3, Subject + ing-Verb, e.g. "**PH finalizing** dealt to observe Russian drills" (Mogato, 2017); and Type 4, Subject + Verb 3, e.g. "**Balinese Woman Shot Dead in US**" ("Balinese

woman", 2012). Only Type 4 is given as a modelled example in Table 2.

The title indicates the most striking characteristic of each type of news piece, and provides a summary of the story. The first type of news shows that the Subject (usually human participant) did something in the past, or it was something that happened in the past. In the example for Type 1, the story is that "China **put** a limit on Russian ambition." The second type shows that the Subject (usually human participant) planned to do something in the future. In the example for Type 2, the story is that "RI **plans to improve** data sharing with Turkey." The third type shows that at the time the news was written the Subject was still performing the event presented in the news. In the example for Type 3, the story is that "PH **was still finalizing** dealt to observe Russian drills." The last type shows that the Subject in the event was treated as the victim, the accused, the arrested, the marginalised, and the like, or at least as the object of talk; for this reason, the Subject is placed as an unmarked topical Theme presented in a passive construction. In the example for Type 4, the story is that a "**Balinese Woman was treated as the victim of [a] shooting**".

METHOD

The data for this classroom action research study were qualitatively collected from teaching and learning activities involving two different classes of students enrolled

in the English for Journalism course in the English Department. The course was designed by the author of this paper and the teaching was also conducted by the author. The teaching and learning process was observed and recorded by two research assistants who were stationed in the classroom. Collecting the data and conducting the research included planning the action, putting the plan into action, observing the results of the plan and reflecting on the next course of action; the procedure was adopted from Burns (2010) and McNiff (2016). From the first class, 12 out of 25 students pursuing the course in Semester 2 in the second year of the Diploma Programme (DP) were accepted as samples, while, from the second class the samples were all the 12 students pursuing the same course in Semester 1 in the third year of the Undergraduate Programme (UP). Purposive sampling was applied to select the students participating in the research. The students chosen as samples were those who had obtained an accumulation index of not less than 3.0 (mark scale: 1-4) in the previous semester. The students with index 3.0 or more were considered to have sufficient knowledge in general writing and were deemed ready to be involved in news writing.

It was important to differentiate one group of students from the other because they studied in different programmes having different curricula and orientation. The DP was a non-degree programme and the students were given more practical courses, and therefore were prepared to

enter the job market. On the other hand, the UP was a degree programme and the students were given more theoretical courses, and therefore, were prepared to be scientists. Since they had different curricula and orientation, it was supposed that their performance in writing English news would also be different.

During one semester, the students of both classes were given tasks to write four different types of news in English, as already stated above. They wrote one type after another, and each type required four stages in the teaching procedure: (1) modelling or deconstructing; (2) writing or constructing; (3) revising or reconstructing; (4) finalising. This procedure was developed from the teaching cycles in the Genre-Based Approach proposed by Martin and his colleagues (Dreyfus, Humphrey, Mahboob, & Martin, 2016; Martin & Rose, 2008; Rose & Martin, 2012), consisting of three stages: deconstruction, joint construction and independent construction.

The stages in the procedure proposed here can be described as follows. Firstly, before the students started writing the news, they were provided with models of each type. In order to understand what and how to write, they were engaged in: (1) doing discourse analysis of the models (Christie, 2002; Rymes, 2008; Rose & Martin, 2012) in response to how the models were organised in genre and how they employed lexicogrammar, and (2) conducting observation or interviews to obtain the information needed for the news they would write. Secondly, based on the

model given in the class and the results of the observation or interview they had conducted, they wrote a draft and submitted it to the lecturer for feedback. Thirdly, they revised the draft (as many times as required) based on the corrections or feedback from themselves and others. Finally, they produced a final version by rewriting the previous one.

The four stages in the teaching procedure were applied in the same way to teaching each type of news (Types 1-4) to both groups of students. Likewise, both Objective 1 and Objective 2 of this research were simultaneously achieved by applying the same teaching procedure. The students' performance in producing English news writing pieces indicated in Objective 3 could be explained based on their background and pace of learning.

RESULTS

Referring to the research problem, the results section will emphasise on the process of teaching news writing in English by describing what the students did as part of the teaching procedure. It will be further argued whether the teaching procedure made a difference in the performance of the two selected groups of students who were enrolled in different programmes that followed different curricula for orientations.

Stage 1: Modelling or Deconstructing

The process of writing news pieces for this research started with conducting discourse analysis by deconstructing a model to fully

understand the nature of the news seen from its content and its linguistic characteristics.

Using news of Type 4 as a model (Table 2), the students were guided to do a deconstruction of the generic structure of the piece and to do a clause-by-clause analysis, as seen in Table 1. The complete analysis of the model can be displayed in Table 2. **Participants** are printed in **bold type**, *relational processes* are printed in *italic type*, material processes are single-underlined, verbal processes are printed in *italic type and single-underlined*, *behavioural processes* are printed in *italic type and dot-underlined*, and circumstances (time or place) are double-underlined.

Although the two groups of students who did the exercise were enrolled in different classes and different semesters, they experienced the analysis or deconstruction of the news in the same way. The exercise of deconstructing the model of news was an essential learning task for both groups of students because they were allowed to explore the nature of the news and the linguistic properties used to build the text. This sort of deconstruction was a way of contextualising the students' purpose of learning how to write news. In this context, without understanding what news is and what makes it news substantially and linguistically, it would have been impossible for the students to construct a news piece of their own. Such an understanding is also important in the context of field work because it allows students to anchor the types of news material they needed to search for.

Table 1
Example of Lexicogrammatical analysis of clause

	Investigators	found	her body	approximately 24 kilometers away on Jedburg Rd
Ideational	Actor	Process: Material	Goal	Circumstance
Interpersonal	Subject	Finite/Predicator	Complement	Adjunct
	Mood	Residue		
Textual	Unmarked Topical Theme	Rheme		

Table 2
Generic structure and Clause-by-Clause analysis

Text Structure	Text
Title	BALINESE WOMAN SHOT DEAD IN US
News Outline	An Indonesian woman, Luh Endang Susiani, 31, was killed in a carjacking in the US state of South Carolina late Friday night.
Events with Sources	<p>The incident <u>occurred around midnight local time at the North Charleston shopping center. Police said Luh and her fiancé were leaving the shopping center when Tyler Brown-Kelly, 28, carjacked them, ordering Luh to get into his car.</u></p> <p>Investigators found her body <u>approximately 24 kilometers away on Jedburg Rd, while a St. George police officer spotted a stolen Toyota Camry and arrested Brown-Kelly. A Berkeley County morgue official, Bill Salisbury, was quoted as saying that Luh died of a gunshot wound to the head.</u></p> <p>Luh's friend Jaeny Desjardin <u>said the victim came to the US to make a better life for herself.</u></p> <p><u>"It's just so sad and tragic," Desjardin was quoted by counton2.com. "Why did he need to kill her?" she said.</u></p> <p>The victim's family in Bali <u>has asked Berkeley County for representation at Brown-Kelly's bond hearing, set for 8 a.m. on Monday.</u></p> <p>The suspect faces charges of murder, kidnapping, carjacking, possession of a firearm and attempted armed robbery. <u>He will not be released on bond. The family has requested Luh's body be sent to Bali for a traditional Balinese Hindu ceremony. Desjardin plans to deliver donations to the family in Indonesia next month.</u></p> <p>Foreign Ministry spokesman Michael Tene confirmed the incident on Monday, <u>and said that the Indonesian Consulate-General in New York had been informed by the North Charleston Police on Saturday.</u></p> <p><u>"The General Consulate dispatched a team on Saturday to take care of the repatriation," he said, "We will send the body as soon as an autopsy has been done by the police."</u></p> <p>Michael said that the North Charleston Police had arrested the culprit. <u>"We have received information that the local police have caught the suspect," he said. ("Balinese woman", 2012)</u></p>

Stage 2: Writing or Constructing

Based on the model of the news analysed, the students wrote their own. Before writing their drafts, they needed to carry out field work to search for news materials by means of observation and interviews. Conducting observation and interviews was a challenge for the students of both classes because it was another skill beyond writing: no courses were given to the students to teach them how to conduct field observation and interviews. Moreover, finding a real event worthy of reporting as news was not easy, either. In the DP class, six out of the 12 students found it difficult to conduct the observation and interviews. In the UP class, on the other hand, only four out of the 12 students felt it was difficult to do. The difficulty might also have arisen from the fact that the students had collected incomplete information during the observation and interviews. The news draft written by Student 7 from the DP class, presented in Examples 1a and 1b, is used to illustrate this difficulty.

Example 1a

A TRUCK HITS A HOUSE, THE DRIVER DIED
Solo – A traffic accident happens on 11th September 2016, 15 kilometers away Solo-Sragen highway. A truck driven by Suratno hit an empty house.
...
Someone said: “The truck is running in a high speed and it looks unstable.”...
The people around the house tried to save the driver who was clamped by the door, but he then died on the way to the hospital. Fortunately, Supriyadi (later known as the owner of the house) and his family were not there when the accident happens. They went to attend a wedding ceremony.
... (DP7)

Student DP7 found writing the news piece difficult in three areas: the formulation of the news title, the time of the event and the identity of the informant providing the source of news. Later, in Stage 3 (revising or reconstructing), the draft was presented as Example 1b. These changes were made: the title was corrected: “A TRUCK HITS A HOUSE, THE DRIVER DIED”, (which was meant to belong to news of Type 1) was amended to: “A TRUCK HITS A HOUSE, THE DRIVER DIES”; the time of the event was added: “at 09.00 in the morning”; and the news source was identified: “**Someone**” was replaced with “**Tarmidi, a witness who was walking nearby when the truck hit the house**”.

Example 1b

A TRUCK HITS A HOUSE, THE DRIVER DIES
Solo – A traffic accident happened at 09.00 in the morning on 11th September 2016, 15 kilometers away Solo-Sragen highway. A truck driven by Suratno hit an empty house.
...
Tarmidi, a witness who was walking nearby when the truck hit the house, said: “The truck looks unstable and run in high speed.” ...
The people around the house tried to save the driver who was clamped by the door, but he then died on the way to the hospital. Fortunately, Supriyadi (later known as the owner of the house) and his family were not there when the accident happened. They went to attend a wedding ceremony. ... (DP7)

When students lack information, as seen in DP7’s original draft, they should return to the field to conduct more observation or to look for informants with knowledge of the event. Notwithstanding this difficulty, both

groups of students felt that the observation and interviews supported their news-to-be in terms of being recent, actual, factual and accurate.

Students should also be aware that after they have collected raw material from a real-life event, they should construct their news piece using the appropriate characteristics for the content and the linguistic requirements. They should be able to transfer an actual happening from real life observed from field work into a linguistically accepted type of news produced in text format. In other words, the students were not only required to make ideational meaning (that is, to express the content of the news derived from real events), but also to make textual meaning as well (that is, to organise the happening as a news text with its own appropriate title and written using correct tense forms and grammar). In this research, at this stage, the students were found to still need a lot of practice and input e.g scaffolding and help from their peers or their lecturer. It turned out that almost all of the students from both classes did this before submitting the drafts. However, the difference was that the UP students tended to finish their drafts faster than the DP students. This was expected as the first group had been learning English longer than the second. The first group had better entry knowledge than the second.

Stage 3: Revising or Reconstructing

The students wrote their drafts on a word processor to make later revisions easier. Revising means reconstructing based on the input-or corrections given. Both self

corrections and corrections by others were equally important for revising the news pieces. There were four ways of revision that were taken into consideration by the students in the process of rewriting, namely: (1) They revised the drafts by sharing or asking their peers for a review; (2) They asked for suggestions from their seniors; (3) They consulted their lecturer about the drafts outside the class; and (4) They corrected the drafts together with all students in the class by displaying them on screen under the facilitation of the lecturer using the ‘track changes’ feature in the word processing software they had used.

While Examples 1a and 1b were concerned with the difficulty students faced when they had not collected enough information from observation and interviews, Example 2 below shows the difficulty associated with genre, namely whether or not the students had organised the news in terms of “Title^News Outline^Events (with Sources)” or “Title^News Outline^Events^Sources”. In Example 2, the news title was not related to the event. Seen from its content, the news draft written by the student coded UP6 belonged to Type 4, where the Subject in the event should have been treated as the arrested person. “Four people” functioning as the Subject in the clause describing the event (which was itself its news content) should have been thematised using a passive construction. Therefore, the news title: “**POLICE ARRESTED FOUR PEOPLE IN KLATEN**” was not appropriate, because “police”, the object of the talk, was

thematised. The title should have thematised the subject instead, “four people”, and would have read better as “**FOUR PEOPLE ARRESTED IN KLATEN**”. It should be noted that “were” before “arrested” should

be omitted in a news title, but not in clauses used in the actual news content e.g., “The four suspects were alleged to violate Article 303 about gambling.”

Example 2:

Title	POLICE ARRESTED FOUR PEOPLE IN KLATEN
News Outline	Klaten – four people were arrested by the policemen because of gambling. They were Sriyanto, Sugino, Heriyanto, and Maryono. They were caught in a shop in Ngreden, Wonosari, Klaten on Sunday, December 11, 2016.
Events with Sources	... Marjuki, the chief of Juwiring police station, said: “When we were arresting them, they did not give any fight”. ... The four suspects <u>were alleged</u> to violate Article 303 about gambling. ... (UP 6)

The errors that needed correction in terms of genre are presented in Table 3. The students revised their pieces in the area of how to formulate the generic structure of the news. Interestingly, all of the students from the two classes made errors, although they did so in

different areas. Most of the students from the DP class made fewer errors in outlining the news, but they found it difficult to formulate the title and events, and all of them failed to provide sources for their news.

Table 3
Areas of revision in terms of genre

Generic Structure	DP Students											
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Title	i	a	i	i	a	a	i	i	a	i	a	i
News Outline	i	a	a	a	a	i	a	a	a	a	a	i
Events	a	i	i	a	i	a	i	a	i	a	i	a
Sources	i	i	i	i	i	i	i	i	i	i	i	i
Generic Structure	UP Students											
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Title	a	i	a	a	a	i	a	a	a	a	a	a
News Outline	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	i	a	a
Events	i	a	i	a	i	i	a	i	a	a	i	a
Sources	i	a	i	i	a	a	i	i	i	i	i	i

Legends: a (appropriate), i (inappropriate)

In contrast, the students from the UP class made fewer errors in the title and news outline formulation, but most of them had problems in formulating the events and providing the sources. The students from both classes had difficulty and encountered problems in formulating the events and sources. It was suggested that they refer

back to their field work, or return to the field for rechecking if necessary.

The lexicogrammatical errors that needed revision are presented in Table 4. The outstanding fact was that the DP students made more errors than the UP students in terms of transitivity and grammatical structure.

Table 4
Areas of revisions in terms of Lexicogrammar

Lexicogrammar	DP Students											
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Participant	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a
Process	a	i	a	i	a	i	i	i	a	a	a	a
Circumstance	i	i	a	i	a	i	i	a	i	i	a	a
Grammatical Structure	a	a	i	a	i	i	a	i	a	i	i	i
Lexicogrammar	UP Students											
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Participant	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a
Process	i	a	a	a	i	i	a	a	i	a	a	a
Circumstance	a	a	i	i	a	a	i	a	a	i	a	a
Grammatical Structure	a	i	a	a	a	i	a	i	a	a	i	a

Legends: a (appropriate), i (inappropriate)

In terms of transitivity, no student from the two classes made errors in selecting the participant, but they did in selecting the process and circumstances. The errors made in selecting the process generally dealt with whether they should use the verbal process (such projecting verbs as “said” and “stated”) in direct or indirect quotations from the sources when they wanted to maintain the objectivity and accuracy of the news. Meanwhile, errors in selecting the circumstance usually involved

placement of the adverbs of time and place in accordance with the context of the real events or happenings.

In conjunction with grammatical structure, the errors made by the students from both classes occurred in the use of tenses and agreement. In Examples 1a and 1b, the students should have mostly used the past tense (e.g. “A traffic accident happened ... on 11 September 2016”) instead of the present tense (e.g. “A traffic accident happens ... on 11 September 2016”).

Similarly, they had written sentences that showed wrong agreement between the subject and the verb.

In revising their news drafts in Stage 3, the students from the two different classes followed a different pace of learning. As in Stage 2, the students from the UP class did their revision faster than those from the DP class. They also wrote better revisions than the latter. The reason for this is probably that they had had longer exposure to theory and practice as they had been longer in the programme and therefore, had better background knowledge.

Stage 4: Finalising

Stage 4 was the final stage of the teaching procedure. After taking into account all of the input from the three earlier stages, the students rewrote the news for the last time, and submitted it at the end of this stage. In addition to meeting the content requirements, the final version had also to

fulfil the linguistic characteristics of the content as shown earlier in the model.

Table 5 shows how the students selected the lexicogrammatical components for their news piece. Their selection of lexicogrammatical components and grammatical structure was categorised as good (score range: 3.0 to 4.0), fair (score: 2.0 to 2.9) and poor (score range: 1.0 to 2.8). Since the students of both classes rewrote this final version after many corrections to the original draft, it could be guessed that it had not been difficult for them to complete this stage. The ultimate goal was that at this finalising stage, they would produce an acceptable news piece. However, only 85% of the students successfully produced a news piece that was satisfying in terms of both content and linguistic requirements, while the other 15% needed to further rewrite their piece. After rewriting, the final version submitted by 10% of these students could then be categorised as good or fair. Of the pieces submitted, none received a “poor” score.

Table 5
How genre is realised by lexicogrammar

Students	Generic Structure	Lexicogrammar			
		Participant	Process	Circumstance	Grammatical Structure
DP	Title	g	g	g	g
	News Outline	g	g	g	f
	Event	g	g	g	f
	Sources	g	g	f	f
UP	Title	g	g	g	g
	News Outline	g	g	g	g
	Event	g	g	g	g
	Sources	g	g	g	f

Legends: g (good), f (fair), p (poor)

DISCUSSION

The success reported above was obtained using a four-stage writing process that involved deconstruction, construction and reconstruction of drafts of a piece of original news writing produced by each student. In four rounds of writing, the students had to correct their errors based on a given model of news writing. The strategy applied in teaching was facilitating and mediating the students towards engagement in the process of news deconstruction and reconstruction until the ultimate goal of news construction was achieved.

The differences in the performance and quality of writing between the two groups of students was probably due of the fact that the Undergraduate Programme students, who generally did better, had better mastery of the language as theirs was a longer programme and therefore, they had had greater contact with the language in terms of theory and practice. The Diploma Programme students, on the other hand, had no knowledge of Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL), whereas the UP did, although their knowledge was limited. Nevertheless, the two groups shared the common experience of being not students of Journalism, but of English, and they had not yet been taught how to conduct field observation and interviews, even in their native language, Indonesian. It is therefore understandable that during the process of news writing, scaffolding was needed. Scaffolding in all its forms is effective for engaging students in learning, in this case, they students were more

engaged through scaffolding in writing/constructing their news drafts (Stage 2) and revising/reconstructing the drafts (Stage 3) before they finished the final draft of the news piece as their final product (Stage 4). Such engagement is meaningful not only in teaching-learning writing in general at the tertiary level (Norazmi, Dwee, Suzilla, & Nurzarina, 2017), but also in teaching-learning news writing, in particular. The findings of this research also support the findings of Caplan and Farling (2016) i.e. that students' engagement in the process of writing is essential in the application of the Genre-Based Approach in teaching-learning writing. From this standpoint it should be emphasised that the teaching procedure proposed in this paper is not only product-but also process-orientated.

In terms of genre, the students' ability to apply the concept of genre in news writing can be seen from how they organised the generic structure of their news piece. It was evident that by the finalising stage they could handle the genre quite well. As already stated, news belongs to the recount macrogenre, within which there are such microgenres as description and explanation. With some effort, most of the students were able to select an appropriate macrogenre (namely recount as a factual genre as opposed to microgenres of fiction) and corresponding microgenres for their news pieces to illustrate the events or happenings in detail in the context of the whole (Martin & Rose, 2007; Martin & Rose, 2008). They were able to combine macrogenre and microgenre under the generic structure of

“Title^News Outline^Events (with Sources)” or “Title^News Outline^Events^Sources”. From the perspective of textual meaning, then, the students were able to construct their news pieces to meet the required textual organisation.

On the other hand, concerning lexicogrammar, after revising their news, in response to transitivity, the students were able to select appropriate participants, processes and circumstances to actualise the notion of “who did what or what happened where and when”. It is true that in drafting their news pieces, some of the selected students made errors in some areas of lexicogrammar or grammatical structures involving choice of tenses and lexical categories, but after revising guided by input or corrections provided as scaffolding, they were able to correct those lexicogrammatical errors. In handling the lexicogrammar of news as a recount-based genre, the students were also aware that whereas as a macrogenre, recount had lexicogrammatical features of its own, news must have many more lexicogrammatical features depending on its microgenres. It can, therefore, be underlined that from the perspective of ideational meaning, the students were able to make use of appropriate lexicogrammar to build the content of the news piece they were producing.

Martin and his colleagues’ (Martin & Rose, 2008; Dreyfus, Humphrey, Mahboob, & Martin, 2016; Rose & Martin, 2012) teaching procedure, consisting of deconstruction, joint construction and independent construction, is a cyclic

procedure, so the teaching activity can start from any stage and may return to the previous ones depending on the given context. In contrast, the teaching procedure proposed in this paper (consisting of modelling/deconstructing, writing/constructing, revising/reconstructing and finalising) is not necessarily a cyclic one. It should start from modelling, although when the procedure has come to one of the stages after modelling, it can return to previous ones. Moreover, in between modelling and writing/constructing, there is actually another stage, namely, doing field work. Because in the teaching implementation field work is a skill outside that of writing, it is not explicitly displayed in the procedure, though its presence in the procedure is needed. In fact, in order to write a good news report in terms of its being recent, actual, factual and accurate, students taking the English for Journalism course should carry out such field work before writing. For this reason, the teaching stages in the procedure in the Genre-Based Approach offered by Martin and his colleagues should be modified and developed to fulfil the context of the specific purpose of teaching news writing.

CONCLUSION

For students of English as a second or foreign language, news writing in English is a process of transferring the real world into news by means of textually organising it in the form of genre and ideationally selecting appropriate lexicogrammar. Teaching students to write news in English

means guiding them to produce news pieces with content that is recent, actual, factual and accurate, and that have linguistic characteristics that represent real events or happenings. The teaching procedure proposed here consists of modelling, writing/constructing, revising/reconstructing and finalising. Meanwhile, the strategy applied in teaching is facilitating students to be always engaged in the activities of construction and reconstruction where scaffolding of any kind is given.

Both the teaching procedure proposed in the Genre-Based Approach and the teaching strategy used with it can be applied with some modification to teaching English news writing to students having different curricula and programme orientations. In this research, students with more background knowledge learnt faster and performed better.

News writing requires field work. As it is a skill outside writing, it is suggested that students be taught how to conduct such field work. Furthermore, in order to improve the content requirements of the news pieces they write, it is also necessary that students be taught the principles of journalism.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The author would like to thank to Professor Safinar Ismail from Universiti Utara Malaysia who did not only proofread but also gave critical input and suggestions to make this paper more readable.

REFERENCES

- Albino, G. (2017). Improving readability in an explicit genre-based approach: The case of an EFL workplace context. *RELC Journal*, 48(3), 311-326.
- Balinese woman shot dead in US. (2012, May 1). *The Jakarta Post*. Retrieved from <http://www.thejakartapost.com/news/2012/05/01/balinese-woman-shot-dead-us.html>.
- Bednarek, M., & Caple, H. (2012). *News discourse*. London: Continuum.
- Bremmer, I. (2016, September 22). China puts a limit on Russian ambition. *Time World*. Retrieved from <http://time.com/4504019/china-puts-a-limit-on-russian-ambition/>.
- Burns, A. (2010). *Doing action research in English language teaching: A guide for practitioners*. London: Routledge.
- Caplan, N. A., & Farling, M. (2016). A dozen heads are better than one: Collaborative writing in genre-based pedagogy. *TESOL Journal*, 8(3), 564-581.
- Chen, Y. S., & Su, S. W. (2012). A genre-based approach to teaching EFL summary writing. *ELT Journal*, 66(2), 184-192.
- Christie, F. (2002). *Classroom discourse analysis: A functional perspective*. London: Continuum.
- Donohue, J. P. (2012). Using systemic functional linguistics in academic writing development: An example from film studies. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 11(1), 4-16.
- Dreyfus, S. J., Humphrey, S., Mahboob, A., & Martin, J. R. (2016). *Genre pedagogy in higher education: The SLATE project*. London: Palgrave Macmillan.

- Fleming, J. (2014). Media literacy, news literacy, or news appreciation? A case study of the news literacy program at Stony Brook University. *Journalism and Mass Communication Educator*, 69(2), 146–165.
- Flowerdew, L. (2014). Corpus-based research and pedagogy in EAP: From lexis to genre. *Language Teaching*, 47, 1–18.
- Gardner, S. (2012). Genres and registers of student report writing: An SFL perspective on texts and practices. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 11(1), 52–63.
- Halim, H. (2017, January 13). RI to improve data sharing with Turkey. *The Jakarta Post*. Retrieved from <http://www.thejakartapost.com/news/2017/01/13/ri-improve-data-sharing-with-turkey.html>.
- Halliday, M. A. K. (1985). *An introduction to functional grammar*. London: Arnold.
- Halliday, M. A. K., & Martin, J. R. (1993). *Writing science: Literacy and discursive power*. London: Falmer.
- Halliday, M. A. K., & Matthiessen, C. M. I. M. (1999). *Construing experience through meanings: A language-based approach to cognition*. London: Cassell.
- Halliday, M. A. K., & Matthiessen, C. M. I. M. (2014). *An introduction to functional grammar*. London: Routledge.
- Harrison, J. (2006). *News*. London & New York: Routledge.
- Higgleton, E., & Seaton, A. (Eds.). (1995). *Essential English dictionary*. Edinburgh: Chambers Harrap Publishers.
- Hresan, S. L. (1991). Process method of teaching the news writing class. *Journalism and Mass Communication Educator*, 46(4), 61–65.
- Hyland, K. (2007). Genre pedagogy: Language, literacy and L2 writing instruction. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 16(3), 148–164.
- Hyon, S. (1996). Genre in three traditions: Implications for ESL. *TESOL Quarterly*, 30(4), 693–722.
- Knapp, P., & Watkins, M. (2005). *Genre, text, grammar: Technologies for teaching and assessing writing*. Sydney: University of New South Wales Press.
- Liu, D., & Jiang, P. (2009). Using a corpus-based lexicogrammatical approach to grammar instruction in EFL and ESL contexts. *The Modern Language Journal*, 93(1), 61–78.
- Ma, W. W. K., & Yuen, A. H. K. (2008). News writing using wiki: Impacts on learning experience of student journalists. *Educational Media International*, 45(4), 295–309.
- Martin, J. R. (1992). *English text: System and structure*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Martin, J. R. (1997). Analysing genre: Functional parameters. In F. Christie & J. R. Martin (Eds.), *Genre and institution: Social processes in the workplace and school* (pp. 3-39). London & New York: Continuum.
- Martin, J. R. (2009). Genre and language learning: A social semiotic perspective. *Linguistics and Education*, 20(1), 10–21.
- Martin, J. R., & Rose, D. (2007). *Working with discourse*. London: Equinox.
- Martin, J. R., & Rose, D. (2008). *Genre relation: Mapping culture*. London: Equinox.
- Matthiessen, C. M. I. M., Teruya, K., & Lam, M. (2010). *Key terms in systemic functional linguistics*. London: Continuum.
- McKane, A. (2006). *News writing*. London: Sage Publications.

- McNiff, J. (2016). *Writing up your action research project*. London: Routledge.
- Mogato, M. (2017, January 10). PH finalizing deal to observe Russian drills. *JakartaGlobe*. Retrieved from <http://jakartaglobe.id/international/philippines-says-finalizi>
- Moore, J., & Jones, K. (2015). The journalism writing course: Evaluation of hybrid versus online grammar instruction. *Journalism and Mass Communication Educator*, 70(1), 6–25.
- Norazmi, D., Dwee, C. Y., Suzilla, J., & Nurzarina, A. S. (2017). Exploring student engagement in writing using the flipped classroom approach. *Pertanika Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities*, 25(2), 663–674.
- Olson, L. D., & Dickson, T. (1995). English composition courses as preparation for news writing. *Journalism and Mass Communication Educator*, 50(2), 47–54.
- Parks, P. (2015). A collaborative approach to experiential learning in university newswriting and editing classes: A case study. *Journalism and Mass Communication Educator*, 70(2), 125–140.
- Phillips, A. (2007). *Good writing for journalists*. London: Sage Publications.
- Rose, D., & Martin, J. R. (2012). *Learning to write, reading to learn*. London: Equinox.
- Rymes, B. (2008). *Classroom discourse analysis: A tool for critical reflection*. Cresskill, NJ: Hampton Press.
- Sardinha, T. B. (2013). Lexicogrammar. In C. A. Chapelle (Ed.), *The encyclopedia of applied linguistics* (pp. 1-5). London: Blackwell Publishing.
- Staples, S., & Reppen, R. (2016). Understanding first-year L2 writing: A lexico-grammatical analysis across L1s, genres, and language ratings. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 32, 17–35.
- Thier, K. (2016). Opportunities and challenges for initial implementation of solutions journalism coursework. *Journalism and Mass Communication Educator*, 71(3), 329–343.
- Tucker, G. H. (1998). *The lexicogrammar of adjectives: A systemic functional approach to lexis*. London & New York: Cassell.
- Wiist, W. M. (1996). Seeking a coaching style of teaching news writing. *Journalism and Mass Communication Educator*, 51(4), 68–74.
- Wiratno, T. (2006). Discourse competence and its place in the English language teaching. *The Sixth International Conference on Competency-Based English Teaching: Theory and Reality*. ITB, Bandung.
- Wiratno, T., & Dzakiria, H. (2016). Examining the writing genre of journal articles in natural science and social science. *Advanced Science Letters*, 22(11), 4431–4435.



Metaphors in Political Tweets during National Elections

Renugah Ramanathan¹, Tan Bee Hoon² and Shamala Paramasivam^{1*}

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

²Department of English Language and Communication, Faculty of Social Science and Liberal Arts, UCSI University, 56000 UCSI, Cheras, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

ABSTRACT

The use of metaphors in political discourse has been constantly researched through the decades. Primarily, metaphors act as a rhetorical device in political discourse aimed at characterising political figures, opponents, events and citizens in persuading them towards a specific point of view. This study discovers the various types of conceptual metaphors employed in the tweets of the Malaysian Prime Minister Dato' Seri Najib Razak (henceforth, Najib) and the Indian Prime Minister Narendra Modi (henceforth, Modi) throughout their election campaign in their respective countries. The Metaphor Identification Procedure (MIP) as proposed by Pragglejazz Group has been adopted for examining the election tweets in-depth and to indicate possible metaphorical linguistic expressions (MLEs). Furthermore, the cognitive metaphor framework by Lakoff and Johnson has been employed in analysing the emerging conceptual metaphorical themes in the tweets of both the political premiers. Results from the analysis have portrayed fascinating underlying conceptual metaphors and metaphorical linguistic expressions in the tweets of both the political figures. The findings revealed that the use of conceptual metaphors in the political tweets induces specific understanding of how political activities throughout the election are conceptualised and expressed in denoting particular ideological stances.

Keywords: Conceptual metaphors, election, metaphorical linguistic expressions, political discourse

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received: 16 August 2017

Accepted: 03 January 2018

E-mail addresses:

renugah02@hotmail.com (Renugah Ramanathan)

tanbh@ucsiuniversity.edu.my (Tan Bee Hoon)

shamala@upm.edu.my (Shamala Paramasivam)

*Corresponding author

INTRODUCTION

Election campaigns are associated with the decision-making process in a nation's legislative organisation. In Malaysia, the last national election was held on 5 May,

2013 while in India the campaign was held from 7 April to 12 May, 2014. The ultimate purpose of an election campaign is to instil political knowledge in a community as well as to encourage citizens' participation throughout the electoral campaign. In Malaysia, the last election campaign involved 15 political parties that were registered with the Election Commission. It also involved several unregistered political parties. Barisan Nasional (henceforth, BN), the largest political party of the country, was founded in 1973 and is currently the leading party ruling the nation. In contrast to Malaysia, India is well-known for its multi-political party system as the number of parties fluctuates every five years. In the 2014 national election in India, there were 1,703 political parties ("Number of political parties in India growing faster than the economy", 2015, March). However, only six contesting parties were registered under the National Election Commission in India. The Bharatiya Janarta Party (BJP), the leading party in India currently that also heads the government, was one of the largest participating parties in the last election.

Election campaigns provide citizens the opportunity to listen to the contending parties' manifestos before they exercise their right as citizens in voting for the party they believe is the most capable to govern the nation. An election campaign, therefore, is an important platform for disseminating ideas and beliefs to evoke specific messages or implicit denotations. Ideally, political notions broadcast through various

communicative media such as the different news media; however, technological advancement has enabled the emergence of political ideas to be disseminated just as well through social media platforms such as Twitter. Over the years, election campaigns have become increasingly competitive as political figures around the globe now employ social media platforms such as Twitter to address voters throughout the campaign. The emergence of Twitter as a communicative tool is a recent development that is pervasively being employed by politicians. More political figures and their associates have started to engage citizens through Twitter during elections to gain their support and to manipulate the cognitive perspective of the public (Wang, Can, Kazemzadeh, Bar, & Narayanan, 2012). Twitter has gained momentum in the domain of politics since 2007. The popularity of Twitter has been a contributing factor in the decision of political figures around the globe to employ the microblogging tool during major political events.

The language used on Twitter plays a major role in national elections in conveying ideas to citizens. Conveying ideas through a platform like Twitter to help win a national election is clearly a challenging task as Twitter has a 140-character limit to messages. This makes the use of language on Twitter an important matter for users to consider. It is certainly a constraint for political leaders, who must express ideas and disseminate information to a wide and diverse voter base. Hence, this study seeks

to investigate the conceptualisation of ideas related to the national election of Malaysia and India in the tweets of Najib and Modi. The evaluation of metaphors used in a national election is vital as metaphors are a distinctive way of how political figures employ linguistic and cognitive mechanisms to communicate to the public in only 140 characters in Twittersphere. Metaphorically, the conceptualisation of national elections is perceived as the foundation of the entire edifice or BUILDING as it supports the concept of nation construction.

The agenda of a participant in a national election is crucial as it reveals the participant's ideas and beliefs. In this study, the agenda of the two Prime Ministers is revealed in how they conveyed their ideas and beliefs to citizens through the conceptualisation of lexical units. Therefore, the focus of this study was on the conceptualisation of lexical units and the emergence of conceptual metaphors in the tweets of Najib and Modi. The cognitive metaphor framework by Lakoff and Johnson (1980) was employed to discover the emerging conceptual metaphors in the tweets of both the national leaders. The Metaphor Identification Procedure (MIP) by Pragglejazz Group (2007) was adopted to scrutinise lexical units in depth and to specify linguistic expressions. The analysis provides adequate information on the use of metaphors in the conceptualisation of the national election of both countries. Hence, this study aimed to investigate the various

types of conceptual metaphors employed in the tweets of Najib and Modi throughout the election campaigns.

Related Studies on Metaphors

The subject of the metaphor has been debated throughout the centuries since Aristotle. Aristotle referred to the metaphor as “the application of an alien name by transference either from genus to species, or from species to genus, or from species to species, or by analogy, that is proportion” (Aristotle, 2008, p. 41). The metaphor has been perceived as a literary device that is widely used in the field of literature and language to express intense feelings about the nature of human existence. Lakoff and Johnson (1980) proclaimed the metaphor as a form of extraordinary language rather than reflective of language that is used typically in daily life. The metaphor has been traditionally viewed as a linguistic phenomenon that is used as figurative language (Dancygier & Sweetser, 2014; Lakoff & Turner, 1989; Lakoff & Johnson, 1980; Ortony, 1993; Ritchie, 2006), which suggest it is ‘decorative’, providing diverse expressions to sentences that tend to be dubious and ambiguous.

Being modern American linguists, Lakoff and Turner (1989) opposed the traditional view of the metaphor by asserting that the metaphor is not just a form of human language, but also a matter of human action and thought (Lakoff & Turner, 1989). On the other hand, to support Lakoff and Turner's

(1989) opposition to the traditional view of metaphors, Goatly (1997) proposed the following definition on metaphor:

Metaphor occurs when a unit of discourse is used to refer unconventionally to an object, process or concept, or colligates in an unconventional way. And when this unconventional act or reference or colligation is understood on the basis of similarity, matching or analogy involving the conventional referent or colligates of the unit and the actual unconventional referent or colligates. (p. 8)

The definition above denotes the metaphor as a typical form of language where relationship between two objects or concepts occurs. On the other hand, the term colligation is an old-fashioned term that discusses the syntactic relationship between different bodies of discourse (Goatly, 1997) in the case of metaphor is the source domain and target domain. In the same light, Lakoff and Turner (1989) described the metaphor as a “coherent system of concepts and a corresponding coherent system of metaphorical expressions for those concepts” (p. 9). In other words, conceptual metaphors prohibit lexemes from working in separate entities, but these syntactic features are closely bound together to produce logical coherent expressions. According to Lakoff and Johnson (1980), metaphorical expressions are categorised in two distinct aspects: a) linguistic expressions where

words and sentences contain independent meanings of the particular content and b) metaphorical concepts that can be extended beyond the literal way of thought and action. Both distinctions imply the notion that “The meaning is right there in the words” (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, p. 12) as the significance of the sentence lies beneath metaphorical expressions.

Metaphors, then, are a traditional form of representation; people are bound to the custom of using metaphors in their daily life. Lakoff and Johnson (1980) claimed that “[the] metaphor is pervasive in everyday life, not just in language but in thought and action” (p. 3). The figurative language of the metaphor leads to the occurrence of figurative expressions that conceptualise non-literary words to form a mapping domain. The source and target mapping domains that occur in metaphors enable linguists to perform cross-mapping analysis, which produces expressions beyond the literal meaning. Kovecses (2002) argued that metaphors prohibit the attachment of literal meaning to a sentence, but they are closely associated to the conceptual reality of a specific phrase. The sentence “It’s been a bumpy road” (Kovecses, 2002, p. 7) restricts literal meaning that leads to the sense of physical challenges throughout a journey; it is conceptualised to mean hardship in relationships and life.

In the domain of metaphors, various metaphor classifications are employed to categorise diverse metaphorical expressions. The presence of various metaphor categories

serves as a platform to establish coherence between sentences and words that enable cross mapping. Lakoff and Johnson (1980) established two basic conventions of metaphorical coherence that are commonly fulfilled in the domain of conceptual metaphors, namely: a) cross mapping metaphorical entailments that correspond to each other, and b) the purpose in which cross mapping is executed. The purpose of these two basic agreements is to understand the relationship and connection between direct and indirect issues or things that simultaneously reveal an abstract meaning in the conceptual metaphorical context (Ritchie, 2006).

Furthermore, Lakoff (1987) proclaimed that metaphors can be particularly productive, whereby expressions and specific lexical items are employed to express various “conceptual metaphors in a greater or lesser extent” (p. 384). The lexical items employed are the conceptual metaphoric expressions that permit linguistic expressions to be elaborated (Lakoff, 1987), signalling cross mapping entailment. Previous studies on building metaphors are a dynamic source domain that portrays the concepts of a strong edifice in framing ideological stances.

According to Lakoff and Johnson (1980), AN ARGUMENT IS A BUILDING that involves the deepest part of the structure; therefore, an argument is similar to the concept of building. Chilton and Ilyin (1993) examined the notion of the building metaphor in the political discourse on the common European House in various

languages and it was found that A SOCIETY IS A BUILDING (Goatly, 1997), and people are part of the building in an unjust society. In the same light, Charteris-Black (2013) studied the employment of the building metaphor in the American political context and a purposeful metaphor that was established was the SOCIAL ORGANISATION IS A BUILDING. The conceptual metaphor comprises teamwork in building the nation together as a team, and solidarity which unites the entire nation to progress towards social goals.

Likewise, Lu and Ahrens (2008) investigated the Taiwanese presidential speeches in portraying the ideological notion of the country. Based on the inspection, it was found that the conceptual metaphor of A COUNTRY IS A BUILDING means the achievements of the country in the past are the cornerstones of the building, while the BUILDERS ARE FOUNDERS of the country. Similarly, Koteyko and Ryazanova-Clarke (2009) studied the building metaphor in Russian political discourse and revealed that RESTORATION or RECONSTRUCTION of governmental instruction is vital in building a strong and great hierarchal levels that are one above another. Meanwhile, Hellín-García (2013) argued that GOVERNMENT IS THE BUILDER who maintains and forms the nation into developing a democratic ruling country in which politicians are regarded as DEMOCRATIC EDUCATORS. In contrast to the building metaphor, Xue, Mao and Li (2013) scrutinised the building

metaphorical expressions in the American President inaugural speeches. Based on their observation, the government and politicians are the builders of the nation. However, citizens hold the ultimate role in building the society. In this study, the AN ARGUMENT IS A BUILDING conceptual metaphor by Lakoff and Johnson (1980) is adopted to stipulate the concept of nation construction that occurs throughout electoral campaigns as this concept portrays the national identity and unity of both the nations. The success of the building concept largely depends on the role of politicians as nation constructors who manoeuvre the national elections to make the election campaigns a victory.

The studies above showed the emergence of conceptual metaphors in various political discourse that occurred in America, Taiwan and Russia. However, this study attempts to fill the gap by investigating the conceptual metaphors of two political representatives in Asia, namely Najib and Modi, in their political tweets during national elections. The next section illustrates the Metaphorical Linguistic Expressions (MLEs) that are the prominent component of metaphors.

Metaphorical Linguistic Expressions (MLEs)

In the domain of metaphors, there are various metaphor classifications that are employed

to categorise the diverse metaphorical expressions. The presence of various metaphor categories serves as a platform for establishing coherence between sentences and words that enables cross mapping. Lakoff and Johnson (1980) established two basic conventions of metaphorical coherence that are commonly fulfilled in the domain of conceptual metaphors, namely: a) cross mapping metaphorical entailments that corresponds to each other, and b) the purpose in which cross mapping is executed. The purpose of these two basic agreements are to understand (Ritchie, 2006) the relationship and connection between direct and indirect issues or thing that simultaneously reveal an abstract meaning in the conceptual metaphorical context.

Furthermore, Lakoff (1987) proclaimed that metaphors can be particularly productive whereby expressions and specific lexical items are employed to express various “conceptual metaphors in a greater or lesser extent” (p. 384). The lexical items employed in the conceptual metaphoric expressions permits linguistic expressions to be elaborated (Lakoff, 1987) signalling cross mapping entailment. Similar to this notion, Lakoff and Johnson (1980) produced sets of productive metaphors in relation to the conceptual metaphor framework. Examples of conceptual metaphors are based on Table 1.

Table 1
Conceptual Metaphors and Metaphorical Linguistic expressions

Conceptual Metaphor	Metaphorical Linguistic Expressions
IDEAS ARE FOOD	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. I just can't swallow that claim. 2. That argument smells fishy. 3. What he said left a bad taste in my mouth. 4. That's food for thought. 5. All this paper has in it raw facts and half-baked ideas. (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, p. 46-47)
IDEAS ARE PLANTS	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. That idea died on the vine. 2. He has a barren mind. 3. She has a fertile imagination. 4. It will take years for that idea to come to full flowers. 5. Here;s an idea that I'd like to plant in your mind. (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, p. 46-47)

To date, the analyses of conceptual metaphors in various types of discourse have mainly focused on two aspects i.e. the study of underlying conceptual metaphors in discourse analysis and the use of metaphoric language through lexical expressions as a channel to disclose aspiration and ideology in the political domain (Fairclough, 1992, 1995; Jorgensen & Phillips, 2002). However, in this extensive field of metaphors, these two aspects converge with the intention of demonstrating how metaphoric language is employed to serve political and other discourse purposes. The following sections explain the types of conceptual metaphor employed in studies as proposed by Lakoff and Johnson (1980).

Metaphor and Politics

The emergence of the metaphor in politics is an abstract overview as it encompasses significant political acquaintances such

as journalists, Members of Parliament, councils, government and international bodies. The metaphor in politics is a form of rhetoric as it occurs in documents and speeches. Recent studies have investigated metaphors and discourse that are relatively associated with cognitive forms (Lakoff, 1987; Lakoff & Johnson, 1980; Semino, 2008). It is patent that metaphors occur in the micro-level interaction where wordings and phrases denote important linguistic meanings that are then conceptualised to produce realistic denotation (Chilton, 2004; Semino, 2008). The realm of the metaphor in politics has brought about abstract roles for this linguistic feature in political discourse as its cognitive processes produce specific representations of a politician in the political domain.

The main objective of the metaphor in political discourse is to create characterisation among political figures, their opponents, political agenda and events

and the citizens. Political premiers are more likely to employ metaphors in their discourse to inspire, motivate and build the electorate's confidence (Mio, Riggio, Levin, & Reese, 2005). Literally, metaphorical language and expressions are utilised to persuade the public towards a certain point of view and to explain particular political stances (Ahrens, 2009; Ottati, Rhoads, & Graesser, 1999) and it is highly used as a rhetorical tool. The art of coercion in political metaphors is used as a rhetorical weapon that contains figurative expressions that are utilised as condemnation and criticism. In the context of metaphor and persuasion, Peel (2002) asserted that persuasion in metaphor "undergo[es] a series of changes that take readers step by step through a persuasive process as an argument would" (p.43).

Rhetoric in metaphors continues to function as a tool for conveying meaning, triggering emotional reactions (Mio et al., 2005) and portraying linguistic expressions that may sound offensive. Although the use of metaphors in political speeches draws in issues from the surrounding environment, yet metaphors are employed to create messages that are more vivid and that increase the retention of the specific message. In accordance with the field of political discourse, political activities may be conceptualised and expressed as an aim or journey in achieving a target destination or purpose. Mapping in this domain is more likely to focus on determination, struggle amid success and solidarity among citizens.

METHODS

This study employed the qualitative research design to analyse the qualitative data (tweets of Najib and Modi) and to identify the types of metaphorical linguistic expression that emerged in the political tweets.

Data Collection

Data were collected over a period of three months prior to the national election, which in Malaysia were from February to April 2013 and in India, from January to March 2014. A total of 592 tweets were collected from the official Twitter account of Najib, while 545 tweets were gathered from the official profile of Modi as made available on Twitter. Thus, the total number of tweets gathered was 1137. After reading and examining the tweets, refinement of the specified data was achieved by excluding tweets that were posted in the Malay (413 tweets) and Hindi (10 tweets) languages. The exclusion process was necessary as this study aimed to analyse tweets that were originally posted in English only. The refinement process was also conducted to achieve the objective of this study without disregarding other aspects of this study. Hence, a total of only 714 tweets were eventually analysed. The selected tweets were examined through in-depth reading to scrutinise for metaphorical expressions. The first phase of analysis included the identification of metaphorical expressions with reference to the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary. The purpose of this

method was to identify the figurative and literal meanings of each tweet and the possible expressions.

Data Analysis

In line with the systematic metaphor analysis, the Metaphorical Identification Procedure (MIP) proposed by Pragglejazz Group (2007) and this procedure was further developed by Gerard Steen and his associates. MIP is a procedure in which linguistic expressions are metaphorically recognised on the basis of lexical units derived from a specific discourse structure (Steen, Biernacka, Dorst, Kaal, López-Rodríguez, & Pasma, 2010). A prominent aspect of MIP is that it involves individual to complex form of metaphorical expressions to achieve a higher level of reliability. In the second phase of analysis, MIP was employed to detect the metaphorical meaning of both political figures' tweets during the national election. In accordance to the MIP the occurrence of four stages was evident. The procedure is cited below:

1. The entire discourse was read thoroughly and irrelevant tweets were discarded. This was to establish general understanding of the overall meaning of the tweets in the election context.
2. Lexical units in the text were determined.
3. (a) For each lexical unit in the text, meaning was established in context i.e. how it applied to an entity, relation or attribute in the situation evoked by the text (contextual meaning). What came before and

after the lexical unit was taken into account.

- (b) For each lexical unit, it was determined if there were a more basic contemporary meaning in contexts other than the given context. For our purposes, basic meaning tended to be

- More concrete (what they evoked was easier to imagine, see, hear, feel, smell and taste)
- Related to bodily action
- More precise (as opposed to vague)
- Historically older

Basic meanings were not necessarily the most frequent meanings of the lexical units.

- (c) If the lexical unit had a more basic current/contemporary meaning in contexts other than the given context, it was decided whether the contextual meaning contrasted with the basic meaning but could be understood in comparison with it.

4. Where the answer to 3-c was yes, the lexical unit was marked as metaphorical.

Adapted from: Pragglejazz Group (2007, p. 3)

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This segment analyses, identifies, categorises and explains the various types of conceptual metaphor and Metaphorical Linguistic Expression (MLEs) in the election tweets of both the premiers. The underlying

conceptual metaphors were identified based on the Metaphor Identification Procedure (MIP). In relation to the CMT proposed by Lakoff and Johnson (1980), a typical conceptual metaphor consists of a target domain and a source domain, and the mappings from the source domain help to form a richer understanding of

the target domain. Based on the analysis, the most prominent conceptual metaphor portrayed in the tweets of Najib and Modi was the ELECTION IS A BUILDING metaphor. Figure 1 exhibits some of the MLEs that were obtained from the tweets of both the premiers.

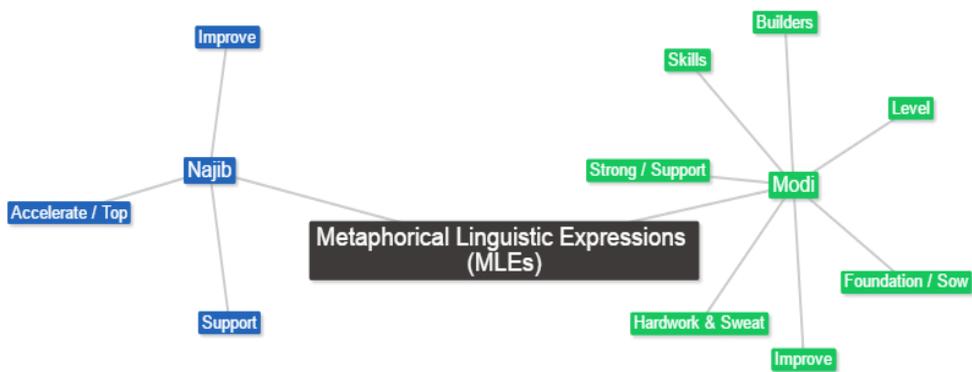


Figure 1. Metaphorical linguistic expressions in the tweets of Najib and Modi

The conceptual metaphor of Election is a Building is pervasively employed in the political discourse, signifying interesting expressions that are highly conventional and abstract. The concept of building as a source domain is then mapped onto the target domain, which is the election. The concept of building resembles a strong edifice that shares similar features as a society. In a society, citizens and politicians are building and they are the builders who construct and reconstruct the nation through intense struggle, hard work, patriotism and dedication. Significantly, this conceptual metaphor entails metaphorical linguistic expressions that are related to the concept

of a building and society. The Election is a Building metaphor further addresses two entailments, which are POLITICIAN ARE NATION CONSTRUCTORS, CITIZENS ARE LABOURERS and THE NATION IS AN EDIFICE..

Metaphor 1: Politicians are Nation Constructors

In the Malaysian context, the notion of nation constructors is observed through the immense effort of Najib as a builder in taking the nation to greater heights. The Metaphorical Linguistic Expressions (MLEs), ‘accelerate’ and ‘top’, are linked to the physical progress of the government

in creating a quick transformation that continues to portray the country as one of the top-rating nations among developing nations. The metaphorical expressions, ‘accelerate’ and ‘top’ portray that Najib as a nation builder intends to form a nation that places people’s priority first as this will enhance the state of a healthy and democratic nation. The term ‘improve’, according to the Oxford dictionary, means consistent progress that increases the quality of life. An example indicated in the Oxford dictionary is, “The situation has improved dramatically during the last few months.” Based on this example, it can be assumed that the term “improve” is related to the living and working conditions that will further enhance citizens’ lives.

The metaphors suggest that Najib and Modi, as constructors of buildings, aim to create a comfort zone for their citizens through the implementation of various projects. The construction of the concept of BUILDING in the national election campaign portrayed a consistent effort by Najib and Modi to construct a futuristic nation in aspects such as the political, social and economic. The results and findings of this study corroborated with the findings of Lu and Ahrens (2008) and Hellín-García (2013), who claimed that POLITICIANS ARE NATION CONSTRUCTORS and builders are politicians who possess a significant role in developing and maintaining a democratic nation. Therefore, the findings supported Lakoff and Johnson’s (1980) notion, ARGUMENT IS A BUILDING. Figure 2 portrays the notion of nation constructors.



Figure 2. Concept of politicians as nation constructors

Metaphor 2: Citizens are Labourers

In contrast to the concept of POLITICIANS ARE NATION CONSTRUCTORS, the category of CITIZENS ARE LABOURERS was observed throughout the election campaign. The occurrence of this entailment was not found in the Malaysian election campaign, but this notion occurred throughout the election campaign in India.

MLEs such as ‘builders’, ‘hardwork and sweat’ and ‘skill’ are associated with the abstract concept of citizens as nation builders. Interestingly, this concept links well with the Indian citizens’ profile as hardworking labourers who constantly battle to make India a better nation. The MLE ‘builders’ denotes the power of citizens in helping the nation to develop an identity of its own. In this context, female voters are viewed as nation builders as 12.2% (“Women MPs in Lok Sabha: How have the numbers changed?”, 2016) of women are politically elected as representatives of various departments in government. Female voters’ participation in the election is able to empower women’s contribution towards nation-building. Hence, women as builders has been a significant boost to the growth of

India, especially during elections. Another MLE that is apparent in this notion is the term ‘hardwork and sweat’. According to the Oxford dictionary this term signifies the tendency of a person to complete a task with immense effort; ‘sweat’ specifically refers to perspiration that is released by the body when strenuous physical work is carried out. The emphasis on these terms implies that nation builders or voters who invest effort and hard work into nation-building during the election must constantly deal with challenges or opposition from external forces that may hinder or influence their progress in electing a capable leader to form a holistic nation. In addition, the term ‘sweat’ points to after the vote casting, when voters have personally cast their vote, or done their duty, in the venture of building a nation of calibre. Apart from these terms, another term that is comprehensive in this concept is the MLE of ‘skill’. The word ‘skill’ refers to capability in performing an action or completing a task. In this case, nation builders or voters require skill to transform the nation, and voters should be constantly equipped with electoral knowledge and updates on legislative issues of the country. Voters with skill are essential in building an all-rounded nation, beginning with electing a suitable national leader.

Based on the analysis, the concept of CITIZENS ARE LABOURERS simply means that the citizens of their nation have been consistently assisting Najib and Modi in building the nation towards a greater future. In addition, citizens who are skilled in aspects such as the social, politic and

economic ensure that the nation building process is a success. Thus, the concept of labourers is mapped on the citizens because citizens are lower in the hierarchy to the ruling class. This finding opposes Charteris-Black’s (2013) notion of SOCIAL ORGANISATION IF A BUILDING that emphasises on teamwork between political figures and citizens in the process of nation-building. Meanwhile, the findings of this study focused on citizens as labourers who engaged in the physical work of helping the nation to build a solid edifice. Figure 3 displays Modi’s use of the concept of citizens as labourers in his tweets.



Figure 3. Notion of citizens are labourers

Metaphor 3: The Nation is an Edifice

The conceptual metaphor THE NATION IS AN EDIFICE is another metaphorical entailment beneath the conceptual metaphor Election is a Building. In this concept, the abstract action of nation-construction is metaphorically described as sowing a framework, laying a foundation and cornerstones in the process of construction.

The MLE ‘sow’ and ‘foundation’ according to the Oxford dictionary refer to the notion of planting or spreading a solid underground base of a building, for

example, “Sow the seeds in rows” and “The concrete foundations have been laid.” An essential part of a building is its foundation, commonly known as the centrepiece. Similar to the concept of building, the nation-building procedure requires a cornerstone that will ensure the endurance of the entire building as it would prevent the building from collapsing. In the 2014 election in India, Modi urged the nation to create a foundation for the country by casting their votes for BJP as the party could help develop the nation in aspects such as infrastructure, law and order, tourism, job creation and economic inflation. The enhancement of the foundation concept implied that Modi’s vision of nation-building was to establish a distinctive identity among other political players who aimed at taking advantage of the nation. Similar to the idea of nation-building, the term ‘level’, according to the Oxford dictionary, denotes the height of something in relation to the ground, for instance, “The floodwater nearly reached the roof level” and “The building is equipped with a multi-level parking lot.” In this context, the word ‘level’ portrays the floor of a building or a layer of the ground that takes a person from one level to another. Throughout his use of the concept of nation-building, Modi asserted the need to develop the nation to a higher level to create change for the nation as states in India had been regressing in development as a result of the political, economic and

social changes of the late 1990s. According to the Oxford dictionary, the term ‘support’ and ‘strong’ present similar notions which are, providing physical power that supports or lifts up something, for example, “People have strong feelings about this issue” and “The government supported citizen in all aspects.” The words ‘support’ and ‘strong’ imply that the structure of the building has to be concrete in order to support the nation from being defeated by the other contesting parties. However, the term ‘support’ in the national election of both the countries indicated that the building needed to be supported by the builders by electing a trusted representative to form a strong edifice. A strong and supported building enhances national integrity and promotes solidarity of the nation.

The study revealed that the nation was conceptualised as a building whereby the nation shared similar characteristics as a building. During the national election in Malaysia and India, the concept of nation-building supported the idea of unity and harmony as a unified nation contributes to the success of the election, and this further encourages the society to stand together regardless of political clichés. Hence, the findings of the current study corresponded with those of Lu and Ahrens’ (2008) concept of A COUNTRY IS A BUILDING, which relates to the unified structure of the nation. Figure 4 displays the theme of the nation is an edifice in Najib and Modi’s election tweets.

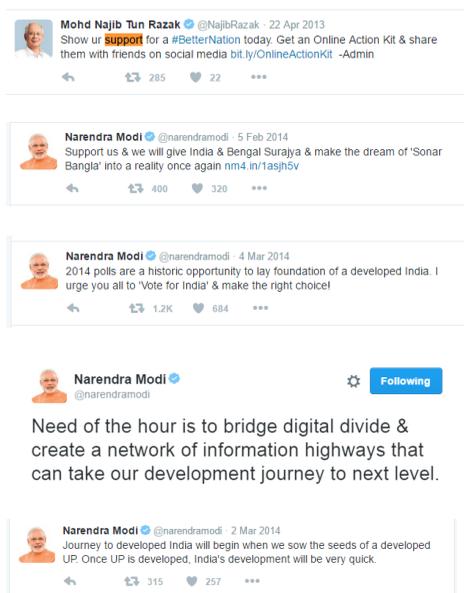


Figure 4. Concept of nation is an edifice

CONCLUSION

This study set out to investigate the metaphorical linguistic expressions of the conceptual metaphor, ARGUMENT IS A BUILDING, based on Lakoff and Johnson’s (1980) notion of conceptual metaphors in the tweets of Prime Ministers Najib and Modi during the last national election of Malaysia and India, respectively. The employment of metaphors in the tweets of both the premiers is prominent in denoting implied notions and as a tool to encourage civilians to cast their vote for these individuals. The different types of conceptual metaphor portrayed in the discourse of both political figures regenerate and stimulate twitteratities to comprehend the tweets fully, assisting readers in grasping the underlying meanings. The findings of this study have shown how

choice of words can be vital for emphasising political stance and notions as seen in the tweets of Najib and Modi. Hence, three metaphorical entailments have emerged to describe the concept of the last national election in Malaysia and India: POLITICIANS ARE NATION CONSTRUCTORS, CITIZENS ARE LABOURERS and THE NATION IS AN EDIFICE. The engagement of these metaphorical expressions highlight certain aspects of solidarity among Najib, Modi and their citizens in building the nations’ dignity while maintaining a solid edifice throughout the election. It is fascinating to note the various types of conceptual metaphor projected in the tweets focused on national unity in Malaysia and India during the national election as the main aim of an election is to unify citizens from diverse walks of life. In addition, the outcomes of this study will further contribute to the existing literature and body of knowledge on the understanding of human cognition and the particular concepts pertaining to these nations’ electoral background.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

This research was supported by Grant Putra – Inisiatif Pensyarah Siswazah (IPS), Universiti Putra Malaysia (UPM). We thank those who provided insight and expertise that greatly assisted this research.

REFERENCES

- Ahrens, K. (2009). Analysing conceptual metaphors in political language. In K. Ahrens (Ed.). *Politics, gender and conceptual metaphors* (pp. 1–6). United Kingdom: Palgrave Macmillan.

- Aristotle. (2008). *Poetics*. New York, NY: Cosimo, Inc.
- Charteris-Black, J. (2013). *Analysing political speeches: Rhetoric, discourse and metaphor*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Chilton, P. (2004). *Analysing political discourse: Theory and practice*. London and New York: Routledge.
- Chilton, P., & Ilyin, M. (1993). Metaphor in political discourse: The case of the 'common European house'. *Discourse and Society*, 4(1), 7–31.
- Dancygier, B., & Sweetser, E. (2014). *Figurative language*. United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press.
- Dubbudu, R. (2015, March 17). Number of political parties in India growing faster than the economy. *Factly*. Retrieved from <https://factly.in/number-of-political-parties-in-india-growing-faster-than-the-economy/>.
- Fairclough, N. (1992). *Discourse and social change* (Vol. 73). Cambridge: Polity press.
- Fairclough, N. (1995). *Media discourse*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Goatly, A. (1997). *The language of metaphors*. London: Routledge.
- Group, P. (2007). MIP: A method for identifying metaphorically used words in discourse. *Metaphor and Symbols*, 22(1), 1–39.
- Hellín-García, M. J. (2013). Legitimization and delegitimization strategies on terrorism: A corpus-based analysis of building metaphors. *Pragmatics*, 23(2), 301–330.
- Jorgensen, M. W., & Phillips, L. J. (2002). *Discourse analysis as theory and method*. London. Sage.
- Koteyko, N., & Ryazanova-Clarke, L. (2009). The path and building metaphors in the speeches of Vladimir Putin: Back to the future? *Slavonica*, 15(2), 112–127.
- Kövecses, Z. (2002). *Metaphor: A practical introduction*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Lakoff, G. (1987). *Women, fire, and dangerous things: What categories reveal about the mind*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Lakoff, G., & Johnson, M. (1980). *Metaphors we live by*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Lakoff, G., & Turner, M. (1989). *More than cool reasons: A field guide to poetic metaphor*. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.
- Lu, L. W. L., & Ahrens, K. (2008). Ideological influence on BUILDING metaphors in Taiwanese presidential speeches. *Discourse and Society*, 19(3), 383–408.
- Mio, J. S., Riggio, R. E., Levin, S., & Reese, R. (2005). Presidential leadership and charisma: The effects of metaphor. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 16(2), 287–294.
- Ortony, A. (1993). *Metaphor and thought* (2nd ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Ottati, V., Rhoads, S., & Graesser, A. C. (1999). The effect of metaphor on processing style in a persuasion task: A motivational resonance model. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 77(4), 688–697.
- Peel, E. S. (2002). *Politics, persuasion, and pragmatism: A rhetoric of feminist utopian fiction*. Columbus: The Ohio State University Press.
- Rao, B. (2016, March 8). Women MPs in Lok Sabha: How have the numbers changed? *Factly*. Retrieved from: <https://factly.in/women-mps-in-lok-sabha-how-have-the-numbers-changed/>.

- Ritchie, L. D. (2006). *Metaphor and connection in metaphor*. New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Semino, E. (2008). *Metaphor in discourse*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Steen, G. J., Biernacka, E., Dorst, A. G., Kaal, A. A., López-Rodríguez, I., & Pasma, T. (2010). Pragglejaz in practice: Finding metaphorically used words in natural discourse. In G. Low, A. Diegman, L. Cameron, & Z. Todd (Eds.), *Researching and applying metaphor in the real world* (pp. 165–184). Amsterdam, The Netherlands: John Benjamin Publishing Co.
- Wang, H., Can, D., Kazemzadeh, A., Bar, F., & Narayanan, S. (2012). A system for real-time twitter sentiment analysis of 2012 us presidential election cycle. In *Proceedings of the 50th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics* (pp. 115–120). Jeju, Republic of Korea. Retrieved from <http://www.aclweb.org/anthology/P12-3020>
- Xue, J., Mao, Z., & Li, N. (2013). Conceptual metaphor in American presidential inaugural addresses. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 3(4), 678–683.
- Zoltán, K. (2002). *Metaphor: A practical introduction*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Marriage Migration: Lived Experience of Foreign Spouses Married to Malaysian Citizens

Tedong, P. A.^{1*}, Roslan, K.² and Abdul Kadir, A. R.³

¹*Department of Urban and Regional Planning, University of Malaya, 50603 UM, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia*

²*Department of Southeast Asian Studies, University of Malaya, 50603 UM, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia*

³*Department of International and Strategic Studies, University of Malaya, 50603 UM, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia*

ABSTRACT

Marriage migration has led to marriage migrants as a significant aspect of migration. While much of the literature on migration in the Malaysian context discusses labour migration, very little is documented on marriage migration in Malaysia, especially concerning foreign spouses' viewpoint on their international marriage. Therefore, this paper sought to investigate and document the foreign spouses' lived experience in several aspects of life from acquiring the spouse visa to employment to family and relationship with friends in Malaysia. Results obtained from data collected through in-depth interviews give the overview that foreign spouses experience difficulties due to their status as a 'foreigner'. Foreign spouses' experience of living in Malaysia is related to the idea that a 'foreigner' is considered socially excluded in the country, leading to difficulties. Overall, foreign spouses face many challenges living in Malaysia.

Keywords: International marriages, foreign spouses, lived experience, Malaysia, marriage migration

INTRODUCTION

The social phenomenon of foreign spouses is becoming more evident in Malaysia as marriage migrants come to live with their Malaysian spouses after entering into an international marriage. Literature on international marriages and marriage migration in the Malaysian context is limited as research into migration in Malaysia

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received: 04 July 2017

Accepted: 03 January 2018

E-mail addresses:

peteraning@um.edu.my (Tedong, P. A.)

kazimah@siswa.um.edu.my (Roslan, K.)

rahimofkuching@gmail.com (Abdul Kadir, A. R.)

*Corresponding author

centres on labour migration. Using Malaysia as the country of focus for this study, this paper aimed to identify and discuss the range of the lived experience of foreign spouses from obtaining their spouse visa to pursuing employment to family and relationships with local friends as a foreign spouse. Marriage migration can be defined as migration within or across borders due to marriage (European Institute for Gender Equality, 2017). An international marriage can be defined as marriage between two persons of different nationalities (Chee, 2011).

The lived experience of foreign spouses is conceptualised within the social exclusion theory framework, which views foreign spouses as any other foreigner (such as labour migrants) and excludes them from various aspects of life on a case-to-case basis. Social exclusion on a case-to-case basis occurs when foreign spouses are unable to find a job that aligns with their knowledge and skills due to the fact that they are still considered a foreign entity in the country until they acquire Malaysian permanent resident (PR) status and citizenship. Facing social exclusion at some point of their life and having to deal with various difficulties that come with being a foreign spouse in Malaysia are part of their lived experience. Social exclusion can lead to having to live with a wide range of phenomena and processes related to poverty, deprivation and hardship, and includes a wide range of categories of excluded people and places of exclusion (Peace, 2001). Peace (2010) argued that the broad definition of exclusion

is useful for analysing multidimensional and complex issues in developing countries.

The paper is divided into several sections. The first is a literature review on marriage migration, social exclusion and international marriages in Malaysia. After outlining the situation on international marriages in Malaysia, this paper presents the research methodology undertaken in this study before reporting on the findings of the data collected on the lived experience of foreign spouses in the country in the three main aspects of spouse visa, employment and relationship with Malaysian family and friends. The paper concludes by examining the overall experience of foreign spouses married to a Malaysian citizen and their coping strategies in response to the difficult experience of being a foreign spouse in Malaysia.

MARRIAGE MIGRATION AND SOCIAL EXCLUSION

Migration is often a family affair, involving the families of those who move; in this study, the movement studied is that of marriage migrants after marriage (Butt, 2014). Migrants, in short, are subjects who made a wide range of choices based on a highly social personal space, with the result that they may suffer negative emotional effects of isolation and have little control over their working and living conditions (Butt, 2014). A paper by Wong, Ng and Chou (2015) showed that marriage migrants have difficulty being socially included and building a social network outside their own communities. Although the paper focusses

on the situation of female marriage migrants in Hong Kong, the findings are relatable to the situation of foreign spouses living in any country. It is also arguable that some foreign spouses may not have difficulty in building a fresh social network with their family and friends after marriage as they may possess higher social adaptability skills than other marriage migrants.

Extensive studies and surveys have indicated that marriage migrants encounter tremendous difficulties with social and economic integration resulting in various levels of psychological stress (Chou, 2009, 2012; Lai, 1997; Mo, Mak, & Kwan, 2006; Yu, Stewart, Liu, & Lam, 2014). In order to combat the psychological stress from living in a foreign country, foreign spouses seek support in the form of intangible support. Intangible support is emotional support involving verbal and nonverbal communication that extends care, trust and concern (Hogana, Lindena, & Najarianb, 2002). This type of support usually comes from family members and close friends who provide empathy, love and care (Antonucci & Jackson, 1990; House, 1981). Therefore, having a good relationship with family and friends will provide foreign spouses with a good experience of living in Malaysia.

The term 'social exclusion' began in France in the 1970s and has been used widely in Europe in response to contemporary social disintegration arising from migration (Silver, 1994). The social exclusion theory was further developed in Europe in the 1990s, originating in the study of social inequality, and has now become a

core concept in interpreting various social problems (Wan & Zhu, 2013). The problem of social exclusion is usually tied to that of equal opportunity, as some people are more subject to such exclusion than others. People who lack equal opportunity tend to be excluded; to be socially excluded means to be marginalised from society (Razer, Friedman, & Warshofsky, 2013).

It is also important to note that social exclusion is multidimensional and is not limited only to poverty and the denial of social rights (Silver, 1996). The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) (2004) deemed social exclusion as cultural exclusion dividable into two types. The first type is when state and social customs suppress a group's culture, while the second occurs when the state engages in discriminatory policies and practices in society. The second type of social exclusion applies to the vulnerable situation of foreign husbands and wives in Malaysia, where discriminatory policies highlight foreign spouses' dependency on their Malaysian partners either in the visa application process or in obtaining employment.

A study of Vietnamese wives in Singapore by Yeoh, Chee and Vu (2013) stated that in the case of Singapore, immigrant women from less developed countries who marry Singaporeans are positioned within the nation's immigration-citizenship regime not as potential labour but as dependents (non-working wives) who rely on the legitimacy of the marriage and resources of their husbands in negotiating their rights to residency, work and children

vis-à-vis Singaporean laws. Because of this, their position as a foreign spouse makes them highly vulnerable, as they are economically dependent and live engulfed by the fear of deportation if the marriage goes wrong. Foreign wives in Malaysia may be said to face a similar situation as they are also dependent on their Malaysian husbands, and therefore, receive less attention from the state.

Another study by Gaetano and Yeoh (2010) also supported the theory that migrant women traversing borders and boundaries experience marginality and exclusionary politics operated through gendered, sexualised, classed, ethicised and nationalised apparatuses. Other than that, marginalisation of foreign spouses is also shown in research by Wang and Chang (2002), who noted that in Taiwan, even though foreign brides managed to reside in the country on a permanent basis, they are still viewed as ‘outsiders’ by the general population, who perceive foreign brides as the source of social problems due to the high number of divorces between local men and foreign brides and because they threaten the traditional family system and education system and tend to become involved in prostitution (Hsia, 2000).

In another study, Ishii (2016) categorised marriage migrants as multi-marginalised due to the “multiply displaced” status of marriage migrants as without formal citizenship, these marriage migrants are often in a much more precarious situation after marriage (Piper & Roces, 2003). Marriage migrants are said to be doubly marginalised when they are

unable to realise their goals in both sending or receiving nation states (Yeoh et al., 2013). For instance, a vulnerable migrant worker seeking secure residential status may enter into marriage with a local man but discover afterwards that she has to go through indefinite periods of waiting and is unable to work before she can actually become a ‘non-migrant’.

Existing literature on the subject of social exclusion in Malaysia mostly concerns the experience of refugees such as the Rohingyas (Fielding, 2016) and labour migrants (Franck, 2015) and is limited on the subject of foreign spouses living in the country. From the reviewed literature, it can be seen that foreign spouses are subject to marginalisation and are socially excluded mainly due to their status as a dependant of their spouse. The next section addresses the problems faced by foreign spouses living in Malaysia as socially excluded individuals in terms of citizenship, employment and other aspects.

INTERNATIONAL MARRIAGES IN MALAYSIA

Malaysia’s mixed-race population is largely the result of migration flows over the past 150 years (Jones & Shen, 2008). The new international migration flow of ‘marriage migrants’ is due to international marriages and marriages spanning borders (Bélanger & Linh, 2011). The rapid increase in Malaysia’s foreign population over the past three decades is also spurred by migration. In 1980, 0.48% out of a population of 13 million in Malaysia were non-citizens.

This figure rose to 2.3 million non-citizens in 2010 i.e. 8.3% out of 28.4 million Malaysians (Department of Statistics, 2011). Although the majority of these non-citizens are low-skilled workers, the figure also includes other groups of migrants such as expatriates, international students, participants of the 'Malaysia My Second Home' programme, asylum seekers and not to forget, foreign spouses of Malaysia citizens (Azizah, 2014).

This paper focusses on the lived experience of foreign spouses who enter into an international marriage with a Malaysian. Existing studies on the issue of marriage migration mostly focusses on the commodification of marriage migrants through commercial brokerage (Constable, 2009; Yeoh, Chee, & Vu, 2014) and the issue of the marriage migrants' strategies and claim of citizenship rights in their 'integration' process into racialised and gendered national membership regimes (Chee, Lu, & Yeoh, 2014; De Hart, 2006; Friedman, 2010; Turner, 2008). The influx of immigrants is not a new phenomenon in Malaysia, particularly as a result of labour migration, as testified by the current situation in multi-ethnic Malaysia (Kudo, 2013). However, there is little research into international marriages in Malaysia; most of the research in Southeast Asia focusses on the situation in developed countries such as Singapore, South Korea, Japan, Taiwan and Hong Kong (Toyota, 2008; Wang & Chang, 2002; Yeoh et al., 2013; Zhang, Lu, & Yeoh, 2015).

Chee (2011) mentioned in her paper that although Malaysia is also experiencing a rise in the number of international marriages, yearly statistics on international marriages are not published by the government. However, these statistics are captured by the media. The media have disclosed that there was a rise in the number of international marriages in Malaysia from 2001 to June 2005 amounting to 33,995 international marriages between local men and foreign women (Leng, 2011). As research into this area progressed over the years, researchers were able to source out the yearly statistics on international marriages from 2010 to 2015 from the Malaysian Immigration Department. It was reported by the Malaysian Immigration Department that 10,212 international marriages were held in 2010. The number rose to 55,898 marriages in 2012 and reached its peak in 2015, with 118,581 marriages (Department of Immigration, 2016). The increasing number of international marriages in Malaysia highlights the significance of conducting research into this subject of marriage migration.

METHOD

The qualitative research method was considered the appropriate method of investigation for this paper as it was unrealistic to conduct a quantitative survey for this study given its advantages in providing a thickly descriptive report of the individual's opinions, understanding and experience on the subject matter.

According to Creswell (2007), qualitative research is appropriate for use in the presence of complex issues that require careful understanding. Qualitative research enables researchers to attain in-depth knowledge, and at the same time, explore the meanings of a social phenomenon, in this case, international marriage migration, as experienced by the individuals themselves (Alasutaari, 2009).

The primary data collection method used in this paper was the in-depth semi-structured interview. In-depth semi-structured Interviews were conducted as an on-going two-year research project in Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia. The reason for doing the sampling of the study in Kuala Lumpur was because Kuala Lumpur, the capital city of the nation, is a highly urbanised major city, making it the natural place of residence for many (including foreign spouses). According to the Department of Statistics (2011), Malaysia's level of urbanisation was only 34.2% in 1980, but it increased to 50.7% in 1990, 62.0% in the year 2000 and reached 71.0% in 2010. By 2010, Kuala Lumpur had become 100% urban and the eighth largest urbanised area in Southeast Asia, larger than some megacity urban areas like Jakarta, Manila and Seoul despite having a smaller city population (The World Bank, 2015).

Apart from using the in-depth semi-structured interview, data for this paper was also collected from material reviews on the subject of migrants' experiences in

Malaysia. A total of 20 foreign spouses were interviewed, 10 of whom were foreign grooms, while the other half were foreign brides married to Malaysian citizens. The respondents originated from different countries such as the Philippines, Pakistan, India, China, Russia and Palestine and had different demographic characteristics as international marriage brings together people of various ages, occupation and networks. The summary of socio-demographic information about the foreign spouses interviewed in this study is compiled in Table 1 below.

Table 1
Summary of respondents' socio-demographic information

Socio-Demographic Information	Number
Gender	Male: 10 Female: 10
Age	Majority age-range: 31-37 Youngest: 27 Oldest: 56
Country of origin	Palestine: 3 Pakistan: 4 China: 4 Russia: 1 India: 4 Philippines: 4
Type of visa upon entry	Social: 11 Student: 5
Type of current visa	Work: 4 Work: 4 Spouse: 15
Number of years living in Malaysia	Permanent resident: 1 Average: 9

Table 1 (continue)

Socio-Demographic Information	Number
Number of years married	Longest: 26 Shortest: 2
Religion	Longest: 26 Shortest: 2 Islam: 12 Christian: 4 Buddhist: 4
Level of education	Diploma: 2 Undergraduate: 5 Postgraduate: 13
Employment status	Self-employed: 3 Employed: 14 Not employed: 3
Household monthly income	RM4,000 – RM4,499: 5 RM5,000 and above: 15
Number of children	Minimum: 1 Maximum: 3

From Table 1, it can be seen that all the respondents of the study came from a household of M40 (middle 40) group with a monthly income between RM3,860 and RM8,319 (Surendra, 2017), and possessed either a diploma, degree or Master's degree. This background trait may distinguish between the lived experience of the study respondents and that of foreign spouses who may only possess primary-level education. Therefore, it can be said that this study was limited to a certain group of foreign spouses in the country who were from the middle-income group, had tertiary-level education level, were living in Kuala Lumpur and did not represent foreign spouses in the country as a whole.

The qualitative method involving multiple approaches for recruiting respondents for this study brought together a relatively diverse group of interviewees. First, we approached friends who happened to be foreign spouses themselves and through the snowball sampling method, they introduced us to their circle of foreign spouses' friends. Then, we collaborated with a respondent who was an administrator of an NGO group for foreign spouses who introduced the researchers to a larger network of foreign spouses. Although the sampling of the study used the snowball sampling method, all the respondents selectively chosen fulfilled the following criteria:

- i. 18 years old or older (“adult”)
- ii. A foreign citizen regardless of country of origin
- iii. Married to a Malaysian citizen
- iv. Has been staying in Malaysia for not less than one year
- v. Able to comment on issues and problems faced being a foreign spouse, based on daily life experience.

Prior to each interview session, the researcher obtained consent from each foreign spouse for audio taping the interview session and citing their narrative in the findings. To ensure confidentiality, the actual names of the respondents were not used in the paper findings. Each interview lasted from one to two hours and during the interview, the researchers also implemented note-taking to

ensure accuracy of data collection and due process of transcription. Next, the recorded interviews were transcribed and coded according to theme for further thematic analysis of the qualitative data.

Questions asked of each foreign spouse in the interviews included how the foreign spouses had met their Malaysian spouse and what their daily lives were like in terms of various aspects such as employment and relationship issues, among others. The researchers encouraged the foreign spouses to talk freely and in order to minimise the drawbacks of interview-based research, we avoided leading questions and did not interrupt their narration. However, we do not claim that the interview data were fully autonomous. The results of this study are presented and discussed in the next section of the paper summarising the respondents' narrative on their experience in establishing a home in Malaysia with their Malaysian family.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The paper discusses the real lived experience of selected foreign spouses living in the capital city of Malaysia. Foreign spouses are a significant part of the larger migrant community and comprise marriage migrants, immigrants who enter into an international marriage with a Malaysian and migrate to Malaysia to start their new life with their Malaysian spouse. In most cases are the individual arrives in Malaysia for education, work or travel but ends up marrying a Malaysian man/woman. Although there is much in the literature on the experience

of migrant workers in Southeast Asia, Malaysia included, very little reports on the experience of marriage migrants. Therefore, this study undertook to conduct in-depth interviews to explore the lived experience of selected foreign spouses in Malaysia.

This section of the paper will examine the different issues that these selected foreign spouses encountered after marriage as a foreign spouse living in Malaysia, focussing on their experience of: (1) acquiring a spouse visa; (2) getting employment, and (3) building relationships with family and friends in Malaysia.

Lived Experience of Acquiring Spouse Visa

As all other migrants anywhere else around the globe, marriage migrants in Malaysia also find their main concern to be obtaining a visa and citizenship. Issues related to acquiring citizenship, a spouse visa and PR status emerge as the most prominent in marriage migration studies (Chee et al., 2014; Friedman, 2010; Lee, 2008; Toyota, 2008; Turner, 2008; Yeoh et al., 2013). However, in this study, the foreign spouses held a spouse visa and had not as yet applied for Malaysian citizenship.

The majority of the study respondents relayed that they had difficulty in acquiring a spouse visa, a distinct visa granted to the foreign spouses of Malaysian citizens according them some privilege. The 'spouse visa' is actually is the 'Long Term Social Visit Pass' (LTSVP). Most of the respondents claimed that the difficulties that they faced being married to a Malaysian arose from

the procedure applying for a visa, lack of information and transparency in acquiring a spouse visa. Nahid, a male foreign spouse aged 37 from Palestine, spoke about his experience in getting a spouse visa:

At the beginning, it was very challenging. A lot of documents are needed, lots of paperwork, and countless number of journeys that I have to make to the immigration. In the beginning, I thought that I have to go to the immigration office at Putrajaya, but unfortunately once I got there, they told me to go to Shah Alam instead.

Nahid experienced a lot of difficulty in having to present the proper documentation and had even gone to the wrong location to apply for the documentation. Another respondent agreed that the initial stage of applying for a spouse visa had been difficult:

I think for me when I first started the registration there's a lot of things you have to submit and also you have to wait for 6 months. It's the biggest challenge for me. It's really hard. I have been in Immigration for many times for my spouse visa. I went to Immigration and I did the documents for spouse visa application, but here they made it a hassle. They ask for many documents and each time the officer requests for different kind of documents (Lee, 26 years old from China).

Apart from the need to prepare many different documentation to support the

application for a spouse visa, Lee also experienced confusion when given different instructions by different officers as to what supporting documents were required (Immigration Department of Malaysia, 2017). Each time he visited the immigration office, he was given a different document checklist and instructions. Besides that, Lee also felt that the 'cooling period' after his marriage was difficult for him and his wife. Lee's experience was that the spouse visa application process was marred by lack of information and transparency.

However, a small number of the selected foreign spouses had experienced a relatively easy process in applying for a spouse visa. One male respondent said:

Apart from being aware on the necessity for foreign spouses to apply for a spouse visa, there is one thing that I would like to praise on how Malaysia government handles the spouse visa application. The process is much easier as it will only take a day or two to be completed. Whereas student visa and work permit takes longer to approve and is much more expensive (Mohamad, 30 years old from Palestine).

The data collected revealed that each foreign spouse had a different experience in acquiring the spouse visa. For many it was difficult. In the case of Mohamad, the experience might have been an easy one because of his background. Unlike Lee, who had only been in the country for three years, Mohamad had been residing in the

country for 13 years before he married a Malaysian and applied for the spouse visa. Mohamad was able to speak fluent Bahasa Melayu, the national language of Malaysia. Being better assimilated into Malaysian culture and life, Mohamad probably had a better understanding of how Malaysian bureaucracy works, resulting in the smoother process he had experienced.

To sum up, the most prominent problems faced by the foreign spouses interviewed in the study had to do with government bureaucracy and practice in relation to application for a spouse visa. The respondents' poor access to the legal systems in terms of spouse visa and PR application signified that at one point of time, they had been socially excluded due to discriminatory policies and practices of the state in connection with foreign spouses of Malaysian citizens (Chee et al., 2014).

Lived Experience of Acquiring Employment

The need for steady employment is a concern for all people, and probably more so for marriage migrants who have left their home country. The pressure to provide for the family is probably felt more deeply by male foreign spouses coming from and now living in a traditional culture that still tends to see the male as the breadwinner of the family. Nevertheless, many foreign brides also feel the urgency of gaining employment so as to have financial freedom and not be financially dependent on their Malaysian husbands. In the interviews, the respondents shared that acquiring employment had

been a strenuous and difficult experience for them. Many Malaysian companies were unwilling to hire a foreign spouse as they were considered foreigners if they did not have PR or citizenship status. One respondent (Musa) remarked, "Most companies won't hire us. The minute they see a foreigner or "Bukan Warganegara" in the CV, they will filter our CV out. Automatically."

Furthermore, potential employers might be misguided on the legality of hiring foreign spouses as the spouse visa contains a misleading statement i.e. that "any form of employment is strictly prohibited – SPOUSE OF A MALAYSIAN CITIZEN." This statement may cause employers to hesitate when it comes to hiring foreign spouses. Because of this, the majority of the respondents encountered problems in finding employment. According to one respondent:

It's not easy to find a job. Because the employers don't understand the concept that I have my own visa. For any company to hire a foreigner, it's scary because they think that they have to take care of your visa which is very expensive for foreigners. Besides, there are certain regulations by the immigration that if you want to recruit a foreigner, the salary has to be on a certain level. And this level is a little bit high, at least 5K and above (Jabal, 36 years old from Palestine).

Jabal appeared dissatisfied that it was difficult for him to find a job in the country of

his spouse. He further stated that Malaysian hiring companies were not adventurous in hiring a foreign spouse as a foreigner's salary is higher than the average salary of a Malaysian. Data analysis also revealed that most of the respondents were frustrated that they were not given the opportunity for equal employment in the Malaysian workforce as a foreign spouse. One respondent (Orhan) strongly believed that he had the necessary skills to contribute to the Malaysian labour force but it was difficult for him to apply for a job as he does not hold PR status. According to Orhan,

Maybe they felt I am not suitable for the post or maybe because I don't have a PR status. And, if they do consider, maybe out of hundred posts there is only one post that is available for a foreigner employee . . . so the challenge is really real.

The data suggested that although the foreign spouses were able to work with a spouse visa, it was difficult for them to search for jobs due to their foreign status in the country. One respondent, Adam, also experienced difficulty in procuring a job in the beginning and stated that foreign spouses would continue to be perceived as foreigners until they obtained PR status. He remarked, "When you apply for the job and bring your CV, it doesn't state in the CV that you married a Malaysian. So, it is not easy. Unless you have a PR."

To conclude, most of the respondents experienced difficulty of some degree in

searching for a job as Malaysian employers were not aware that foreign spouses of Malaysian citizens are allowed to work based on their spouse visa instead of their work visa despite the misleading statement on work in the spouse visa. This then imposes a difficulty on foreign spouses, making their experience of job seeking in the country a negative one.

Lived Experience of Relationships with Family and Friends

Foreign spouses' relationships with family, in-laws and Malaysian friends forms a large part of their lived experience while living in Malaysia. Good relationship with family and Malaysian friends provides emotional support in their new experience as marriage migrants living outside the country of their birth. Data obtained from the interviews revealed that the majority of the respondents had a good relationship with their Malaysian in-laws and friends and they were able to assimilate well into Malaysian culture. Take the following case, for example:

I met my wife through my Malay foster family. It was an arranged marriage but still we are happily married. Apart from my Malaysian family, I'm actually closer to Malaysians. I've been playing football like in a weekly basis with my Malaysian friends almost for 4 years. Even during the match, they thought that, "This guy looks like a foreigner". But when they tried to talk to me in English but I replied in Malay, they were shocked. I tried to adapt into Malaysian

culture and before I got married, I was wearing Malaysian clothes and had too many Malaysian foods (Aswad, 32 years old from Gaza).

Aswad had been living in Malaysia for eight years. The respondent was able to speak fluent Bahasa Melayu, was a Muslim and was fully assimilated into Malaysian culture. These factors may be why it was easier for him to mingle and form close relationships with Malay society and acquire Malaysian friends. It was found that most of the foreign wives interviewed in this study had good relationships with their Malaysian in-laws. Jean, a female foreign spouse seemed happy when she revealed, "My family in-laws are very nice to me. So, I'm lucky." Another foreign wife, Fiona, also expressed that she had become very good friends with her mother in-law and expressed cheerfully, "Mainly we have a very good relationship. When we got married, my mother-in law came to meet with us in London and we have travelled together so we became very good friends." According to Shay, a 33-year-old foreign wife from the Philippines:

My husband's family is not the types that push you. And they also understand that I'm a foreigner so my behaviours may not be the same as them. It is the same on the issue of wearing the headscarf. Because as I has converted into Islam, they don't really push me to wear a headscarf but they open up the possibility that someday I will wear them. And they are quite an open-

minded family so not quite difficult for me.

Shay had lived in Malaysia for eight years. Like most of the respondents who had been in Malaysia for more than five years, Shay had an excellent grasp of Bahasa Melayu and was able to adapt well to Malaysian life.

It can be concluded that the majority of the foreign spouses interviewed in this study had a good relationship with their Malaysian family and friends although a small number experienced relationship problems with their Malaysian family before the marriage due to religious and cultural differences between them and their Malaysian spouse. Aside from that, it can be argued that the ability of foreign spouses to speak Malay fluently enabled them to assimilate well into Malaysian society, and this ability probably affected their relationship with their Malaysian family and friends.

Coping Strategies

As shown in past studies by Chou (2009, 2012), Lai (1997), Mo et al. (2006) and Yu et al. (2014), the respondents in this study also sought support in coping with their new life from their Malaysian family and friends. Intangible support is a coping strategy among emotion-focused strategies (Aldwin & Revenson, 1987; Peraica, 2009) to regulate the emotional consequences of stressful or potentially stressful events (Peraica, 2009; Taylor, 1998). Emotion-focused strategies rely on handling the feeling of distress emotionally, such as by relying on social support by talking

to friends or family about concerns. One respondent, 30-year-old Mari from India, stated:

You could say that my coping strategies are my Malaysian husband and my Malaysian family. There was one time, when I was filling my spouse visa form and was not too unsure on some of the items, my husband actually asked his dad. Because his dad is a lawyer.

By talking to someone who could do something concrete to help overcome the trauma caused by the stressful situation, the respondent displayed an emotion-focused coping strategy to a specific problem. Another respondent obtained intangible support by connecting with his ethnic group and participating in an online ethnic forum consisting of users who were also foreign spouses from his home country. Tan, a 29-year-old from China, said:

If I have any questions about immigration-related matters, I will ask my friends and we will also search the solution through an online forum. There is this Chinese forum. If you have any questions you can ask them. Quite a number of the users have been married here for more than 10 years with a local so they can provide you with the answer.

When the respondents sought advice from someone or shared their feelings with them, whether it was their Malaysian spouse, Malaysian family, friends or others, they were able to minimise or resolve the

problems that they were facing by resorting to a form of intangible support that relied on emotion-focused coping.

CONCLUSION

This paper addressed the lived experience of foreign spouses married to Malaysians and living in Malaysia. The aspects of their experience focused on were problems faced in (1) acquiring a spouse visa, (2) gaining employment, and (3) forming relationships with family and friends in Malaysia. The in-depth interviews revealed three issues related to their lived experience in Malaysia. Firstly, we discovered that in terms of acquiring a spouse visa, the majority of the respondents expressed that they had encountered a number of difficulties in the initial phase of applying for the visa such as that a lot of documentation was required to support their visa application. Secondly, the interview data found that the foreign spouses had difficulty getting a job in Malaysia as most Malaysian companies hesitated to recruit them due to their status as 'foreigners'.

Thirdly, in contrast to other studies that had found that foreign spouses had experienced difficulties in forming relationships outside their own community, our analysis revealed that the majority of the respondents living in Malaysia had a good relationship with their local in-laws and friends. Most of them reported that they led a happy married life with their Malaysian spouse and children. We also found that to overcome the difficult experiences they encountered, the respondents implemented

emotion-focused coping strategies as a form of intangible support and that they applied for such support from their Malaysian spouse, family and friends.

We centred our discussion upon the notion that foreign spouses married to Malaysians and living in Malaysia are still perceived as foreigners, being socially excluded from the larger Malaysian community and therefore, experiencing difficulties in their lives here. In essence, the lived experience of these foreign spouses in Malaysia demonstrated their struggle in a number of aspects of their life that were beyond their control. Future research could investigate the underlying factors such as educational background in exploring the lived experience of foreign spouses.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

This work was supported by the Equitable Society Research Cluster (ESRC), University of Malaya, under the research grant RP028C-15SBS.

REFERENCES

- Alasutaari, P. (2009). The rise and relevance of qualitative research. *International Journal of Social Research Methodology*, 13(2), 139–155.
- Aldwin, C., & Revenson, T. A. (1987). Does coping help? A reexamination of the relation between coping and mental health. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 53(2), 337–348.
- Antonucci, T. C., & Jackson, J. S. (1990). The role of reciprocity in social support. In B. R. Sarason, I. G. Sarason, & G. R. Pierce (Eds.), *Social support: An interactional view* (pp. 73–98). New York: Wiley.
- Azizah, K. (2014). Recent trends in transnational population inflows into Malaysia: Policy, issues and challenges. *Malaysian Journal of Economic Studies*, 51(1), 9–28.
- Butt, L. (2014). *Migration, mobility and transnational families: New priorities in the Asia-Pacific*. Canada: University of Victoria.
- Bélanger, D., & Linh, T. G. (2011). The impact of transnational migration on gender and marriage in sending communities of Vietnam. *Current Sociology*, 59(1), 59–77. doi:10.1177/00113921110385970
- Chee, H. L. (2011). International marriages in Malaysia: Issues arising from state policies and processes. In G. W. Jones, T. H. Hull, & M. Mohamad (Eds.), *Changing marriage patterns in Southeast Asia: economic and socio-cultural dimensions* (pp. 185–201). England: Routledge Contemporary Southeast Asia Series.
- Chee, H. L., Lu, M. C. W., & Yeoh, B. S. A. (2014). Ethnicity, citizenship and reproduction: Taiwanese wives making citizenship claims in Malaysia. *Citizenship Studies*, 18(8), 823–838.
- Chou, K. L. (2009). Pre-migration planning and depression among new migrants to Hong Kong: The moderating role of social support. *Journal of Affective Disorders*, 114(1-3), 85–93.
- Chou, K. L. (2012). Perceived discrimination and depression among new migrants to Hong Kong: The moderating role of social support and neighborhood collective efficacy. *Journal of Affective Disorders*, 138(1-2), 63–70.
- Constable, N. (2009). The commodification of intimacy: Marriage, sex and reproductive labor. *Annual Review of Anthropology*, 38(1), 49–64.
- Creswell, J. W. (2007). *Choosing among five approaches* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

- De Hart, B. (2006). The morality of Maria Toet: Gender, citizenship and construction of the nation-state. *Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies*, 32(1), 49–68.
- DI. (2016). *Statistik perkahwinan antarabangsa: Jumlah perkahwinan di antara warga asing dengan warganegara Malaysia mengikut tahun*. Putrajaya: Department of Immigration, Malaysia.
- DS. (2011). *Population and housing census Malaysia: Population distribution and basic demographic characteristics report 2010 (Updated: 05/08/2011)*. Department of Statistics. Retrieved from https://www.dosm.gov.my/v1/index.php?r=column/cthem&menu_id=L0pheU43NWJwRWVVSZklWdzQ4TlhUUT09&bul_id=MDMxdHZjWTK1SjFzTzNkRXYzcVZjdz09.
- EIGE. (2017). Marriage migration. *Gender equality glossary and thesaurus*. European Institute for Gender Equality. Retrieved from <http://eige.europa.eu/rdc/thesaurus/terms/1284>.
- Fielding, T. (2016). *Asian migrations: Social and geographical mobilities in Southeast, East and Northeast Asia*. Abingdon: Routledge
- Franck, A. K. (2016). A(nother) geography of fear: Burmese labour migrants in George Town, Malaysia. *Urban Studies*, 53(15), 3206–3222.
- Friedman, S. L. (2010). Marital immigration and graduated citizenship: Post-naturalization restrictions on mainland Chinese spouses in Taiwan. *Pacific Affairs*, 83(1), 73–93.
- Gaetano, A., & Yeoh, B. S. A. (2010). Women and migration in globalizing Asia: Gendered experiences, agency and activism. *International Migration*, 48(6), 1–12.
- Hogana, B. E., Lindena, W., & Najarianb, B. (2002). Social support interventions: Do they work. *Clinical Psychology Review*, 22(3), 381–440.
- House, J. S. (1981). *Work stress and social support*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Hsia, H. C. (2000). Transnational marriage and the internationalisation of capital: The case of the foreign bride phenomenon in Taiwan. *Taiwan: A Radical Quarterly in Social Studies*, 39(1), 49–92.
- IDM. (2017). *Required documents*. Immigration Department of Malaysia. Retrieved from <http://www.imi.gov.my/index.php/en/pass.html?id=286>.
- Ishii, S. K. (2016). Marriage migrants as multi-marginalized transnational diaspora. In S. K. Ishii (Ed.), *Marriage migration in Asia: Emerging minorities at the frontiers of the nation-states* (pp. 1-26). Singapore: NUS Press.
- Jones, G. W., & Shen, H. H. (2008). International marriage in East and Southeast Asia: Trends and research emphases. *Citizenship Studies*, 12(1), 9–25.
- Kudo, S. (2013). Securitization of undocumented migrants and the politics of insecurity in Malaysia. *Procedia Environmental Sciences*, 17, 947-956.
- Lai, P. C. Y. (1997). An exploratory study on Chinese immigrant women in Hong Kong. In D. T. L. Shek, M. C. Lam, & C. F. Au (Eds.), *Social work in Hong Kong: Reflections and challenges* (pp. 143–164). Hong Kong: The Chinese University of Hong Kong.
- Lee, H. K. (2008). International marriage and the state in South Korea: Focusing on governmental policy. *Citizenship Studies*, 12(1), 107-123.
- Leng, C. H. (2001). International marriage migration in Malaysia: Issues arising from state policies and process. In G. W. Jones, T. H. Hull & M. Mohamad (Eds.), *Cultural Dimensions*. New York, USA: Routledge.
- Mo, P. K. H., Mak, W. W. S., & Kwan, C. S. Y. (2006). Cultural change and Chinese immigrants: Distress and help seeking in Hong Kong. *Journal of Ethnic and Cultural Diversity in Social Work*, 15(1), 29-51.

- Peace, R. (2001). Social exclusion: A concept in need of definition. *Journal of New Zealand*, 16, 17–35.
- Peraica, A. (Ed.) (2009). *Victim's symptom: PTSD and culture*. Amsterdam: Institute of Network Cultures.
- Piper, N., & Roces, M. (Eds.). (2003). *Wife or worker? Asian women and migration*. Boulder: Rowan & Littlefield.
- Razer, M., Friedman, V. J., & Warshofsky, B. (2013). Schools as agents of social exclusion and inclusion. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 17(11), 1152–1170.
- Silver, H. (1994). Social exclusion and social solidarity: Three paradigms. *International Labour Review*, 133, 531–578.
- Silver, H. (Ed.). (1996). *Reconceptualizing social disadvantage: Three paradigms of social exclusion*. Geneva: International Institute for Labour Studies.
- Surendra, E. (2017). *What does it mean to be middle class in Malaysia in 2017*. Retrieved from <https://www.imoney.my/articles/middle-class-malaysia>.
- Taylor, S. (1998). Coping strategies. *Research: Psychosocial notebook*. Retrieved from <http://www.macses.ucsf.edu/research/psychosocial/coping.php#relationses>.
- Toyota, M. (2008). Editorial introduction: International marriage, rights and the state in East and Southeast Asia. *Citizenship Studies*, 12(1), 1–7. doi:10.1080/13621020701794083
- Turner, B. S. (2008). Citizenship, reproduction and the state: International marriage and human rights. *Citizenship Studies*, 12(1), 45–54.
- UNDP. (2004). *Human development report 2004: Empowerment and poverty reduction*. Kathmandu, Nepal: United Nations Development Programme.
- Wan, H., & Zhu, H. (2013). Spatial exclusion of Vietnamese brides in Sino-Vietnam cross-border marriages: A case study of Qiaotou village in Yunnan. *Scientia Geographica Sinica*, 33(5), 570–575.
- Wang, H. Z., & Chang, S. M. (2002). The commodification of international marriages: cross-border marriage business in Taiwan and Viet Nam. *International Migration*, 40(6), 93–116.
- WB. (2015). *Malaysia among most urbanized countries in East Asia*. The World Bank. Retrieved from <http://www.worldbank.org/en/news/feature/2015/01/26/malaysia-among-most-urbanized-countries-in-east-asia>.
- Wong, W. K., Ng, I. F., & Chou, K. L. (2015). Factors contributing to social support among female marriage migrants in Hong Kong: A longitudinal study. *International Social Work*, 60(2), 394–408.
- Yeoh, B. S. A., Chee, H. L., & Vu, T. K. D. (2013). Commercially arranged marriage and the negotiation of citizenship rights among Vietnamese marriage migrants in multiracial Singapore. *Asian Ethnicity*, 14(2), 139–156. doi:10.1080/14631369.2012.759746
- Yeoh, B. S. A., Chee, H. L., & Vu, T. K. D. (2014). Global householding and the negotiation of intimate labour in commercially-matched international marriages between Vietnamese women and Singaporean men. *Geoforum*, 51, 284–293.
- Yu, X., Stewart, S. M., Liu, I. K. F., & Lam, T. H. (2014). Resilience and depressive symptoms in mainland Chinese immigrants to Hong Kong. *Social Psychiatry and Psychiatric Epidemiology*, 49(24), 1–9.
- Zhang, J., Lu, M. C. W., & Yeoh, B. S. A. (2015). Cross-border marriage, transgovernmental friction, and waiting. *Environment and Planning D: Society and Space*, 33(2), 229–246. doi:10.1068/d24111

The Diversification Benefits within Islamic Investments: The Case of Malaysia-Based Islamic Equity Investors

Nazrul Hazizi Noordin¹ and Buerhan Saiti^{1,2*}

¹Institute of Islamic Banking and Finance, International Islamic University Malaysia, 53100 IIUM, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

²Istanbul Sabahattin Zaim University, Halkali, 34303 Istanbul, Turkey

ABSTRACT

This article aims to assist Malaysia-based Islamic equity investors in identifying possible diversification benefits by diversifying their portfolio in the Southeast Asian market and the top 10 world's largest equity markets (China, Japan, Hong Kong, India, UK, US, Canada, France, Germany and Switzerland). The multivariate GARCH-dynamic conditional correlation is applied to estimate the time-varying linkages of the selected Asian and international Islamic stock index returns with the Malaysian Islamic stock index returns, covering approximately eight years daily starting from 29 June, 2007 to 30 June, 2016. At the regional level, the results indicate that Malaysia-based Islamic equity investors would benefit most if they include the Japanese Islamic stock indices in their portfolio. Meanwhile, at the international level, the results imply that the US Islamic stock indices provide the most diversification benefit for the Malaysia-based Islamic equity investors.

Keywords: Equity markets, Islamic stock indices, MGARCH, Islamic Finance, portfolio diversification benefit

INTRODUCTION

Investors and fund managers are often looking for choice in investment that can lower their unsystematic risks. This has usually been done through investment diversification in cross-border markets as well as into different classes of asset such as stock, bond, real estate, commodity and more recently, the emerging Islamic investments. This concept of investment diversification

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received: 02 June 2017

Accepted: 03 January 2018

E-mail addresses:

hazizinoordin@gmail.com (Nazrul Hazizi Noordin)

borhanseti@gmail.com (Buerhan Saiti)

*Corresponding author

is derived based on normative rules of portfolio selection provided in the modern portfolio theory (MPT) of Markowitz (1952), Tobin (1958) and Grubel (1968). As further argued by Levy and Sarnat (1970), the extent to which risks are reduced through diversification can only be determined by the linkages among asset returns. In other words, the privilege of having lower risks due to investment diversification only can be realised if returns of assets are not perfectly correlated.

Asset correlation essentially serves as a statistical measure that indicates the interdependency between two or more assets. Determining asset correlations indeed becomes an important part of today's asset allocation process that helps investors to maximise their returns at the lowest possible risk level. The lower the correlation between assets, the greater the risk reduction is achieved in an investment portfolio. Theoretically, investment diversification benefits can be achieved as long as returns in the different markets are not perfectly correlated. Thus, investors are willing to diversify their assets abroad only if returns of other countries' stocks are less correlated with local ones (Masih & Masih, 1997). Furthermore, a traditional approach to diversification suggests that an investor should maintain a diverse mix of different asset types such as equities, fixed income and commodity that are assumed to be less correlated to help spread the risks across the assets.

Some previous studies found that international diversification of an

investment portfolio may provide benefits to investors and fund managers by creating a well-diversified portfolio with the lowest possible risks (Agmon, 1972; Grubel, 1968; Levy & Sarnat, 1970; Ibrahim, 2006; Lessard, 1973; Solnik, 1974; Smith et al. 1993). Nevertheless, more recent findings have provided evidence showing that international capital markets have been increasingly integrated, increasing the correlations among asset returns (Baharumshah et al., 2003; Becker et al., 1990; Bertero & Mayer, 1990; Dwyer & Hafer, 1988; Von Furstenberg & Jeon, 1990). These co-movements and contagions in the market prices may unfortunately reduce the advantage of internationally diversified investment portfolios (Saiti et al., 2016; Xiao & Dhesi, 2000).

The world's markets have recently glimpsed an economic downturn, sparking a fear of another global financial crisis. Despite being one of the fastest growing emerging markets, Malaysia is not an exception from this global deteriorating economic condition. The Malaysian ringgit fell below RM4 per USD for the first time since the 1997 financial crisis. Furthermore, the Malaysian market's bellwether, FTSE Bursa Malaysia KL Composite Index (FBM KLCI), slipped to its lowest level as the oil price slump continued to impair investor's confidence. As the Malaysian financial markets seemed to be highly susceptible to the recent devaluation of the ringgit and the serious fluctuation of global commodity prices, the present study is motivated to assist the Malaysian-based Islamic

equity investors in identifying possible Islamic investment opportunities abroad for diversification purposes that could reduce their investment risks.

Islamic investment is growing rapidly as an alternative investment class for all investors, both Muslim and non-Muslim, for its foundation in ethical business practices, social responsibility and fiscal conservatism. Islamic investors are mandated to invest only in an Islamic manner as denoted by Imam and Kpodar (2013); in their study on the determination of Islamic bank expansion around the world, interest rates were found to have a negative impact on banking selection among Muslims while the quality of institutions was not found to be a significant determinant. However, other investors such as non-Muslims are taking advantage of Islamic investment for the benefits they derive, including greater stability of returns, transparency and diversification (Saiti et al., 2014).

The primary objective of this study was to examine the extent to which Malaysia-based Islamic equity investors benefit from diversifying their investment portfolio in the Southeast Asian market and the world's major stock exchange markets¹ (United States, United Kingdom, China, Japan, Hong Kong, Canada, France, Germany, India and Switzerland) by empirically estimating the time-varying volatility and

correlation between their market returns. In this research, we identified the portfolio diversification benefits from Malaysia-based Islamic equity investors' perspective. By applying the Multivariate-GARCH approach, this study investigates the dynamic conditional correlations between the MSCI Malaysia Islamic index returns and the selected Islamic index returns to identify both regional and international diversification benefits for Malaysia-based Islamic equity investors.

A main practical implication of this study to the Malaysian investment environment is that it provides highly significant insight into possible cross-market spillover, thus calling for some urgent corrective actions by the market authorities including the enhancement of economic co-operation among countries. In addition, this study intends to contribute to a better understanding of the correlations and volatilities of Islamic stock returns. Given that Islamic financial assets have grown to be one of the most important segments in the global financial system, it is worthwhile to investigate whether Islamic equities are able to provide portfolio diversification benefits as far as Malaysia-based Islamic equity investors are concerned by examining the dynamic conditional volatilities and dynamic conditional correlations of the Islamic stock index returns. Islamic financial assets have grown to be one of the most important segments in the global financial system. The size of the Islamic financial market is estimated to be around USD1.87 billion, growing at a steady rate of 12 to

¹The list of the world's major stock markets was extracted from the World Federation of Exchanges' monthly report dated November 2015, available online at <http://www.world-exchanges.org>

15% per annum (IFSB, 2015). The number of Islamic investment funds has increased tremendously to 1,181 with USD60.65 billion assets under management in 2014 from 756 Islamic funds with USD28.35 billion assets under management in 2008 (Zawya, 2015). Notwithstanding the global oil price slumps, it is projected that Islamic funds will expand by 5.05% per annum in the next five years to reach USD77 billion by 2019. Despite the rapid expansion of the Islamic capital markets, previous studies on the correlations of Islamic asset returns have been lacking and remained relatively unexplored compared to voluminous works on the interdependencies among conventional asset returns. Therefore, this study aimed to fill this gap in the literature by focussing on a number of Islamic stock index returns in the world's largest equities markets including the United States, the United Kingdom, China, Japan, Hong Kong, Canada, France, Germany, India and Switzerland and applying the recent econometric methodology, the Multivariate GARCH-DCC, covering approximately eight years daily data from 1 June, 2007 to 30 June, 2016. Furthermore, Malaysia is chosen as the base country due to the fact that it has been regarded as the key leader of the global Islamic capital market, which actively pursues rapid development of Islamic investment and banking products. The country comprises the largest portion of the total value of global Islamic funds with a market capitalisation of 24%, equivalent to USD27.2 billion as at June 2015. Lastly, we hope to assist Malaysian equity investors

and fund managers, especially Islamic ones, in making investment decisions on where in the world to invest.

The rest of the paper is organised as follows: Section 2 provides the theoretical foundation and critical review of previous studies on Islamic investments. Section 3 explains the methodology and data used in this study. Section 4 discusses the empirical findings and presents the results of the analysis and together with the concluding remarks are presented in Section 5.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Concept of Portfolio Diversification

The concept of diversification can be traced even before it gained tremendous popularity after Markowitz's article was published in 1952. For instance, Daniel Bernoulli (1738) in his famous article on the St Petersburg Paradox in the *Commentaries of the Imperial Academy of Science of Saint Petersburg* mentioned that "...it is advisable to divide goods which are exposed to some small danger into several portions rather than to risk them all together." In fact, the act of minimizing risks through diversification was also revealed in the Holy Qur'an in Surah Yusuf verse 67, about the story of Prophet Jacob, who gave advice to his sons to enter the city of Egypt via different gates to attract less attention in order to reduce the risk of being caught by their enemies. In the international investment scene, diversification is indeed one of the most well-known investment techniques among investors for reducing investment risks by allocating investments

in various asset types, industries and cross-border markets. According to Markowitz (1959), international investors may gain diversification benefits only if the asset returns in cross-border markets are not perfectly correlated with those of the domestic market. Diversification benefits can be measured by assessing whether the risk-return trade-off of a domestic index portfolio can be enhanced by including either the country's regional equity indices or global equity indices (Driessen & Laeven, 2007).

Islamic Equity Investment

The nature of Islamic equity investment seems to be aligned with the objectives of portfolio diversification, which is to help *rabbul mal* or investors to minimise potential investment risks at a given returns level. This holds true as Islamic teachings prohibit any financial deal that has a high volume of ambiguity and excessive risks (*gharar*), or even worse, any game of chance (*maysir*) using highly speculative financial instruments such as short-selling or derivative products such as futures, warrants and options that provide extreme returns to only few parties at the loss of others (Iqbal & Mirakhor, 2007). Furthermore, interest-based leverage that would expose investors and financiers to a great amount of credit risks is also excluded from Islamic equity investment. However, this does not necessarily denote that bearing a certain level of investment risk is entirely prohibited in Islam as the Prophet Muhammad (peace be upon him), in one of his *hadith* urged

that the returns on an asset must relate to the risks associated with holding ownership of the asset or *al-kharaj bi al-dhaman*. Moreover, a legal maxim applicable to Islamic commercial transactions, *al-ghurm bi al-ghunm*, or 'gain is justified with risk' is commonly used as a basis for assessing the permissibility of Islamic equity investments in the eyes of *Shariah*. In fact, neglecting the element of risk can potentially lead to interest-based transactions, which is clearly prohibited in Islam (Quran, 2:275-279). This can be related to the assumption made under the MPT that investors are risk-averse, whereby an investor who holds Islamic stocks which have higher beta (indicating high volatility) is more likely to receive higher returns than someone who holds lower-beta stocks as compensation for bearing additional risks. Thus, Islamic equity markets, given their closer linkage to real economic activities and unique characteristics, such as ethical and financial ratio screenings that filter out highly risky and leveraged firms as well as prohibited industries such as alcohol, tobacco, pork, pornography and conventional financial sectors, are argued to provide larger diversification benefits for international investors compared to their conventional counterparts (Iqbal et al., 2010; Saiti et al., 2014).

Nevertheless, some may view compliance to *Shariah* principles as an investment constraint for equity investors. This is because by implementing *Shariah* or ethical stock screening, it is highly likely that constituent assets for Islamic indices

would be concentrated only on a limited number of sectors such as technology, energy, consumption and service, leaving out other sectors that may provide potential diversification benefits to investors (Bauer, 2006). This seems to be counterproductive as one could argue that despite the fact that the Islamic index is claimed to be less risky as it excludes high leverage firms, due to its limited investment choices, fewer potential diversification opportunities and also heavy dependence on performance of small firms with highly volatile returns, the Islamic stock might turn out to be even riskier.

From an empirical perspective, Najeeb et al. (2015) investigated the time-varying correlation dynamics of Islamic equity indices in the case of Malaysian Islamic equity investors using a few econometric analyses such as the Multivariate GARCH-DCC and the Wavelet Correlation Test. The study found that Malaysian Islamic stock market investors would enjoy higher diversification benefits if they invested in developed markets instead of in emerging markets. In answering the question as to whether Malaysian Islamic equity investors should invest in Asia-Pacific, European or the Middle East and North African (MENA) Islamic markets, the results of the Multivariate GARCH-DCC analysis showed that the returns of the Malaysian Islamic index are least correlated with the MENA Islamic market returns compared to those of the Asia-Pacific and European Islamic market returns, suggesting possible regional diversification benefits. In addition, the study indicated that the correlations

among the Islamic stock indices increase as the investor's holding period extends. Meanwhile, using the Multivariate GARCH-DCC analysis, Saiti et al. (2014) studied whether the inclusion of Islamic stock indices in a portfolio provides potential diversification benefits for US-based stock market investors. The study found that both conventional and Islamic market returns of Japan, Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) ex-Saudi, Indonesia, Malaysia and Taiwan are less correlated with the US market returns compared with Korea, Hong Kong, China and Turkey. In general, the study also indicated that US-based investors could potentially gain less diversification benefits by including the Islamic stock indices rather than its conventional counterparts in their investment portfolio.

A more recent study by Rahim and Masih (2016), using daily time series closing price data, applied several econometric techniques such as the Multivariate GARCH-DCC, the Continuous Wavelet Transform (CWT) and the Maximal Overlapping Discrete Wavelet Transform (MODWT) tests to explore the interdependence between Malaysia's stock market and its major trading partners including Thailand, Singapore, China, Japan and the US. Their findings indicated that in a short stock holding period, the US Islamic stock index provides greater diversification benefits compared with other Islamic stock indices of Malaysia's Asian trading partners as far as Malaysian Islamic investors are concerned. Similar to the suggestion of Najeeb et al. (2015), the study also suggested that the diversification

benefits of a portfolio with a long investment horizon exceeding 32 to 64 days tend to be minimal. Providing evidence from the ASEAN markets, Saiti (2015) denoted significant linkages among the emerging Southeast Asian markets, namely Malaysia, the Philippines, Singapore, Thailand and Indonesia.

Moreover, in investigating the causal relationship between the Islamic stock markets and the conventional markets, Ajmi et al. (2014) found evidence of significant linear and non-linear causality between Islamic and conventional stocks that leads to the dismissal of the decoupling hypothesis of Islamic equities from interest-bearing securities, reducing the potential diversification benefits that may arise from diversifying in *Shariah*-based markets. Similarly, using the copula approach, Hammoudeh et al. (2014) also revealed a significant dependence between the Dow Jones Islamic market index and three major global conventional equity markets, namely, Asia, Europe and the United States and global factors (oil prices, stock market implied volatility [VIX]), the US' 10-year Treasury bond interest rate, and the 10-year European Monetary Union government bond index. Moreover, in India, Dharani and Natarajan (2011) concluded that the Nifty *Shariah* Index and the Nifty indices performed in similar manner in terms of their risk-adjusted returns. On the contrary, Akhtar et al. (2012), using a sample of nine Islamic and 37 non-Islamic countries, suggested that Islamic financial markets may provide substantial diversification

benefits during financial crises, as they may decrease the portfolio's sensitivity to international financial contagion risks. In addition, Ashraf (2013), who studied the returns performance of 29 Islamic equity indices versus conventional indices, implied that managers of conventional funds can also benefit by holding a passively managed portfolio of investments that adhere to *Shariah* principles.

RESEARCH METHOD

Multivariate GARCH-Dynamic Conditional Correlation

This section explains the research methodology and the data used in the present study. We employed the multivariate GARCH-DCC model of Engle (2002) in order to estimate time-varying volatility and correlation of returns of the selected indices. This widely adopted econometric model is able to precisely indicate changes in volatility and correlation of the indices over time together with its directions (positive or negative) and magnitude (stronger or weaker). Hence, it assists investors in determining whether shocks to the volatilities of stock market returns are complementary or substitutable in terms of taking risks (Najeeb et al., 2015; Saiti et al., 2014).

A main advantage of adopting the DCC model instead of the typical constant correlation model or simple Multivariate GARCH technique lies in its accuracy in pinpointing changes in the correlation between asset returns, detailing when and how they occur (Engle & Sheppard, 2001;

Engle, 2002; Ku, 2008). Other advantages of using the Multivariate GARCH-DCC model include: (i) the ability to detect plausible contagion effects during the financial crises effectively (Billio & Caporin, 2005; Dajcman et al., 2012; Wang & Thi, 2007); (ii) it provides a convenient way to model the procedure of estimating dynamic conditional volatilities and dynamic conditional correlation concurrently (Lee, 2006); (iii) it simplifies the process of estimating dynamic correlation matrix (Engle & Sheppard, 2001); (iii) it is free from any bias against volatility as it takes into account the time-varying volatility in adjusting correlation coefficients continuously (Cho & Parhizgari, 2008); (iv) it also directly accounts for heteroskedasticity as it estimates the correlation coefficients of the standardised residuals (Chiang et al., 2007); (v) it has a certain extent of flexibility, like the Univariate GARCH model, but it is not as complex as the conventional Multivariate GARCH model. Therefore, it allows correlations between multiple asset returns to be estimated (Chiang et al., 2007; Lee et al., 2006); and (vi) lastly, it provides a

forecast of the degree of correlation between research variables for the coming periods (Lebo & Box-Steffenmeier, 2008).

Despite this, there are a number of caveats about the DCC outlined by Caporin and McAleer (2013), among others, that include: (i) the DCC represents the dynamic conditional covariance of the standardised residuals instead of yielding dynamic conditional correlations; (ii) the DCC is stated rather than derived; (iii) the DCC has no moments; (iv) the DCC has no testable regularity conditions; (v) the DCC yields inconsistent two-step estimators; (vi) the DCC has no asymptotic properties; and (vii) although is useful for diagnostic checks, the DCC is not a model.

Engle's (2002) Multivariate GARCH-DCC model is a generalisation of Bollerslev's (1990) constant conditional correlation (CCC) estimator², which comprises two steps as follows:

- (i) The estimation of the conditional variances of each individual equity index by using the following Univariate GARCH (X,Y) model, given *k* number of asset returns;

$$h_{it} = \omega_i + \sum_{x=1}^{X_i} \alpha_{ix} r_{it-x}^2 + \sum_{y=1}^{Y_i} \beta_{iy} h_{it-y}, \text{ for } i = 1, 2, \dots, k$$

where, ω_i , α_{ix} and β_{iy} are non-negative and $\sum_{x=1}^{X_i} \alpha_{ix} + \sum_{y=1}^{Y_i} \beta_{iy} < 1$. h_{it} is the estimated conditional variance of the individual asset, α_{ix} is the short-run persistence of shocks

²The CCC model follows a univariate GARCH model which assumes that the conditional variances across returns are independent from each other. However, it does not accommodate asymmetric impacts of any positive and negative shocks to the returns

to returns X (the ARCH effects) and β_{iy} is the contribution of shocks to returns Y to long-run persistence (the GARCH effects).

(ii) The estimation of the time-varying conditional correlation between asset returns. The standardised residuals generated from the first step are used as inputs in the following DCC estimator:

$$H_t = D_t R_t D_t$$

where, H_t is the multivariate conditional covariance matrix, D_t is the diagonal matrix of conditional time varying standardised residuals (ε_t) that are obtained from the Univariate GARCH model with $\sqrt{h_{ii,t}}$ on the i^{th} diagonal, $I = 1, 2, \dots, k$ and R_t is the time varying correlation matrix (off-diagonal elements).

$\rho_{ij,t}$

$$= \frac{(1 - \phi - \gamma)\bar{q}_{ij} + \phi\sigma_{i,t-1}\sigma_{j,t-1} + \gamma q_{ij,t-1}}{[(1 - \phi - \gamma)\bar{q}_{ii} + \phi\sigma_{i,t-1}^2 + \gamma q_{ii,t-1}]^{1/2} [(1 - \phi - \gamma)\bar{q}_{jj} + \phi\sigma_{j,t-1}^2 + \gamma q_{jj,t-1}]^{1/2}}$$

where, q_{ij} is the element on the i^{th} line and j^{th} column on the matrix Q_t . Under the Gaussian assumption, the conditional log likelihood

$$L = -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{t=1}^T [(k \log(2\pi) + \log|D_t|^2 + \varepsilon_t' D_t^{-1} D_t^{-1} \varepsilon_t) + (\log|R_t| + \sigma_t' R_t^{-1} \sigma_t - \sigma_t' \sigma_t)]$$

where, k is the number of equations and T is the number of observations. It is also worth mentioning that only the volatility component (D_t) is maximised in Step 1 i.e. the log likelihood is reduced to the sum of

Engle's DCC specifications can be further defined as follows:

$$D_t = \text{diag}(\sqrt{h_{11,t}}, \sqrt{h_{22,t}}, \dots, \sqrt{h_{kk,t}}) R_t Q_t^{*-1} Q_t Q_t^{*-1}$$

where, the $k \times k$ symmetric positive definite matrix $Q_t = (q_{ij,t})$ is extracted from:

$$Q_t = (1 - \phi - \gamma) \bar{Q} + \gamma Q_{t-1} + \phi \sigma_{i,t-1} \sigma_{j,t-1}$$

where, Q_t is the $k \times k$ time varying covariance matrix of standardised residual ($\sigma_{it} = \frac{\varepsilon_{it}}{\sqrt{h_{it}}}$) and \bar{Q} is the unconditional correlations of $\sigma_{i,t}$ and $\sigma_{j,t}$ and ϕ and γ are non-negative scalar parameters that satisfy $\phi + \gamma < 1$.

Thus, the conditional correlation of market X and Y at time t can be summarised as follows:

of the parameters introduced by Bollerslev et al. (1988) can be written as follows:

the log likelihood of the Univariate GARCH model. In Step 2, however, the correlation component (R_t) is maximised (conditional on the estimated D_t) with the standardised residuals obtained from Step 1. Despite

this, the use of the Gaussian assumption is criticised as it does not hold for daily returns and therefore, underestimates the portfolio risk. In fact, the two-step estimation of the likelihood approach, although consistent (Engle & Sheppard, 2001), could possibly be inefficient under Gaussianity (Pesaran & Pesaran, 2010a).

Test of Mean-Reversion

In the present study, we also considered the mean reverting and the non-mean reverting specifications. The decomposition of H_t allows a unique specification of the conditional volatilities and conditional cross asset returns correlations. For instance, the GARCH (1,1) model for the variance $\sigma_{i,t-1}^2$ can be written as follows:

$$V\{r_{it}|\Omega_{t-1}\} = \sigma_{i,t-1}^2 = \sigma_i^2(1 - \lambda_{1i} - \lambda_{2i}) + \lambda_{1i}\sigma_{i,t-2}^2 + \lambda_{2i}r_{i,t-1}^2$$

where, σ_i^2 is the unconditional variance of the i^{th} stock return and λ_1 and λ_2 are the volatilities of individual stock returns. Under the restriction $\lambda_1+\lambda_2=1$, the unconditional variance disappears in the above equation. Next, the Integrated GARCH model is

formulated to show that conditional variance is non-stationary and the shock to variance is permanent.

A more general mean reverting specification can be expressed in the following equation:

$$q_{ij,t-1} = \bar{\rho}_{ij}(1 - \lambda_1 - \lambda_2) + \lambda_1q_{ij,t-2} + \lambda_2\tilde{r}_{i,t-1}\tilde{r}_{j,t-1}$$

where, $\bar{\rho}_{ij}$ is the unconditional correlation between r_{it} , r_{jt} and $\lambda_1+\lambda_2 < 1$. We expect $\lambda_1+\lambda_2$ to be more or less to 1 in order to not revert back to the mean or equilibrium. The non-mean reverting case occurs when $\lambda_1+\lambda_2=1$. Therefore, a restriction of $\lambda_1+\lambda_2=1$ has to be included in testing for the existence of non-mean reversion.

DATA AND EMPIRICAL RESULTS

Data

In this study, the MSCI Malaysia Islamic index returns were used as proxy for Malaysian Islamic stock returns. In addition, this study considered the MSCI Islamic index returns of the Southeast Asian region and the world's top 10 largest equity markets,

namely the United States, China, Japan, Hong Kong, the United Kingdom, Canada, France, Germany, India and Switzerland. In order to explore regional portfolio diversification benefits for Malaysia-based Islamic equity investors, we made use of the Islamic MSCI indices of Southeast Asia, China, Japan, Hong Kong and India. Table 1 shows the complete list of stock indices used in the present study.

We collected the daily time series closing price data covering approximately eight years starting from 29 June, 2007 to 30 June, 2016. All the data were extracted from the Thomson-Reuters DataStream database. The stock index returns were then derived by calculating the differences in the logarithmic daily closing prices of the stock indices, $[\ln(p_t) - \ln(p_{t-1})]$, where p_t and p_{t-1} represent the stock price index at time t and $t - 1$, respectively.

Table 1
List of Stock Indices

Stock Indices	Symbols
<i>Islamic Stock Indices</i>	
MSCI Malaysia Islamic Index	IMAS
MSCI Southeast Asia Islamic Index	ISEA
MSCI China Islamic Index	ICHN
MSCI Japan Islamic Index	IJPN
MSCI Hong Kong Islamic Index	IHKG
MSCI India Islamic Index	IIND
MSCI United States Islamic Index	IUS
MSCI United Kingdom Islamic Index	IUK
MSCI Canada Islamic Index	ICAN
MSCI France Islamic Index	IFRA
MSCI Germany Islamic Index	IGER
MSCI Switzerland Islamic Index	ISWT

Model Selection

In order to determine the appropriate model, we obtained both ML estimates of the Gaussian DCC and t-DCC model on the returns of the MSCI Malaysia index and all regional and conventional stock indices. The summary of estimation is reported in Table 2.

Table 2
ML Estimates of the Gaussian DCC and t-DCC model on the Returns of the MSCI Malaysia Islamic Index and all Regional and Conventional Islamic Stock Indices

	Gaussian Model	t-DCC Model	The estimated d.f. for the t-normal distribution
The returns of the MSCI Malaysia Islamic index and the Islamic MSCI Asian indices	45,598.8	45,974.1	7.7123
The returns of the MSCI Malaysia Islamic index and the Islamic MSCI international indices	55,596.1	55,948.1	8.5900

d.f. – Degree of Freedom

More details of the report can be requested from the authors

We found that the maximised log-likelihood values under the t-DCC model were larger than the ones obtained under the Gaussian model and the estimated degree of freedom for the t-normal distribution was below 30 in all cases. Therefore, this result implied that the t-distribution model was a more appropriate model for capturing the fat-tailed nature of the distribution of the returns of all stock indices.

Under the t-DCC model, we observe that the volatility parameters for both conventional and Islamic Asian stock indices were highly significant, indicating a gradual volatility decay. This suggests that the risk involved in the returns may gradually cancel out after following a shock in the market. In addition, we observed that the summation of lambda 1 and lambda 2 for all the stock indices was equal to less than 1 or unity (due to the space constraint, we did not report the results of this section. It can be requested from the authors). This indicated that the volatilities of the stock index returns were not based on the Integrated Generalised Auto Regressive Conditional Heteroskedasticity (IGARCH) or in other words, the shock to the returns volatilities was not permanent. An important implication of this phenomenon was that it signified that the investors and portfolio managers would have a higher chance of losing their investment although they could possibly make a profit in the short run. On the contrary, such market circumstances would favour the interests of speculators and short-term investors.

Regional Diversification Benefits

In order to achieve the main objective of our study, in this section, we assessed the usefulness of the Islamic stock indices of the Southeast Asian region, China, Japan, Hong Kong and India in terms of providing regional portfolio diversification benefits to Malaysia-based Islamic equity investors.

Table 3 represents the ranks of the unconditional volatilities of the Asian Islamic index returns (from lowest to highest). An unconditional volatility that is close to zero implies that the particular index is less volatile, whereas an unconditional volatility that is close to one implies that the particular index is more volatile.

Table 3
Ranks of the unconditional volatilities of the Asian Islamic Index Returns

No	MSCI Islamic Indices	Unconditional Volatility
1	Malaysia	0.010926
2	Southeast Asia	0.012064
3	Hong Kong	0.012955
4	Japan	0.014941
5	India	0.018022
6	China	0.019835

We find that the unconditional volatilities of the MSCI Asian Islamic stock indices are fairly low, ranging from 0.010926 to 0.019835. This indicates that overall, the returns of all Asian Islamic stock indices were less volatile. The MSCI Malaysia Islamic index returns was found to have the lowest volatility among the Asian markets. This could be attributed to a certain level of stability offered by the Malaysian Islamic

equity investment during the 2008 global financial crisis as a result of excluding highly leveraged companies in its asset allocation.

Meanwhile, we have ranked the unconditional correlations of the Asian Islamic index returns with the MSCI Malaysia Islamic index returns in Table 4 (from lowest to highest). We found that the unconditional correlations between the Islamic MSCI index returns of Southeast Asia and the MSCI Malaysia Islamic index returns were the highest among the Asian markets, estimated at +0.7553. The high correlation between the Islamic equity returns in the Malaysian and Southeast Asian markets indicated intra-regional contagion effects that exist within the trade region as explained by Masih and Masih (1999). The lowest unconditional correlation was found between the MSCI Japan Islamic index returns and the MSCI Malaysia Islamic index returns, which was at +0.376. This result suggested that Malaysia-based Islamic equity investors are able to receive higher regional diversification benefits if they opt to diversify their assets in the Japanese market rather than in other Asian markets.

Table 4
Ranking of the unconditional correlations of the Asian Islamic Index Returns with the MSCI Malaysia Islamic Index Returns

No	MSCI Islamic Indices	Unconditional Correlation
1	Japan	0.35407
2	India	0.42242
3	Hong Kong	0.46871
4	China	0.54267
5	Southeast Asia	0.75529

Test for Mean Reversion of Volatility

In this section, we report our findings on the mean reversion characteristics of the Asian Islamic stock indices and the MSCI Malaysia Islamic index. The hypothesis below was tested to see whether one of the index returns had non-mean reverting volatility. The H_0 indicated that that the process was non-mean reverting and the unconditional variance for the index returns did not exist (Pesaran & Pesaran, 2010b).

$$H_0 : \lambda_{1i} + \lambda_{2i} = 1$$

Table 5 presents the test for mean reversion of volatility of the Islamic MSCI Asian index returns. The results showed that all returns of the Asian Islamic stock indices and the MSCI Malaysia Islamic index had statistically significant mean reverting volatilities. In other words, despite a shock occurring in the markets due to a financial crisis, the stock returns will eventually move back to equilibrium. This implies that the previous unconditional volatility matrix in Table 3 can be a reliable source of information for long-term investors to obtain an overall picture of stock index volatility. With regard to the speed of mean reversion, the Japanese Islamic stock index had the fastest ability to return to equilibrium, while the Southeast Asian Islamic index had the slowest ability to return to equilibrium.

Table 5
Results of the mean reversion test of volatility of the Asian Islamic Index Returns and the MSCI Malaysia Islamic Index Returns

MSCI Stock Indices	$1 - \hat{\lambda}_1 - \hat{\lambda}_2$	Standard Error	T-ratio (Prob.)
IMAS	0.0058167	0.0019057	3.0523 (0.002)
ISEA	0.0055158	0.0012598	4.3783 (0.000)
ICHN	0.0079703	0.0017337	4.5973 (0.000)
IJAP	0.023334	0.0059389	3.9290 (0.000)
IHKG	0.0071780	0.0017604	4.0775 (0.000)
IIND	0.010147	0.0026813	3.7844 (0.000)

The Estimated Conditional Volatilities of the Asian Islamic Stock Index Returns

We then proceeded to estimate the dynamic conditional volatilities for the returns of each Asian Islamic stock index. Figure 1 illustrates the conditional volatilities of the Islamic MSCI Asian stock index returns respectively, together with the MSCI Malaysia Islamic index returns. We observed that the conditional volatilities of those Asian Islamic stock index returns moved more or less simultaneously over time. The highest increase in the conditional volatilities was spotted during the period of the 2008 global financial crisis. During the same period, there was also a high convergence of volatility among the Islamic

stock index returns of the Southeast Asian region, China, Japan, Hong Kong and India. This signifies a great level of financial integration between these Asian markets that may turn unfavourable for investors and portfolio managers as it provides fewer portfolio diversification opportunities. However, this is not the case for the Malaysian market, which appeared to be more stable compared to other markets during the 2008 global financial crisis. Consistent with the previous findings on the unconditional volatilities presented in Table 3, the MSCI Malaysia Islamic stock index returns recorded the lowest volatility, while the MSCI China Islamic index returns appeared to have the highest volatility.

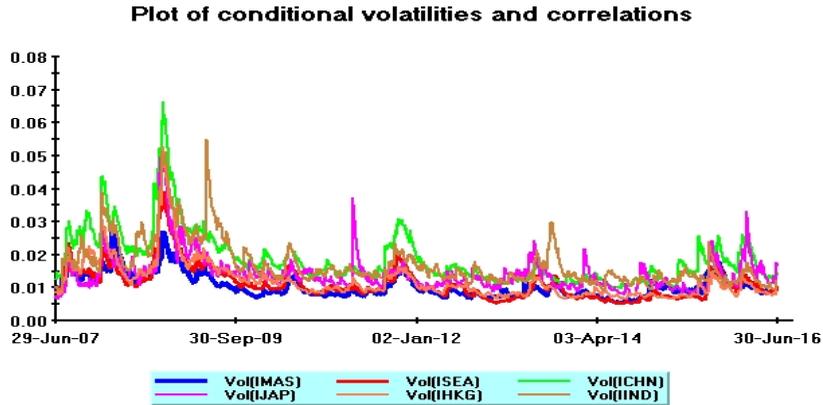


Figure 1. Conditional volatilities of the returns of the MSCI Malaysia Islamic index and the MSCI Islamic Asian indices

The Estimated Conditional Correlations for the Asian Islamic Stock Indices

Lastly, we plotted the conditional correlations of the Asian Islamic stock index returns with the MSCI Malaysia Islamic index returns in Figure 2. The plot indicates that the return correlation of the Malaysian Islamic stock index with the neighbouring markets seemed to move quite closely together, especially during the 2008 global financial crisis. Furthermore, the plot confirms the previous results of the unconditional

correlations presented in Table 4, showing that the MSCI Malaysia Islamic index had the highest correlation with the Southeast Asian Islamic market returns and was less correlated to the Japanese Islamic stock index returns. From this, it can be suggested that if Malaysian Islamic equity investors were to invest their assets regionally, they should include the Japanese Islamic stock index in their portfolio in order to gain more diversification benefits compared with other Asian stock indices.

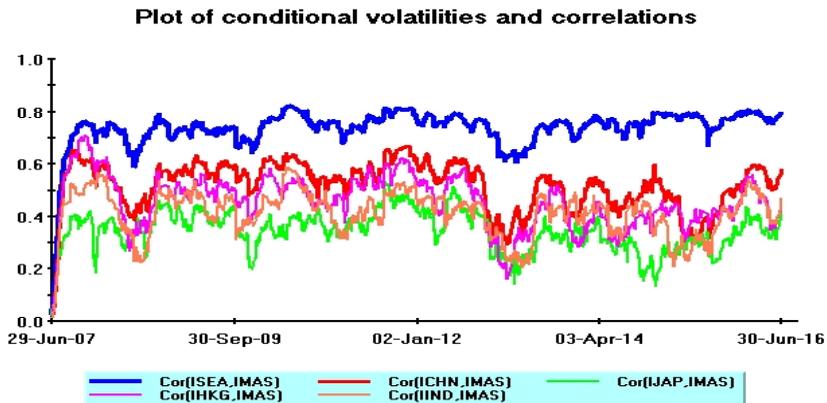


Figure 2. Conditional correlations of the MSCI international Islamic stock index returns with the MSCI Malaysia Islamic index returns

International Diversification Benefits

Next, this study hoped to provide some insightful findings on the usefulness of the Islamic stock indices of the UK, the US, Canada, France, Germany and Switzerland in terms of providing international portfolio diversification benefits to Malaysia-based Islamic equity investors.

Table 6 represents the ranks of the unconditional volatilities of the international Islamic index returns, respectively (from lowest to highest). An unconditional volatility that is close to zero implies that the particular index is less volatile, whereas, an unconditional volatility that is close to one implies that the particular index is more volatile.

Table 6
Ranks of the unconditional volatilities of the International Islamic Index Return

No	MSCI Islamic Indices	Unconditional Volatility
1	Malaysia	0.010926
2	Switzerland	0.011837
3	US	0.012674
4	UK	0.016501
5	Germany	0.017686
6	France	0.017932
7	Canada	0.019034

We found that the unconditional volatilities of the MSCI international Islamic stock indices were fairly low, ranging from 0.010926 to 0.019034. This indicated that overall, the returns of all the Asian Islamic stock indices were less volatile. The MSCI

Malaysia Islamic index returns was found to have the lowest volatility among the world's largest international markets. This can be attributed to a certain level of stability offered by the Malaysian Islamic equity investment during the 2008 global financial crisis as a result of excluding highly leveraged companies in its asset allocation.

Meanwhile, we have ranked the unconditional correlations of the international Islamic index returns with the MSCI Malaysia Islamic index returns in Table 7 (from lowest to highest). The unconditional correlation between the MSCI UK Islamic index returns and the MSCI Malaysia Islamic index returns was found to be the highest among other international indices, while the correlation between the MSCI US Islamic index returns and the MSCI Malaysia Islamic index returns was the lowest. This implies that if Malaysia-based Islamic equity investors were to invest internationally, they should include the UK's stock indices in their portfolio in order to gain more diversification benefits compared with other international Islamic indices. Moreover, on average, the MSCI international Islamic index returns displayed a lower magnitude of correlations with the MSCI Malaysia Islamic index returns compared with the Asian Islamic index returns, suggesting that Malaysian Islamic investors would benefit more by investing in the international markets rather than in their own region.

Table 7
Ranks of the unconditional correlations of the International Islamic Index Returns with the MSCI Malaysia Islamic Index Returns

No	MSCI Islamic Indices	Unconditional Correlation
1	US	0.14089
2	Canada	0.25306
3	Switzerland	0.29364
4	France	0.32836
5	Germany	0.33628
6	UK	0.35340

Test for Mean Reversion of Volatility

In this section, we present the data on the mean reversion characteristics of both the international Islamic stock indices and the MSCI Malaysia Islamic index. The hypothesis below was tested to see whether one of the index returns had non-mean reverting volatility. The H_0 indicated that the process was non-mean reverting and the

unconditional variance for the index returns did not exist (Pesaran & Pesaran, 2010b).

$$H_0 : \lambda_{1i} + \lambda_{2i} = 1$$

Table 8 presents the test for mean reversion of volatility of the MSCI international Islamic index returns. The results showed that all the MSCI Islamic index returns had statistically significant mean reverting volatilities with the exception of the MSCI Malaysia Islamic index. This indicated that despite a shock occurring in the markets due to a financial crisis, the stock returns would eventually move back to equilibrium. This also implied that the previous unconditional volatility matrix in the lower panel of Table 6 could be a reliable source of information for long-term investors to obtain an overall picture of stock index volatility. With regard to the speed of mean reversion, the US Islamic stock index had the fastest ability to return to equilibrium while the Canadian Islamic stock index hds the slowest.

Table 8
Results of the mean reversion test of volatility of the International Islamic Index Returns and the MSCI Malaysia Islamic Index Returns

MSCI Stock Indices	$1 - \hat{\lambda}_1 - \hat{\lambda}_2$	Standard Error	T-ratio (Prob.)
IMAS	0.0094751	0.0034582	2.7399 (0.006)
IUK	0.0061995	0.0012443	4.9825 (0.000)
IUS	0.011652	0.0022970	5.0729 (0.000)
ICAN	0.0050724	0.0011546	4.3931 (0.000)
IFRA	0.0088149	0.0017031	5.1757 (0.000)
IGER	0.0091842	0.0017810	5.1569 (0.000)
ISWT	0.0090689	0.0023138	3.9195 (0.000)

The Estimated Conditional Volatilities of the International Islamic Stock Index Returns

We then proceeded to estimate the dynamic conditional volatilities for each international Islamic stock index returns. Figure 3 illustrates the conditional volatilities of the Islamic MSCI international stock index returns together with the MSCI Malaysia Islamic index returns. We observed that the conditional volatilities of those international Islamic stock index returns moved more or less simultaneously over time. The highest increase in the conditional volatilities was spotted during the period of 2008 global financial crisis. During the same period, there was also a high convergence of volatility among all international Islamic stock index returns with the exception of Malaysia and Switzerland, which appeared

to be more stable compared with the other markets during the 2008 global financial crisis. This signified a great level of financial integration in those international markets that may turn unfavourable for investors and portfolio managers as it provides fewer portfolio diversification opportunities. Consistent with the previous findings on the unconditional volatilities in Table 6, the Malaysian Islamic stock index returns recorded the lowest volatility, while France and Canada appeared to have the highest returns volatility among the international Islamic indices. In addition, it was observed that there was a significant increase in volatilities of the international stock indices at the end of 2011 that could be attributed to the European debt crisis that led to the threat to sovereign default and the collapse of several banking institutions.

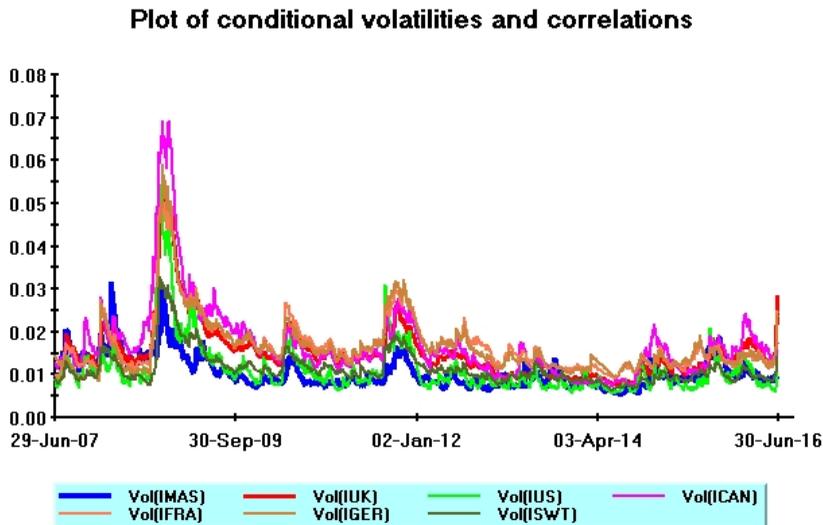


Figure 3. Conditional volatilities of the returns of the MSCI Malaysia Islamic index and the MSCI international Islamic indices

The Estimated Conditional Correlations for the International Islamic Stock Indices

Lastly, we plotted the conditional correlations of both the international Islamic stock index returns with the MSCI Malaysia Islamic index returns in Figure 4. The plot indicated that the return correlations of the Malaysian Islamic stock index with the international Islamic markets seemed to move quite closely together, especially after the 2008 global financial crisis. Moreover, the plot confirmed the previous results of

the unconditional correlations in Table 7, showing that the MSCI Malaysia Islamic index had the highest correlation with the UK’s Islamic market returns and was less correlated to the US Islamic stock index returns. From this, it can be suggested that if Malaysia-based Islamic equity investors were to invest their assets internationally, they should include the US Islamic stock index in their portfolio to gain more diversification benefits compared with investing in other international Islamic stock indices.

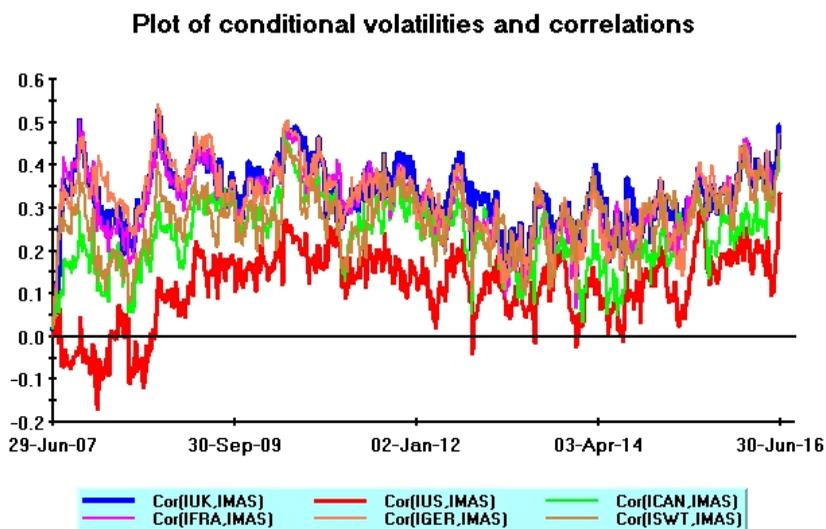


Figure 4. The estimated conditional correlations for the international Islamic stock indices

CONCLUDING REMARKS

The primary objective of this study was to identify potential portfolio diversification benefits as far as Malaysia-based Islamic equity investors are concerned. This was done by examining the dynamic conditional correlations between the Malaysian stock index returns and the returns of the Southeast

Asian market index and the world’s largest stock markets index, namely the United States, the United Kingdom, China, Japan, Hong Kong, Canada, France, Germany, India and Switzerland using the Multivariate GARCH-DCC test, covering approximately eight years daily starting from 29 June, 2007 to 30 June, 2016.

In summary, the preliminary test indicated that the t-distribution model appeared to be more appropriate for capturing the fat-tailed nature of the distribution of the Islamic stock index returns. Under the t-DCC model, the time-varying conditional volatility parameters of the Islamic MSCI stock indices were found to be highly significant, indicating that the shocks to the returns volatilities were not permanent; hence, the riskiness associated with the stock returns may gradually diminish. In addition, the study found that the highest increase in conditional volatilities of the MSCI Islamic stock index returns happened during the period of the 2008 global financial crisis. During the same period, there was also a high convergence among the Asian and international stock markets with the exception of Malaysia and Switzerland, signifying a great level of market integration among those countries that may reduce diversification benefits for international investors. Another important finding was that the Malaysian Islamic stock index proved to be more stable during the financial crisis compared with other Asian and cross-border Shariah-based markets. In terms of regional portfolio diversification, the results tended to suggest that the Japanese MSCI Islamic index provides more diversification benefits compared with the Southeast Asian region, China, Hong Kong and India. Meanwhile, in terms of international portfolio diversification, the results tended to suggest that the MSCI Islamic index of the US provides more diversification

benefits compared with the UK, Canada, France, Germany and Switzerland.

The findings of this paper may have several significant implications for Malaysia-based equity investors and fund managers who seek understanding of return correlations between the Malaysian stock index and the world's largest stock market indices in order to gain higher risk-adjusted returns through portfolio diversification. With regard to policy implications, the findings on market shocks and the extent of the interdependence of the Malaysian market and cross-border markets may provide some useful insights into formulating effective macroeconomic stabilisation policies in efforts to prevent the contagion effect from deteriorating the domestic economy. In addition, the results of the time-varying co-movements between these market returns may provide some good indications about the exchange rate risks to be borne by multinational corporations, assisting the managers of those corporations to formulate their own policies on internal control and risk management.

This paper is not free from limitations. Yet, it provides a number of avenues for future research. This study can be further enriched by considering other markets from different regions in the world such as the Middle East, Africa, North America, Latin America and Oceania. In addition, future studies can possibly conduct similar analyses using various sector indices that cover major industries in Malaysia such as agriculture, finance, transportation,

healthcare, telecommunications and many more. In providing more comprehensive understanding of asset return linkages to international investors, future studies may want to include different asset classes such as bond, commodity, unit trust, REIT, precious metals and structured products in their analysis.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The authors acknowledge that this study was funded by the Ministry of Higher Education of Malaysia through Research Initiative Grant Scheme (RIGS), Research Project ID: RIGS15-008-0008.

REFERENCES

- Agmon, T. (1972). The relations among equity markets: A study of share price co-movements in The United States, United Kingdom, Germany and Japan. *The Journal of Finance*, 27(4), 839–855.
- Ajmi, A. N., Hammoudeh, S., Nguyen, D. K., & Sarafrazi, S. (2014). How strong are the causal relationships between Islamic stock markets and conventional financial systems? Evidence from linear and nonlinear tests. *Journal of International Financial Markets, Institutions and Money*, 28, 213–227.
- Akhtar, S. M., Jahromi, M., John, K., & Moise, C. E. (2012). Intensity of volatility linkages in Islamic and conventional markets. In *AFA 2012 Chicago Meetings Paper*. Cambridge.
- Ashraf, D. (2013, July). Genesis of differential performance between Shari' Ah compliant equity indices and conventional indices. In *20th Annual Conference of the Multinational Finance Society June*. Turkey.
- Baharumshah, A. Z., Sarmidi, T., & Tan, H. B. (2003). Dynamic linkages of Asian stock markets. *Journal of the Asia Pacific Economy*, 8(2), 180–209.
- Baillie, R. T., & Bollerslev, T. (1989). Common stochastic trends in a system of exchange rates. *Journal of Finance*, 44(1), 167–181.
- Bauer, R., Otten, R., & Rad, A. T. (2006). Ethical investing in Australia: Is there a financial penalty? *Pacific-Basin Finance Journal*, 14(1), 33–48.
- Becker, K. G., Finnerty, J. E., & Gupta, M. (1990). The intertemporal relation between the US and Japanese stock markets. *The Journal of Finance*, 45(4), 1297–1306.
- Bernoulli, D. (1738). Specimen theoriae novae de mensura sortis, in *Commentarii Academiae Scientiarum Imperialis Petropolitanae*. Translated from Latin into English by Sommer, L. (1954) Exposition of a new theory on the measurement of risk. *Econometrica: Journal of the Econometric Society*, 22, 23–36.
- Bertero, E., & Mayer, C. (1990). Structure and performance: Global interdependence of stock markets around the crash of October 1987. *European Economic Review*, 34(6), 1155–1180.
- Billio, M., & Caporin, M. (2005). Multivariate Markov switching dynamic conditional correlation GARCH representations for contagion analysis. *Statistical Methods and Applications*, 14(2), 145–161.
- Bollerslev, T. (1990). Modelling the coherence in short-run nominal exchange rates: a multivariate generalized ARCH model. *The Review of Economics and Statistics*, 72(3), 498–505.
- Caporin, M., & McAleer, M. (2013). Ten things you should know about the dynamic conditional correlation representation. *Econometrics*, 1(1), 115–126.

- Chiang, T. C., Jeon, B. N., & Li, H. (2007). Dynamic correlation analysis of financial contagion: Evidence from Asian markets. *Journal of International Money and Finance*, 26(7), 1206–1228.
- Cho, J. H., & Parhizgari, A. M. (2008). East Asian financial contagion under DCC GARCH. *International Journal of Banking and Finance*, 6(1), 2–14.
- Dajcman, S., Festic, M., & Kavkler, A. (2012). European stock market comovement dynamics during some major financial market turmoils in the period 1997 to 2010 – A comparative DCC-GARCH and wavelet correlation analysis. *Applied Economics Letters*, 19(13), 1249–1256.
- Das, S. R., & Uppal, R. (2004). Systemic risk and international portfolio choice. *The Journal of Finance*, 59(6), 2809–2834.
- Dharani, M., & Natarajan, P. (2011). Equanimity of risk and return relationship between Shariah index and general index in India. *Journal of Economics and Behavioral Studies (JEBS)*, 2(5), 213–222.
- Driessen, J., & Laeven, L. (2007). International portfolio diversification benefits: Cross-country evidence from a local perspective. *Journal of Banking and Finance*, 31(6), 1693–1712.
- Dwyer, G., & Hafer, R. (1988). Are national stock markets linked? *Federal Reserve Bank of St. Louis Review*, 70, 3–14.
- Engle, R. (2002). Dynamic conditional correlation: A simple class of multivariate generalized autoregressive conditional heteroskedasticity models. *Journal of Business and Economic Statistics*, 20(3), 339–350.
- Engle, R. F., & Sheppard, K. (2001). *Theoretical and empirical properties of dynamic conditional correlation multivariate GARCH*. (NBER working paper no. 8554). National Bureau of Economic Research.
- Grubel, H. G. (1968). Internationally diversified portfolios: welfare gains and capital flows. *The American Economic Review*, 58(5), 1299–1314.
- Hammoudeh, S., Mensi, W., Reboredo, J. C., & Nguyen, D. K. (2014). Dynamic dependence of the global Islamic equity index with global conventional equity market indices and risk factors. *Pacific-Basin Finance Journal*, 30, 189–206.
- Ibrahim, M. H. (2006). Financial integration and international portfolio diversification: US, Japan and ASEAN equity markets. *Journal of Asia-Pacific Business*, 7(1), 5–23.
- IFSB. (2015). *Islamic financial services industry stability report 2015*. Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia: Islamic Financial Services Board.
- Imam, P., & Kpodar, K. (2013). Islamic banking: How has it expanded? *Emerging Markets Finance and Trade*, 49(6), 112–137.
- Iqbal, Z., & Mirakhor, A. (2007). *An introduction to Islamic finance: Theory and practice*. Singapore: John Wiley & Sons (Asia) Pte Ltd.
- Iqbal, Z., Mirakhor, A., Krichenne, N., & Askari, H. (2010). *The stability of Islamic finance: Creating a resilient financial environment for a secure future* (Vol. 644). Singapore: John Wiley & Sons.
- Ku, Y. H. H. (2008). Student-t distribution based VAR-MGARCH: An application of the DCC model on international portfolio risk management. *Applied Economics*, 40(13), 1685–1697.
- Lebo, M. J., & Box-Steffensmeier, J. M. (2008). Dynamic conditional correlations in political science. *American Journal of Political Science*, 52(3), 688–704.
- Lee, J. (2006). The comovement between output and prices: Evidence from a dynamic conditional correlation GARCH model. *Economics Letters*, 91(1), 110–116.

- Lee, M. C., Chiou, J. S., & Lin, C. M. (2006). A study of value-at-risk on portfolio in stock return using DCC multivariate GARCH. *Applied Financial Economics Letters*, 2(3), 183–188.
- Lessard, D. R. (1973). International portfolio diversification: A multivariate analysis for a group of Latin American countries. *The Journal of Finance*, 28(3), 619–633.
- Levy, H., & Sarnat, M. (1970). International diversification of investment portfolios. *The American Economic Review*, 60(4), 668–675.
- Markowitz, H. (1959). *Portfolio selection, efficient diversification of investments*. New York, NY: John Wiley&Sons.
- Masih, A. M., & Masih, R. (1997). A comparative analysis of the propagation of stock market fluctuations in alternative models of dynamic causal linkages. *Applied Financial Economics*, 7(1), 59–74.
- Masih, A. M., & Masih, R. (1999). Are Asian stock market fluctuations due mainly to intra regional contagion effects? Evidence based on Asian emerging stock markets. *Pacific Basin Finance Journal*, 7(3), 251–282.
- Najeeb, S. F., Bacha, O., & Masih, M. (2015). Does heterogeneity in investment horizons affect portfolio diversification? Some insights using M-GARCH DCC and wavelet correlation analysis. *Emerging Markets Finance and Trade*, 51(1), 188–208.
- Rahim, A. M., & Masih, M. (2016). Portfolio diversification benefits of Islamic investors with their major trading partners: Evidence from Malaysia based on MGARCH-DCC and wavelet approaches. *Economic Modelling*, 54, 425–438.
- Saiti, B. (2015). Cointegration of Islamic Stock Indices: Evidence from Five ASEAN Countries. *International Journal of Scientific and Engineering Research*, 6(7), 1392–1405.
- Saiti, B., Bacha, O. I., & Masih, M. (2014). The diversification benefits from Islamic investment during the financial turmoil: The case for the US-based equity investors. *Borsa Istanbul Review*, 14(4), 196–211.
- Saiti, B., Bacha, O. I., & Masih, M. (2016). Testing the conventional and Islamic financial market contagion: evidence from wavelet analysis. *Emerging Markets Finance and Trade*, 52(8), 1832–1849.
- Smith, K. L., Brocato, J., & Rogers, J. E. (1993). Regularities in the data between major equity markets: Evidence from Granger causality tests. *Applied Financial Economics*, 3(1), 55–60.
- Solnik, B. H. (1974). An equilibrium model of the international capital market. *Journal of Economic Theory*, 8(4), 500–524.
- Tobin, J. (1958). Liquidity preference as behavior towards risk. *The review of economic studies*, 25(2), 65–86.
- Von Furstenberg, G. M., & Jeon, B. N. (1990). Growing international co-movement in stock price indexes. *Quarterly Review of Economics and Business*, 30(3), 15–30.
- Wang, K. M., & Thi, T. B. N. (2007). Testing for contagion under asymmetric dynamics: Evidence from the stock markets between US and Taiwan. *Physica A: Statistical Mechanics and Its Applications*, 376, 422–432.
- Xiao, L., & Dhesi, G. (2010). Volatility spillover and time-varying conditional correlation between the European and US stock markets. *Global Economy and Finance Journal*, 3(2), 148–164.
- Zawya. (2015). *Global Islamic asset management outlook 2015*. Dubai, United Arab Emirates: Thomson Reuters Zawya.



Survivability through Basic Needs Consumption among Muslim Households B40, M40 and T20 Income Groups

Noorhaslinda Kulub Abd. Rashid¹, Nor Fatimah Che Sulaiman^{1,2*} and Nur Afifah Rahizal¹

¹*School of Social and Economic Development, Universiti Malaysia Terengganu, 21030 UMT, Kuala Terengganu, Terengganu, Malaysia*

²*School of Economics, Faculty of Economics and Management, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, 43600 UKM, Bangi, Selangor, Malaysia*

ABSTRACT

It has been argued that consumption and economic behaviour are strongly related. Malaysia is currently experiencing good economic growth, urbanisation, modernisation in technology and social and demographic change, especially in terms of a consumption-orientated lifestyle. Malaysian household expenses have a significant impact on the national economy. The recent economic crisis has also contributed to changes in the structure of Malaysia's current economic growth due to its impact on the current expenditure of households. One of the factors driving household expenses is total household income, which determines a household's ability to spend. Household spending is often changed by the strength of the economy as illustrated by the recession or economic crises of 1986, 1997, 1998 and 2008. The economic crises had contributed to a decrease in income and the purchasing power parity of households. This paper examines the roles of expenditure, basic needs and other demographic factors in explaining the concept of 'survivability' in Malaysia's current economic environment. Suggestions and recommendations will be offered aimed at educating households towards becoming good financial planners.

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received: 11 June 2017

Accepted: 07 December 2017

E-mail addresses:

lindarashid@umt.edu.my (Noorhaslinda Kulub Abd. Rashid)

norfatimah.ukm@gmail.com (Nor Fatimah Che Sulaiman)

nurafifahrahizal@gmail.com (Nur Afifah Rahizal)

*Corresponding author

Keywords: Consumption, expenditure, basic needs, household income group, survivability JEL Code: D11, D12, D13, E21, E60

INTRODUCTION

The pace and sophistication of technology is a major catalyst in consumer lifestyle and livelihood, especially among households. The variety of goods and services offered in the market increases household consumption and provides options for meeting needs and wants. Furthermore, the economic boom and rapid development of Malaysia have increased Malaysians' income at every level (Sharifah et al., 2005). Robin and Roberts (1998) reported that 'unsustainable consumption' practices exist among the new middle-class in Asia.

To face the current economic challenges, households need to spend wisely and manage income, expenditure and debts efficiently. Unfortunately, today's world is witnessing overconsumption among households despite budget constraints and limitations. Furthermore, the credit facilities available in the market provide loans in the form of personal loans, education, housing, hire purchase, credit card and easy payment schemes (Kadir, 2007). A financial position that is not in line with the level of income and expenditure will lead to instability in financial institutions due to high levels of debt.

This situation is exacerbated by households' mismanagement of income and expenditure on goods and services. The income allocated for the purchase of goods or services refers to 'expenditure',

while 'consumption' refers to the expenses for the goods or services that are typically used by households (Henderson & Poole, 1991). These terms are interrelated and shape a household's spending patterns for several sub-categories, namely consumer durables, nondurable goods and consumer services. Although the average household income increases annually, the issue of overconsumption remains a major concern for many parties. The theory of consumption is that a consumer decides to choose the goods and services along with the quantity to be consumed. The satisfaction of using goods or services, namely 'utility' is not always similar among individuals. In discussing consumption and consumer behaviour, the underlying theoretical foundations are the Theory of Consumption and Theory of Consumer Behaviour (Pindyck & Rubinfeld, 2005). The three most important theories of consumption can be explained by the Relative Income Theory of Consumption, Life Cycle Theory of Consumption and Permanent Income Theory of Consumption (Friedman, 1957; Keynes, 1936; Modigliani, 1949). This is also supported by Islamic scholars such as M. Fahim Khan (1984) Najetullah Siddiqi (1979), Zarqa (1983), M. Umer Chapra, (1970), Surtahman (2001) and Mannan (2007). These theories explain how consumers spend on goods or services with budget constraints.

A luxury lifestyle and a hedonistic culture can trap people in high debts. The concept of 'sufficiency' refers to being grateful and satisfied with what a person has. Sufficiency and adequacy in life do not mean that a person must accumulate wealth, power and a prominent position. Rather, they are embodied in a sense of gratitude. This is explained in *Surah An-Najm* of the Al-Quran, verses 43 to 48:

And that it is He who makes people laugh and weep. And that it is He who gives death and life. And that He (Allah) creates the pairs, male and female. From Nutfah (drops of semen male and female discharges) when it is emitted. And that upon Him (Allah) is another bringing forth (resurrection). And that it is He (Allah) Who gives much or a little (or gives wealth and contentment).

Allah is Self-sufficient and fulfils all His creatures' requirements. Allah also stated in *Surah Ibrahim* verse 7:

And (remember) when your Lord proclaimed: "If you give thanks (by accepting faith and worshipping none but Allah), I will give you more (of My Blessings), but if you are thankless (i.e. non-believers), verily! My Punishment is indeed severe.

Smart management of income and consumption expenditure means that a household can allocate and spend total income wisely. Due to budget constraints, a household should plan and prioritise the basic needs of consumption. Basic needs are defined as the major budget components of food, housing, transportation, healthcare and clothing, among others. According to the Overseas Development Institute (1978), there is no single universally accepted definition of 'basic needs', and there is no uniform vocabulary to describe the various elements of basic needs. Economic facts have revealed that low-income households allocate a large portion of their income for 'basic needs' expenditure rather than on unnecessary expenses. Maslow's theory encompasses the need for self-perfection, self-respect, love, social needs, security needs and physiological needs, highlighting that in terms of human psychology, everyone will ensure the lowest level of requirements are met before trying to meet higher level needs (Maslow, 1971).

According to Cameron (2014), only 9% of households have enough income to meet their monthly expenses for basic needs. This finding shows that households with low income are unable to meet their basic needs and need to supplement their income with activities such as trade to survive (Broekhuis Annelet, 1997). In Europe, good health, employment and friends positively

affect people's wellbeing with consumption control (Lelkes, 2005). This shows that good consumption control is important and can affect people's wellbeing.

Household Consumption

According to Bank Negara Malaysia (2013), the ratio of household debt to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) for 2013 was 86.8%. This figure placed Malaysia among the countries with the highest household debt in the Asia Pacific region compared with Thailand (30%), Indonesia (15.8%), Hong Kong (58%), Taiwan (82%), Japan (75%) and Singapore (67%). In 2004, the debt ratio was only slightly above 60% with a record low of 60.4% in 2008. From 2009, this rate surpassed the 72% with consistent annual increases. Furthermore, the annual growth rate of household debt in Malaysia increased at a faster rate than the growth rate of household assets for the period 2003 to 2013 at 12.7%, compared with 10.4% for household assets each year. An increase of 12.7% is not in line with the increase in GDP growth of between 4%-6% per annum. As at the end of 2016, total household debt as a proportion of GDP was slightly lower at 88.4%, as the growth in household debt slowed below the nominal GDP growth for the first time since 2010, potentially marking a turning point for adjustments in households. The total household debt was RM1086.2 billion at 84.4% in 2014 of the GDP compared with 89.5% in 2015. Thus, it

seems slightly lower compared to previous periods. On the other hand, household financial assets increased by RM113.4 billion against an increase of RM55.6 billion in debt (BNM, 2016).

Excessive debt that is not commensurate with income will render households vulnerable to unexpected shocks. It affects household expenditure and spending along with the stability of the country's economic growth (Mohamad, 2014). The proportion of total household debt in Malaysia, includes loans from the banking system, development financial institutions, the mortgage lending treasury and non-bank financial institutions. The highest amount of debt in 2013 was from home purchasing, with 44.2% or RM377.7 billion, followed by vehicle purchases with 17.5% (RM149.9 billion), personal loans, 16.6% (RM141.5 billion), residential property, 7.6% (RM65.2 billion), the acquisition of stocks or securities, 6.4% (RM54.9 billion), credit cards, 4.2% (RM35.5 billion) and other purposes, 3.5% (RM29.6 billion) (Sabri, 2014).

In addition, according to the Credit Counselling and Debt Management Agency (2014), one should limit the amount of repayment of loans to $\frac{1}{3}$ of its gross income. However, the reality today is quite the opposite. From 2009 until 2013, the ratio of Malaysian debt repayment on household loans exceeded by 43%, which means almost half of household income was spent on servicing debt, leaving slightly more than half to meet the needs of everyday

living expenses. This clearly shows that Malaysians are willing to enter into debt for personal comfort even though they realise such comfort is beyond their means.

Malaysia Department of Insolvency (MDI) (2013) reported that there was a total of 122,169 people involved in bankruptcies between 2007 and 2013 (13,238 for 2007, 13,855 [2008], 16,228 [2009], 18,119 [2010], 19,167 [2011], 19,575 [2012] and 21,987 [2013]). On average, 68 people declared bankruptcy every day, which is an increase of 13% from 60 cases daily in 2013. The highest bankruptcies in Malaysia in 2013 were due to hire-purchase loans (26.1%), housing loans (17.6%), personal loans (15.5%) and business loans (12.4%). If considered in terms of age, the highest percentage of those who declared bankruptcy in 2012 were aged between 35 and 44 years (36.6%) and 45 to 54 years (29.1%) and two-thirds were male (69.5%) (women, 30.5 %). In terms of ethnic groups, ethnic Malays declared bankruptcy the most with 48.4%, followed by the Chinese (33.2%), Indians (14.1%) and other ethnicities (4.3%) (Mohamad Fazli, 2014).

Given the above, this paper discusses expenditure on basic needs consisting

of food, housing and transport among three income groups, B40, M40 and T20 to measure their 'sufficiency' and 'survivability'. However, on the practical level, economic behaviour is determined by the faith (*iman*) level of the individual or a group of people who tend to drive consumption behaviour and production in the market. That is why measuring spending behaviour is rather subjective.

According to Figure 1, across all income groups and strata, the three highest household expenditure item groups were food and non-alcoholic beverages, housing, water, electricity, gas and other fuels and transport. These three groups can be classified as basic needs based on Ibrahim (2003) and Ghani and Harjin (2005). Malaysian households spent 57.4% on average on these three expenditures. The B40 income group spent 62.6% of their total expenditure, while M40 spent 57% of their total expenditure and T20 spent 54.4% on these groups of items. This finding shows that the B40 income group spent almost two thirds of their total expenditure on food and non-alcoholic beverages, housing, water, electricity, gas and other fuels and transport.

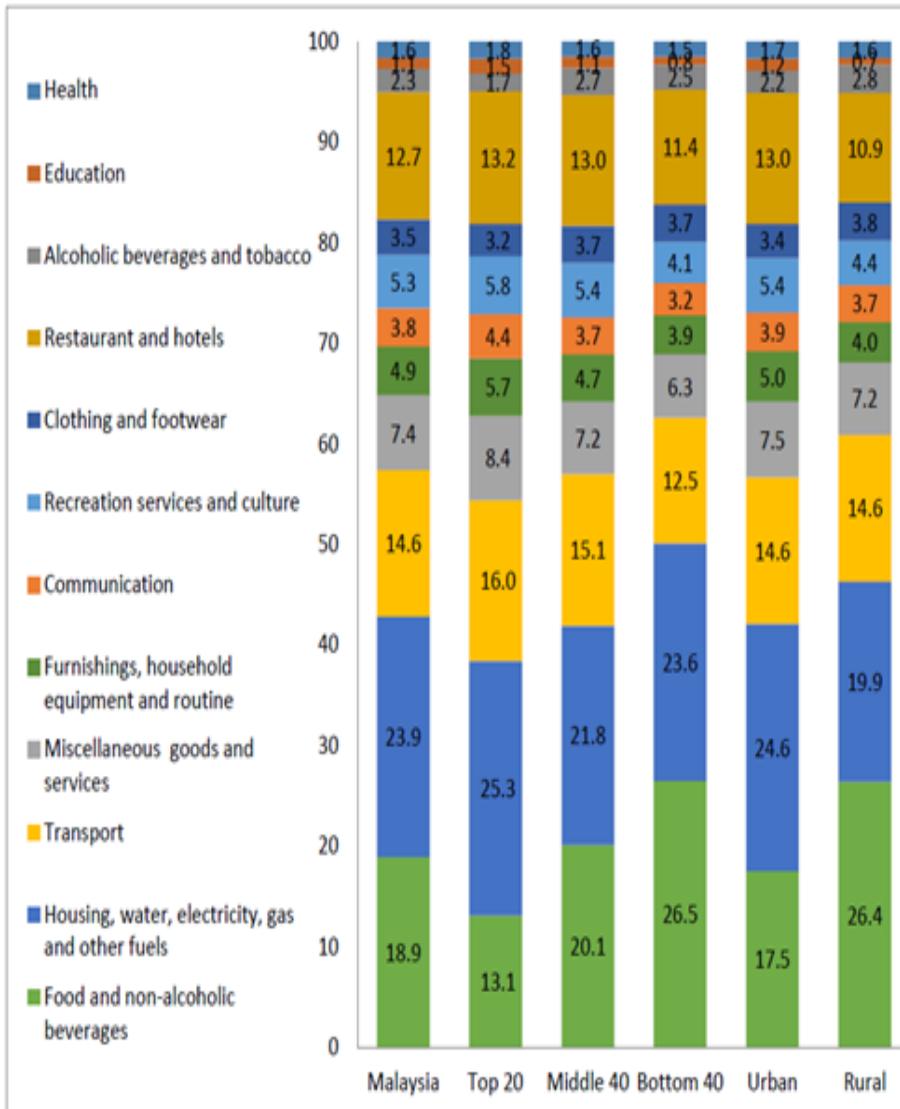


Figure 1. Malaysia household expenditure profile by household income group and strata 2014
 Source: Household Expenditure Survey 2014, Department of Statistics Malaysia

Table 1
 Income range for B40, M40 and T20 Income Groups in 2009, 2012 and 2014

Group	2009	2012	2014
B40	<RM2300	<RM3050	<RM3855
M40	RM2301 – RM5599	RM3050 – RM6950	RM3856 – RM8135
T20	>RM5599	>RM6950	>RM8135

Source: Household Income Survey 2009, 2012 and 2014, Department of Statistics Malaysia

Table 1 shows the household income range for B40, M40 and T20 for 2009, 2012 and 2014. The income range for B40 households increased by as much as RM750 in 2009 to RM2300 to RM3050 in 2012. In 2014, B40's household income range increased by RM805 to RM3855 from RM3050. A possible reason for the increase in income for the B40 group could be the implementation of minimum wages in 2013.

METHOD

This paper uses cross-sectional data obtained from questionnaires distributed to 441 Muslim households in Selangor, which has the highest per capita of GDP in Malaysia, and Kelantan, which has the lowest per capita of GDP as recorded by Department of Statistics Malaysia, 2013. Muslim households were selected as the construct items and questionnaire measurements were from an Islamic perspective. Petaling and Sabak Bernam districts were chosen to represent the urban and rural areas of Selangor, while Kota Bharu and Jeli represented Kelantan. The sample was chosen using stratified random sampling and were categorised into three income levels, namely T20, M40 and B40. The questionnaires were in Malay and contained eight major groups of questions. Section A elicited demographic information, Section B concerned the profiles of family members, Section C concerned income source of the household head, Section D was on consumption item allocation, Section E was on savings, Section F was on religion, Section G was on household

consumption pattern and Section H regarded the quality of life among the households. This questionnaire used a 5-point Likert Scale with values ranging from 'strongly agree' to 'strongly disagree'. The paper consisted of three main analyses, which included analysing the spending habits of the sample in order to understand them. The second part analysed the priority order of expenditure among the sampled households and the third analysed the relationship between total expenditure and expenditure of basic needs among the income groups.

RESULTS AND FINDINGS

Table 2 presents the respondents' profile.

Table 2
Profile of respondents (N=441)

Profile of Respondents	Frequency	Percentage
Gender (Head of Household)		
Male	368	83.4
Female	73	16.6
Marital Status		
Single	34	7.7
Married	355	80.5
Widow/Widower	52	11.8
Age		
20 to 30	64	14.5
31 to 40	133	30.2
41 to 50	105	23.8
51 to 60	90	20.4
60 and above	49	11.1
Education level		
Non-schooling	6	1.4
PMR/SPM and below	102	23.1
SPM	155	35.1
STPM/Diploma/Skills Certificates	82	18.6
Degree and above	96	21.8

Table 2 (continue)

Profile of Respondents	Frequency	Percentage
Number of Dependents		
None	22	5.0
1 to 3 persons	218	49.4
4 to 6 persons	174	39.5
7 to 9 persons	26	5.9
10 people and above	1	0.2
Gross Income		
Below RM1000	38	8.6
RM1001-RM2000	81	18.4
RM2001-RM3000	89	20.2
RM3001-RM4000	58	13.2
RM4001-RM5000	36	8.2
RM5001 and above	139	31.5

Spending in Islam should be managed wisely to avoid irregularities in family finances. Society today tends towards hedonism, which assumes that pleasure and enjoyment are the purpose of life. Ezani and Mohd Nor (2004) showed that the Muslim community lacked a clear understanding of spending in Islam based on a study of 500 respondents from Shah Alam. They showed that 71% of the respondents lacked a clear understanding of spending according to the Islamic concept compared with 29%, who understood it clearly. However, this study found contradictory findings, with 47.6% and 34.5% agreeing and strongly agreeing, respectively, with the statement

“Understand spending habits in Islam,” as shown in Table 3.

Table 3
Spending habit by Islamic concept

Understand Spending Habits in Islam	Frequency	Percentage
Disagree	3	0.7
Unsure	76	17.2
Agree	210	47.6
Strongly Agree	152	34.5
Total	441	100.0

Based on the priority expenditure for the B40 group in Table 4, it was found that spending on food received the highest priority, with a mean of 1.2, followed by transportation (3.82), housing (3.83), clothing (4.9), education (5.7), health (5.14), communication (6.37), *zakat* (7.24), parents (7.36), religious activity (8.68), loan repayments (8.98), recreation (9.09) and others (12.21). The same degree of priority was shown by the M40 and T20 groups. From the perspective of mean total expenditure for the month, the transportation allocation was the highest, with RM398/month, followed by food, with RM397/month. The lowest value was for recreation (RM23/month).

Table 4
Priority Expenditures among B40 (N=168)

	Mean Total Expenditure (RM)/Month	Frequency	Percentage	Mean	S.D.
Food	397	166	94.8	1.2	0.553
Transportation	398	150	95.7	3.82	2.375
Housing	138	149	87.1	3.83	2.727
Clothing	32	152	82.8	4.9	2.424
Education	113	120	32.8	5.7	2.836
Health	43	111	38.8	5.14	2.339
Communication	49	121	75.9	6.37	2.363
<i>Zakat</i>	134	132	80.2	7.24	2.895
Parents	58	110	76.7	7.36	2.808
Religious activities	89	120	63.8	8.68	2.934
Loan repayments	159	102	75.9	8.98	2.962
Recreation	23	104	38.8	9.09	2.32
Others	54	86	51.2	12.21	2.007

Table 5 provides the priority of expenditure among the M40 group. Comparatively, the M40 group had different priorities compared with the B40 group, whereby the highest portion of their expenditure was for transportation, with a mean value of 1.33

and mean total expenditure of RM811/month. This was followed by transportation (3.18), housing (3.36), clothing (5.61), education (5.94), parents (6.95), health (6.05), communication (6.47), *zakat* (7.48), loan repayments (7.14), recreation (8.85), religious activities (9.04) and others (12.39).

Table 5
Priority order of Expenditures among M40 (N=157)

	Mean Total Expenditure (RM)/Month	Frequency	Percentage	Mean	S.D.
Food	515	153	97.5	1.33	1.031
Transportation	811	145	92.4	3.18	1.715
Housing	374	142	90.4	3.36	2.21
Clothing	38	142	90.4	5.61	2.927
Education	198	111	70.7	5.94	2.694
Parents	124	117	74.5	6.95	2.562
Health	67	116	73.9	6.05	2.388
Communication	90	108	68.8	6.47	2.223
<i>Zakat</i>	145	123	78.3	7.48	2.507
Loan repayments	402	106	67.5	7.14	3.214
Recreation	85	94	59.9	8.85	2.204
Religious activity	95	109	69.4	9.04	2.411
Others	61	59	37.6	12.39	1.531

The highest income group, T20, had a different priority for expenditures compared with the B40 and M40 groups (refer to Table 6). Surprisingly, the highest portion among T20 was allocated for transportation and loan repayments, with a mean total expenditures of RM1378/month and RM1151/month, respectively. In terms of

priority expenditure, the first was food, with a mean value of 1.87, followed by transportation (2.97), housing (3.46), loan repayments (5.39), clothing (6.21), parents (6.08), communications (6.97), education (6.06), health (6.73), *zakat* (7.08) and recreation (8.69).

Table 6
Priority order of expenditures among T20 (N=116)

	Mean Total Expenditure (RM)/Month	Frequency	Percentage	Mean	S.D.
Food	596	110	94.8	1.87	1.838
Transportation	1378	111	95.7	2.97	1.598
Housing	623	101	87.1	3.46	1.598
Loan repayments	1151	88	75.9	5.39	2.886
Clothing	69	96	82.8	6.21	3.241
Parents	278	89	76.7	6.08	2.375
Communication	141	88	75.9	6.97	2.114
Education	451	78	67.2	6.06	2.509
Health	108	71	61.2	6.73	2.898
<i>Zakat</i>	224	93	80.2	7.08	2.687
Recreation	143	71	61.2	8.69	2.633
Religious activities	148	74	63.8	9.32	2.312
Others	198	31	26.7	11.87	2.232

This paper implemented the multiple regression method to analyse the relationship between total expenditure and basic needs among the three household income groups. The dependent variable was total expenditure, while the independent variable consisted of expenditure on basic needs, which were food, housing and transport. This analysis also included five control variables, namely number of household dependents, years of schooling,

total household debt, marital status and household savings.

Three multiple regressions showed that the expenditure on basic needs had a significant relationship and impact on the total expenditure among the income groups. Table 7 shows that the basic needs comprising food, transport and housing had a positive and significant relationship with total expenditure. In other words, the increase in expenditure on basic needs

(food, housing and transport) will increase the total expenditure of household income. For food expenditure, B40 showed the highest coefficient (1.875), followed by T20 (1.849) and M40 (1.157), while for expenditure on transport, T20 recorded the highest coefficient (2.226), followed by B40 (1.925) and M40 (1.788). As for housing expenditure, T20 recorded the highest coefficient (1.043), followed by B40 (0.855)

and M40 (0.703). All the coefficients for food, transport and housing were significant at the 1% level. Therefore, it can be concluded that the increase of expenditure on food, housing and transport will lead to an increase in total household expenditure. As predicted, total household debt had a positive and significant relationship with total household expenditure.

Table 7
Multiple regression on total expenditure and basic needs

Independent Variable	Income Group		
	B40	M40	T20
Food	1.875***	1.157***	1.849***
	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)
Transport	1.925***	1.788***	2.226***
	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)
Housing	0.855***	0.703***	1.043***
	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)
No of household	33.583	67.744**	-118.22
	(-0.328)	(-0.037)	(-0.111)
Years of schooling	-0.896	22.014	0.825
	(-0.975)	(-0.425)	(-0.983)
Household debt	2575.312***	2750.973***	2433.817***
	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)
Marital status	-73.949	196.951	-360.357
	(-0.544)	(-0.257)	(-0.262)
Household savings	-5.257	-2279.256	-735.645
	(-0.984)	(-0.253)	(-0.152)

Note: ***, **and * denote to significant at 1%, 5% and 10%, respectively

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, different consumption patterns and behaviours among the households were observed. The best consumption practice for Muslims should refer to the Al-Quran and the *Hadith*. Everything on the earth belongs to

Allah, who created mankind. Human beings may plan their consumption, but it should always be under the guidance of Islamic teachings. The human being is required to obtain goods in a good way. *Al-Furqan* verse 67 states that good consumption behaviour

is not being excessive in spending wealth nor is it being stingy or ungenerous, but best consumption is consumption in moderation. Therefore, to understand the concept of 'sufficient', it is important to appreciate the meaning of showing gratitude to God for all His blessings and rewards.

Islam promotes modest expenditure and consumption. Moderate consumption means minimum consumption as far as we can control or restrain our passions and excessive spending. We as Muslims should be aware of and ready for times of distress and hardship. We must be willing to change our attitude to be more thrifty and prudent in spending so as to be always ready for life's tests and trials.

Among the key roles that can be played by policy-makers is the appreciation of Islamic law. This makes it easier for people to make comparisons between Shari'ah and economic knowledge despite coming different backgrounds (secular knowledge). The combination of policy-makers from among economists and the *ulama'* is necessary for the development of knowledgeable societies. It can be organised through seminars, workshops, symposiums, colloquiums or paper presentations (Basri, 2003). The same goes for the education system, which can implement proactive measures in producing graduates who are knowledgeable of consumerism. At the primary and secondary education levels, teaching and learning that emphasise the importance of understanding Islamic economics (in terms of consumerism) should be implemented.

Limitations of the Study and Directions for Future Research

There are several limitations associated with this study. The sample chosen was limited to Muslim respondents from Selangor and Kelantan. This may affect the generalisability of the findings. Therefore, it is suggested to fill the gap in the measurement of survivability by presenting a measuring expenditure based on other ethnicities and in different states of Malaysia. This study is a preliminary overview of the household consumption pattern and survivability among the B40, M40 and T20 incomes groups.

REFERENCES

- BNM. (2013). *Laporan tahunan*. Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia: Bank Negara Malaysia.
- BNM. (2016). *Risk developments and assessment of financial stability in 2016*. Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia: Bank Negara Malaysia.
- Cameron, H. (2014). The morality of the food parcel: Emergency food as a response to austerity. *Practical Theology*, 7(3), 194-204.
- CCMA. (2013). *Annual report*. Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia: Credit Counselling and Management Agency.
- Chapra, M. U. (1970). *The economic system of Islam – A discussion of its goal and nature*. London: Islamic Cultural Centre.
- Department of Statistic. (2009). *Household income survey*. Retrieved from <https://www.dosm.gov.my/v1/>.
- Department of Statistic. (2012). *Household income survey*. Retrieved from <https://www.dosm.gov.my/v1/>.

- Department of Statistic. (2014). *Household income survey*. Retrieved from <https://www.dosm.gov.my/v1/>
- Friedman, M. (1957). *A theory of the consumption function*. Princeton: Princeton University Press.*Ghani, B. A. (2003). *Penggunaan dalam ekonomi: Analisis dari perspektif Islam*. Kuala Lumpur: Universiti Malaya.
- Ghani, B. A., & Harjin, A. A. (2005). *Penggunaan dari perspektif ekonomi Islam: Kajian ke atas pengguna Muslim Kangar Perlis [Consumption from an Islamic economic perspective: A study on Muslim Kangar Perlis consumers]*. Perlis: Pusat Pemikiran dan Kefahaman Islam (CITU) UiTM Perlis.
- Haron, S. A., Paim, L., & Yahaya, N. (2005). Towards sustainable consumption: An examination of environmental knowledge among Malaysians. *International Journal of Consumer Studies*, 29(5), 426-436.
- Harts, B. A. (1997): How to sustain a living? Urban households and poverty in the Sahelian town of Mopti. *Africa*, 1(67), 106–129.
- Hasan, S. K. (2001). *Ekonomi Islam: Dasar dan amalan*. Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia: Dewan Bahasa dan Pustaka.
- Henderson, J. V., & Poole, W. (1991). *Principles of economics*. Lexington: DC: Health and Co.
- Ibrahim, I. H. (2003). *Gelagat penggunaan barang keperluan di kalangan pengguna Muslim: Kajian perbandingan di jajahan Pasir Puteh, Kelantan dan daerah Petaling Jaya, Selangor [Behavioral use of consumer goods among Muslim consumers: Comparative study in the district of Pasir Puteh, Kelantan and Petaling Jaya district, Selangor]* (Doctoral dissertation), University of Malaya, Malaysia.
- IDM. (2013). *Bankruptcy statistic report*. Malaysia: Insolvency Department of Malaysia.
- Kadir, S. A. (2007). *Hidup tenang walaupun berhutang [Life is calm despite debt]*. Malaysia: PTS Profesional Publishing Sdn Bhd.
- Keynes, J. M. (1936). *The general theory of employment, interest in money*. London: Macmillan.
- Khan, M. F. (1984). Macro consumption function in an Islamic framework. *Journal of Research in Islamic Economics*, 1(2), 124.
- Khan, M. F. (1995). *Essays in Islamic economic*. United Kingdom, UK: The Islamic Foundation.
- Lelkes, O. (2005). Knowing what is good for you: Empirical analysis of personal preferences and the ‘objective good’. *CASE paper no. 94*. London School of Economics, London.
- Mannan, M. A. (2007). *Ekonomi Islam: Teori dan praktis (Asas-asas ekonomi Islam) [Islamic Economics: Theory and Practice (Fundamentals of Islamic Economics)]* (pp. 6–77). AS Noordeen: Kuala Lumpur.
- Maslow, A. (1971). *The farther reaches of human nature*. New York: The Viking Press.
- Modigliani, F., & Brumbergh, R. (1954). Utility analysis and the consumption function: An interpretation of cross-section data. In K. Kurihara (Ed.), *Post Keynesian economics* (pp. 388-436). London: George Allen and Unwin.
- Mohamad, M. H. (2014). Pandangan alam dan hubungkaitnya dengan peningkatan beban hutang isi rumah semasa di Malaysia [The natural view and the relationship with the increase in the current household debt burden in Malaysia]. In *Seminar Beban Hutang Isu Rumah Punca dan Penyelesaian*. Universiti Putra Malaysia, Malaysia.

- Overseas Development Institute. (1978). *Definition of basic needs*. Retrieved from <https://www.odi.org/publications/5365-basic-needs>.
- Pindyck, R. S., & Rubinfeld, D. L. (2005). *Microeconomics*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson International Edition.
- Robins, N. & Roberts, S. (1998). Consumption in a sustainable world. In *Workbook prepared for the OECD Workshop* (pp. 2-4). Norway: Kabelvaag. Retrieved <http://www.iied.org/smg/pubs/workbk2.htm>
- Sabri, M. F. (2014). Beban hutang: Implikasi kepada kebajikan isi rumah dan ekonomi negara, seminar beban hutang isi rumah: Isu dan penyelesaian [Debt burden: Implications for household welfare and national economy, household debt burden seminar: Issues and solutions]. In *Seminar Beban Hutang Isu Rumah Punca dan Penyelesaian*. Universiti Putra Malaysia, Malaysia.
- Siddiqi, M. N. (1979). *The economic enterprise in Islam*. Lahore: Islamic Publications Ltd.
- Yaakub, E., & Mamat, M. N. (2004). Islam: Past, present and future. In A. S. Long (Ed.), *Proceedings of International Seminar on Islamic Thoughts* (pp. 566-572). Kementerian Penerangan Malaysia, Malaysia.
- Zarqa, D. A., & Ahmad, J. (1983). *Ekonomi Islam: Satu pendekatan kepada kebajikan manusia [Islamic Economics: An approach to human welfare]*. Kuala Lumpur: Bahagian Agama Jabatan Perdana Menteri.

Topic Sentence Coaching: Keys to Unlock Intricacy of Academic Writing

Nahed Ghazzoul

Department Of English, Faculty of Arts, Al-Zaytoonah University, Amman, 11733, Jordan

ABSTRACT

Academic writing is at the centre of teaching in higher education, fulfilling a variety of functions, including asking students to produce paragraphs, essays, or sit written exams. This paper argues that the current writing provision in most departments of English in the Arab world should be viewed as offering more practical support in the writing process. To that end, 100 argumentative essays were collected, from English-writing classes at the Department of English at Al-Zaytoonah University in Jordan, to study the role of the topic sentence and the thesis statement in ensuring paragraph unity, topic unity, and text organisation. A detailed qualitative data analysis was undertaken, supported by quantitative analysis to account for the frequencies of the writing breakdowns. The results showed that most of the students failed to write effective topic sentences or thesis statements that relate directly to the posed question. They also failed to introduce ideas for the subsequent discussion. Additionally, most of them introduced undeniable and broad opening sentences that were globally related to the text; consequently, they failed in sustaining topic unity, paragraph unity, and text organisation. The paper suggests that academic staff should be more involved in practical writing courses to help students handle the specificity of academic writing requirements. It is expected that the study will inspire re-designing the writing syllabuses.

Keywords: Academic, paragraph, thesis statement, topic, writing

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received: 26 September 2017

Accepted: 03 April 2018

E-mail address:

nghazzol@hotmail.com (Nahed Ghazzoul)

INTRODUCTION

Writing is fundamental to students of English in institutions of higher education. It constitutes “the dominant form of social action in the academy”, and a major form

of assessment (Henderson & Hirst, 2007, p. 25). Therefore, students' ability to respond to the requirements of writing is of vital importance for their academic progress, and essential to the completion of their degrees (Wingate, 2012). In other words, students' inability to write academic texts that meet the expectations of their teachers, and the requirements of the course, put them in danger of failing or being dropped from their programmes (Lillis & Scott, 2007). Viewed from this standpoint, academic writing is considered a 'high-stake' activity (Hyland, 2002, p. 220).

For Arab EFL learners, academic writing is perceived by most, if not all, as a set of difficult skills to learn. A considerable number of studies have presented the common problems encountered by Arab learners when they write in English (see Amin & Alamin, 2012; Clark, 2012; Johnstone, 1991; Kaplan, 1972; Ostler, 1987; Connor, 1996). Al-Khasawneh and Maher (2010) noted that students find difficulty in complying with fundamental writing conventions, like outlining, summarising, and paraphrasing, which are necessary to complete their written tasks successfully. Other problems are related to the essential constituents of writing, including forming, developing, and organising ideas (Amin & Alamin, 2012). Additionally, learners failed to form a thesis statement, write convincing supporting sentences, or, finally, edit their writing (Alsamdani, 2010).

Studies attributed these difficulties to the ecology of the text structures between the two languages—Arabic and English—

because written Arabic sentences are characterised by a high degree of parallelism and coordination, whereas English is measured by the degree of subordination. According to Clark (2012), "the fashion in English prose has been to favour subordination over coordination. However, in Arabic, the stylistic preference is for elaborate coordination" (p. 326). Confirming this, Elachachi (2015) states that the essays of Arab students are "biased towards the use of some rhetorical and syntactic patterns specific to Arabic, such as preference of coordination over subordination ... as a means of structural linkage" (p. 133).

Generally speaking, the challenges of English writing for Arabic speakers can also be related to the fact that the two languages have two completely different writing systems, different grammatical systems, and cultural differences. In addition, the Arabic alphabet is completely different from the English Alphabet, because words are written from right to left, and do not have upper- and lower-case letters. This makes Arab learners mix big and small letters within sentences and not use enough full stops.

As a teacher of academic writing for many years, this researcher has continuously tried to get students to write effective and coherent paragraphs. Although students are taught effective writing techniques, they have not mastered the basics of writing conventions, including the role of the topic sentence in creating coherent and organised paragraphs, or the role of the thesis statement in creating effective essays.

As such, this study tries to demonstrate the role of the topic sentence and thesis statement in creating coherent paragraphs, maintaining topic unity, and, consequently, creating effective academic essays. In that sense, the topic sentence is usually the first sentence of the paragraph and includes the topic and the controlling idea. This controlling idea will be supported in the body sentences. Meanwhile, in the essay format, the thesis statement is expected to be introduced at the end of the introductory paragraph. It includes the writer's main line of discussion and focus of this paper. The body paragraphs follow, each starting with a topic sentence, which includes a topic and a controlling idea derived from the thesis statement. This introduces the subject of the paragraph and relates the discussion to the previous section. The thesis statement is a road map which establishes the topic discussion that guides the reader towards what is coming next.

In this paper, topic unity is considered a macro feature, allowing the macrostructure to systematise the propositions of the microstructure hierarchically (Kintsch, 1998). The discussion is related to the role of the thesis statement in ensuring the global coherence of the text, and the way the meaning is constructed to maintain the overall unity of the topic. It is worth mentioning that coherence is specific to genres, and texts of any "genre have their unique rhetorical structures" (Zarza, Tan, Chan, & Ali, 2015, pp. 173-174). Therefore, "to help writers cope with the challenges

of writing might be to sensitise them to the communicative purpose of a text type and how a particular genre is constructed" (p. 173).

For the explicit genre, this study examines the specific requirements of a coherent text. To be coherent, students' essays should consist of three or more paragraphs, and should meet the requirements of the specific academic structure they study. Thus, this study looks at three essential elements in paragraph writing, namely the topic sentence, the thesis statement, and the topic unity, and offers a general method for constructing them. Analysing written samples collected from essay-classes at Al-Zaytoonah University shows the types of problems students' writing suffers from in relation to the topic sentence, thesis statement, and how the impact on paragraph unity, topic unity, and text organisation.

THEORETICAL OVERVIEW

Writing is perceived by most learners as a set of difficult skills to learn (Al Murshidi, 2014; Bacha, 2012; Chou, 2011). Confirming this, Al-Fadda, (2012) conducted a study on the English writing of Arab students and found that learning to write in English was a challenging task for university students. Students failed to apply the English punctuation marks and capital letters correctly. They also faced problems in choosing suitable words and phrases, and in combining sentences in their writing. Students made mistakes with "subject-verb agreement [and] using pronouns" (p. 127).

To be able to write well requires conscious effort and practice in grouping, composing, and developing ideas through systematic learning. It also means acquiring a set of practices in formal instructional settings or other environments, like the involvement of the writer's knowledge of the topic, language proficiency, and expectations of the readers. This skill must be learned rather than acquired, and not everyone becomes literate, even if s/he knows how to listen or speak a language. Confirming this, Rafik-Galea, Arumugam, and de Mello (2012) examined the perceptions and thoughts of tertiary students in co-constructing knowledge about academic writing. They found that "[t]ertiary ESL students find writing academic term-paper a complex process as they grapple with issues about academic writing conventions and ethics" (p. 1229).

A considerable body of research has been conducted to address the problems of coherence, and the process and product of writing in the EFL and ESL context (Ibnian, 2017; Rijlaarsdam, and Sanders, 2009; Smith, 2003; Steinman, 2009; Weijen, Huub van den Bergh, Wikborg, 1990) claims that writing in English for academic purposes is a challenge for non-native speakers of English because they not have only "to deal with the obvious linguistic and technical issues such as syntax, vocabulary, and format, but they must also become familiar with Western notions of academic rhetoric" (p. 80). Ibnian (2017) has studied papers written by EFL university Jordanian students. The results of his study reveal that

students face difficulties in generating ideas, using correct vocabulary and grammar, and teachers not giving enough "assessment and help" (p. 791).

To facilitate the written course, learners should consider the purpose of the writing, the intended audience, select proper vocabulary to form sentences, organise the sentences into paragraphs, and paragraphs into unified essays using suitable organisational patterns. Such challenges can overwhelm the EFL or ESL learners and affect their written product. To overcome writing difficulties, learners transfer patterns and strategies from L1 into L2 discourse. Krapels (1990) highlights L1 transference into L2 discourse and argues that challenges occur in adapting results from L1 findings to solving problems in an L2 context. Among his findings, he mentions that poor performance in L2 writing relates to composing competency, and not to linguistic proficiency. He adds that "learners transfer L1 writing strategies to their L2 writing process for 'facilitative functions'" (Krapels, 1990, p. 48). Thus, students who write in L2 do not have to master the linguistic proficiency in the use of the English language only, but also the techniques, skills, and writing strategies. They must follow the instructions of their language instructors and faculty members to get beyond their language problems in the process of evaluating their work. Confirming Krapels' findings, Friedlander (1990) adds that translation is considered an effective writing strategy used by learners to solve writing problems and bridge a gap

in their written products.

The findings of these studies have been reconfirmed in a recent study by Gee-Whai, Tee-Wei, and Kee-Man (2013), who conclude that “students usually think in their mother tongue and find it difficult to express their thoughts in English as they lack English proficiency” (p. 92). Similarly, Nurhayati and Kurniasih (2016) stated that Malay and students from other nationalities at SMK Kanowit, converse “in Iban language among themselves and with their teachers even during English language classes. Due to this, students are unable to perform well in the English language classes. They have difficulty constructing simple sentences and this is clearly a major problem” (p. 1642).

The discussion so far accentuates the demanding and laborious nature of academic writing in English. This could be related to different syntactic or rhetorical factors, but also arises from the fact that “writing includes discovering a thesis, developing support for it, organising, revising, and finally editing it to ensure an effective, error-free piece of writing” (Alsamdani, 2010, p. 53).

PARAGRAPH UNITY AND TOPIC UNITY

Teaching writing is no less hard and difficult than studying it. Teachers must provide effective writing instructions and techniques that identify and address academic roadblocks. One of these techniques is to help students organise their writing in a paragraph format. The paragraph

usually supports a single focus or idea that helps establish the purpose and the overall argument of the paragraph. As such, paragraphs should be focused around the main ideas presented in the topic sentence or the thesis statement, and they should clearly relate to the posed question or the topic of the discussion. This main idea is presented in the topic sentence which usually comes as a first or second sentence, or in the thesis statement located at the end of the first paragraph. The importance of paragraphing has been highlighted by different linguists (Abu Rass, 2015; Björk, 1985; Ostler, 1987; Christensen, 1975; McCrimmon, 1976; Wikborg, 1990). Björk (1985) investigated the low-level writing quality of Swedish students. The results of his study indicate that one of the means of creating coherence in the text is paragraphing. He argues that paragraph structure is an aspect of coherence that can be taught. Central to his discussion is that he considers the paragraph as “a unit of thought” which “consists of a series of sentences unified by one controlling idea or topic” (p. 34) and argues that this topic is usually “explicitly expressed in a topic sentence ... [which is] very often the first sentence of the paragraph” (p. 34). The following sentences develop the idea(s) stated in the topic sentence and orient the reader to what will happen next.

Paragraph unity is also highlighted by writers like McCrimmon (1976), Nesteby (1982), and Bander (1983). A recent study has been conducted by Abu Rass (2015), who investigated the problems of the English writing of Arabic-speaking students. The

findings of her study indicate that students fail to produce well-written paragraphs for various reasons. They could not write good topic or concluding sentences, nor could they write effective supporting sentences. Students transferred patterns from their L1 Arabic into the English text.

Topic unity is another important aspect that should be considered in academic writing. It is sometimes referred to in the literature as text organisation. The importance of introducing clear and related thesis statements to the assigned discussion is highlighted in numerous studies, including Scarcella (1984). She argues that one of the reasons behind academic failure in US universities is the inability of students to write effective introductions to essay examinations. The study concludes that to orient readers in expository essays, students should state the thesis clearly and “maintain topic consistency by establishing the relevance of the thesis to the assigned and ongoing text” (p. 685). The role of the thesis statement has also been highlighted in recent studies. According to Owusu and Adade-Yeboah (2014) the thesis statement “is an essential component of the introductory section of every essay” (p. 55) that determines the purpose of the essay and limits its scope. It presents “the topic and the controlling idea of the entire essay” (Savage & Mayer, 2006, p.17), and indicates its organisation. Usually, a thesis is an arguable statement, and not just a set of facts or statements, which appears at the end of the first paragraph, followed by supporting paragraphs. Therefore, the introductory

paragraph builds a set of hierarchal relations to achieve coherence when it moves from the “general-to-particular order, then the topic idea is restated” (McCrimmon, 1976, p. 89) in the concluding paragraph.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The aim of this study is to investigate the role of the topic sentence and the thesis statement in creating paragraph unity, essay unity, and sustaining text organisation. To explore this aim, written samples were collected and analysed following a mainly qualitative method analysis. A quantitative analysis preceded this, to give certain definiteness about the findings. According to Creswell and Clark (2007), qualitative analysis typically follows the route of aggregating the words into “categories of information and presenting the diversity of ideas gathered during data collection” (p. 6), whereas the quantitative analysis gives more precise results, and makes it possible for conclusions to be drawn to a specifiable level of probability (Davies, 2007, p. 11).

Context of The Study and Data Collection

The data has been collected from Jordanian university students studying in the English Department at Al-Zaytoonah university. The data comprises a corpus of 100 essays written by third and fourth year students during the essay classes (Writing 2), and at home. The student age range is between 20-26 years old. The prerequisite course to Essay Writing is Paragraph Writing (Writing

1). Usually, students study 60-69 hours of English specialised courses before they take this course. This includes studying language skills, grammar, syntax, reading and listening comprehension, translation, and literature courses, among others. The academic demands of these courses require students to write in a paragraph format and use several types of sentences.

In general, students can communicate effectively with their tutors during the teaching process, and consult them during the office hours, or work in pairs. Theoretically, this means that students have the chance to get corrected drafts of their writings. Despite this, the written product of most of the students at the Department of English suffers from syntactic, structural, and coherence problems. Though important, syntactic problems fall beyond the scope of this study, therefore the discussion will be limited to text-structural deviations.

The Written Task

The students were asked to respond to the following questions and statements:

In no more than 250 words, write an argumentative essay about one of the following topics:

- 1- *It is often said that we have progressed a good deal today. What, in your opinion, is the essence of progress?*
- 2- *Write an essay comparing and contrasting your parents' attitude towards something with your attitude to the same thing.*
- 3- *Material success rarely brings happiness. Discuss.*
- 4- *A young person of sixteen years and over should be left free to make his/her own decisions. Discuss.*

The topics have been discussed in the classroom before the written task to unpack their difficulties, and to help students generate ideas. In the textbook material (Savage & Mayer, 2006), students study the rhetorical focus, and the format of different types of essays including argumentative essays. For the specific genre they write, and based on the textbook material, students are expected to write a three or four paragraph essay. In the introductory paragraph, they start with a hook that introduces a controversial issue, then “the thesis statement at the end presents the writer’s point of view” (p. 85). The body paragraph(s) starts with a topic sentence that has a controlling idea in support of “the writer’s main argument in the thesis” (p. 85) followed by the counter argument and the refutation. The concluding paragraph “restates the writer’s opinion ... It may offer a warning or prediction, or other type of comment that reinforces the writer’s viewpoint” (p. 85).

After collecting the data, every script was marked twice by the researcher and a colleague specialised in academic writing following the constructed marking rubric below.

Table 1
A marking rubric

Aspects to consider	Marks	Specific Details
Essay structure and Text organisation	5	Introductory paragraph: It must have a clear thesis statement relevant to the discussed topic and aligned to the body of the essay.
	5	Body of essay: It starts with a topic sentence that has a controlling idea in support of the main line of the argument in the thesis. It is followed by the counter-argument and the writer's refutation. It must be well structured, have cohesion and coherence.
	5	Conclusion: It should link to the thesis topic and presents the writer's opinion or summarises the main idea. Many options are acceptable.
Content	25	Answers the posed question: Ideas must be consistently related to the essay question and well presented.
Writing Quality: Grammar and overall structure	10	Sentence structure is clear and error free.
Coherence	10	The flow of the ideas should be maintained. Students must use connectors to show support and opposition as taught in the essay class.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

After marking the papers, and considering the types of mistakes the students made, the researcher was able to label the writing problems. In general, the results of the data analysis indicate that students' writing suffered from the following problems:

Type 1

Failure to include effective topic sentences or thesis statements. The biggest proportion of students (70%) have failed to include in their introductions effective topic sentences or thesis statements that map their paragraphs. Students do not always link the thesis statements to the posed questions. They tend to employ broad or unrelated openings, use undeniable introductions which, in most cases, are only globally related to the topic, and introduce ideas that

do not serve the subsequent discussion. The following example represents an ineffective topic sentence, or thesis statement:

Text 35

S1) In our life, we are facing many problems, and we try to work some of it with our parents. S2) Therefore, we find in such big fight, two or three different opinions. S3) These opinions mostly different about many things. S4) Because everyone sees the situation from his point of view.

S5) And sometimes, we come to a conflict, or some harsh words. S6) But, endly there is a respect relationship between parents and their sons. S7) So until we come to a persuasive conclusion. S8) For my parents, they think that studying is everything, and if you have no certificate, you are nothing,

and to do what you like is very wrong, you have to leave everything till you graduate. have to listen to your parents, who want your interest; as well as your happiness and you want. S9) *And then you can do something you want.*

Table 2
Failure to include effective topic sentences or thesis statements

The essay question ———	Write an essay comparing and contrasting your parents' attitude towards something with your attitude to the same thing
Pa1 Connection to question: main themes: <i>Parents, opinion, problems= [no direct connection]</i>	<u>Pa 1</u> <i>S1) In our life, we are facing many problems, and we try to work some of it with our parents. S2) Therefore, we find in such argue big fight, two or three different opinions. S3) These opinions mostly different about many things. S4) Because everyone sees the situation from his point of view.</i>
Pa 2: Connection to question: <i>Parents, sons, = [no connection]</i> Other connections= not available	<u>Pa 2</u> <i>S5) And sometimes, we come to a conflict, or some bad words. S6) But, endly there is a respect relationship between parents and their sons. S7) So until we come to a persuasive conclusion. S8) For my parents, they think that studying is everything, and if you have no certificate, you are nothing, and to do what you like is very wrong, you must listen to your parents, who want your interest; as well as your happiness and you must leave everything till you graduate. S9) And then you can do something you want.</i>

The introductory two paragraphs fail to maintain topic unity because the thesis statement fails to commit the topic to a certain discussion or relate the next paragraph to it. It is expected that the thesis statement in the first paragraph will state a generalisation about the discussed topic, and then specific details will be given to unfold the discussion. The second paragraph starts with a topic sentence that is derived from the thesis statement. However, T35 relates indirectly to the posed question, and the student fails to introduce a general statement which indicates what the topic is all about and what points will be discussed in later sections. Therefore, this example falls short of fulfilling the requirements of

essay writing or creating an informational relationship that guides the reader through the text.

Opening paragraphs do not relate directly to the posed question. A considerable number of students (24%) used openings that do not relate directly to the essay question, as in the example below where one student writes in response to the second question:

Text 62

Pa 1) Mankind had respected music since the ancient age in the Greek and Roman civilisations, to the extent that Greek people

considered the golden-hair- and-harp “Apollo” --the god of music—as the most mighty god in their mythology.

Pa 2) I always listened to music and paid a lot to get music tapes and to go to parties. At school I liked to play music and the school always gave me this chance. I do believe that music is the food of the soul (see Appendix A).

According to the theoretical review, a unified topic must acknowledge the assigned question and specify subjects for discussion.

As the analysis in the table below shows, the sample paragraph fails to meet this requirement because the student does not link her/his paragraph directly to the assigned topic. The first two paragraphs do not address the posed question or introduce titles for discussion. The discussion in the two paragraphs is about the value of *music* in people’s lives, in general, and the student’s, in particular. Therefore, it is fair to say that the paragraph falls short of committing the discussion to the question posed in the topic title, or even guiding the reader as to what to expect next.

Table 3
An opening paragraph that does not relate directly to the posed question

The essay question ———	Write an essay comparing and contrasting your parents’ attitude towards something with your attitude to the same thing
Pa1 Connection to question: main themes: <i>Parents, attitude, compare, contrast = [no connection]</i>	<u>Pa 1</u> <i>Mankind had respected music since the ancient age in the Greek and Roman civilisations, to the extent that Greek people considered the golden-hair- and-harp “Apollo” --the god of music—as the most mighty god in their mythology.</i>
Pa 2: Connection to question: <i>Parents, attitude, compare, contrast = [no connection]</i>	<u>Pa 2</u> <i>I always listened to music and paid a lot to get music tapes and to go to parties. At school I liked to play music and the school always gave me this chance. S3 I do believe that music is the food of the soul.</i>
Other connections= not available	

Analysis of the rest of the samples indicates that 12% of the students tend to repeat one word from the question title, trying to

convince the reader that they are discussing the question, as in the following example:

Text 3

Pa 1

S1) Life is a mixture of contrasts, it is a philosophical statement behind which, we

can find many hidden meanings. S2) The contrasts can distinguish human beings from other beings because contrast is based and built on argument is a main aspect for humanity (see Appendix A).

Table 4

An opening paragraph that gives a false impression of relating to the posed question

The essay question	Write an essay comparing and contrasting your parents' attitude towards something with your attitude to the same thing
Connection to question: main theme <i>Contrasting = [contrasts]</i>	<u>Pa 1</u> <i>S1) Life is a mixture of contrasts, it is a philosophical statement behind which, we can find many hidden meanings. S2) The contrasts can distinguish human beings from other beings because contrast is based and built on argument is a main aspect for humanity.</i>
Other connections=not available.	

In the above paragraph, the student selects one word from the question 'contrasts' and overlooks the rest. Despite the presence of the word 'contrast', the paragraph does not respond to the posed question. The topic of the paragraph is too general to meet its purpose or the criteria set forth to maintain topic unity. The paragraph, on the one hand, does not directly acknowledge the answered question, and on the other, it does not guide the reader towards any possible argument relevant to it. In fact, the introductory paragraph does not make sense or initiate any coherent idea that a reader could rely on to construct his/her scenario of the coming argument, nor can s/he discriminate easily between a specification of a point just made, and an assertion of a new one coming.

Type 2

Broad and unrelated openings. The second type of writing problem is the production of broad and unrelated openings that do not relate directly to the main line of the argument and fail to orient the reader to the coming discussion. The results of the analysis reveal that 19% of the students fail to commit the thesis statement to the posed question, and the main line of the argument as in the following example:

Text 42

Pa.1

S1) Everyone and every person and every human deals with this life as he likes, and the way he likes but there many subjects and different issues and diverse ideas everyone has own attitude towards it ... (see Appendix A).

Table 5
A text that demonstrates a broad and unrelated opening

The essay question	Write an essay comparing and contrasting your parents' attitude towards something with your attitude to the same thing
Introducing ideas for the coming discussion=not available.	Pa 1 <i>SI) Everyone and every person and every human deals with this life as he likes, and the way he likes but there many subjects and different issues and diverse ideas everyone has own attitude towards it ...</i>

This introductory paragraph relates indirectly to the assigned question, and it falls short of committing the text to any discussion. The student picks up one word to indicate that s/he is tackling the same question, but in the actual process, this short paragraph discusses very broad details that are not directly relevant to the discussion. Such a paragraph causes incoherence at the topic unity level. The tendency to produce broad and general openings echoes the findings of other studies, like Gee-Whai et al. (2013), Elachachi (2015), Abu Rass (2015), Qaddumi (1995), and Fakhri (2004), among others.

Type 3

Openings do not introduce ideas for the subsequent discussion. Students with an average of 27% failed to write topic sentences that enable the readers to anticipate any discussion in what follows. The text below displays this type of problem:

Text 53

Pa 1

SI) When one loves something I think that, with all the difficulties he will face, he will be able to achieve it especially if this thing was like a dream and he knows that it is good for him as my dream of travelling abroad (see Appendix A).

Table 6
An opening paragraph that does not introduce ideas for the subsequent discussion

The essay question	Write an essay comparing and contrasting your parents' attitude towards something with your attitude to the same thing
Pa 1: connection to question: <i>Parents, attitude, compare, contrast = [no connection]</i>	<u>Pa 1</u> <i>SI When one loves something I think that, with all the difficulties he will face, he will be able to achieve it, especially if this thing was like a dream and he knows that it is good for him as my dream of travelling abroad.</i>
Introducing ideas to be discussed later = not available.	

In the introductory paragraph, consisting of one sentence, the student discusses the power of love and its ability to help people achieve their dreams. S/he fails at any stage to produce an effective thesis statement or ideas that could guide the readers in the coming discussion and enable them to construct their own scenario of the text. Following the theoretical discussion of this study, it can be said that this paragraph does not meet its main aim or sustain topic unity as it falls short of meeting the requirements of proficient writing. In fact, the paragraph fails to look backward or forward, or present specific information to orient the reader to the coming discussion. The findings echo Elachachi's (2015), who states that some of the learners "have trouble sticking to a thesis, narrowing a thesis sufficiently, or proving a thesis concretely"(p. 133)

Type 4

Undeniable opening sentences. The fourth type of problem relates to the production of undeniable opening statements, and lack of a thesis statement. Students with an average of 18% use religious or scientific statements which no one can oppose, such as in Text 34. The example below demonstrates the first part of a run-on sentence that forms a paragraph. It offers an undeniable religious statement.

Text 34

S1) God created the people, this is true, no doubt, but did he did not make them in the same of thinking or the same the manner toward something and in many ways (see Appendix A).

Table 7
An undeniable opening sentence

The essay question	Write an essay comparing and contrasting your parents' attitude towards something with your attitude to the same thing
<i>Connection to question = no connection</i>	<i>P1) God created the people, this is true, no doubt, but did he did not make them in the same of thinking or the same the manner toward something and in many ways....</i>
<i>Connection to the discussion = no connection</i>	

Undeniable opening sentences leave the reader begging for information from the next sentence to build the scenario of the text. The tendency to use undeniable openings is pointed out in this study and in the findings of other studies, including Abu Rass (2015), Elachachi (2015), Koch (1983), and Ostler (1987). For example, Elachachi (2015)

reported that her informants have the tendency to "start with universal statements, and end with some type of formulaic or proverbial statements ... This may create a real obstacle for Arab students because what an English native speaker considers logical in an academic paper may not be logical in another culture" (p. 133).

CONCLUSION

This paper reported the types of problems students of English at Al-Zaytoonah University face in academic writing. The analysis of the data reveals that most students have difficulty in sustaining topic unity, and, hence, paragraph unity for several reasons. Firstly, a considerable number of students fail to relate their introductions to the topic question, indicating they are unaware of the coherent power that the introductory paragraph creates when it is related to the assigned question. Secondly, some students fail to present ideas in the introductory paragraphs to map the coming discussion. This shows that they have difficulty in grasping the role of the thesis topic as an organising principle. Thirdly, some students write broad and unrelated openings that fail, in most cases, to orient the readers. This confirms, again, that they are unaware of the importance of including specific and decisive details that relate directly to the discussion. Fourthly, several students employ undeniable openings that do not advance a discussion, so they leave the reader begging for information from the coming discourse.

This paper also argues that academic writing is a high-stakes activity and the hallmark of success for students in English departments. The basic rules of writing require “paragraph unity”, “topic unity”, “coherence”, “clarity”, “briefness”, and “simplicity”; these can affect writing positively when they are followed with other writing rules. Writing must be considered in relation to the ways of presenting it

within a specific writing domain or specific construction of knowledge. Academic staff should engage their students in more practical writing classes to help them handle the complexity of the course. It is expected that the findings of the study will inspire a re-design of the writing syllabuses to equip students with the essential writing skills necessary to successfully achieve their academic tasks.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The results of the data analysis show that students have problems organising and developing their paragraphs or sustaining topic unity; therefore, it is very important to teach them the importance of writing paragraphs whose meanings are specification, explication, or exemplification of the first paragraph. Presenting examples to show students how a paragraph can maintain one focus while it is being developed is a useful strategy. Equally useful would be to ask them at earlier stages to replicate sample paragraphs on different topics.

Students failed to present an effective topic sentence that acknowledges the posed question and specifies the subjects for discussion. They also failed to relate ideas in the paragraph to each other and serve the menu of the topic. Thus, teachers might like to use authentic material from previous exam papers to explain how the problem is created, and why it is a problem. Such a process may enable students to perceive paragraph coherence in a practical light.

Furthermore, the results of the data analysis show that some students failed

to acknowledge the posed question, and they write broad, undeniable, and unrelated opening paragraphs. This may be related to an L1 negative transference of this feature of writing. To avoid such problems, teachers might like to deal with the problem of transfer directly by demonstrating the differences between the structure of English and Arabic paragraphs.

Finally, the researcher suggests a paragraph layout using the following format:

1. Clearly stated topic sentence at the paragraph level, and thesis statement at the essay level, as an organising principle to facilitate the readers' integration in the subsequent written text.
2. Supporting sentences that provide extra details to explore the aims of the main thesis.
3. Encapsulating sentences which enable the reader to hold onto the meaning of the previous discussion.
4. A conclusion that restates what has been mentioned in the topic sentence at the paragraph level, and in the thesis statement at the essay level.

REFERENCES

- Abu Rass, R. (2015). Challenges face Arab students in writing well-developed paragraphs in English. *English Language Teaching*, 8(10), 49-69.
- Al-Fadda, H. (2012). Difficulties in academic writing: From the perspective of King Saud University postgraduate students. *English Language Teaching*, 5(3), 123-130.
- Al-Khasawneh, F., & Maher, S. (2010). Writing for academic purposes: Problems faced by Arab postgraduate students of the College of Business, UUM. *English for Specific Purposes (ESP) World*, 9(2), 1-23.
- Al-Murshidi, G. (2014). UAE university male students' interests impact on reading and writing performance and improvement. *English Language Teaching*, 7(9), 57-63.
- Alsamdani, H. A. (2010). The relationship between Saudi EFL students' writing competence, L1 writing proficiency, and self-regulation. *European Journal of Social Sciences*, 16(1), 53-63.
- Amin, S., & Alamin, A. (2012). Skills and strategies used in the comprehension and production of academic writing in Taif University. *English Language and Literature Studies*, 2(3), 135-139.
- Bacha, N. N. (2012). Disciplinary writing in an EFL context from teachers' and students' perspectives. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 3(2), 233-256.
- Bander, R. B. (1983). *American English rhetoric*. New York, NY: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Björk, L. (1985). TUAP and teaching of writing in Sweden. In N. E. Enkvist (Ed.), *Coherence and composition: Symposium* (pp. 27-37). Åbo, Finland: Publications of Research Institute of the Åbo Akademi Foundation.
- Chou, L. (2011). An investigation of Taiwanese doctoral students' academic writing at a U.S. University. *Higher Education Studies*, 1(2), 47-60.
- Christensen, F. (1975). A generative rhetoric of the paragraph. In R. Winterowd (Ed.), *Contemporary rhetoric: A conceptual background with readings* (pp. 233-251). New York, NY: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc.

- Clark, I. L. (2012). *Concepts in composition: Theory and practice in the teaching of writing*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Connor, U. (1996). *Contrastive rhetoric: Cross-cultural aspects of second-language writing*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Creswell, J. W., & Clark, V. L. P. (2007). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Davies, M. B. (2007). *Doing a successful research project*. New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Elachachi, H. H. (2015). Exploring cultural barriers in EFL Arab learners' writing. *Procedia - Social and Behavioural Sciences*, 199, 129-136.
- Fakhri, A. (2004). Rhetorical properties of Arabic research article introductions. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 36(6), 1119-1138.
- Friedlander, A. (1990). Composing in English: effects of a first language for writing in English as a second language. In B. Kroll (Ed.), *Second language writing* (pp. 109–125). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Gee-Whai, M. K., Tee-Wei, W., & Kee-Man, C. (2013). Writing difficulties faced by Politeknik Kuching Sarawak commerce diploma students in doing their assignments. *The Asian Journal of English Language and Pedagogy*, 1(1) 90-101.
- Henderson, R., & Hirst, E. (2007). Reframing academic literacy: re-examining a short-course for disadvantaged tertiary students. *English Teaching: Practice and Critique*, 6(2), 25-38.
- Hyland, K. (2002). Directives: Argument and engagement in academic writing. *Applied Linguistics*, 23(2), 215-239.
- Ibnian, S. K. (2017). Writing difficulties encountered by Jordanian EFL learners. *Asian Journal of Humanities and Social Studies*, 5(3), 791-801.
- Johnstone, B. (1991). *Repetition in Arabic discourse: Paradigms, syntagms, and the ecology of language*. Amsterdam, NL/Philadelphia, PA: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Kaplan, R. P. (1972). *The anatomy of rhetoric: Prolegomena to a functional theory of rhetoric*. Philadelphia, PA: The Center for Curriculum Development, Inc.
- Kintsch, W. (1998). *Comprehension: A Paradigm for Cognition*. New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.
- Koch, B. J. (1983). Presentation as proof: the language of Arabic rhetoric. *Anthropological Linguistics*, 25(1), 47-60.
- Krapels, A. R. (1990). An overview of second language writing process research. In B. Kroll (Ed.), *Second language writing: Research insights for the classroom* (pp. 37–56). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Lillis, T., & Scott, M. (2007). Defining academic literacies research: Issues of epistemology, ideology and strategy. *Journal of Applied linguistics*, 4(1), 5-32.
- McCrimmon, J. M. (1976). *Writing with a purpose*. New York, NY: Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Nestbey, J. R. (1982). *Your guide to composition*. Aleppo, Syria: University of Aleppo Press.
- Nurhayati, I. K., & Kurniasih, N. (2016). Improving academic writing standard: A challenge for universities. *Pertanika Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities*, 24(S), 187–204.
- Ostler, S. (1987). English in parallels: a comparison of English and Arabic prose. In U. Connor & R. Kaplan (Eds.), *Writing across languages: Analysis of L2 text* (pp. 169-185). Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

- Owusu, E., & Adade-Yeboah, M. (2014). Thesis statement: A vital element in expository essays. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 5(1), 56-62.
- Qaddumi, M. K. H. (1995). *Textual deviation and coherence problems in the writings of Arab students at the university of Bahrain: Sources and solutions* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation), University of Nottingham, Nottingham, UK.
- Rafik-Galea, S., Arumugam, N., & de Mello, G., (2012). Enhancing ESL students' academic writing skills through the term-paper. *Pertanika Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities*, 20(4), 1229-1248.
- Savage, A., & Mayer, P. (2006). *Effective academic writing 2: The short essay*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Scarcella, R. C. (1984). How writers orient their readers in expository essays: A comparative study of native and non-native English writers. *TESOL Quarterly*, 18(4), 671-688.
- Smith, B. (2003). Arabic speakers. In M. Swan & B. Smith (Eds.), *Learner English: A teacher's guide to interference and other problems* (pp. 195-214). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Steinman, L. (2009). Cultural collisions in L2 academic writing. *TESL Canada Journal*, 20(2), 80-91.
- Weijen, D. V., Huub van den Bergh, H. V., Rijlaarsdam, G., & Sanders, T. (2009). L1 use during L2 writing: An empirical study of a complex phenomenon. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 18(4), 235-250.
- Wikborg, E. (1990). Types of coherence breaks in Swedish student writing: Misleading paragraph division. In U. Connor & A. M. Johns (Eds.), *Coherence in writing: Research and pedagogical perspectives* (pp.133-149). Alexandria, VA: TESOL.
- Wingate, U. (2012). Argument! Helping students understand what essay writing is about. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 11(2), 145-154.
- Zarza, S., Tan, H., Chan, S. H., & Ali, A. M. (2015). Schematic structural analysis of newspaper editorials: A comparative study of the New York Times and the New Straits Times. *Pertanika Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities*, 23(S), 173-188.

APPENDIX

Samples of the Data

Text 3

Pa. 1)

S1) Life is a mixture of contrasts, it is a philosophical statement behind which, we can find many hidden meanings. S2) The contrasts can distinguish human beings from other beings because contrast is based and built on argument is a main aspect for humanity.

Pa. 2)

S3) *For me, I have an experience with this subject, I am a member of a happy family consists of my parents and three children, I am the last one, for this reason they consider me as a child who must be guided by them, and this pushes them to interfere somehow with my affairs, although I had become a student in a university.*

Pa. 3)

S4) *One day when I was sitting in my bed room, an idea came to my mind that I must have a job besides my study then I began to count the benefits and difficulties of my decision. S5) I found that it has a positive and negative aspects, the positive aspects from my point of view that I can obtain with this the self-independence, I like to be an independent person especially in my personal affairs, this is not a kind of selfishness, and this does not mean that there is no need for my parents, I know the fact that they are more experienced than me, love me, and want my brothers to be the best, but I like through this decision to build my character, empower my personality, and to have more self-confidence. S6) Another positive aspect, I want to be financially secured.*

Pa. 4)

S7) *The negative aspect was that this job may turn me away from my study, it may take a big part of my time, and if I tried to make a regular system and to put a regular program for my study and my work, this is a good reason to weaken my health, because I will find a time for rest nor to sit with my family and to talk to them.*

Pa. 5)

S8) *On the other hand, I exposed this matter to my family and told them the reasons of this decision, they refused it and became very angry from me, then we sit down and asked me if I were short of anything, they began to convince me with their point of view saying that my reasons for my choice are not wrong and refer to a good type of thinking, it is the wrong time. S9) This doesn't mean that I am a child, but it means that every step has a time for it, and if a step come in a wrong time it will have a great effect on my future, by this I shall not obtain neither the license nor the good position in my work.*

Pa. 6)

S10) *It was easy for them to convince me with their point of view, because I was not really convinced with my decision, and found that working is not suitable for me now.*

Pa. 7)

S11) *So the contrast leads us to agreement, and to a sequence that we must walk step by step.*

Text 34

Pa. 1)

S1) *God created the people, this is true no doubt, but did he did not make them in the same of thinking or the same the manner toward something and in many ways firstly, my father usually says that the old generation, have tradition and the people in the old time were unchangeable in their decide toward any matter they faced for example, in contrast I see that this work is wrong because, the matter perhaps, it needs discussion or change in point of view.*

Pa. 2)

S2) *Secondly, my father sees old generation there was a good way to dressing, but nowadays, there is the ways of dressing is bad or imitation to others societies, but I see the matter is different and these ways of dressing are in the swim but what is the difference that something*

APPENDIX (continue)

Pa. 3)

S3) Thirdly, my father sees that in the new generation one cannot read the future, good things, and thinks of things and matters and problems, as well as the people in the old generation, in contrast, perhaps, I think that the people in the new generation have a broad imagination and preserving the fact of things.

Pa. 4)

S4) In conclusion, there is many people or brothers differ in the way of thinking or dressing or tradition and believe and everyone from them live with different way and land.

Text 35

Pa. 1

S1) In our life, we are facing many problems, and we try to work some of it with our parents. S2) Therefore, we find in such big fight, two or three different opinions. S3) These opinions mostly different about many things. S4) Because everyone sees the situation from his point of view.

Pa. 2

S5) And sometimes, we come to a conflict, or some bad words. S6) But, endly there is a respect relationship between parents and their sons. S7) So until we come to a persuasive conclusion. S8) For my parents, they think that studying is everything, and if you have no certificate, you are nothing, and to do what you like is very wrong, you have to listen to your parents, who want your interest; as well as your happiness and you have to leave everything till you graduate. S9) And then you can do something you want.

Pa. 3

S10) Whereas, for me, I cannot receive the orders and do everything they want it, in spite of my great respect to him and their opinion. S11) I think that studying is not everything, in the negative, for effect and the man should to do something for him or herself. and this too S12) And I say the serayo to him but he listens to the molanlogy and I get angry. S13) And as a result of such argument we come to a conflict in talking between us, and after words every one of us calm down.

Pa. 4

S14) Thus, parents have to hear their sons, and respect their opinions, and kindly they can resolve every problem which may face them.

Pa. 5

S15) So, I wish all parents to understand their sons and argue them in a democratic atmosphere and respect their opinions. S16) They can kindly resolve the problems which they face.

Text 42

Pa. 1

S1) Every one and every person and every human deals with this life as he likes, and the way he likes but there many subjects and different issues and diverse ideas everyone has own attitude towards it between me and my parents many things or subjects my attitude about it is contrasting the attitude of my parents one of these subject the style life in the town and the village.

Pa. 2

S2) At the first my parent refer to life in the village they refer to work with agricultural and in the field, they prefer not to leave the village and the field but I refer to life with town and I want to study and I want to travel with town and then I want to travel to abroad to work in that country while attitude of my parents is contrasting to my attitude.

Pa. 3

S3) At the second my parents think that the weather and still of the countryside is better than that which are in the town but I think that existence big number of people and the car in the street is enjoyment.

Pa. 4

S4) Finally, Everyone has a special life and has own attitude and his thinking towards things in this life.

APPENDIX (continue)

Text 53

Pa. 1

S1) When one loves something I think that, with all the difficulties he will face, he will be able to achieve it especially if this thing was like a dream and he knows that it is good for him as my dream of travelling abroad

Pa. 2

S2) *My parents refuse I travel abroad for any reason. S3) I discuss it with them but they say women live home for marriage children and cooking. S4) But I say you had a dream and I had a dream so help my dream by travel abroad because I study how life is there and how family and nature are besides I learn how live is there but they say no. S5) They are ignorant people and they dream when I married and I dream I travel abroad.*

Pa. 3

S6) *I like my parents, so I do not repeat the thing again.*

Text 62

Pa. 1

S1) *Mankind had respected music since the ancient age in the Greek and Roman civilizations, to the extent that Greek people considered the golden-hair- and-harp "Apollo" --the god of music—as the most mighty god in their mythology.*

Pa. 2

S2) *I always listened to music and paid a lot to get music tapes and to go to parties. At school I liked to play music and the school always gave me this chance. I do believe that music is the food of the soul.*

Pa. 3

S3) *My parents believe that playing or composing music is a happy and it cannot be a job, on the very far edge stand I with my opposite attitude. S5) I am discussing this topic with both our opinions. S6) My parents are content that music – i.e. playing of composing music -- is not a source from which one can win his day-bread, and if one has attained a talent, one better keeps it as a hobby; otherwise, he would starve to death. S7) They consider playing music a waste of time and money, because one needs a teacher and instruments to learn music and these, in their turn, need money and a lot of time for training. S8) They say that it is better to spend that time and money on something more beneficial like studying. S9) And as an eastern society, musicians are looked at as unrespectable men because most of them working in night clubs and such places as my father calls them and some religious people say that God punishes people who listen to music because it is from Devil but this is false because the profit listened to the music and took his wife to watch the dance of Habashi people so how can people dance without music this is how I answer those people the question of music that is the food for their soul that they do not want.*

Pa. 4

S10) *We were created by God to live a happy life and not to win our day-bread. S11) It is not that big problem if we sleep without supper since we are happy, and if one finds his pleasure in playing music he better employs every single minute in his life to make this pleasure last, since he does not bring harm to himself or to others, but it is a problem if we like music and we do not play it. S12) Life is much shorter than we expect and money is only*

a device to pass this short period happily. S13) For the virtue and vice, I think that the vice is there in the deepest of ourselves whether we go to vicious places or not and the virtue is there too whether we go to mosques and churches or not, and if our society looks at this slice of people as unrespectable, we can change.

Pa. 5

S14) *Also, people in the west respect both music and musicians, but people in the east respect only music. I hope to go to the west and people could change this overlook.*

Domestication and Foreignization Strategies in Two Arabic Translations of Marlowe's *Doctor Faustus*: Culture-Bound Terms and Proper Names

Ali Badeen Mohammed al-Rikaby, Tengku Sepora Tengku Mahadi and Debbita Tan Ai Lin*

School of Languages, Literacies and Translation, Universiti Sains Malaysia, 11800 USM, Penang, Malaysia

ABSTRACT

One of the more stimulating problems presented by a literary text, to an English-Arabic translator, concerns culture-bound terms (CBTs) and proper names (PNs). This paper examines the domestication and foreignisation strategies applied to the CBTs and PNs in two English-Arabic translations of Marlowe's play, *Doctor Faustus*. Murad (1992) and Luluah's (2013) texts represent two prominent Arabic translations of the play, and were selected as part of the research corpus along with the original (English) version of *Doctor Faustus*. The study grounds itself in Venuti's (1995) theory of domestication and foreignisation and Newmark (1988) and Coillie's (2006) translation strategies were employed to operationalise the theory. The two translations were examined for CBTs and PNs, and examples of these were extracted and their equivalents in the original version marked. The data were then analysed and content analysis, which included frequency analyses, was conducted. The results reveal that although the translators used various strategies, they both favoured foreignisation, and Murad's translation is more foreignised than Luluah's. Also, certain strategies such as deletion (complete omission) were not utilised at all. The researchers conclude that although there is evidently a healthy inclination towards domestication, foreignisation is the more pervasive method with regard to Arabic translations of *Doctor Faustus*. This study is relevant to writers and translators, as well as instructors, students and scholars engaged in translation and literary studies.

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received: 25 September 2017

Accepted: 27 November 2017

E-mail addresses:

alibadeen1972@gmail.com (Ali Badeen Mohammed al-Rikaby)

tsepora@usm.my (Tengku Sepora Tengku Mahadi)

debbita_tan@usm.my (Debbita Tan Ai Lin)

*Corresponding author

Keywords: Culture-bound terms, *Doctor Faustus*, domestication, foreignisation, proper names, translation strategies

INTRODUCTION

Christopher Marlowe's *The Tragical History of the Life and Death of Doctor Faustus*, commonly referred to simply as *Doctor Faustus*, is arguably one of the most known and successful plays in classical literature. Firstly, there is simply the linguistic richness inherent in the text that makes it suitable for use in language and literary studies at the tertiary level. Secondly, with respect to scholarly interest, the text presents translators with a very engaging challenge: to effectively translate and sustain the full meaning(s) of its culture-bound terms (CBTs) and proper names (PNs) so that its readers may enjoy a full textual experience of *Doctor Faustus*.

The Elizabethan tragedy is largely based on German stories about the title character *Faust*, first performed sometime between 1588 and Marlowe's death in 1593. Two different versions of the play were published several years later in the Jacobean era.

The text/play is highly interesting for translation studies due to its saturated cultural content, set against the Elizabethan background. The primary themes are cultural beliefs and practices, magic and spirituality. Also forming the fabric of the text are metaphysical characters, tragic plots and comical subplots. Although initially meant for the educated Elizabethan audience, *Doctor Faustus* has penetrated many societal layers and is today one of the more translated classical literature texts and there are various versions of the play, for instance, J. W. Goethe's *Faust* and T. Mann's *Dr. Faustus*.

Marlowe's original (English) version presents a considerable number of culture-bound items and proper names, making it difficult for translators as well as readers and educators to fully understand the intended meaning of the author. The classical work is specifically grounded in British culture (of the Elizabethan era), and translators often fall back on two common strategies: 'domestication' and 'foreignisation' when handling CBTs and PNs.

Problem and Aims

Translating CBTs and PNs can be a challenge for Arabic translators (Ghazala, 2002). The problem of translating CBTs and PNs for Arabic translators can be viewed from three different perspectives. First, CBTs at the text level such as social terms, rhetorical devices and genre-specific norms tend to be tackled within the frameworks of contrastive rhetoric and contrastive pragmatics, drawing on pragmatics and discourse theories such as deixis, presuppositions, implicatures and coherence (Aguilera, 2008; Toury, 1980). Second, CBTs at the lexical and semantic levels such as those relating to customs, traditions, attires and cuisines are often dealt with within the taxonomies of cultural categories (Holmes, 1988). Lastly, the translation of PNs can be complicated because these items are usually allusions (Leppihalme, 1997), especially in literary works.

This paper offers discussions regarding alternative treatments for CBTs and PNs, framed within the two fundamental aims of translating such items: that of preserving

the characteristics of the source text as far as possible (foreignisation), and that of adapting it to produce a target text which seems normal, familiar and accessible to the target audience (domestication). The present study focusses on these two strategies, looking at the procedures used for treating the CBTs and PNs in two Arabic translations of Marlowe's *Doctor Faustus*.

It is also worth noting that to the researchers' knowledge, there is a gap in existing research similar to the current study's focus and design. For instance, Al-Idhesat's (2016) study on an Arabic translation of *Oliver Twist* concentrates solely on culture-specific items in tandem with Mansour's (2014) research on the text *The Burglar Who Liked to Quote Kipling*. Elnaili's (2014) study on *The Arabian Nights*, meanwhile, tackled linguistic and cultural obstacles, but from the angle of English translations.

RELATED LITERATURE

Throughout history, different scholarly approaches concerning the translation of various types of textual item have emerged, and the following are specific sections on strategies for translating CBTs and PNs.

Strategies for Translating CBTs

Diverse discussions over the years with respect to ways of tackling CBTs in translation have managed to produce sets of cultural references and procedures for treating individual cases.

Hervey and Higgins (1992) proposed five solutions for handling what they identified

as cultural borrowing. The solutions are arranged per a scale that extends between "the extremes of exoticism and cultural transplantation" (1992, p. 29). Another taxonomy is that of Aixela (1996) in which he presented 11 procedures. At one end of his scale, Aixela described the approaches that allow the translated text to stay true or authentic to the source text, terming these approaches "conservative strategies," and they include repetition, adaptation, linguistic (non-cultural) translation, extratextual gloss and intratextual gloss. At the opposite end of the scale are what Aixela termed "substitutive procedures of synonymy," which are limited to universalisation, naturalisation, deletion and autonomous creation.

Based on the issue of cultural bumps, Leppihalme (1997) discussed the problems translators face when translating CBTs and PNs. She classified these problems into two categories: "extralinguistic" and "intralinguistic". Extralinguistic problems are often expressed as lexical problems, whereas culture-specific translation issues are mainly intralinguistic and pragmatic, involving idioms, puns and other forms of wordplay. For example, in the case of allusions as PNs, she maintained that:

words of allusion function as a clue to the meaning, but the meaning can usually be understood only if the receiver can connect the clue with an earlier use of the same or similar words in another source or the use of a name evokes the referent and some characteristic features linked to the name. (p. 4)

Meanwhile, Katan (1999) took a rather different approach in treating CBTs by offering the concept of ‘chunking’. This concept entails moving between different cultural frames or altering the size of the translated unit to provide a better translation for CBTs. For example, a translator may move from a more specific level to a more general level (chunking down) or opt for the opposite direction (chunking up). For instance, if a translator encounters the word ‘armchair’ and asks what the item is part of, a logical answer would be ‘chair’. To move to an even more general level, the translator could ask what ‘chair’ is part of and arrive at ‘furniture’.

Ghazala (2002), in his work on English-Arabic translation, explained that his 16 procedures for handling CBTs are explicitly arranged from best to worst. The best is to utilise what he calls a “cultural equivalent,” and the worst is to use glossaries or footnotes, a procedure that he labels “a bad, poor, boring and hence inadvisable procedure of translation, which should be avoided wherever possible” (p. 209).

One may conclude from the above that handling CBTs in different translational contexts remains problematic in the sense that there is still no unified procedure. The problem becomes even clearer in the treatment of CBTS in fictional texts, where CBTs almost always carry created meanings that implicitly support the theme of the story. In fact, CBTs carry a variety of implicit

and explicit meanings that serve as cultural identifiers of texts, and the extent to which foreign readers can access and experience them depends very much on how these items are tackled in the translation process.

Strategies for Translating PNs

Proper nouns are generally considered uncommon words. They are usually related to or designate geography, history, animals, gender, age, companies, festivals and names of persons. Nord (2003), Coillie (2006) and Aguilera (2008) classified names of persons as ‘anthroponyms’, places as ‘toponyms’ and historical figures as ‘exonyms’.

Furthermore, PNs could be concrete objects, metaphorical figures, technical names and even slang words. Many scholars have offered their definition of proper nouns. For example, Fernandes (2006) stated that PNs are “dense signifiers in the sense that they contain in themselves clues about the destiny of a character or indicates the way the storyline may develop” (p. 46). Quirk et al. (1972) identified the special features of PNs: 1) PNs do not possess the full range of determiners, 2) PNs lack articles, 3) PNs are capitalised, and 4) PNs have no plural forms and they often refer to single (unique) persons.

Newmark (1981) contended that Christian and Biblical names should always be translated. He also emphasised that most historical names that have formerly been translated are not to be presented in

a new form. This is because, according to Newmark, the safest strategy for the translation of PNs is to look them up in available lexicons in the TC (target culture). He also stated that “the only types of proper names applied to categories of objects are trademarks, brand-names and proprietary names,” and that “these must not be translated unless they have become eponyms and are used generically” (p. 72). Thus, we may consider Newmark’s approach to the translation of PNs to be normative, and his typology to be useful for the dynamics of the present study as Marlowe’s play abounds with a wide variety of PNs.

Venuti (1995) opined that whether a translator considers fluency and instant intelligibility as the most significant qualities of a good translation (domestication) or decides to employ a more conservative strategy to preserve authenticity (foreignisation), both translation strategies must make sense. A translator must know what he/she is doing and why, lest his/her translation results in, for instance, certain losses such as loss of lexical richness and meaning, loss of intended humour, loss of pertinent cultural flavour and loss of a character’s core traits (e.g. in a classical play/text). In tandem with Venuti, Jaleniauskiene and Cicelyte (2009) maintained that there

are two translation strategies for rendering PNs. The first is foreignisation, in which cultural elements are preserved, and the second is domestication, in which adaptation of cultural elements will occur.

Nord (2003) claimed that authors of drama or fiction sometimes fabricate new PNs that sound fantastic (dramatic) in the SLC (source language culture). He maintained that such fictional PNs are still considered culture markers and that they are relatively easier to translate. However, inaccurate translations of fictional PNs can still occur and distort meaning, resulting in messages that are far from what the original author intended to express. In responding to the question as to whether proper names should be translated, Aguilera (2008) contended that the macro- and microstructures of each text are influencing factors. For example, in literary books, PNs without any distinct meaning should not be changed, but those with specific meanings should be translated; for meaningful PNs to play a role within a fictional work, leaving them untranslated is not advisable as this may affect comprehensibility.

One may conclude that there appears to be at least seven approaches or strategies with regard to transferring PNs from their source language into the target language. Figure 1 summarises the strategies.

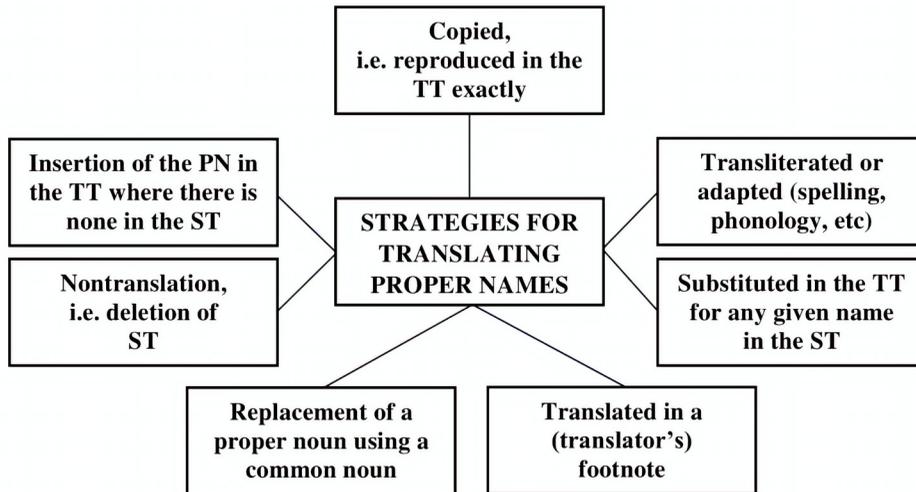


Figure 1. A summary of strategies for translating proper names

Theoretical Framework

The present study grounds itself in Venuti's (1995) theory of domestication and foreignisation. Newmark (1988) and Coillie's (2006) translation strategies of CBTs and PNs were employed to operationalise the theory.

Venuti (1995) considered the impact of cultural and ideological factors in the translation of texts, as well as the impact of textual translations on foreign (target language) readers. According to him, there are two major strategies that can be applied; the translator either leaves the author (as is) as much as possible and moves the reader

towards him/her, or the translator leaves the reader as much as possible and moves the author towards him/her. The former is called 'foreignisation' and the latter is referred to as 'domestication'.

To yield richer and more saturated findings, the data of the present study were examined based on three frameworks as mentioned earlier. Newmark (1988) and Coillie's (2006) taxonomies were employed to operationalise Venuti's (1995) theory. Figure 2 summarises Newmark's taxonomy and Figure 3, Coillie's taxonomy. The taxonomies pose specific translation strategies and their corresponding features.

STRATEGIES	FEATURES/PROCEDURES
Transference	Process of transferring an SL word to a TL text (includes transliteration)
Naturalization	Adapts the SL word first into the normal pronunciation, then into the normal morphology of the TL
Cultural Equivalent	Replacing a cultural word in the SL with a TL one
Functional Equivalent	Requires the use of a culture-neutral word
Descriptive Equivalent	The meaning of the CBT is explained using several words
Componential Analysis	Comparing an SL word with a TL word which has a similar meaning but is not an obvious one-to-one equivalent
Synonymy	A near-TL equivalent
Through-Translation	Literal translation of common collocations, names of organizations and components of compounds
Shifts or Transpositions	Involves a change in grammar (from SL to TL)
Modulation	Occurs when the translator reproduces the message of the original text in conformity with the current norms of the TL
Recognized Translation	Occurs when the translator uses the official (or the generally accepted translation) of any institutional term
Compensation	Occurs when loss of meaning in one part of a sentence is compensated in another part
Paraphrase	The meaning of the CBT is explained in detail
Couplets	Occurs when the translator combines two different procedures
Notes	Additional information in a translation

Figure 2. Newmark's (1988) taxonomy for CBTs

STRATEGIES	FEATURES/PROCEDURES
Reproduction	Leaving foreign names unchanged
Nontranslation plus additional explanation	Adding explanations, either in the form of a note or in the text itself
Replacement of a personal name with a common noun	Replacing a proper name with a common noun that characterizes the person
Phonetic or morphological adaptation to the target language	Turning to phonetic transcription or morphological adaptation
Exonym	Replacing a name with a counterpart in the target language
Replacement by using a more widely known name from the source culture or an internationally known name with the same function	Foreign context is not abandoned
Substitution	Replacing a name using another name from the target language
Translation of names with a particular connotation	Reproducing the connotation in the target language, when names have specific connotations
Replacement using a name with another or additional connotation	Adding or changing the connotation of a name
Deletion	Omitting all proper names

Figure 3. Coillie's (2006) taxonomy for PNs

METHOD

The approach of the present study was both quantitative and qualitative. In terms of corpus, the following texts were referred to:

1. The original (English) version of *Doctor Faustus* by Christopher Marlowe (the version referred to is the one published in the UK, 2005);
2. Arabic translation of *Doctor Faustus* by H. Murad (1992); and
3. Arabic translation of *Doctor Faustus* by A. Luluah (2013).

To date, there is a paucity in terms of published research similar in focus and design to those of the present study. Also, to the researchers' knowledge, the only available full Arabic translations of *Doctor Faustus* are Murad's and Luluah's versions.

The two translations were examined for CBTs and PNs. Examples of these were extracted and their equivalents in the original version were marked. The data were then analysed; content analysis, which included frequency analyses, was carried out based on Venuti's (1995) theory as well

as Newmark (1988) and Coillie's (2006) taxonomies.

The CBTs and PNs analysed in this study primarily belong to the category of Renaissance literature. The items were extracted from various acts and scenes of the play, and many of the words and phrases are related to Calvinist ideology, historical figures, Biblical scripture, necromancy, mythology and other cultural dimensions. Approximately 100 items were identified, extracted and analysed.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Quantitative Analysis

The following two sections detail the results of the frequency analyses conducted on the CBTs and PNs.

Culture-Bound Terms (CBTs)

On the whole, modifications were actively employed, concentrating on the connotative and contextual meanings behind the CBTs. Additional information was also provided (cultural contexts) and replacements were used fairly generously. Table 1 details the frequencies of the various strategies applied.

Table 1
Frequency results: Strategies applied for CBTs (Newmark, 1988)

Strategy	Translation 1 (%)	Translation 2 (%)
a. Transference	12	
b. Naturalization	8	7
c. Cultural equivalent	2	3
d. Functional equivalent	3	3
e. Descriptive equivalent	4	4
f. Componential Analysis	3	2
g. Synonymy	1	1
h. Through-Translation	3	4
i. Shifts or Transpositions	4	3
j. Modulation	3	2
k. Recognized translation	2	3
l. Compensation	2	2
m. Paraphrase	3	2
n. Complets	2	3
o. Notes	2	1

Translation 1: Murad (1992), Translation 2: Luluah (2013)

As shown in Table 1, in terms of the translation strategies utilised for CBTs, the most frequently used method was transference (26%), followed by naturalisation (15%) and descriptive equivalent (8%). The least used methods were synonymy (2%), notes (3%) and compensation (4%).

Proper Names (PNs)

The Arabic translations exhibit the use of numerous strategies anticipated by Coillie (2006), such as reproduction, nontranslation plus additional explanation, replacement of a personal name with a common noun, replacement by using a more widely known name from the source culture and substitution. Table 2 details the frequencies of the strategies employed.

Table 2
Frequency results: Strategies applied for PNs (Coillie, 2006)

Strategy	Translation 1 (%)	Translation 2 (%)
a. Reproduction	18	23
b. Nontranslation plus additional explanation	6	8
c. Replacement of a personal name with a common noun	5	5
d. Phonetic or morphological adaptation to the target language	0	0
e. Exonym	3	1
f. Replacement by using a more widely known name from the source culture	4	1
g. Substitution	3	2
h. Translation of names with a particular connotation	4	2
i. Replacement using a name with another or additional connotation	2	2
j. Deletion	0	0

Translation 1: Murad (1992), Translation 2: Luluah (2013)

As shown in Table 2, the most frequently used translation strategy for proper names was reproduction (41%), followed by nontranslation plus additional explanation (14%) and replacement of personal name (10%). The least used method was exonym (4%), while two methods were not utilised at all i.e. deletion and phonetic or morphological adaptation to the target language.

It is somewhat understandable that most of the PNs were simply transliterated, since they have a specific referring function in Marlowe's play. Another point to be made is that many of the PNs, amounting to approximately 30% of the total PNs, are specifically linked to British culture and Christian traditions.

Qualitative Analysis

The following are some examples (CBTs and PNs) extracted for discussion.

Culture-Bound Terms (CBTs)

Example 1

Christ's blood streams in the firmament! One drop would save my soul (XIV.41)

Tr.1 (Murad):

ان دم المسيح ينسكب من السماء وقطرة واحدة منه تنقذك

The blood of Christ is poured out of heaven and one drop of it will save you

Tr.2 (Luluah):

قطرة دم واحدة ستنقذني اه يا مسيحي!

One drop of blood will save me. O, my Christ!

The second translation of Example 1 exhibits more domestication than the first translation, with the former opting to merge the two phrases into a phrase that appears less specific. Meanwhile, the first translation appears to exhibit more foreignisation than domestication as it demonstrates much more specificity and similarity to the source text.

It is noteworthy that Murad and Luluah have also made other items like *God's nails* and *Seven Deadly Sins* quite ambiguous to Arabic readers whose culture has no comparable terms. It is true that the Arabic culture may possess terms that are somewhat similar to the English 'seven deadly sins'. Yet, translating it as *al-Kaba'ir* (الكبائر الذنوب : Cardinal sins) and considering it an equivalent is not acceptable because it may not carry the same connotations. In essence, even when Arabic readers can relate an entity to something similar in their own culture, this may not allow them access to the same associations as those made in the source culture.

Example 2

Was this the face that launched a thousand ships (XIII.88)

Tr.1 (Murad):

اهذا الوجه الجميل الذي اجرى الف سفينة على الماء؟

Was this the beautiful face, that sailed a thousand ships on the water?

Tr.2 (Luluah):

هل كان هذا الوجه الذي اشرع الف سفينة؟

Was this the face, that had set up a thousand vessels?

Example 2 is a reference to Helen of Troy, a figure from Greek mythology. In Marlowe's play, Faustus communed with Helen and the snippet, "Was this the face that launched a thousand ships?" is one of the most famous lines in English literature. Here, the translators, Murad and Luluah, attempted to make the phrase more literal and easier to

understand (for Arabic readers) but at the same time sought to maintain authenticity by making minimal changes to the line and by utilising words that are very similar to the ones in the original text.

Example 3

Marriage is but a ceremonial toy (V.144)

Tr.1 (Murad):

مالزواج يا فاوست الالعبة تقليدية

Marriage, O Faustus, is but a traditional game

Tr.2 (Luluah):

الزواج الالعبة احتفالية

Marriage is but a carnival game

Here, the two translators chose to employ the word *game* instead of using the word *toy*. It is in our opinion, however, that despite the adaptation technique used by the translators to mediate the cultural gap and produce a more culturally acceptable translation, Arabic readers may still not be able to make complete sense of the concept of marriage as a game, with the institution of marriage being such a sacred decree to them.

Examples 4 & 5

The reward of sin is death (I.45)

Tr.1 (Murad):

ان اجرة الخطيئة هي الموت

For the wages of sin are death

Tr.2 (Luluah):

مكافاة الخطيئة هي الموت

The reward of sin is death

If we say that we have no sin we deceive ourselves, and there's no truth in us (I.46)

Tr.1 (Murad):

إِنْ قُلْنَا: إِنَّهُ لَيْسَ لَنَا خَطِيئَةٌ نُضِلُّ أَنْفُسَنَا وَلَيْسَ الْحَقُّ فِيْنَا

If we say that we have no sin we deceive ourselves, and there's no truth in us

Tr.2 (Luluah):

إذا ادعينا اننا لم نخطيء كذبنا وليس فينا حقيقة

If we claim that we did not make a mistake, we lie and there's no truth in us

In the case of Examples 4 and 5, there appears to be adequate translation; both translators favoured foreignisation over domestication in dealing with the concepts of sin, punishment and truth. They opted to use words similar to the ones in the source text (e.g. *sin, death, deceive, truth*) as well as the same pronouns. Also, in both examples the translators used Arabic conditional structures (if X does not happen, Y will not happen), thus maintaining similarity with the source text.

Proper Names (PNs)

Examples 6-10

Jerome's Bible (I.36)

Tr.1 (Murad):

سفر جيروم

The Book of Jerome

Tr.2 (Luluah):

ترجمة جيروم للكتاب المقدس

Jerome's translation of the Bible

Helen of Greece (XIII.13)

Tr.1 (Murad):

هلين اليونان الجميلة

Beautiful Helen of Greece

Tr.2 (Luluah):

الطروادية

Helen of the Trojan

Jehovah's name (III.9)

Tr.1 (Murad):

اسم يهوه

The name of Jehovah

Tr.2 (Luluah):

اسم الرب يهوه

The name of the Lord Jehovah

Mephistophilis (XIII.13)

Tr.1 (Murad):

مفيستو

Mavisto, Mephisto, Mufisato

Tr.2 (Luluah):

مفيستوفيليس

Mephistophilis

The Delphian Oracle (I.144)

Tr.1 (Murad):

معبد الوحي

Temple of Revelation

Tr.2 (Luluah):

معبد الوحي في دلفي

The Temple of Revelation in Delphi

On the whole, the translations of Examples 6-10 exhibit a fairly high degree of foreignisation. Both translators were conservative in their translations and evidently elected to adhere closely to the original. Proper nouns are generally uncommon words and they designate unique entities (e.g. persons, places, objects). Should a translator decide to be less conservative and lean towards domestication, then certain cultural elements will go through greater adaptation.

For the present study, foreignisation appears to be the more preferred method with evidence pointing to the maintenance of authenticity. For instance, in the given examples, strong adherence to the source text is obvious and even when the translators made changes, they sought to preserve the cultural elements held by the PNs when they could have also elected to closely adapt these elements to make the PNs much more familiar and accessible to Arabic readers. For example, the use of the phrase *Helen of the Trojan* may be slightly dissimilar to the original *Helen of Greece*, but the translator kept intact the cultural element behind the PN by bringing to mind the famous Battle

of Troy. This allows the reader to still make the connection between Helen and Greece.

CONCLUSION

When a translation process involves two varied languages and cultures, it is likely to be fraught with complexities. In this context, translating culture-bound terms and proper names, especially those linked to the Renaissance era, can be even more problematic. This is because translation is not an act in isolation. A good translator, an effective one, must take into account matters such as accuracy, possible loss of meaning or lexical richness, and the reader's experience of the text. Essentially, a good translator should always strike a balance between authenticity and comprehensibility, for one without the other renders the translation imprecise (at best) and meaningless (at worst).

Translating CBTs and PNs is therefore complex. This, however, does not mean that such items are impossible to translate. Rather, it only implies that translating every aspect of each CBT or PN can be extremely difficult and different strategies have to be applied on a case-by-case basis. Strategies abound with respect to the handling of culture-specific items and proper names. In the earlier sections of this paper, the authors offered discussions regarding the alternative treatments for CBTs and PNs, and invoked the distinction between the two fundamental aims of translating such items: 1) preservation of authenticity as far as possible (foreignisation), and 2) producing

translations that are more familiar to the target audience (domestication).

The primary objective of the present study was to examine the domestication and foreignisation strategies applied to the CBTs and PNs in two English-Arabic translations of Christopher Marlowe's play, *Doctor Faustus*. The translations by Murad (1992) and Luluah (2013) were examined against the original version and content analysis, which included frequency analyses, was conducted based on Venuti's (1995) theory as well as Newmark (1988) and Coillie's (2006) taxonomies.

With regard to CBTs, although modifications were employed, they were concentrated on the connotative and contextual meanings behind the CBTs. This preserved authenticity to a considerable extent and yet provided sufficient familiarity to suit Arabic readers in general. Also, the translators largely adhered to the original version of *Doctor Faustus* by using words similar to the ones in the source text as well as the same pronouns. This pattern is seen in a substantial number of the extracted items.

It is to be noted, however, that while foreignisation seems to be the preferred method, domestication was still relied upon to a certain extent and within this dimension, traces of ambiguity can be observed. For example, translating *Seven Deadly Sins* as *al-Kaba'ir* (الكبائر الذنوب : Cardinal sins) and considering it an equivalent is not acceptable because it may not carry the same connotations.

With regard to PNs, maintaining authenticity appears to be the more preferred

method, with evidence consistently pointing to foreignisation. Both translators evidently favoured reproduction and adhered closely to the source text. It is understandable that most of the PNs were simply transliterated, as they have a specific referring function in Marlowe's play and many of the PNs are also specifically related to British culture and Christian traditions.

As mentioned earlier, there is to date a paucity in terms of published research similar to the focus and design of the present study. As such, this study's findings are of value and significance to the domain of translation studies, in that they add to, as well as diversify, the present fabric of findings related to the domestication and foreignisation of culture-specific terms and proper names.

The present study involved the use of translations by two authors and covered CBTs as well as PNs, structured within a framework of three constructs: Venuti's theory of domestication and foreignisation and Newmark and Coillie's respective taxonomies. Although its findings are to an extent supportive of extant literature, there is also a measure of interesting disparity. For instance, in his work on an Arabic translation of cultural elements in the English novel, *Oliver Twist*, Al-Idhesat (2016) found evidence of foreignisation but concluded that there seemed to be a tendency towards domestication with regards to a majority of the translated cultural elements. Meanwhile, Mansour (2014), in a study that aimed to apply strategies of domestication and foreignisation in translating culture-specific

references in the English novel, *The Burglar Who Liked to Quote Kipling*, concluded in favour of foreignisation but noted that in certain cases, domestication still “imposes itself as the inevitable choice” (p. 35).

On the whole, the researchers were able to conclude that although the translators used various strategies, they both favoured foreignisation, and Murad's translation is more foreignised than Luluah's. Also, certain strategies such as deletion (complete omission) were not utilised at all. In essence, while there is clearly a healthy inclination towards domestication, foreignisation remains the more pervasive method with regard to Arabic translations of *Doctor Faustus*. It is hoped that this study and its findings can provide better direction for writers and translators, and be of assistance to instructors, students and scholars engaged in translation and literary studies.

REFERENCES

- Aguilera, E. C. (2008). The translation of proper names in children's literature. *Ef@bulations / E-f@bulações*, 7(1), 47-61.
- Aixela, J. F. (1996). Culture-specific items in translation. In A. Roman & M. Carmen-Africa Vidal (Eds.), *Translation, power, subversion* (pp. 52-78). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Al-Idhesat, T. A. S. (2016). *The translation of cultural elements from English into Arabic in Oliver Twist* (Unpublished M.A. Dissertation), University of Malaya, Malaysia.
- Elnaili, S. M. (2014). *Domestication and foreignization strategies in translating Sinbad of the Arabian nights* (Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation), Louisiana State University, USA.
- Ghazala, H. (2002). *Translation as problems and solutions* (4th ed.). Aleppo: Dar Al Kalam Al-Arabi.
- Hermans, T. (1988). On translating proper names, with reference to De Witte and Max Havelaar. In M. Wintle (Ed.), *Modern Dutch studies: A volume of essays in honour of Professor Peter King* (pp. 11-24). London: Athlone Press.
- Hervey, S., & Higgins, I. (1992). *Thinking translation: A course in translation method*. London: Routledge.
- Jaleniauskiene, E., & Cicelyte, V. (2009). The strategies for translating proper names in children's literature. *Studies about Languages*, 15, 1648-2824.
- Katan, D. (1999). *Translating cultures: An introduction for translators, interpreters and mediators*. Manchester: St Jerome.
- Leppihalme, R. (1997). *Culture bumps: An empirical approach to the translation of allusions*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Mansour, M. H. (2014). Domestication and foreignization in translating culture-specific references of an English text into Arabic. *International Journal of English Language and Translation Studies*, 2(2), 23-36.
- Newmark, P. (1988). *A textbook of translation*. New York: Prentice Hall.
- Toury, G. (1980). *In search of a theory of translation*. Tel Aviv: Porter Institute of Poetics.
- Venuti, L. (1995). *The translator's invisibility: A history of translation*. London: Routledge.



The Woman and the Animal in Anita Desai's *Cry, The Peacock*

Gurpreet Kaur

*Department of English and Comparative Literary Studies, University of Warwick, Coventry,
United Kingdom*

ABSTRACT

This paper looks at the affinity between women and animals through a lens of material postcolonial ecofeminism. Anita Desai's novel *Cry, the Peacock* provides an opportunity to re-think some of the postcolonial issues espoused in the fiction of male writers through a gendered perspective while simultaneously considering the specific processes that assign the woman and the animal to inferior and stereotyped positions. The woman and the animal, then, become mediators for each other. The notion of violence is key in exploring patriarchal oppression of both women and animals in Desai's novel. A key argument that is furthered in this paper is that the 'other' in the form of the woman and the animal is centred in the novel although both the woman and the animal are removed and distanced from society in this novel. While the woman becomes the mediator through whom the animal can be read, identity politics and relationships between men and women are mediated through the figure of the animal. The position of ambivalence seems to occupy the heart of the protagonists in this story, with the women belonging neither to the cultural or the natural.

Keywords: Ambivalence, binaries, Indian, nature, nonhuman animals, postcolonial ecofeminism, women, violence

INTRODUCTION

This paper attempts to develop the perspective of materialist postcolonial

ecofeminism by analysing and discussing the novel *Cry, the Peacock* (1963) by the English-language Indian novelist Anita Desai (b. 1937). *Cry, the Peacock* was Desai's first novel to be published. I have chosen this novel written by Desai for analysis in this paper as it illustrates the continuity of her concerns, which colour most of her novels, namely, the position of

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received: 03 April 2017

Accepted: 30 November 2017

E-mail address:

gurpreetkk1@gmail.com (Gurpreet Kaur)

middle-class Indian women and the use of animals and nature.

Postcolonial ecofeminism as a new perspective in literary studies is still in its nascent stage. The related fields of postcolonial ecocriticism and ecofeminism have been dominated, to date, by a typically Euro-American point of view, and neither field addresses the issue of postcolonial ecofeminism adequately. Both fields need to recognise “the ‘double-bind’ of being female and being colonised” (Campbell, 2008, p. xi). A postcolonial ecofeminist perspective involves the coming together of postcolonial ecocriticism and ecofeminism into one analytical focus that makes it necessary to recognise that the exploitation of nature and the oppression of women are intimately bound up with notions of class, caste, race, colonialism and neo-colonialism.

I will show in this paper that the ‘other’ in the form of the woman and the animal is central in the novel, although both the woman and the animal are removed and distanced from society. The position of ambivalence occupies the heart of Desai’s protagonists, particularly Maya, in *Cry, the Peacock*; the women in this novel belong neither to the cultural nor to the natural. Desai’s novel predates as well as anticipates much of the contemporary debate on the connection between women and animals in society. The novel also provides an opportunity to re-think some of the postcolonial issues espoused in the fiction of male writers through a gender perspective while simultaneously considering the

specific processes that assign women and animals to inferior and stereotyped positions. The woman and the animal, then, become mediators for each other. The notion of violence is key in exploring forms of patriarchal oppression of both the woman and the animal in Desai’s novel.

WOMAN AND ANIMAL: AN OVERVIEW

It is important to contextualise, very briefly, the debate and argument surrounding women and animals historically and socio-politically. Patrick D. Murphy agreed with the deconstructionist philosopher Jacques Derrida when he stated, “Western philosophy is based on the opposition of nature and culture, since this opposition seems fundamental for a vast array of claims made about human uniqueness, in terms of spiritual essence, right to domination, and exploitative destiny” (Murphy, 1992, p. 311).

Two important points arise from Murphy’s words quoted above. First, we are brought face-to-face with Cartesian dualism, with the nature/culture dualism going all the way back to the self/other dichotomy. Second, we are returned to the basic ecofeminist premise that this binary framework authorises various forms of oppression because it puts in place a set of hierarchical opposition. Descartes postulated that “the reason why animals do not speak as we do is . . . that they have no thoughts” (2007, p. 60). From this, he concluded that animals are “natural automata” (Descartes,

2007, p. 61), that is, they are mechanical and only have instinctual drives. Such Cartesian thinking has had far-reaching impact on the attribution of reason to men (culture, human) and instinct and emotion to women (nature, animal). Also, such philosophical generalisations have been naturalised to date and thus, allow certain oppressions and exploitation to take place, namely that of animals, women and other marginalised groups of people. This is most clearly seen when “women’s bodies have been seen to intrude upon their rationality” (Adams & Donovan, 1995, p. 1) and thus women’s ‘animality’ is used to deny them the rights of public citizenship. The differences among different groups are assumed to be essential in nature and culminate in the process of othering. These differences are then used as the basis for the domination and oppression of certain categories of people or animals.

The connection between sexism and speciesism has been well-documented by many ecofeminists. This stems from the belief and increasing research that supports the claim that all types of oppression are interconnected. Therefore, the connections between and the oppression of women and animals cannot be viewed in a vacuum, independent of other forms of “abuse, degradation, exploitation and commercialization” (Adams & Donovan, 1995, p. 3). According to Susanne Kappeler, sexism and speciesism have to be viewed together with racism, classism and nationalism (in the form of the power of the state) and scientific discourse, all of which legitimise the exploitation of

women and animals to a large extent¹. Such interconnections work at times by animalising women (speciesism) and by feminising animals (sexism), and some nonhuman, animal terms can function as racial epithets. This also goes to show that the relationship between speciesism and sexism is not unidirectional.

Graham Huggan and Helen Tiffin have stated:

Postcolonialism’s major theoretical concerns: otherness, racism and miscegenation, language, translation, . . . voice and the problems of speaking of and for others—to name just a few—offer immediate entry points for a re-theorising of the place of animals in relation to human societies. . . . [However], the metaphorisation and deployment of ‘animal’ as a derogatory term . . . make it difficult to even discuss animals without generating a profound unease, even a rancorous antagonism, in many postcolonial contexts today. (2010, p. 135)

One of the potential problems that this statement immediately illuminates is that of priority: In this context, should animals or women be given priority? I would like to stress that this paper is not about privileging one group over the other, that women and

¹I am mindful that there are other forms of oppression that fit within this framework, for example, homophobia, heterosexism, disability etc. However, it is beyond the scope of this paper to cover these aspects fully to do them justice

animals here are not viewed as being either/or. This paper is about exploring the series of interconnection between these two groups, women and animals, in a postcolonial woman author's writing as well as rupturing the space between the binaries, culture/nature, human (man)/animal (woman), as an ambivalent position. It is important to do so because a failure to challenge these binary distinctions undermines a more complete understanding of the workings of oppression.

One important point to note here is that the connection between women and animals is "*not* to be understood as a 'natural' connection—one that suggests that women and animals are essentially similar—but rather a *constructed connection* that has been created by the patriarchy as a means of oppression" (Gruen, 1993, p. 61). The constructedness of this connection, then, exposes two points. First, such constructions are "culturally and historically contingent; that is, depending on time and place this border not only moves but the reasons for assigning animals and humans to each side of the border change as well" (DeMello, 2012, p. 33). Implicit in this is the notion of power and hegemony, that is, who is in power and who gets to represent whom and in what way, where some humans themselves may be lumped together with animals. Second, such a construction also has to take note of the role of language, particularly the issue of anthropomorphism, which has proven to be extremely contentious with regard to representing animals. Margo DeMello stated:

Animals are *like us*, but also *unlike us*. Because of this ambiguity, they are a perfect vehicle for expressing information about ourselves, to ourselves. . . . we bestialize people . . . and humanize animals (that we anthropomorphize). And although we can use animals to highlight a person's good qualities (brave like a lion), we more commonly use animals negatively (cunning like a fox), especially to denigrate racial minorities. (2012, pp. 287–288, original emphasis)

However, critics such as Marion Copeland (1998) and John Berger (2007) have spoken in defence of anthropomorphism. Berger is of the opinion that "the much-maligned process of anthropomorphism is actually beneficial because it expresses the proximity between human and animal" (Berger, 2007, p. 255; Kalof & Fitzgerald, 2007, p. 251). It is also important to realise, however, that some of the claims that ecofeminists make against this position, that anthropomorphism is both anthropocentric and androcentric, also remain valid and true in certain instances². I suggest that

²For an in-depth account of and comments on the debate about anthropomorphism with regard to women and animals, see Carol J. Adams, *The Sexual Politics of Meat* (1990); Greta Gaard (Ed), *Ecofeminism: Women, Animals, Nature* (1993); Carol J. Adams and Josephine Donovan (Eds), *Animals and Women* (1995); Val Plumwood, "Androcentrism and Anthropocentrism: Parallels and Politics" in *Ecofeminism: Women, Culture, Nature* (1997); Marion W. Copeland, "Nonhuman Animals" (1998); Simon C. Estok, "Theory from the Fringes" (2007), and; Lawrence Buell, "The Misery of Beasts and Humans" in *Writing for an Endangered World* (2001)

Desai be posited within the framework of recuperating anthropomorphism when reading her novel. Part of her strategy is to allow human readers to identify with the characters, their feelings as well as the interaction between women and animals in her novels, in which she deploys a certain necessary anthropomorphism, to use Copeland's term.

CRY, THE PEACOCK

Desai's *Cry, the Peacock* is a story about a sensitive young girl, Maya, who is obsessed with a childhood prophecy of disaster. An albino astrologer had predicted death to either her or her husband four years into their marriage. Believing that she is the one to die, she hovers on the brink of neurosis and insanity. However, in a moment of epiphany, an idea takes root in her mind that since the astrologer had predicted death for either of them, it may be the life of Gautama, her husband, and not hers that is threatened. She thus transfers her death wish to Gautama and thinks that since he is so detached and indifferent to her and life in general, it will not matter to him if he dies. After this realisation dawns on her, she asks Gautama to accompany her to the roof of the house to enjoy the cool air, and he does so, lost in his own thoughts. They walk towards the terraced end of the roof, and Maya looks enraptured at the glow of the rising moon. As Gautama moves in front of her, hiding the moon from her view, she, in a fit of frenzy, pushes him over the parapet. It remains in the end for Gautama's mother and sister to take away the now completely

insane Maya from the scene of tragedy to the house of her father.

There is no actual or literal peacock in the story. The image of the peacock crying during the first monsoon rains is entrenched in Maya's mind when she suddenly gets the idea that it could be Gautama who is to die. The entire idea in her mind is framed by a refrain that repeats itself in the novel, "Pia pia I cry, miomio I die" (Desai, 1980, p. 82), mimicking the cry of the peacocks during mating, where "cry" and "die" then assume critical significance when Maya thinks about killing Gautama. The image of the peacock, then, from being associated with positive connotations when Maya marries Gautama, becomes a progressively negative image as Maya thinks about killing her husband.

The following sections will analyse the relationship between Maya and her pet dog, Toto, and then expand upon those points and talk about another aspect, the bodily exploitation of both women and animals, also seen through Maya and the animals around her. Two scenes, the monkeys at the railway station and the cabaret dance scene, illustrate the inter-linkage of the exploitation of women and animals. Before that, it will be important to discuss Maya and Gautama's relationship briefly in the context of the suffering of women and animals as one possible interconnection between the types of oppression.

Maya and Her Pet Dog, Toto

The novel opens with the death of Maya's pet dog, Toto. Toto's body "lay rotting in the sun" (Desai, 1980, p. 1) as Maya waited for

her husband Gautama to come home and bury the dead body. Maya subsequently moves the bed on which Toto's dead body is laid into the shade of the lime trees and "[sees]its eyes open and staring still, scream[s] and rushe[s] to the garden tap to wash the vision from her eyes, continue[s] to cry and [runs], defeated, into the house" (Desai, 1980, p. 2). A number of issues regarding both animals and women are exposed through the recounting of these mundane actions and Maya's reaction to her pet dog's death.

The pet animal is a major topic of study in human-animal studies, including ecofeminism. A pet is generally defined as a companion animal, and the act of naming a pet "incorporates him or her into the human social world and allows us to use their name as a term of address and a term of reference" (DeMello, 2012, p. 149). Maya, in constantly referring to her dog by name in her thoughts and soliloquies, confers upon him a distinct identity and personality. In giving Toto a distinct identity and a definite place in her life, she refuses to deny Toto's material reality and history, of his body that she has known and seen rotting after death (her emphasis on Toto's body runs throughout the novel; here are two examples: "small white Toto, small white corpse" [1980, p. 24]; "the impact of his body as he flung himself upon me" [p. 21]). Toto's identity is not effaced, and he does not become an "absent referent" (Adams, 2010, p. 66).

It can be argued at the same time that Maya, in speaking for the dog, may be speaking for herself and her plight. Sanders

and Arluke invoke explained the concept of constructing "dialogues with the self" (2007, p. 67) through a pet, and this is something that Maya does engage in. However, it is important *not* to view this negatively as Desai uses this as a strategic device to contrast Maya's husband Gautama's reaction to the death of the dog. Gautama comes back from work late and,

he did all that was to be done, quickly and quietly like a surgeon's knife at work. He telephoned the Public Works Department, he had them send their scavenging truck to take the corpse away. . . . 'Yes, yes, the bed too,' he said. 'By all means, burn it too.' When the truck left, he came to her [Maya]. . . . 'It is all over,' he said. 'Come and drink your tea, and stop crying. You mustn't cry'. (Desai, 1980, p. 8)

Gautama's reaction to the dog's death is the complete opposite of Maya's. In saying that he takes care of everything "like a surgeon's knife at work" (Desai, 1980, p. 8), Desai is implicitly invoking the image of scientific discourse by referring to a typical instrument of medicine, the surgeon's knife, to suggest the distancing of humans, especially men, from animals. Gautama's actions here are purpose-driven and not communicative, making him detached and unemotional. This is similar to the "unemotional and detached language of scientific reports" (Birke, 1995, p. 32) used by Desai here to describe Gautama's actions. The effect of this, then, is that "caring and connectedness are stereotypically associated

with femininity, and thus typically *devalued* in the pursuit of objectivity and detachment” (Birke, 1995, p. 323; Kalof & Fitzgerald, 2007, p. 323, my emphasis). This can be seen here when Gautama keeps telling Maya that she needs to stop crying and just have a cup of tea, and ultimately “forgetting her, forgetting her woes altogether” (Desai, 1980, p. 9) and forgetting Toto, too. In espousing his philosophy of detachment that he often quotes from the *Gita*, both Maya and Toto then become absent referents for Gautama; Gautama forgets the dog and his name within a few days of the dog’s death and does not remember it even after Maya’s prompts. To Gautama, a pet is replaceable, and he gets a cat for Maya as a replacement for Toto. Maya relates this to a comment made by Gautama in the early days of their marriage that she looks like a cat (Desai, 1980, p. 27). With that in mind, Maya tries to forge a relationship with the cat, but the cat “scorned to have [her] touch her secret dreams” (Desai, 1980, p. 33). It is significant that Maya does not name the cat. Maya’s relationship with the feline, then, does not convey the same familiarity and intensity as her relationship with the dog, and towards the end of the novel, before pushing Gautama off the parapet, both she and the cat are almost indifferent to each other.

DeMello stated that “[t]he term ‘pet’, after all, was a fifteenth-century English term meaning ‘spoiled child’. This word probably derived from the French term *petit*, or ‘little’, and grew to mean anything or anyone that was spoiled or indulged”

(2012, p. 149). Maya, too, has been spoilt by her father’s upbringing in a middle-class anglophile household, where she describes herself in her childhood as akin to a “toy princess in a toy world” (Desai, 1980, p. 78). Gautama gets exasperated by her sensitivities and indulgences and mocks her, saying sarcastically that “everyone must bring a present for little Maya—that is what her father taught her” (Desai, 1980, p. 98). Desai here is pointedly drawing attention to the ennui and emptiness of the middle-class woman, who reacts in various ways to family-based, sanctioned codes of righteous feminine conduct. Anuradha Roy states that in Maya’s case, her father’s benevolent tyranny creates a situation in which “[t]he powerlessness of women is . . . generated within the structures of the family, through apparently nurturing institutions and individuals” (quoted in Jackson, 2010, p. 35). Maya’s father’s attitude towards fatalism that he has taught her, that one must accept all things and everything will be all right, offers Maya no alternative reaction to the astrologer’s prophecy of death. Feeling utterly lost and insecure by the hounding of the prophecy, Maya desperately thinks, “Father! Brother! Husband! Who is my saviour?” (Desai, 1980, p. 84). She ultimately realises that her father, husband and brother are all extensions of each other and of male ways of thinking that are essentially alien to her nature: “‘The stagnant dregs of sentimentalism available only to the decadent’. Who had said that? Arjuna? Gautama? It could have been either.” (Desai, 1980, p. 117). Maya tries

not to 'accept', and rebels against fate and fatalistic thinking engendered in her by the men in her life and, in doing so, she is deemed a misfit, a neurotic (exclaimed repeatedly by Gautama), and eventually, insane. When she withdraws into her subjective world, then, Maya is a completely othered 'pet'.

Maya and Gautama's Relationship

The dualism of culture/nature, rational (detachment)/emotional (attachment) and human/animal, are literalised in the figures of Gautama and Maya as a couple. In deriding Maya and not losing any opportunity to put her down, Gautama uses animal pejoratives (in a negative sense) for Maya:

You have done it once again, Maya. You go chattering *like a monkey*, and I am annoyed that I have been interrupted in my thinking. But, *being a creature of pure instinct*, you do, every now and then, stumble—purely by accident, I'm sure—upon the salient point of the problem. (Desai, 1980, p. 20, my emphasis)

The blatant categorisation of Maya as "monkey" and "creature of pure instinct" slots her into an inferior position with regard to the males in her life. In comparing Maya to an animal, two things simultaneously happen here. Firstly, the denotation of the animal by Gautama falsely distances him from animals and, in the larger picture, distances humans and animals from each other, reinforcing false dualisms in place.

Secondly, through the binary divisions, the woman here is effectively excluded from humankind. Joan Dunayer stated that "[l]inguistically ousting women from humankind has force because lack of membership in the human species condemns an individual, however thinking and feeling, to inferior status" (1995, p. 19). Similarly, the use of an animal in an image as a negative connotation reflects the belief that a nonhuman species does not merit equal consideration, dignity and respect.

The Monkeys at the Railway Station

According to Dunayer, "[e]very negative image of another species helps keep that species oppressed" (1995, p. 17). Here, in light of the negative comparison between Maya and a chattering monkey, it is important to discuss the scene at the railway station in which Maya is distressed by the plight of caged monkeys waiting to be shipped off to America for scientific laboratory experiments. Maya

went towards them, looked at them through tears, watching them move, feverishly, desperately, in cages too small to contain their upright bodies. . . . Long furred bodies swarming upon each other, till limbs and tails were twisted together, the elegant lines of their muscles contorted nightmarishly—the work of some fiendish maniac. And one that [she] saw was perfectly still and quiet, backed into a corner by the frantic bodies of its companions, and gazed out with eyes that had melted into liquid

drops about to slide down its pinched, indrawn cheeks. Its brow was lined with foreboding and the suffering of a tragic calamity, and its hands, folded across its thin belly, waited to accept it. Then it spied on something on the platform beside it, and, with famine swiftness, shot out one arm and picked it up, brought it close to its face for inspection, and sniffed it. It was only a monkey-nut shell, empty. A small whimper broke from the animal as it dropped the shell, then was silent again, waiting. (Desai, 1980, pp. 129–130)

Marian Scholtmeijer stated that “[t]he injustices suffered by women—the suppression, silencing, and violence—are arguably an extension of the more easily identified abuse of animals” (1995, p. 232) and that

[o]ne way [of] ensuring that animals are not alone in their pain [is by] means of a posited kinship between victimized women and victimized animals, [where] women writers both reclaim the fact of women’s suffering and challenge the isolation of human from animal that permits aggression against animals in the first place (Scholtmeijer, 1995, p. 235).

Desai here attempts to show how Maya and the monkeys’ suffering is linked. Maya’s distress at the animals’ distress is apparent here, and Desai does not necessarily privilege one over the other. Through her tears, when Maya tells Gautama that the

monkeys are hungry and thirsty and that they should not be in cages, Gautama’s reaction is to dismiss her cries as excessive female sentimentality, just as her reactions to her dog Toto’s death are dismissed by him. The validity of Maya’s feelings and sentiments at the animals’ suffering, which she identifies with, is completely estranged from Gautama that only a connection and concurrence with the animals (monkeys) can tell of and validate Maya’s isolation here. In this sense, then, Maya’s sense of resignation at her fate, her feelings of sadness and isolation, for example when she cries out, “let me out! I want to live Gautama, I want to live!” (Desai, 1980, p. 131), would have remained indescribable without the example of the monkeys in the station.

Also, note that in the passage quoted above, through Maya, Desai’s focus shifts from describing a cage-load of monkeys to one single caged monkey. She describes this single monkey’s ordeal and the resulting suffering in minute detail. This strategy is what Scott Slovic (2015) termed as singularity. He posited the concept as focussing on one single image or individual for affective and effective purposes, especially in eliciting compassion (compassionate feelings) towards the individual (and in extension, towards the whole group, which in this case, is that of the monkeys). Desai, realising the potential for using such a move, has used this strategy even before academic research commenced on singularity. This highlights the understudied postcolonial ecofeminist corpus of work relating to this field and its

contribution to the academic research and debate that has thus far been ignored.

The focus on the corporeality and materiality of the monkey's bodies, also a clear reference to animals subjected to cruel experiments in the cosmetic industry, points to the reduction of these animals to mere body parts for exploitation in the name of scientific progress to benefit humanity. Such exploitation is thoroughly rationalised and legitimised through scientific and hegemonic discourse by the state to secure general public acceptance, in this case seen through Gautama's reactions and even his mother's reaction, when they recognise that "something must be done immediately about it" (Desai, 1980, p. 130), but remain distanced enough from the plight of the monkeys to let them be transported for scientific experiments. The monkeys here are considered a factor of production, and are thus tightly crowded into small cages with feeding and watering largely neglected to minimise operational costs so that people in power (scientific companies and multinational corporations, among others, are hierarchically at the top) can benefit. In this analysis, then, suffering is not accidental but a "logical outcome of a system that demands profit above all else. This extends from the economic system into the political system" (DeMello, 2012, p. 274), as exemplified by Gautama, the main male voice of reason, politics and the public sphere in the novel.

The Cabaret Dance Scene

The cabaret dance that Maya witnesses with Gautama and his friends proves to be

a frightening experience for her. It brings her face-to-face with the exploitation of the cabaret dancers, which then triggers her memory about a bear dance and the exploitation of the bear that she had seen as a child. The cabaret dance routine is depicted at length by Desai in the novel, and the juxtaposition of the exploitation of the women and the memory of the bear dance distils the workings of Maya's subconscious mind into concrete reality: her own oppression, the cabaret dancers' oppression and the bear's oppression all bound together by the same forces of oppression. Desai uses descriptive animal phrases such as "wild catcalls," "the howls of preying wolves hunting in packs, in the darkening jungles" and "little animal cries of voluptuous invitation, as cats do when they mate" (Desai, 1980, pp. 73–74) to illustrate the cabaret scene in terms of the sexual exploitation of women. Using such language also points to the objectification of both women and animals, where "each spangle was a price tag, each price tag proclaimed the price of their breasts, their rumps, their legs. The spangles were bright, the prices were low" (Desai, 1980, p. 74); such objectification of body parts is part of the process by which women and animals have been reduced to "isolated and productive *consuming* units" (Berger, 2007, p. 256, my emphasis). Here, it is helpful to consider Carol Adams' analysis of the objectification of women's bodies and how it is linked to the objectification of animals: "What is "the sexual politics of meat"? It is an attitude and action that *animalizes women and sexualizes and feminizes animals*" (Adams, 2010, p.

4, my emphasis). Her analysis of sexual violence and exploitation of both women and animals elucidates the reactions of the (male) audience watching the cabaret, for example, the Sikh who shouts “Jolly good!” (Desai, 1980, p. 72) at the sight of gyrating women and “the fat man at the neighbouring table sobbing ‘Beautiful! B-beautiful b-bitch!’”(Desai, 1980, p. 74):

The process of viewing another as consumable, as *something*, is usually invisible to us. Its invisibility occurs because it corresponds to the view of the dominant culture. The process is also invisible to us because the end product of the process—the object of consumption—is available everywhere. . . . Through the sexual politics of meat, consuming images such as these provide a way for our culture to talk openly about and joke about the objectification of women without having to acknowledge that this is what they are doing. . . . It makes the degradation of women appear playful and harmless. . . . The sexual politics of meat traps everyone—“him”, “you”, and the animals who are supposed to be consumed. (Adams, 2010, pp. 15–17)

In highlighting the exploitation, degradation and objectification of the cabaret women, Desai's language does not make the animals absent referents here because this episode is immediately followed by the memory of the performance of the bear that Maya sees as a child. The effect of such a move is that it serves to highlight the connection between

such exploitation and objectification between women and animals, and different structures of oppression. Maya intuitively makes these connections; for her, then, the life of a wild animal, epitomised by the bear, becomes an ideal she wants to strive towards.

CONCLUSION

Maya in *Cry, the Peacock* does not fit into the ideal home space typically defined by dominant gender discourse on the home and family. She is removed and distanced from society and, as such, characterised as an ‘other’ and yet is centred in the novel by Desai. This paper has explored the connection between these women and animals in Desai's novel without the aim of privileging one over the other. It is important to note that Desai does not offer any utopian or ‘ecotopian’ solutions to her characters' predicament. The novel, instead, shows and offers critical insight into the processes that assign women and animals to inferior and stereotyped positions and the ways in which these are resisted by the women. By re-reading and re-interpreting the novel to unsettle the binaries of culture/nature and human/animal through the fictional representation of women, the woman's ambivalent position emerges in the novel. Here, Maya's search for an outlet for herself culminates in fusion of both dichotomies, creation and destruction; in the end, not only does she kill Gautama, but going insane, she commits suicide as well. Narratively speaking, Maya is too much of an ‘other’ to be contained in the story. She is neither

aligned with the cultural sphere nor with the natural sphere, rejecting both in her death and illustrating her ambivalence.

The notion of violence has been key in exploring patriarchal oppression of both women and animals. Women and animals' suffering due to this violence is inextricably linked, and Desai forces us to pay attention to both wrongs against women and wrongs against animals. This also goes to show that the oppression of both women and animals is linked and that such oppression does not operate in a vacuum. Also, in several instances, the animal 'other' is centred and given importance in its own right in Desai's novel apart from the women.

REFERENCES

- Adams, C. J. (2010). *The sexual politics of meat*. New York, London: Continuum.
- Adams, C. J., & Donovan, J. (Eds.). (1995). Introduction. In *Animals and women: Feminist theoretical explorations* (pp. 1–10). Durham, London: Duke University Press.
- Berger, J. (2007). Why look at animals? In L. Kalof & A. Fitzgerald (Eds.), *The animals reader* (pp. 251–261). Oxford, New York: Berg.
- Birke, L. (1995). Exploring the boundaries: Feminism, animals and science. In C. J. Adams & J. Donovan (Eds.), *Animals and women: Feminist theoretical explorations* (pp. 32–54). Durham, London: Duke University Press.
- Campbell, A. (Ed.). (2008). *New directions in ecofeminist literary criticism*. Cambridge: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.
- Copeland, M. (1998). Nonhuman animals. *Society and Animals*, 6(1), 87–100.
- DeMello, M. (2012). *Animals and society*. New York: Columbia University Press.
- Desai, A. (1980). *Cry, the Peacock*. New Delhi: Orient Paperbacks.
- Descartes, R. (2007). From the letters of 1646 and 1649. In L. Kalof & A. Fitzgerald (Eds.), *The animals reader* (pp. 59–62). Oxford, New York: Berg.
- Dunayer, J. (1995). Sexist words, speciesist roots. In C. J. Adams & J. Donovan (Eds.), *Animals and women: Feminist theoretical explorations* (pp. 11–31). Durham, London: Duke University Press.
- Gruen, L. (1993). Dismantling oppression: An analysis of the connection between women and animals. In G. Gaard (Ed.), *Ecofeminism: Women, animals, nature* (pp. 60–90). Philadelphia: Temple University Press.
- Huggan, G. & Tiffin, H. (2010). *Postcolonial ecocriticism: Literature, animals, environment*. London, New York: Routledge.
- Jackson, E. (2010). *Feminism and contemporary Indian women's writing*. London: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Kalof, L., & Fitzgerald, A. (Eds.). (2007). *The animals reader*. Oxford, New York: Berg.
- Murphy, P. D. (1992). Rethinking the relations of nature, culture and agency. *Environmental Values*, 1(4), 311–320.
- Sanders, C. R., & Arluke, A. (2007). Speaking for dogs. In L. Kalof & A. Fitzgerald (Eds.), *The animals reader* (pp. 63–71). Oxford, New York: Berg.
- Scholtmeijer, M. (1995). The power of otherness: Animals in women's fiction. In C. J. Adams & J. Donovan (Eds.), *Animals and women: Feminist theoretical explorations* (pp. 231–264). Durham, London: Duke University Press.
- Slovic, S., & Slovic, P. (Eds.). (2015). *Numbers and nerves: Information, emotion and meaning in a world of data*. Corvallis: Oregon State University Press.

The Quest of Identity in Sophia Kamal's Art Exhibition "WUDU"

Ling, C. B. I.* and Abdullah, S.

School of the Arts, Universiti Sains Malaysia, 11800 USM, Gelugor, Penang, Malaysia

ABSTRACT

This paper aims to investigate the terminology relating to irony and the manifestation of the struggle within the inner thought of a 21st-century Malaysian artist, Sophia Kamal. Her artwork discussed here portrays a significant picture of what it means to be a woman in the 21st century. In her recent exhibition, entitled "WUDU", Sophia exposed the 21st-century dilemma faced by many modern women, especially the modern Muslim woman, through extensive, fine pieces of colourful and impressive artwork. Sophia's art pieces have contributed to the development of local artwork produced by contemporary women artists in Malaysia by exploring the perception of identity in terms of the female gaze and consciousness from a feminist perspective, which this paper will discuss further. Focussing on the issues of identity and feminism, this paper argues that her art pieces reflect the conflict between traditional culture and postmodern life, thinking and culture that is increasing its visibility in urban Malaysia.

Keywords: Female identity, Malaysian art, postmodern art, Sophia Kamal, women artists

INTRODUCTION

In Malaysia's multicultural society, it is safe to say that the definition and expectation of being a woman are rather diversified

across the races, cultures and religions. In general, the conception of the ideal Malaysian woman is stereotypical: she has to dress in a certain way, be able to cook, prepare and nurture children and take very good care of her immediate and extended family. Apart from that, the Malaysian woman must be able to possess and adhere to her religious beliefs and preserve her purity, piety, submissiveness and femininity within the religious and cultural contexts in which she has been brought up. This paper

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received: 03 April 2017

Accepted: 30 November 2017

E-mail addresses:

claraling91@gmail.com (Ling, C. B. I.)

sarena.abdullah@usm.my (Abdullah, S.)

*Corresponding author

is an attempt to examine the complexity of these stereotypical demands on the identity of the Malaysian woman in the context of visual representation and reading of Sophia Kamal's art pieces. Sophia presented her solo exhibition, entitled "WUDU", in December 2015. This paper will examine how Sophia's art pieces can be read as expressing the complexity of the Malay Muslim postmodern female identity.

In art, postmodernism is best comprehended by characterising the principles of modernism of the 1860s to the 1950s that it replaced. Modern artists are very much driven by radical and groundbreaking approaches that are influenced by technology and Western domination. The arrival of Pop Art and Neo-Dada in postwar America denoted the beginning of a response against modernism, and came to be known as postmodernism, giving birth to newer forms of artistic expression such as Conceptual Art, Minimalism, Video Art, Performance Art and Installation Art. Each of these movements is marked by its own unique differences, yet all are associated with revealing a sense of humour, fragmentation, the breakdown of high and low cultural status, deconstructing the idea of authenticity and an emphasis on images.

Postmodernists have dismissed the idea that history and knowledge are the foundation of the interpretation of art; instead, interpretation is avowed to be the grasping of the unexpected and the provisional. The different definitions of art and its interpretation that are rejected

by postmodernists include the notions that artistic developments are goal-orientated, only males make for artistic genius and nonwhite races are second-rate. Apart from this, postmodernism also overturns the idea that the period of an art piece's creation conceives its possible meaning. In contrast, postmodernism makes the viewer the essential determiner of the original meaning of the art piece. In addition, postmodern art also emphasises on undermining creativity to the point of copyright encroachment, even in the utilisation of photos with next to zero modification from the original.

As such, very differing attitudes towards postmodernism have arisen in Muslim countries. As Akbar S. Ahmad points out, "[I]n spite of the flood of literature in the West—on art, architecture, literature—postmodernism has not made much impression on Muslims" (Ahmed, 2004, p. 28), an observation that can be true of postmodern art in Malaysia as well. Akbar's observation suggests that he believes that the Muslim perspective of postmodernism has been generally negative and destructive (Manzoor, 1990), interpreted as a symbol of Americanisation, nihilism, anarchy and devastation (Abu-Rabi, n. d.) that regards America as the Devil (Fischer & Abedi, 1990). As a result, Islam has been the core factor in rejecting any attempts at potential discourse of postmodernism in Malaysia. Mana Sikana made a similar observation, highlighting that only a limited number of Eastern societies are interested in exploring the issue of postmodernism and that there seems to be the feeling that one would be

regarded heroic for rejecting postmodernism (Sikana, 2004, p. 288).

Although the discussion of postmodernism is more apparent in Malaysian literature, such as in the works of Mana Sikana, with regard to the visual arts, the presence of postmodern ideas in Malaysian art have been noted, for instance, in the work of Malaysian art historian, Sarena Abdullah (Abdullah, 2006, 2008, 2010a, 2010b). Abdullah (2010b, p. 105) has clearly stated, "Postmodern art strategies have diversified over the years as works increasingly address, engage and comment on the contemporary human condition from social, racial, sexual, ethnic, political, gender, environmental, urban or rural standpoints." In the context of Malaysia, Abdullah (2010b) sees the "postmodern situation" as an indirect result of the cultural and social changes due to the drastic modernisation championed by the New Economic Policy (NEP). Abdullah's examination of postmodernity in Malaysian art practices connects these changes to the changes in Malay society. She pointed out:

As the main beneficiary of the NEP, [the Malay society] has had to undergo various social and cultural changes as it is pushed into modernization or development ideals. Such changes from tradition/feudalistic practices, Islam and modern ideals do not smoothly transfer from one phase to another, but they co-exist at times harmoniously but sometimes full of contradictions. Since the jump from a feudal society

towards a modern one has occurred in a very short time, it has resulted in very conflicting variety of values—ones enmeshed with the traditional, Islam and the modern, which produces a situation I will address as the *situasi percamoden* or 'postmodern situation'. Abdullah (2010a, p. 85)

Indeed, many scholars and researchers in the past have analysed and discussed the issue of Malaysian female identity as a whole in their works and studies. Unfortunately, our initial research has shown that many scholars have focused a lot more on earlier Malaysian artwork in exploring the roles of culture, beliefs, traditions and religion in the creation of Malaysian female identity. Scholars and critics seem to have overlooked the 21st-century artist in the definition of identity. Apart from this, it is clear that the way society perceives a woman's identity in today's context has changed, and this has played a crucial role in shaping postmodern Malaysian society. Previous studies, while examining how norms, culture and practices shaped the identity of the individual, did not address the question of how identity has changed among women artists in the postmodern world.

Talk of feminist art began in the late 1960s, during which questions regarding gender and the female gaze in art began to be debated worldwide. Many emerging women artists and critics created artwork not for the visual enjoyment of a particular audience but rather to question the political and social norms of society about what

the female outlook, gaze and appearance were all about mainly to put an end to the oppression of women. Nevertheless, in the 21st century, women artists no longer suffer from oppression by the male patriarchy as they used to, but rather, women now possess a voice for expressing themselves in vital tones due to changes in contemporary society. Many women now seek to discover who they really are in the social hierarchy. Are they equal to men? Is there such a thing as the freedom of expression? Are they still bound to and by traditional customs and belief systems? If society has really changed, why then are there still women who are being objectified as instruments of pleasure to men? What then does it really mean to be a woman? These are among the few questions raised. Although feminism has contributed to defining the identity of 21st century society in relation to how women's identity is perceived, future research can be done using different theories to analyse paintings by women artists. The present work analyses the notion of identity among 21st-century women as represented in Sophia Kamal's paintings. Future analyses can further analyse the depiction of identity in contemporary society.

This paper will discuss Sophia Kamal's works as a reflection of the complexity that arises from her multiple roles and identities as Malay, Muslim and Malaysian artist of the 21st century. Hasnul Jamal Saidon believes that all Malaysian artists must consider their position in their artistic endeavour. These include their position as artist, Malaysian artist, Malay Malaysian artist, young Malay

Malaysian artist, young and well-informed Malay Malaysian artist and young well-informed and highly networked 21st-century Malay Malaysian artist (Hashim, Abdullah, Noordin, & See, 2003, pp. 48–57). This paper is only a modest attempt at examining Sophia's work, not only from the three positions mentioned above but, most of all, from the fact that she is a woman. Sophia's work, in its full complexity, is certainly entitled to a postmodern reading.

THE POSTMODERN IDENTITY

It is essential that we first begin by discussing how the concept of "identity" itself has evolved over the centuries. Postmodern discourse has redefined the term *identity* by paying closer attention to the identity of the subject. In doing so, it questions the status of European traditional culture and practice, a perspective that contributed to the idea of the postmodern identity. Degele (1998, p.4) argued that in the past century, an individual's behaviour was "more or less socially determined," whereas at the present time, "it is based on choice." Degele also added that "it is not the apparent behaviour itself which has changed, but its meaning." In essence, postmodern identity is shaped by the individual based on his or her self-made choices and decisions as to his or her own identity.

By way of contrast, Malpas (2005, p. 4) suggested that postmodernism seeks to grasp "what escapes these process of definition and celebrates what resists or disrupts them." Postmodernism, in this way, contradicts the notion that philosophical

logic, reasoning and ideology should be the aim of thought. A much earlier view was put forward by Denzin (1991), who defined the term 'postmodernism' as "living the postmodern into experience, a set of emotional experiences defined by resentment, anger, alienation, anxiety, poverty, racism and sexism and the cultural logics of late capitalism." Denzin went on to redefine postmodernism as

a nostalgic, conservative longing for the past, coupled with an erasure of the boundaries between the past and the present; an intense preoccupation with the real and its representations; a pornography of the visible; the commodification of sexuality and desire; a consumer culture which objectifies a set of masculine cultural ideals; intense emotional experiences shaped by anxiety, fear, alienation, resentment, and detachment from other. (1991)

The question that arises is, what is postmodern identity? Coupled with postmodern times, the postmodern identity is very much affected by the rise of capitalism and globalisation. The postmodern identity simply means that a society no longer practises and develops an original sense of identity; instead, it is constrained by social requirements, etiquette and practices in everyday life. In contemporary society, a number of artists have continued to create images, objects and artwork, each of which demonstrates the capturing of the

representation of the distorted identity of a human being through a particular artwork, highlighting the implicit connection between human identity and the artwork. How the world sees you, how you see the world and how you see others are the principles that have helped artists to create a new dimension of meaning: the very same influences that have shaped their ideas, emotions and expressions.

In the context of Malaysia of the early 20th century, the definition of identity is related to racial identity as a direct result of immigration during British colonialisation. This resulted in the determination of identity either through national, cultural or religious segments or through a transcultural lens. In general, Malaysian identity simply revolves around the idea that a Malaysian is a citizen of Malaysia regardless of race, religion and ethnicity, among other classifications. As such, one's identity can and would be contested and redefined. This is further complicated by the upward mobility of class and class experience as well. Abdullah (2010a, p.100) introduced the term 'postmodern situation' or '*situasi pancamoden*' to explain the context of art pieces since the 1990s. The term 'postmodern situation' that she espoused does not refer to a sudden disconnection from modern Western society but rather signifies the state of the (Malay) middle class society, who are pulled towards Islam as their religious identity, Malayness as their cultural identity and modern or capitalist culture as their modern identity as a result of upward class mobility. As a whole, she

argued, these situations have reflect the fragmented Malay(sian) identity.

An earlier observation made by Ahmad (1992) also reflects such changing conditions. Ahmad suggested that modernity has led to a crisis of identity among Malaysian men and women in terms of speech, attire and diet. Such forms have also taken place in the evolvement of local contemporary artwork by contemporary artists. Ahmad (1992, p. 426) stated that being a Malay is “no longer determined by the appearance but more importantly in what they belief in (notion/idea) collectively.” Subsequently, the author argued that the influence of postmodern culture has somehow outshone the richness of traditional symbols, metaphors and practices in traditional Malay art.

We would like to highlight here a view by Degele (1998, p. 1) on how postmodern identity basically revolves around the idea that individuals are starting to “go beyond straight rationalisation.” This means that people are starting to become unpredictable, pluralised and disembodied. Although there is a strong connection between art and identity, the ways in which humans comprehend themselves or perceive their identity are constantly changing. Again, Degele (1998, p. 1) explained that the concept of postmodern identity can also be derived in terms of how identity now very much involves a combination of rationalisation and pluralisation in everyday life. For instance, the individual self is no longer able to draw boundaries between professional and the private life. Another example would be how an individual is

given the freedom and choice to practise his or her expression of sexuality or gender in private and public life. Likewise, Degele (1998, p. 1) suggested that postmodern identity revolves around an individual’s self-perceiving ideas and practices of liberation.

Therefore, it can be concluded that postmodern identity is a new form of social identity that has evolved due to the changes undergone by social characters from time to time. Degele (1998, p. 1) further stated how the term ‘identity’ “captures the dilemma of self, for it describes and seems to explain the contradictions of living in a society that appears to be in constant change.” Thus, the term ‘identity’ is not just limited to how an individual is viewed in his or her society according to race as seems to be the case today, but to the limitless view of individual self-portrayal and perception. In addition, identity encompasses the individual’s change in value and practices due to changes in society. One’s stream-of-life experiences and encounters are, in fact, the ultimate source of art. With this, the artist’s true identity is reflected as the artist embarks on a personal, intimate inner journey.

This paper will examine Sophia Kamal’s work with regard to her postmodern identity that can be read through a multilayered reading of her work, which reflects either directly or indirectly her own personal, intimate inner journey. Sophia uses pictures of different women taken by professional photographers, and, mainly using pastel colours as her medium coupled with lighting effects, creates a feminine outlook and highlights the fluidity of the water element

present in various scenarios. Such an approach, this paper will argue, could be read as her concerns about being a Malay, a Muslim, a woman and an educated middle-class Malaysian. Her approach forms an ironic message that the creation of artwork is impossible without the use of a subject and that identity lies in the appearance of the subject and not in reality. Through a thorough observation of Sophia's work, this paper will present a postmodern meaning of the art pieces examined, inviting viewers and readers to offer their own interpretation of the subject.

THE MULTILAYERED IDENTITY OF SOPHIA KAMAL'S WORK

Sophia Kamal was born in 1991 in Selangor, Malaysia, and she completed her Diploma in Fine Arts in UiTM Lendu, Malacca, in 2012 before working in several art galleries in Kuala Lumpur. She spent the next three years living and studying in London, where she obtained a Bachelor in Fine Arts from the University of East London in 2015. She is known for her work in fine art portraiture, examining her subjects through the lens of identity, exploitation, religion and feminist beauty through sensually expressed portraits that does not literally reflect the material and physical aspects of the subject but rather, through the use of vibrant colours and artistic impressions, projects as sense of the subject's multiple identities. This paper will discuss Sophia's multilayered identity based on the following connotations: Malay Muslim, woman and middle-class

Malaysian. We also point out that this reading of a three-layered identity may not be as clear cut as we have hypothesised.

In the study, *The Second Sex* by Beauvoir (1972), the author pointed out that female art had been assumingly deconstructed in reference to the 'other', saying "Humanity is male and that man defines woman not in herself but as relative to him; she is not regarded as an autonomous being. She is defined and differentiated with reference to man not be with reference to her, she is the incidental, the inessential—she is the Other" (p. 16). Beauvoir explained that in such a position, a woman should be given the freedom to explore and become who she wants to be. Therefore, the 'other' as presented in this paper is based on the study of the female gaze because a reading of the female gaze is highly subjective among women from different cultures, domestic positions, values and status.

Therefore, Sophia's soulful series in 2005, "WUDU", which was curated by Minut Init, can be posited as an example of the complexities of women's multiple identities in the midst of an incremental extremism and globalised economy. Her artwork pays close attention to how a Malay Muslim presumably adjusts and sublimes herself within the changing cultural landscape, especially in contemporary Malay society, both through the lens of Western perceptions, touches and views, as well as through the more intimate, passionate subject of personal and religious convictions. In her exhibition, the personas

in her portraits are seemingly painted close-up, showing only the face of the subject, while her hands are placed to show different directions. Her portraits show different women in different postures and angles, some of whom have their eyes tightly shut, while some stare intensely at the viewer. There is a form of fluidity present in Sophia's paintings that present the elements of water, fire and light.

The "WUDU" series confronts the modern reality of being a woman and a Malay in Malaysia through in sensual, vibrantly coloured portraiture. Each portrait contains a set of symbols associated with the representation of women: lips, eyes, hands, skin, exposed shoulders, water, the gaze and, in the case of a Malay Muslim, headscarf and hair. These symbols reflect not only the common depiction of women but also the intense struggle of the inner being of the woman. Sophia's artwork is defined by the use of colour and impression against a faint-coloured pastel background that appears full, but the image is not symmetrical. The fluidity that is present in her portraits implies a passionate, parapsychological interpretation of each subject's aura, each revealing and exposing the common struggle and modern dilemma faced by herself as a woman today.

Yuen (1992) posited the idea that women's art is related to the artist's consciousness of her world experiences, knowledge and struggles as a woman. She further stated that women's art provides "the knowledge of human experience" and has

become "an important issue in contemporary society." Women's consciousness, according to Yuen, (1992) refers to "the concern about her (the subject's) own life as woman." Yuen (1992) also suggested that such a context can be identified through artwork that produces the images, for instance, of "domestic women working, bright and evocative colours, self-portrait – introspective and biographical, mother and child-intimate relationship-compassion, surroundings with nature, greenery, and fauna and interest in fabric and decorative patterns."

In relation to this, Victoire (2007) explored the theme of the female gaze in various pieces of Western and Eastern artwork by men and women from different eras and producing different genre of artwork. Victoire (2007, p. 26) also examined the image of women in the eyes of a male, saying:

The roles of women were played out to prescriptive ideas of perfect mother, wife, sister and daughter who sacrifice themselves for the family, country or spouse. In any plot, where the female's aspirations were not sanctioned by society, heavy moralizing on the duties of the individual invariably followed, with the female encountering difficulties and ultimately, sorrow.

The portrayal of the female gaze, with reference to female identity in this paper, focusses on the tension faced by women in conceptualising their identity.

As seen in many of Sophia Kamal's paintings, artwork today emphasises on the woman as subject. Sophia's understanding of what it is to be a Malay Muslim woman is present in her artwork. Sophia, a modern woman who lives in two worlds, grapples to bring together traditional culture and modern culture. In trying to accommodate the pressures of a fast-paced, rapidly changing contemporary world, the postmodern Malaysian Muslim woman struggles as she finds herself bound and restricted by traditional beliefs, rituals, culture and practices. The conflict has led to confusion of identity, which now becomes the dilemma of the postmodern Malaysian Muslim woman. In focussing on the need for social mobility, Sophia, a woman herself, slowly and eventually loses her sense of self, which is an important aspect in human nature.

In one of Sophia Kamal's paintings, "But You Don't Know the Half of It", (2015) (Figure 1), she paints the subject wearing a black cloak with head gear that looks like a pair of bull's horn, while the index finger of one hand points to her mouth and the index finger of the other hand points to her temple. This painting does not seemingly represent more than just the image of a decent woman or *wanita solehah* – a socially accepted, respected and honoured representation of a pious Muslim woman. It can be suggested here that the painting communicates the subconscious reasoning the artist displays about her perception of what truly defines inner conscience and decency.

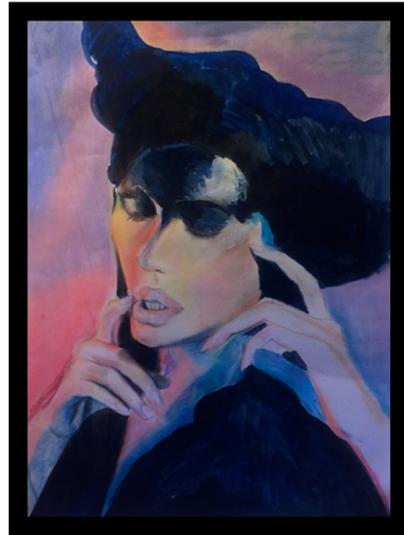


Figure 1. Sophia Kamal, "But You Don't Know the Half of It" (2015), mixed media on paper, 59 x 84 cm (Image Source: www.sophiakamal.com)

In Malaysia, once a Muslim woman is seen wearing a headscarf or a *tudung*, she is believed to be moving into the role of being a religious and pious woman. Growing up with this concept in mind, many Malaysian Muslim women who have been exposed to Western culture grapple with this expectation. The *tudung* is apparently intended to conceal and protect the woman's hair, neck and chest from becoming sexualised by the male gaze. In the context of the Qur'an, the "gaze" subsequently becomes a representation and indication of sin, lust, power, sexuality and shame, which is why, in the excerpt from the Qur'an below, it is seen that Islam implements strict rules on men and women

not only to protect Muslim women but also to help the people achieve purity:

Say to the believing men that they cast down their looks and guard their private parts; that is purer for them; surely Allah is Aware of what they do. (Qur'an 24:30)

And say to the believing women that they cast down their looks and guard their private parts and do not display their ornaments except what appears thereof, and let them wear their head-coverings over their bosoms, and not display their ornaments except to their husbands or their fathers, or the fathers of their husbands, or their sons, or the sons of their husbands, or their brothers, or their brothers' sons, or their sisters' sons, or their women . . . and let them not strike their feet so that what they hide of their ornaments may be known; and turn to Allah all of you, O believers! so that you may be successful. (Qur'an 24:31)

O Prophet! say to your wives and your daughters and the women of the believers that they let down upon them their over-garments; this will be more proper, that they may be known, and thus they will not be given trouble; and Allah is Forgiving, Merciful. (Qur'an 33:59)

Nevertheless, a question arises in this context: Does this apply to Sophia's quest, and the quest of other Muslim women like her, to strike an inner balance between purity and the modern way of life? In Sophia's "But You Don't Know the Half of It," one may infer that the artist is aware of the significance of the *hijab* or *tudung*; however, she seeks to express her own understanding of personal freedom and choice when it comes to dress codes without having to violate her inner purity and devotion to Islam. The black mark on the subject's forehead, which cuts through the centre of the face, may imply a psychic fragmentation. As the painting depicts a single subject, it may suggest that the artist grapples with internal contradictions that circle around the notion of tradition versus modernity, value versus culture, East versus West and beauty versus culture. Shirin (2015), a contemporary photographer who completed a series of black-and-white photographs entitled "Women of Allah," expresses that "every image, every woman's submissive gaze, suggests a far more complex and paradoxical reality behind the surface." Considering the title of the painting "But You Don't Know the Half of It," this painting certainly suggests that the artist is aware of her struggle and is not afraid to point to it. What then is the other "half"? Sophia grew up as a Muslim but lived as a postmodern Malaysian woman at the same time in a Western country for several years, where she was undoubtedly introduced to current trends and new

depictions of what beauty should be. Therefore, like her subject, she struggles to find a balance between both. Thus, she questions and speaks through her art that as much as she is a Muslim, there is the "other half" of her, the half that is trying to identify and search for who she really is. In Sophia Kamal's personal blog, "Behance" (2014), she clearly suggests that her artwork centres on the modern Malay dilemma, writing, "The beauty of women through features that are not sexual but still attractive and elegant without exploiting their rights. While at the same time include the dilemmas of religion in the modern era. How to survive religion in modern context."

In the same light, Sophia's "Lesson in Layers" (2015) (Figure 2) also implies a similar theme of her quest to discover her identity and reasoning behind Malay identity. The representation of the title is significant in decoding what is in the artist's mind. The noun "layers" indirectly implies a covering, a piece of material that covers, the *tudung*. What then does the title directly represent? Here, we suggest that it represents the lessons that the artist has to learn or is in the process of learning while discovering a full picture of who she really is in being Malay. As discussed above, the *tudung* is in fact an object used to protect, cover, conceal and directly project an image of purity among Muslim women. The artist is not trying to imply that she is against covering or "layering" herself; otherwise, she would not consider it a "lesson". She is exploring this major image of her religion with honesty and in a positive light, trying

to learn to adapt to the values of being a Muslim, but she is doing so as a thinking individual who seeks to enter into her religion with a sense of personal integrity and self-controlled individuality. Note how the face of the subject (Figure 2) is covered in different, dark-hued colours and only her passionate eyes are exposed.

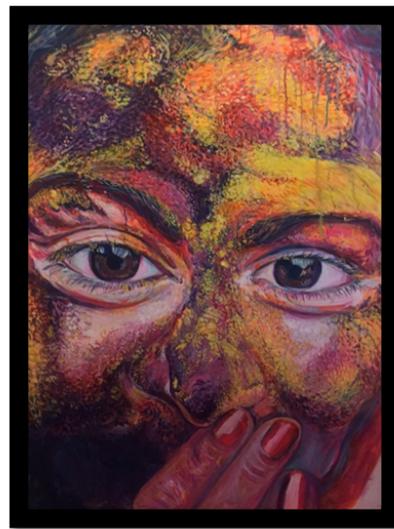


Figure 2. Sophia Kamal, "Lesson in Layers" (2015), acrylic on canvas, 77 x 102 cm (Image source: www.sophiakamal.com)

This gives the viewer a metaphorical depiction of how Muslim women in the Middle East dress: the headscarf covers the woman's entire head and forehead all the way down to her waist and a black veil or the *niqab* conceals her nose and mouth. Only her eyes are exposed. Apart from this, the subject in the painting is has her fingers over her mouth, covering it. This directly represents a 'force' placed upon her so that she is unable to speak in her own voice,

suggesting that her freedom of speech has been violated due to controlling forces, or that she herself chooses not to speak.

Perhaps this implies that the artist knows that in spite of her many questions, she will never arrive at a good answer because at the end of the day, she cannot have her own voice. It is important to also notice the water dripping down the subject's forehead, presumed to be sweat that might indirectly represent struggle. Here, it is suggested that the subject struggles and is frustrated at her inability to find direct answers to her questions and reasons for her imperfections. The sweat on her forehead may also represent a sense of hopelessness as the subject first has to grapple with a 'force', then finds that she is unable to express her true inner self. She thinks that she is trapped and will never be free. She becomes tired of striving and falls into a sense of hopelessness. What are the factors that are controlling her? The artist wants to speak but cannot because she is held back by a greater force. The artist is aware of the significance of maintaining her inner purity, yet she struggles to voice out her deep-seated questions regarding factors that she does not understand. Is she merely respecting and practising her religion out of religiosity, or is she doing it because it is her choice to practice it?

Shirin (2015), the photographer referred to earlier in this paper, stated that "every image, every woman's submissive gaze, suggests a far more complex and paradoxical

reality behind the surface." This means that underneath every woman's physical appearance, no matter how perfect she tries to look on the outside, lie deep imperfections, buried deep within, propelling her forward on a quest for 'true beauty'. It would be relevant here to first explore the concept of 'beauty' according to Islam. In the Qur'an, Muslims are reminded of Judgement Day, when one's deeds and acts of service will determine one's physical appearance: "On the day when (some) faces shall turn white and (some) faces shall turn black; then as to those whose faces turn black: Did you disbelieve after your believing? Taste therefore the chastisement because you disbelieved." (Qur'an 3:106)

Sophia Kamal's exhibition of her art pieces was entitled, "WUDU" (ablution), which is an Islamic purification ritual performed before formal prayers (*solat*) by Muslims to cleanse and wash their hands, mouth, nostrils, arms, head and feet using water. It is a required act of purification is deemed a holy practice. Indeed, the artist cleverly draws attention to this Islamic ritual through the use of water in her paintings that were exhibited in "WUDU". In "I Am a Dream Still Dreaming" (2015) (Figure 3) and "Milk and Honey" (2015) (Figure 4), for instance, this can be clearly seen. The presence of water in these portraits represents of the act of cleaning, cleansing and purification in the Islamic context as well as the artist's quest for true beauty. The paintings lead to the question: What

sort of beauty defines womanhood? The answer may be found in one of Sophia's blog entries:

These references (subjects) are people living in urban cities but despite that, their perception of beauty in women is changing. The female body, a perfect example of alluring beauty but does it always has to be exposed or can it be rendered from a different point? I try to answer this question by painting my subjects in a modest rendering of feminine beauty.

Both subjects of both paintings have dreamy eyes that stare back at the viewer, and both have water flowing down their faces. The light and the neon colours projected from the subjects' face downwards from their forehead reveal the imperfections of their skin. As Low (2015) suggested, Sophia's artwork is portrayed in a way where bright lights are used as an element to "represent water—shines on a woman's face, revealing her imperfections." Having revealed these imperfections, the artist then tries to find healing for her inner soul through the practice of *wudu*, which acts as an agent to purify, cleanse and set her apart from all her imperfect views of beauty.



Figure 3. Sophia Kamal "I Am a Dream Still Dreaming" (2015) Acrylic on Canvas, 77 x 102 cm (Image Source: www.sophiakamal.com)

In performing *wudu*, it is essential that water must touch the entire surface of the skin, so any form of makeup will tarnish the act. In Sophia's paintings, it is obvious that the subjects have traces of makeup on. Makeup acts as a concealer that hides one's imperfections. Could this be the artist's struggle in finding a key balance between religion and the modern statement of beauty? She seeks to enhance her beauty as a woman, yet she has to remove all her concealing agents, revealing all her imperfections and flaws in order to achieve a state of spiritual, innate peace. The dominant

features of the hands, the head and water in both paintings evidently suggest that the artist is trying to find an answer and also a solution to what beauty is in spite of Western influence, as she herself has been exposed to that has affected the values and cultural practices of the Malay Muslim woman. While she struggles to define what beauty is, she falls back on her religion, which, through the practice of wudu, for instance, gives her peace and healing.

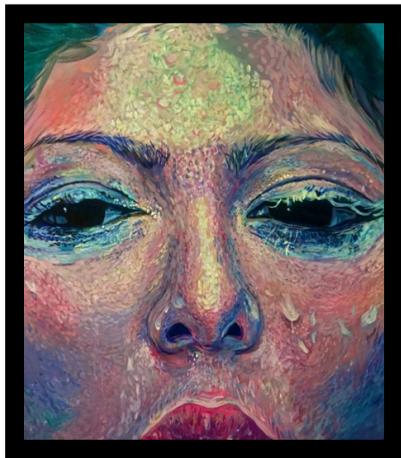


Figure 4. Sophia Kamal "Milk and Honey" (2015) Acrylic on Canvas, 61 x 77 cm (Image Source: www.sophiakamal.com)

CONCLUSION

While there are still many questions and thoughts left unanswered about the role of women in this 21st century, one young Malay woman artist, Sophia Kamal, has been exploring the multiple roles and the multi-layered identity of the modern Malay Malaysian woman, and in doing so, is contributing towards shaping the identity of

Muslim women in modern Malaysia. Most of Sophia Kamal's subjects in her series of paintings featured in her solo exhibition, "WUDU", are painted with references to water and the female gaze and a strong focus on the face, head and hands, all of which are features that commonly define a woman. Despite the pursuit of beauty among 21st-century Malaysian women, character flaws cannot be hidden, and the woman would need to fall back on inner awareness, understanding and acceptance of who she is in order to achieve inner healing and to find that space within that is rooted in inner peace. Sophia's paintings, "But You Don't Know the Half of It", "Lessons in Layers", "I Am a Dream Still Dreaming" and "Milk and Honey" not only simply show a physical form of beauty; they also expose the heart and quest of a woman in search of her identity.

The roles and identity of women has been an ongoing discussion and are featured in Sophia Kamal's artwork. The implication that the artist has not found a new identity yet is in the fact that the representations in her paintings suggest that she falls back on who she has always been, a Malay, Muslim and Malaysian artist. The artist knows very well that she cannot change it and this becomes a possibility in representing women in the 21st century. A woman's body is usually paraded as an object of male desire and lust in films and advertisements; nevertheless, Sophia has successfully used the subjects in her paintings to "gaze back" as a means of setting the female body free of this misconception. Her paintings suggest

that a woman is truly beautiful when she possesses inner peace that is achieved through understanding her body and her spirituality.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The authors would like to thank Universiti Sains Malaysia (USM) and USM Short Term Grant (304/PSENI/6312126) for funding to present this paper at MICOLLAC 2016 (9th Malaysia International Conference on Languages, Literatures and Cultures), organised by Universiti Putra Malaysia from August 16-18, 2016.

REFERENCES

- Abdullah, S. (2006, June). Positioning Malaysia's postmodernism. *SentAp!*, 3, 6–8.
- Abdullah, S. (2008). Malaysian postmodern art and its strategies. In S. Lee & H. Chan (Eds.), *New Asian imaginations* (pp. 215–226). Singapore: Nanyang Academy of Fine Arts.
- Abdullah, S. (2010a). *Postmodernism in Malaysian art* (Unpublished doctoral thesis), The University of Sydney, Australia.
- Abdullah, S. (2010b). The early postmodern artistic strategies in Malaysian art. *SentAp!*, 7, 27–33.
- Abu-Rabi, I. M. (1990). Beyond the postmodern mind. *The American Journal of Islamic Social Sciences*, 7(2), 235–256.
- Ahmad, I. A. (1992). *Signs in the heavens: A Muslim astronomer's perspective on religion and science*. Beltsville, MD: Writers Inc.
- Ahmed, A. S. (2004). *Postmodernism and Islam: Predicament and promise* (revised.). London and New York: Routledge.
- Beauvoir, S. (1972). *The second sex*. Harmondsworth: Penguin.
- Degele, N. (1998). Postmodern (ized) identities. *Acessado em*, 5(2), 1–15. doi:10.1.1.382.6919
- Denzin, N. K. (1991). *Images of postmodern society*. London: SAGE Publications.
- Fischer, M. M. J., & Abedi, M. (1990). *Debating Muslims: Cultural dialogues in postmodernity and tradition*. Madison: University of Wisconsin Press.
- Hashim, H., Abdullah, R., Noordin, S., & See, T. (2003). Prelude 2000 – Epilogue for the 20th Century. In H. J. Saidon (Ed.), *Wahana* (pp. 48–57). Kuala Lumpur: Balai Seni Lukis Negara.
- Kamal, S. (2014, July 9). *Behance*. Retrieved from <http://www.behance.net/sophiakamal>
- Malpas, S. (2005). *The postmodern*. New York: Routledge.
- Manzoor, P. (1990). Politics without truth, metaphysics or epistemology: Postmodernism de (con)structed for the Muslim believer. [Review of the book *Postmodernism and Islam: Predicament and promise*, by A. S. Ahmed]. *Muslim World*, 10(4), 1–51.
- Shirin, N. (2015). *Artist's statement*. Retrieved from <http://signsjournal.org/shirin-neshat/>
- Sikana, M. (2004). Pascamodenisme dan globalisme: Fikrah Islamiyyah berasaskan paradigme Hassan Hanafi [Postmodernism and Globalism: Paradigms of Islamic Ideologies Based on Hassan Hanafi]. In M. A. O. Din (Ed.), *Sastera Islam citra nurani ummah* [The Inner Community Image of Islamic Literature]. (pp. 288–304). Kuala Lumpur: Penerbit UKM.
- Victoire, S. (2007) *Feminism and art: Through the looking glass*. Australia: James Cook University.
- Yuen, C. L. (1992). *Women by women artists*. Retrieved from http://www.art-her.com/women_by_women_artistsycl%20essay.htm





The Perspective of Creative Practitioners on the Use of Social Media Among Creative Arts Students

Shanthi Balraj Baboo* and Lim Jing Yi

School of Arts, Universiti Sains Malaysia, 11800 USM, Pulau Pinang, Malaysia

ABSTRACT

Constant development of new media technology has exposed young people to a vast range of creative opportunities. The emergence of social media reduces the barriers in getting in touch not only among individuals and society at large, but also within industry. For creative arts students especially, social media permit them to communicate directly with and learn from industry practitioners, an activity common only to this era. The role of social media in fostering creative learning, giving opportunities for exposure and encouraging positive participation among creative students on social media is also seen as a catalyst for uplifting students' employability. This paper offers views of creative practitioners on the use of social media among creative arts students. Data for this study were collected through in-depth interview sessions with five creative industry practitioners. While the practitioners thought that social media were a good platform for creative learning, sharing and networking, they also expressed their concerns about the skills and attitude of creative arts students for enhancing creative productivity. The paper argues that creative arts students need to fully utilise the features available in social media, leading to better opportunities amid uncertainties surrounding employability.

Keywords: Attitude, creative arts students, creative practitioners, skills, social media

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received: 03 April 2017

Accepted: 30 November 2017

E-mail addresses:

shanti@usm.my (Shanthi Balraj Baboo)

ljingy@yahoo.com (Lim Jing Yi)

*Corresponding author

INTRODUCTION

Young Malaysians are today actively involved in a vast range of online activities. UNICEF Malaysia (2014) reported that children and young people aged 13 to 24 years old make up nearly half of the Facebook users in Malaysia; 20-to-24-year-old Malaysians make up the biggest

proportion of Internet users in the country, while social networking makes up approximately one third of their PC screen time. Baruah (2012) stated, “with the world in the midst of a social media revolution, it is more than obvious that social media like Facebook, Twitter, Myspace, Skype etc. are used extensively for the purpose of communication.” On social media, young people are consuming, producing, sharing and remixing content and information they find (Colin, Rahilly, Richardson, & Third, 2011). Apart from young people, the business world, the creative arts and other fields have also embraced social media as new tools for this technology-driven era (Staines & Lauchs, 2013). The emergence of social media reduces the barriers of getting in touch not only among individuals and society at large, but also within industry.

Access to the Internet and to social media offers children and young people many opportunities for nurturing and establishing existing and new friendships, for exploring their identity, for entertainment and for education and learning (UNICEF Malaysia, 2014). Constant development of new media technology has also exposed young people to a vast range of creative opportunities for sharing videos, photos and other creative outcomes. The findings of MTM London report on digital audiences (2010) showed that interaction with arts and cultural content in a digital environment can be classified into five main categories: access, learn, experience, share and create. In addition, Jacobs (2009, p. 2) argued that social

media sites also allow creative industry recruiters to connect to a broad array of talented and capable candidates. Therefore, social media can also be an effective tool for Malaysian creative arts students to connect with creative sectors for learning and employment opportunities. Although the development of online information and communication technology has brought many changes to life, it has also brought challenges (Telecentre Europe, 2014). For that reason, the ability of young people to use technology and their competency should not be neglected. The amount of research available on topics like usage of social media, pros and cons of social media and social media for learning is proliferating. However, there is little information available that looks at the use of social media for creative arts learning. This paper offers the insight of creative practitioners as part of a bigger study that delves into the use of social media use among creative arts students. Selected findings on communication and collaboration, information management, learning and problem solving, as well as meaningful participation on social media, specifically on creative arts learning, is presented.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The use of social media by students has been the subject of much discussion in academia. Baruah (2012) conducted a study looking at the potential of social media as a tool of communication and building connections with people all around the world. Her

findings showed that social media allowed sharing of ideas, activities and events information among individual networks that shared the same interest. Social network is increasingly used by teachers and learners as an effective tool for communication and time management. It is now a tool that assists teaching and learning outside the classroom setting. Baruah argued that social media is also a cost-effective tool that helps in information sharing, bridges communication gaps, allows online collaboration and builds social authority. On the other hand, if users do not use social media wisely, it will also lead to intrusion of privacy, breakdown of family ties as well as reduction in work productivity.

Tenku Shariman, Razak and Mohd Noor (2012) analysed the digital literacy competency of students in three Malaysian public universities. They argued that digital literacy competency of students depended on several factors. One of the factors that prohibited the students from reading, responding and understanding digital information in a critical way was lack of proficiency in the English language. The findings also indicated that the majority of the youths had a short attention span and visually stimulating content played an important role in maintaining or catching their attention. The findings of the study also indicated that students always accessed foreign digital content sites to obtain information related to their interest or hobbies due to the constraint of getting local content that would be more relevant to their daily life. In addition, the researchers

also argued that learning content should be present in an interesting and stimulating way to increase students' engagement.

Pearce and Learmonth (2013) identified Pinterest as a useful resource for learning and increasing understanding. Facebook, Whatsapp and other social media are also being used along with Pinterest for sharing. Research findings show that sharing across multiple social media sites and networks was one of the learning strategies among students. Pearce et al. (2013) argued that students need to share their work in the class apart from searching for resources on social network sites for critical thinking skill development. They added that social media and mobile phones permit learning in a variety of settings and not limited to the classroom setting only. Students are also learning through social media by using laptops and desktop computers. Social media allows students to learn at any time and to share resources among their friends and family.

As social media are now widely used among students, Al-Rahmi and Othman (2013) argued that social media were a tool that could bring improvement to students' academic performance through interaction between teachers and students as well as through interaction among students. They added that collaborative learning with peers on social media had assisted in developing the students' study skills. However, time management was one of the challenges in using social media for the improvement of academic performance.

Research by Colin et al. (2011) analysed the benefits of social media. Their research showed that there were a number of significant benefits of social media such as delivering educational outcomes, facilitating supportive relationships, helping in identity formation and promoting a sense of belonging and self-esteem. Their findings also indicated that social media can support the development of media literacy by providing deeper understanding of creative production content.

A summary of the literature review revealed that digital competency in managing social media is critical in learning and in participating in the 21st-century creative industry. Much research centred on digital competency but did not address the creative arts students' engagement in social media in enhancing imagination, inspiration and resourcefulness in a productive manner.

The term digital competency now includes many sets of specific skills and competencies needed for searching, finding, evaluating and handling information in a computerised form (Shopova, 2014). According to Ilomäki, Paavola and Lakkala (2016), "the term skills is nowadays often replaced by the term competencies, reflecting the need for a wider and more profound scope for issues related to skills; it is more than just knowledge and skills."

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The model offered by Ala-Mutka (2011) is important and instructive to the present study as it centres on the aspects and elements of digital competence. Ala-Mutka,

who developed this model, presents three primary areas addressed by her model, which concentrates on the aspects and elements essential for fruitful participation in the current and future digital environments. The three primary areas of the model are: (i) instrumental skills and knowledge, (ii) advanced skills and knowledge, and (iii) attitudes (see Figure 1).

This paper is interested in the section on advanced skills and knowledge as deliberated by Ala-Mutka. In this case, the views of practitioners are examined to give an outlook of students' digital competence, specifically in relation to their creative development in their student years.

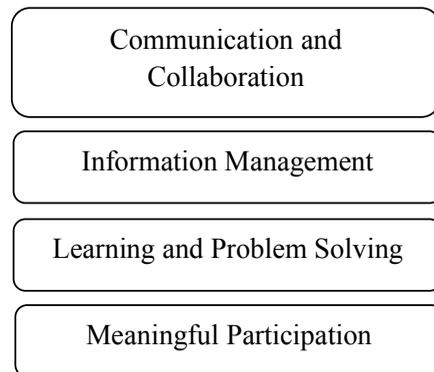


Figure 1. Digital competence conceptual framework: Advanced skills and knowledge (Ala-Mutka, 2011)

This study draws insights from the above components of the digital competence framework. Only *selected findings of a bigger study are offered in this paper.*

METHOD

This paper looks at the views of creative industry practitioners of students' social

media use with a focus on communication and collaboration, information management, learning and problem solving and meaningful participation. This paper reports the insights of practitioners in the northern region of Malaysia. Data collection was carried out between August 2014 and March 2015. The data of this study were collected through semi-structured discussion sessions with five practitioners. These practitioners are highly respected individuals in the industry interested in the growth of creative activity, particularly among students in institutions of higher learning. Interviews were held with all the five practitioners from October 2014 to March 2015. Each interview session lasted approximately 2 h. The sessions were recorded with permission from the practitioners involved in the present study.

A semi-structured questioning format was used to focus on the following themes:

1. Interaction between practitioners and students on social media with regard to creative activities
2. Receiving and sharing information opportunities within the creative industry and students related to creative projects (industry engagement related to software, skills, events, products etc.).
3. Use of social media in helping students to learn and solve problems that are related to creative projects
4. Practitioners' views on students' participation in the use of social media for creative and professional development

Brief Description of Creative Practitioners

Practitioner A is a manager of marketing and communication in an international corporation in Penang. She has 10 years' experience in marketing and events management. She also teaches in colleges.

Practitioner B is a global marketing and branding communications expert with over 25 years of experience. She is the founder and CEO of a well-known production house. The production house produces creative works for many companies and organisations in Malaysia.

Practitioner C is a businessman and also a founder and director of an events company. The events company is best known for running events and festivals that showcase world class performances, installations and collaboration from international and local artistes.

Practitioner D is the Programme Manager for an NGO that is involved in community-based arts and heritage education programmes. She is also a coordinator who actively participates in publicity, communicating productions, exhibitions and performances in community settings.

Practitioner E is Senior Manager of a graphic department in a leading print organisation. He is responsible for creative artwork development in areas like merchandising, press, advertising and production and has more than 34 years of experience.

Findings

As noted earlier, selected findings on the practitioners' perspective with regard to the students' advanced skills and knowledge are presented here thematically.

Communication and Collaboration

In general, the majority of the creative practitioners agreed that social media are a powerful tool for communication and network development. They agreed that while there was interaction between students and creative practitioners, valuable interaction between them on the social media was minimal. The industry practitioners interviewed observed that students did not take the initiative to communicate and exchange ideas with them through social media. Their comments were as follows:

Sometimes, myself and my staff are invited to give talks and having some sharing sessions with the students, we gave them our email, contact number and so on, but we never receive any questions or sharing requests from them. (Practitioner C)

We don't mind if they would like to contribute their views. But so far, none. (Practitioner E)

It was further noted that students only started communicating with the practitioners after they got to know them during internship. The students did not attempt to communicate with creative artistes and practitioners even

if they were inspired by their work. The practitioners suggested that communication was important and the students could use social media to follow the works of creative persons.

The practitioners added that there were also students who liked to have practitioners and organisations contribute to their course projects. However, very few students used social media to connect with practitioners to find out about job scope and the working environment. Practitioner A stated, "Some are former students, some are friends of friends, people whom I met in the previous road shows and events... normally they will ask me about my job"

The practitioners claimed that students showed little interest in learning about problem solving and addressing new challenges even though social media gives them the chance to do so. According to the practitioners, the students engaged fruitfully with the practitioners during sharing sessions organised by learning institutions. The practitioners added that having the right attitude towards learning and effective communication skills was important when students used social media.

The social media is actually a very powerful and convenient tool for them to get in touch with those who are

working and having a lot of experiences in the industry. But some students never even try to get connected with us. None of them even come and ask if they can learn from us. (Practitioner B)

All of the practitioners pointed out that they welcomed ideas, contribution and would love to collaborate with students. However, student response was extremely low. Consequently, internship was the only time when they could share their knowledge and show guidance to students. According to Practitioner B, “We would love to take them in but unfortunately, majority of them are not interested because their interest is elsewhere,” while Practitioner E said, “All of them come under internship and none of them even ask or take the initiative to extend, to stay longer.”

In terms of collaboration and guidance, the practitioners felt that the majority of students did not appreciate the opportunity offered to them. Practitioners posted items about events and future projects on their social media page; however, students, they claimed hardly showed interest in contributing or being a part of their projects. One of the practitioners stated that assignment overload could be one of the obstacles that impeded students from getting involved in collaboration projects with creative agencies. “Students rarely come to us to give suggestions, views and so on . . .,” said Practitioner D.

Practitioner E added that students had “no time, seriously no time. You look at their schedule and their assignments; they spent day and night for all these.” Interestingly, there were some practitioners who had good experiences working with creative students through the social media. Practitioner D said, “I told her that I saw her work through my friend’s Facebook. After that, we worked together and she helped us to shoot some photos in a community area . . . she was very excited. After this, we became friends and we shared creative information”

The practitioners felt that two-way communication was important for maintaining communication on social media. Students were encouraged to share creative information and not just get information from other social media users. The practitioners also felt that institutions should encourage and connect the students with the industry through school projects and activities.

We prefer two-way interactions, we shared and you share with us also. Even if they are students, they should also share information like other organisations’ events, which artist or photographer will be doing a showcase and so on. If you don’t share, then why should people follow your page (Practitioner D)

Information Management

While the practitioners pointed out that the emergence of the Internet gives no reason for the students to be less informative and resourceful, the findings showed that they themselves hardly shared creative information on their own social media page. Most of the practitioners shared information and resources with students only when the students were doing internship with them or when the practitioners were invited to contribute in activities organised by institutions. Two of the practitioners explained the reason for this.

Okay... normally if it is on the organization basis, we don't share due to competitive reasons. But if they are doing intern with us, then we will share. Or personally I will share with some of them. Not in the public. But personally, yes we do. (Practitioner A)

Yes, if they need to know who to contact for this and that topic or coverage of issues, we don't mind to share if we have those information. But not on our page, because it is not convenient to disclose information especially the contact details of another person. (Practitioner D)

In addition, some practitioners stated that students should also remember the importance of conventional printed resources such as books and magazines as the information on printed resources was

more reliable compared to information found on the Internet. Practitioners found students were not pro-active in looking for information and resources through other platforms; they relied too much on the Internet for information. Practitioner B stated, "Nowadays information and resources are everywhere. . . . But the students have forgotten also the importance of traditional printed material. Creative students have to know that the printed material especially books will always have lots of useful information and are more reliable compared to the information and resources on social media."

The practitioners thought that being observant and active in activities was also a way for creative students to get references and resources. Besides this, the right connections on social media could also be a helpful resource for getting information. Practitioner D advised, "Try, really try hard to get connected with them (organizations) so that they will be able to assist you one day. Get information and learn from them, if they are willing to share information and resources that will be even better than searching online."

As the majority of students rely on information from the Internet, the practitioners thought that skills in verifying reliability of information needed to be enhanced. The practitioners offered suggestions to solve this problem. They suggested that students should connect with the experts and verify the information with them. Secondly, students should make a

comparison between different websites and thirdly, check if there was any evidence to support statements made on the Internet.

I guess the students are not able to judge . . . check their resources, see if there is any referencing have been done. Compare the information and data. You have to compare the data that you got from different websites. If they give you like almost the same information, then that is fine. If there is no support for the argument, then you better don't use it. (Practitioner A)

. . . if you know who are the players for certain thing, then you know who to ask to verify the information found on the Internet and social media. If you have connections, then you can ask them directly. (Practitioner D)

The practitioners also felt that some students were over-confident, thinking they were better than the others involved in a project. The students did not see the need of getting new information as well as learning continuously from others. Seeing that there were students who claimed that they faced difficulty in connecting with the industry, the practitioners recommended that students try harder and look for alternative ways to get in touch with industry players. Some of the practitioners stated that their work schedule was sometimes quite tight and they might not be on social media all the time; however, they would appreciate it if students could approach them in a formal way such as

by making an appointment for an interview, writing them an email, raising their concerns in a question-and-answer session during events. Practitioner A mentioned:

Last time, we received a request from a student who wanted to interview our 'Rock star' who is coming to perform. But we can't because we have press conference and all the media will be interviewing her, so we can't find a time for this student. But you know what this student did? She came on the actual day, she got the ticket and she approached the manager on the spot. . . . This is how a good student works, they put in effort, they think of alternative solutions and so on. . . . So I feel that if there is a way, there is always a way. You should not say that people are not giving you a chance, you just have to try harder.

In order to acquire additional knowledge, the practitioners felt that students should also make use of the social media to connect with academics and students from other institutions. The practitioners also stated that they did not come across any cases where students were connected with stakeholders through the social media for information. Practitioner D stated that it was not fair to blame only the students as she felt that stakeholders were also not making the effort to connect with and provide information to students.

Nevertheless, all of the practitioners mentioned that the students did not filter, analyse and show critical thinking in managing information they found on social media. Lack of experience, exposure and age were three causes of this problem. The

practitioners claimed that critical thinking skills could be improved only if the students could work together or engage themselves with people other than their own circle of friends and events.

Nowadays, some students do not even have the basic EQ therefore, they are also not able to filter and show critical thinking on the information found. (Practitioner B)

They have to go out and look for knowledge, seek for knowledge. They can only think critically if they engage, do collaboration, talk to people . . . if you are only on your own, how could you even think or compare? (Practitioner C)

Learning and Problem Solving

Practitioners believed that everything can happen on social media; however, the students' attitude would decide if they could benefit from using it. The practitioners had different views on students' use of social media to learn and seek advice and solutions from them.

Whoever did their intern with us, did contact us. We did help and give them some suggestions . . . there are so many options on the internet and social media itself for problem solving. They can contact friends and people like us, they can browse through the Q&A, they can surf the tutorials and so on. (Practitioner E)

They can do research and get information from the Internet, from the social media. They can publicize their event there. . . . I think it is important for everyone to know how to master the tool because it is helpful. (Practitioner C)

There were cases where practitioners gave feedback and comments on students' projects through social media. While most of the practitioners considered social media to be a helpful and effective tool to learn and solve problems for students, they highlighted the importance of seeking help in a proper manner.

I help people who are well prepared before they come to me for further questions. . . . They need to request for information through proper channels. It will be good if they can go through the college, get the official letter, and it will also be good if they know someone . . . they should ask if that person could help them to make an appointment . . . providing the information of how long they need for the interview. (Practitioner A)

Some of the practitioners felt that many students did not utilise the use of social media as students hardly contacted them for learning and to propose project activities. While the practitioners were ready to help the students, they also emphasised that students should first do their own reading and research; preparation would help practitioners to guide the students better.

There are those people who are not even from the creative field but will put in more effort in doing research and study, so why can't the creative students do so? They can come to us asking for advice and extra information but first of all, you have to know your own issues or topics well first. (Practitioner A)

Meaningful Participation

While most of the students were heavy social media users, the practitioners pointed out that most of their activities on social media were not creativity-related. Practitioner A asserted that even though there were students who posted their work on social media, they were not doing so for comments and feedback to their artwork development. The students posted their work merely for their own satisfaction and for getting more 'likes' from other users. She commented:

I see most of them doing things which are not related to what they learn especially on creative development and learning. Yes, they are active, but not making use of the social media to achieve something positive out of it.

I see very little on creative work. Most of their posts are about their personal life. You hardly see them posting up their work and trying to get comments. (Practitioner D)

However, the practitioners found that there were indeed some students who

did meaningful work that they thought would benefit other users and society such as reposting information to help disadvantaged groups, participating in social media competitions that aimed to create awareness of sharing information from campaign pages. However, the practitioners were doubtful whether these actions benefitted society or other users as the students lacked skills in verifying the reliability of information. Practitioner B pointed out that students might be sharing false or misleading information as they did not analyse the information in a critical way. "Might be in terms of sharing some info to help unprivileged groups and so on but still, if they do not verify the source of information, how we know if they are helping or just sharing some false information" (Practitioner B). Practitioner E mentioned that the situation in the real world had reduced the chances for students to create artwork that could benefit other users. The way Malaysians perceive and understand the creative arts as well as the way the client restricts students from utilising their creativity are also obstacles.

The practitioners thought that social media was a very useful tool for self-promotion in the digital age. The level of students' digital competency in social media use might provide them a better chance for employment.

Some companies are looking for talents through the social media, as I know. But the thing is . . . it will also heavily depend on how they manage their social media. . . . For me, it is a bit risky if

they do not have skills. But if they can manage it well, then the social media will be very helpful to them. This is a privilege for the digital age.

However, lack of skills in organising and managing their involvement in social media will also lead to possible difficulties and risks in employability. The social media page of students has become one of the factors that will determine their employability. Practitioner A pointed out that the basic need for creative students to be employed was their ability to develop a presentable digital portfolio. According to Practitioner A, they always went through a candidate's social media page before recruitment. Apart from providing them a look at the student's portfolio, students' social media page would also provide them with some understanding of the candidate's personality and character before they made their final decision.

Their online portfolio is important for me. For most of the resumes I get, the first thing I do is I visit their Facebook. . . . Their resume might be very well written but when I see posts on Facebook, I will be able to know what kind of person you are. (Practitioner A)

Practitioner D noted the following:

I think they should put in some effort to make themselves look professional. You should separate your personal life and your work. . . . You don't randomly

throw your work everywhere. It is hard for your client to find then. You have to know what the customer wants, how you want to bring yourself to the public, you have to be well organised.

Overall, the practitioners felt that students' personality, participation and commitment to various activities and events were also important factors in employability. According to Practitioner D, "They should work with people out there, involve in more actual projects, gain experiences and connections." Practitioner E said, "But that will also strongly depends on who are they connected to. Positive exposure will stand a better chance."

DISCUSSION

Al-Mutka (2011) stated that to be competent in the digital age, the individual had to master three areas. One of these areas was advanced skills and knowledge. Social media offer a variety of avenues through which we can communicate with people (Baruah, 2012). However, the findings revealed that practitioners believed the connection between creative practitioners and creative arts students has to be improved. The practitioners asserted that students did not show much interest in learning from practitioners and there was not much interaction between both parties. Guidance from industrial practitioners happened most of the time through internship. Two-way communication was important to ensure social media users benefitted from their participation. Practitioners expected

creative arts students to use a wide variety of digital technology across disciplines and professions. In addition, they should have the appropriate attitude to enable them to use emerging technologies to enhance meaningful participation. While there were also cases where both creative practitioners and students achieved mutual benefit through communication and interaction on social media, creative practitioners viewed institutions of higher learning as a key resource for building linkage between students and the creative industry so that students would be able to expand their knowledge and experience.

The importance of managing information was an important point raised by the practitioners. They cautioned that even though the Internet was filled with a lot of information and resources, students should not fully rely only on the Internet and social media. They stressed that students' analytical skills for gauging information reliability needed to be improved. As not all of the industry practitioners were willing to share information and knowledge about their work on social media due to confidentiality issues, they suggested that students should participate in more events and activities to enhance knowledge through active participation, observation and collaboration.

While the majority of the practitioners were ready to help and assist the students, not all of them preferred to be contacted through social media. The findings showed that research, basic reading and understanding were needed before students approached industry practitioners for help. Lack of

communication skills would also restrict the use of social media as a platform for learning and seeking solutions from practitioners. Besides this, it was important to provide guidance for analysing and verifying information as students nowadays were relying heavily on information found on social media for learning purposes. Even though the majority of the practitioners agreed that social media were a good platform for learning, the attitude of students would still be a factor in achieving learning outcomes.

Students nowadays are actively participating in social media, yet their online participation does not really assist them in creative learning. Only a very small number of students post and share information that benefits society. However, lack of skills in analysing information might lead to false information sharing. Market demand and the way audiences analyse messages in creative artwork also restricts the students' creativity. The creative practitioners believed that connecting with the right person would increase the digital competency of students and allow them to be more competent in the industry. As potential employers were accessing students' social media page, the students needed to make their social media page look professional.

The findings of this study support those of Baruah (2012), Tenku Shariman et al. (2012) and Pearce et al. (2013). Social media can be effective in sharing information if students have acceptable knowledge and skills in the appropriate areas as identified by Al-Mutka (2011).

CONCLUSION

In the digital age, learning practices need to be revisited. This study offered a rather dim outlook of students' engagement in social media as a means of enhancing imagination and creativity based on the insight of creative practitioners. It is clear that while students do possess skills and knowledge, they are not digitally competent in advanced use of social media. They should enhance their skills in areas like (i) communication and collaboration, (ii) information management, (iii) learning and problem solving, and (iv) meaningful participation. These are essential skills for advanced workers in the 21st century. It is important that study programmes deliberate on the insight of practitioners to ensure that learning and the future of students are secure despite the rapid changes happening in the professional and public spheres today. Clearly, stakeholders from institutions of higher learning and concerned practitioners from industry and the community need to come together to build programmes that will consolidate the skills and knowledge of students and offer them opportunities to work productively.

REFERENCES

- Al-Rahmi, W. M., & Othman, M. S. (2013). The impact of social media use on academic performance among university students: A pilot study. *Journal of Information Systems Research and Innovation*, 4(2), 1–10.
- Ala-Mutka, K. (2011). *Mapping digital competence: Towards a conceptual understanding*. Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union.
- Baruah, T. D. (2012). Effectiveness of social media as a tool of communication and its potential for technology enabled connections: A micro-level study. *International Journal of Scientific and Research Publications*, 2(5), 1–10.
- Colin, P., Rahilly, K., Richardson, I., & Third, A. (2011). *The benefits of social networking services. A literature review*. Cooperative Research Centre for Young People, Technology and Wellbeing: Melbourne.
- Ilomäki, L., Paavola, S., & Lakkala, M. (2016). Digital competence – An emergent boundary concept for policy and educational research. *Education and Information Technologies*, 21(3), 655–679.
- Jacobs, P. (2009). What is social recruiting? *Human Resources Magazine*, 14(5), 2–3.
- London, M. T. M. (2010). *Digital audiences: Engagement with arts and culture online*. MTM London: Arts Council England. Retrieved from <http://creative-blueprint.co.uk/library/item/digital-audiences>
- Pearce, N., & Learmonth, D. (2013). Learning beyond the classroom: Evaluating the use of Pinterest in learning and teaching in an introductory anthropology class. *Journal of Interactive Media in Education*, 2013(2), 12. Retrieved from <http://jime.open.ac.uk/2013/12>
- Shariman, T. P. N. T., Razak, N. A., & Noor, N. F. M. (2012). Digital literacy competence for academic Needs: An analysis of Malaysian students in three universities. *Procedia – Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 69, 1489–1496.

- Shopova, T. (2014). Digital literacy of students and its improvement at the university. *Journal on Efficiency and Responsibility in Education and Science*, 7(2), 26–32.
- Staines, Z., & Lauchs, M. (2013). Students' engagement with Facebook in a university undergraduate policing unit. *Australasian Journal of Educational Technology*, 29(6), 792–805.
- Telecentre Europe. (2014). *Digital competence and employability*. Brussels: Belgium.
- UNICEF. (2014). *Exploring the digital landscape in Malaysia: Access and use of digital technologies by children and adolescents*. United Nations Children's Fund Malaysia. Retrieved from https://www.unicef.org/malaysia/UNICEF_Digital_Landscape_in_Malaysia-FINAL-lowres.pdf



Analysing the English Communication Needs of Service Technicians in the Pest Control Industry

Hee, S. C.* and Azlin Zaiti Zainal

Faculty of Languages and Linguistics, University of Malaya, 50603 UM, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

ABSTRACT

This paper analyses the English language needs of service technicians in the pest control industry. The paper aims to provide a detailed understanding of the communication requirements in the workplace in order to develop a language course appropriate for their needs. In the pest control industry, service technicians are known to be the first point of contact with the customers. The nature of their job involves servicing customers' premises either weekly, bi-weekly or monthly. This calls for interaction with customers, which requires the ability to perform communicative functions to address customer inquiries and handle their requests and complaints. This paper utilises a needs analysis questionnaire for data collection. The questionnaire was administered to 20 service technicians in the Klang Valley. The result indicates the service technicians are often involved in communication activities: introduction; describing services, processes and people; telephone communication; responding to complaints and; giving suggestions and providing advice that relates to pest control. The findings also reveal that the essential skills that pest control service technicians need for efficient job performance are listening and speaking skills; thus, any course to enhance English language proficiency among this group of service providers should centre on these two skills.

Keywords: Communication, curriculum design, needs analysis, pest control industry, service technician

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received: 03 April 2017

Accepted: 30 November 2017

E-mail addresses:

ansiehee@hotmail.com (Hee, S. C.)

azlinzainal@um.edu.my (Azlin Zaiti Zainal)

*Corresponding author

INTRODUCTION

The use of the English language is significantly important for workplace communication, especially for a business entity. The English language is used for business purposes (Riemer, 2002) such as

negotiating, presenting and conferencing as well as for daily operations among employees and between employees and employers (Warschauer, 2000). This is very true in Malaysia, where communication skills in the English language are recognised as fundamental and necessary skills in the workplace environment, given that the country is culturally and linguistically plural (Moslehifar & Ibrahim, 2012). English serves as a common language among Malay, Indian and Chinese citizens (among others). The frequency of usage however, varies among employees depending on their work type. The English language is especially utilised by professionals and white-collar executives e.g. doctors, engineers, lawyers and management staff (Kassim & Ali, 2010). This is because it is mainly used for spoken and written forms of communication. It is utilised for communicating with clients, superiors, peers and subordinates. In the pest control industry, the English language is also acknowledged as an important function of communication for service personnel although they may not be performing professional jobs as do doctors, lawyers, and engineers.

There is little in the extant literature regarding reasons that service technicians should communicate in English language. The main reason is the nature of their work. Their primary job function is to control and eliminate pests at customers' premises using tools, machines and chemicals. Because of this, the need for communicating in the English language seems to be less important. However, the customers think

otherwise. Service technicians mainly operate in the field, which means they are at customer's premises, which include homes, restaurants, shops, offices, factories and warehouses, among other environments. Service technicians are the first point of contact with customers, who often have many inquiries and requests. In addition, they may need to seek advice, give feedback or even make complaints when results are not favourable or when matters arise. Thus, service technicians would need to be ready to interact with customers and attend to their needs. Difficulty in speaking English is a major hindrance to customer care and pest control personnel. If they are not able to communicate with customers, they might have to forward queries to colleagues at the office to handle.

In their work, situations may arise when service technicians may not have understood customers' utterances because of their low level of proficiency. In other words, service technicians may find it hard to comprehend customers' speech due to their poor proficiency of the English language. Many times, prior to servicing, service technicians are required to advise customers on their safety and welfare. For example, before fogging is carried out, service technicians are required to advise customers to cover all perishable food, to place children in another room and to put away clothes so that during fogging, they will not be stained by the chemicals used, which can be harmful and is also unhygienic. With limited linguistic competence, in such situations, service technicians will only

be able to utter certain common words and will often resort to code switching, using Bahasa Malaysia instead, during interaction. Although service technicians may understand customers' utterances when they use terminology related to pest control and service, they will not be able to understand queries or statements worded differently and they would not be able to respond even in simple sentences due to poor command of the English language. Service technicians will need to interact with people from different industries such as food and beverage, hotels, logistics, chain convenience stores and supermarkets and hypermarkets, just to mention five, and therefore, will need to acquire a wider vocabulary. This paper aims to provide a detailed understanding of communication requirements for service technicians to develop a language course that would address their needs.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Studies have identified the English language as a communication tool that is an essential instrument for success in the workplace (Hynes & Bhatia, 1966; Krizan, Merrier, & Jones, 2002; Sarudin, Zainab, Zubairi, Tunku Ahmad, & Nordin, 2013). Advanced technology has made it possible for more efficient communication, in which the English language continues to play a leading role because it is widely used as the primary means of communication for delivering messages efficiently (Sarudin et al., 2013). This is evident as business leaders spend a significant amount of time communicating,

preparing and presenting reports, writing emails and sending messages that enable them to showcase their skills, and this will eventually land them higher salaries (Fisher, 1999; Krizan et al., 2002; Ober, 2001). The ability to communicate well in the English language can help employees in their professional growth and career advancement (Mehta & Mehta, 2010). Besides this, communicative competence in the English language will also assist them in performing the various tasks of their daily operations competently (Stivers, Campbell, & Hermanson, 2000). Managers especially, will find success slow in coming if they lack efficient communication skills (Wilson, 2005) and their command of English is weak. Managers with good communication skills in English are in demand now, and this demand will continue to rise in the future (Moslehifar & Ibrahim, 2012). Indeed, most job advertisements for management positions highlight proficiency in the English language as a requirement for selection (Moslehifar & Ibrahim, 2012).

In the context of job placement, Stevens (2005) found that employers preferred to hire employees with good communication skills. His finding reveals that candidates with low-proficiency English will face difficulty in getting employment because employers have certain expectations of candidates when it comes to English language proficiency. One of the reasons employers prefer employees with high-proficiency English is that such employers will be able to solve difficult tasks in the workplace (Blair & Jeanson, 1995). Apart from that, competency gives

an employer confidence in employees as the employer can rest assured that employees will be able to fulfil their job function. Therefore, communicating in the English language seems to play an important role in recruitment.

‘Language Needs’ for Specific People in the Industry

In Malaysia, formal training in English is given to students at primary, secondary and undergraduate levels. However, despite all this training, there seems to be a gap in workers’ ability to communicate well in English at the workplace (Smith, 2000). Employers have indeed noticed this gap and recognise that English language needs vary between employees in a workplace, thus additional training should be provided that is customised for the specific job (Kaewpet, 2009; Kassim & Ali, 2010).

The literature shows that in the workplace context, the most crucial communication skill is speaking (Kaewpet, 2009; Kassim & Ali, 2010). This is the main skill called for in meetings, discussions and events (Bhattacharyya, Nordin, & Salleh, 2009). Bhattacharyya et al. (2009) analysed the English language needs of the engineering sector and found that internship students were reporting that the most important factor for success was the ability to participate in meetings and team discussions. This internship experience suggests that good communication skills can lead to promotion and career enhancement. Similarly, Mohamed, Radzuan, Kassim and Ali (2014) found that professional engineers

need to equip themselves with appropriate communication skills that are applicable to their workplace needs. Their findings revealed that professional engineers are often highly involved in communicative events, such as teleconferencing, networking, demonstrating, giving instructions, presentations and engaging in discussion on work-related matters. Their data also revealed the most feedback a professional engineer should possess is convincing skill (Kassim & Ali, 2010). This is because professional engineers are regularly involved in discussions, especially when consultants are making presentations to clients, as these professional engineers can assist consultants in selling ideas to their clients. Kassim and Ali suggested that higher learning institutions should prepare and equip undergraduate engineers in this particular skill to an adequate level to function efficiently in their future workplace.

Sarjit and Hua (2006) investigated the need for the use of English in communication in Information Technology (IT). Sarjit and Hua studied IT graduates and found that the most important tasks of IT employees involved participation in telephone conversations, meetings and social interaction. Telephone conversations received a high rating among the graduates who were involved in the study as it is a quick way to provide troubleshooting or clarification services compared with face-to-face interaction. These findings were supported by Kassim and Ali (2010), who affirmed the need for English among IT

employees as English was used widely in interaction, presentations and interviewing.

Crosling and Ward (2002) studied workplace communication in the business sector as preparation for business graduates. They found that employees in the business environment regularly communicate internally within their own department. These employees frequently participate in meetings, discuss work-related issues and engage in networking. However, this does not fully apply to human resource officers. According to Moslehifar and Ibrahim (2012), feedback from the human resources development trainees and human resource officers stated that their work involved extensive internal and external communication. Human resources officers, for instance, are often needed to speak English fluently at company meetings and discussions and while making presentations and with the public as well as for recruitment (Kassim & Ali, 2010).

Another sector that relies heavily on communication in the English language is the hospitality industry (Chan, 1998). The hospitality industry covers a broad range of services for the public including accommodation, food and beverage, transportation and tourism, to mention only a few. These sub-sectors require employees to communicate in English as it caters for both domestic and foreign guests. Prachanant (2012) analysed the need for English language competency in the tourism industry in Thailand, and found that the speaking skill was the most important of the basic four language skills

(speaking, listening, reading and writing) for work purposes in this industry. In addition, the study found that tourism employees had difficulty comprehending the accent of foreigners, were poor in grammar, had limited vocabulary and often made inappropriate utterances. Tourism industry employees need to communicate well in the English language as they are often required to provide additional information, assistance and services. A study of English communication needs was conducted by Cornwall and Srilapung (2012) among Thai senior flight attendants; the study found that the flight attendants had difficulty in understanding passengers' accent, had limited and inappropriate vocabulary and constructed sentences that seemed to be impolite. Both authors emphasised that a senior flight attendant should have experience in handling passengers in a professional manner, including being polite when speaking. The study also suggested that emphasis on pronunciation skills, intonation and word phrases would enhance Thai senior flight attendants' communication skills.

Wide-Angled vs Narrow-Angled Approach

Needs analysis has long been established as a method and is widely used as a tool in the first stages of developing a language module, in this case for English for Specific Purposes (ESP) (Hyland, 2006). Because language is constantly evolving and being redefined, a language course can be facilitated using either the wide-angled or the narrow-angled

approach (Flowerdew, 2013). According to Flowerdew, the wide-angled approach refers to a language course that encompasses different sub-fields. For example, Business English, a wide course that comprises the teaching of business writing and business communication, can be used for marketing employees, finance employees and sales employees. Tourism English (Prachanant, 2012) is another example of the wide-angled approach because it covers frontliners, such as taxi drivers, front desk receptionists and theme park operators. The narrow-angled approach, however, narrows down the target audience to a specific profession e.g. English for Air-Traffic Controllers (Paramasivam, 2013), English for Front Liners in the Rail Industry (Shahrudin, Ali, & Rafik-Galea, 2013) or English for Airport Ground Staff (Cutting, 2013), and considers the present situation analysis (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). The present situation analysis helps to identify learners' 'lacks' and 'wants' in acquiring the language that would be useful for them in their workplace. In the context of this study, analysing the 'lacks' and 'wants' of service technicians in the pest control industry can contribute towards our current understanding of English for Occupational Purposes (EOP), a subfield of ESP.

Workplace Genre

Genre refers to a specific language used not only by individuals but also by a community of people, in this case the community of workers of a particular occupation (Koester, 2012). Workplace genre of language refers to language as it is given special attention

in a particular domain. For example, the genre of email communication involves a broad range of different occupational groups, such as customer service, sales, marketing and managers, and is viewed from a general perspective because the features of the language are recurrent (Koester, 2012). Some of the examples of workplace genre can be seen at the general level e.g. business meetings, presentations and negotiations. Other genre focus on a particular occupation e.g. air-traffic controllers (Paramasivam, 2013), rail industry frontliners (Shahrudin et al., 2013) and airport ground staff (Cutting, 2013); these are identified as specific because the language used is specifically designed for the focus occupation and does not cater for other occupational groups. Identifying the specific genre helps researchers in designing and developing a course, content and teaching materials that can be applied among learners for their occupational purposes.

Issues on Specificity

ESP (English for Specific Purposes) is known for its approach to how English is used in the workplace environment and refers to the techniques of gaining information using features of the language, with language practice for a particular group of people or industry. However, it now seems to be moving towards 'generic skills', applying language features across different industries and occupations. Hyland (2002) argued that specific features should go beyond general literacy and 'specificity'

should take note of the understanding of the appropriateness of language and features used for any particular occupation. It should involve literacy skills that are the most appropriate for learners to be used in their working environment. A good example of the specificity approach can be seen in the difference between English for Air-Traffic Controllers and Aviation English. In the former (Paramasivam, 2013), the language features and communication skills cater specifically for air-traffic controllers, while in the latter (Alderson, 2009; Emery, Roberts, Goodman, & Harrison, 2008), the specific language features and communications skills are ideal for pilots and air-traffic controllers. The specificity issues raised by Hyland (2002) may assist ELT (English Language Teaching) practitioners and researchers in acquiring insight into specific discourse features and discourse practice for a particular profession. In this study, the researchers were interested to investigate the issue of specificity in the context of language used by service technicians in the pest control industry.

In brief, studies have acknowledged the importance of communication skills in the workplace and ascertained that the need for English varies among different employees in the industry (Bhattacharyya et al., 2009; Kaewpet, 2009; Kassim & Ali, 2010). Although there are intensive studies on 'language needs' for employees in the workplace, in the Malaysian context, they are still minimal. The focus of research into English language needs in the Malaysian context is on workplace oral communication

needs of IT graduates (Kaur & Lee, 2006), English language needs of human resource staff (Kaur & Clarke, 2009), developing materials for speaking skills for air-traffic controllers (Paramasivam, 2013), frontline employees' use of English in the rail industry (Shahrudin et al., 2013) and interaction during job interviews to discover training needs (Teoh, Rachel, Fauziah, & Choo, 2012), among others. In the pest control industry, however, studies are limited and the need is not yet well understood. However, findings of studies on the needs of English among service technicians in this industry will have implications for other occupations and industries that involve field staff interaction with customers. Therefore, this paper will provide added value to 'language needs' in industry and may be used to assist in developing a course module specifically for the service technicians in the pest control industry. It will also assist in improving their communication skills besides encouraging confidence in speaking.

METHOD

Participants

The participants who were involved in this study were pest control service technicians. There were 20 service technicians from the same organisation located in the Klang Valley. Prior to data collection, the participants completed an English placement test in order to determine their proficiency level. This test was adapted from the placement test provided in *Business Result Intermediate Teacher's Book*, (Baade

& Duckworth, 2014). The placement test consisted of 120 multiple choice grammar questions that covered six levels, Level 1-6, as shown in Table 1.

Table 1
English placement test level

Questions	Level	Description	Category
1-20	1	Beginner	Low proficiency
21-40	2	Elementary	
41-60	3	Pre-Intermediate	Mid proficiency
61-80	4	Intermediate	
81-100	5	Upper-Intermediate	High proficiency
101-120	6	Advanced	

The participants were found to be in the low-proficiency level, scoring from 15 to 28. In a breakdown, five participants scored 18, seven scored 15, four scored 21, two scored 24 and two scored 28.

Apart from the grammar test, a short speaking test was conducted to gauge the participants' level of speaking and understanding. The questions administered during the speaking test were: "Tell me about yourself", "Do you need to speak English language to your customers?" and "How can the English language help in your work?". During the speaking test, it was found that most of the participants could not provide answers beyond the first question, and while they understood the question, they answered in the Malay language. An Human Resource officer was present during the speaking test and took note of the participants' difficulty in communicating in English. Upon seeing the results, the HR learning and development department

suggested an English language training programme was needed to improve their service technicians' communication skills.

The 20 participants were highly recommended by the learning and development department of the company for participation in the English language training programme. This is because the participants demonstrated good progress at work and a desire and motivation for promotion. Besides this, during the administration of the placement test, the participants expressed the need for communicating in English due to low-proficiency of the language. The participants seemed to have low confidence in uttering basic words and were found to have made little attempt to communicate with customers. As this would bring a negative impact on the organisation, it brought the employer's attention to focus on the communicative needs of the service technicians.

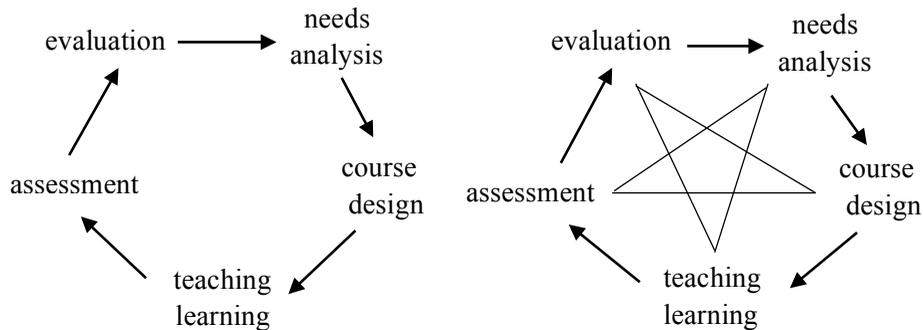


Figure 1. Linear vs. cyclical processes of needs analysis (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998, p. 121).

Figure 1 is adapted from Dudley-Evans and St John's framework (1998, p. 121) on needs analysis. The diagram shows how needs analysis is often continuous, giving feedback at various stages. The present study adopted this framework, focussing mainly on the needs analysis stage, in which the findings obtain will inform the next stages of the process: course design, teaching-learning, assessment and evaluation. In the needs analysis stage, the techniques included obtaining information from a particular profession of learners; feedback from organisations; on-the-job description, particularly about the specific language features used by service technicians; content for teaching and learning; and assessment and evaluation. By identifying learners' 'lacks' and 'wants', this stage enables course designers to produce a module that effectively answers the needs of the target group.

Instrument

This study utilised a needs analyses questionnaire to collect data. The

questionnaire was adopted from the *Business Result Intermediate Teacher's Book* (Baade & Duckworth, 2014) needs analysis questionnaires. The questionnaire was selected because it is appropriate for use for adult learning and training purposes. The questionnaire consists of three sections: Part A – Personal details from participants; Part B – Who the participants communicate with in the English Language; and Part C – The importance and need for use of the English Language (among service technicians in the pest control industry). The participants were required to complete all sections of the questionnaire. The questionnaire was distributed after the participants sat an English placement test and was collected on the same day. The questionnaire assisted in developing a short module of English language enhancement for the service technicians.

Because the proficiency level of the service technicians was low, the questionnaire used bilingual questions; the questions were given in the English language and the Malay language. This

was to enable participants to respond and reflect meaningfully on the questions. The participants were also allowed to ask questions to seek clarification during the administration of the survey.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Based on Section 1 of the questionnaire, which was on personal details, 18 respondents answered that they had completed secondary school at the level of the Sijil Pelajaran Malaysia (SPM), which is equivalent to the ‘O’ level in British-based international schools, one respondent had completed higher secondary school at the level of the Sijil Tinggi Pelajaran Malaysia (STPM), which is equivalent to the ‘A’ level and one participant had completed primary school at the level of Standard Six. In Malaysia, STPM students can immediately further their education to tertiary level, whereas SPM students must complete a Diploma programme before pursuing a degree programme. In this study, none of the

participants had obtained tertiary education. All 20 participants were male.

Section 2 revealed that seven respondents viewed speaking as the most important function of communication, while 13 emphasised that speaking and writing were equally important. This showed that service technicians perceived the need to write and speak in the English language as important for the performance of their tasks.

The Use of the English Language in Communicative Functions

Section 3 required participants to respond to what they believed was the importance of the English language in 17 areas that were applicable in their working environment. The results are given in Table 2. The degree of importance was based on a Likert scale of 1-4, with 1= It isn’t very important; 2 = It isn’t very important for my job, but could be interesting; 3 = It’s important and could be useful to practise, and; 4 = It’s very important for me and I must practise the use of this language in class.

Table 2
Summary of communicative functions

How important is it for you to be able to...	1 It isn't important	2 It could be interesting	3 It's important	4 It's very important
1. ... introduce yourself and describe what you do at work?	1	2	4	13
2. ... discuss the project you are working on?	10	2	4	4
3. ... explain how something works?	0	1	5	15
4. ... deal with customers?	0	0	3	17
5. ... welcome customers?	4	14	2	0
6. ... explain changes?	12	2	2	2
7. ... present and discuss plans?	8	4	6	2

Table 2 (continue)

How important is it for you to be able to...	1 It isn't important	2 It could be interesting	3 It's important	4 It's very important
8. ... deal with orders?	10	3	4	4
9. ... discuss your place of work?	11	4	2	3
10. ... discuss and make decisions?	2	0	3	15
11. ... give presentations?	12	4	2	2
12. ... solve problems?	0	2	2	16
13. ... describe processes and make appointments?	0	0	3	17
14. ... give feedback and set objectives	0	6	7	7
15. ... give reports	0	6	5	9
16. ... give suggestions?	0	0	0	20
17. ... provide advice?	0	0	0	20

Table 2 above shows the respondents' feedback on the communicative functions required in their working environment. The highest response received was on giving suggestions and providing advice. This is related to pest issues that occurred at the customer's place of service. Being the first point of contact, service technicians are often required to suggest types of service and provide advice regarding the do's and don'ts before, during and after service. For example, the 'Misting' service is for eliminating mosquitos and insects; it is meant for use indoors or in a closed-door environment, and no movement is allowed for two or three hours in the room after misting because of the chemicals sprayed into the air. In addition, all furniture should be covered to prevent staining. Therefore, when a customer enquires about 'Misting' service, service technicians must be able to advise them adequately, even if only with simple explanations.

The second highest response was for dealing with customers, describing processes, making appointments and solving problems. It is the job of a service technician to make and schedule appointments with customers, taking customers' complaints seriously and attempting to solve problems. 'Solving' problems in this manner refers to solving pest issues. For example, when the 'Rat Trap' service is provided, if there is no carcass found or there is no strong odour afterwards, the customer may not be satisfied. This problem could be aggravated if the customers' pets (e.g. dogs or cats) accidentally eat the bait or destroy the rat trap. In these situations, service technicians are required to identify the root of the problem and make attempts to resolve the issue in a face-to-face environment. Other responses in the questionnaire include the importance of introducing themselves, describing their work, explaining how something works, discussing concerns and

making decisions. These needs are related to internal and external communication (Moslehifar & Ibrahim, 2012).

Self-introduction is ideal for external communication with customers. Service technicians are required to introduce themselves and their company at the first point of contact with customers. Describing work, explaining how something works and discussing and making decisions are akin to internal communication. These functions are quite similar to the study of Moslehifar and Ibrahim (2012), who found that human resources employees often discuss projects, proposals, plans and designs but at a higher proficiency level. Besides interacting with customers, there is also a need to interact with superiors, subordinates and peers. The internal communication for this industry refers to within the company locally, regionally and internationally.

The least important functions reported by technicians in the questionnaire were: discussing current projects, explaining changes, dealing with orders and giving presentations. These functions are more applicable to senior service technicians and supervisors or those with a higher proficiency level of English. This is in line with Kassim and Ali's (2010) findings that Malaysian chemical engineers are highly involved in project discussion and presentations. These findings are further reinforced by Kaewpet (2009) on Thai civil engineers.

The Importance of Communication in the English Language

The study also found that the participants gave positive feedback on the importance of communication skills when interacting with customers.

Table 3
Summary on the importance of communication skills

How important are these communication skills?	1 It isn't important	2 It could be interesting	3 It's important	4 It's very important
1. Social and conversational English	0	3	5	12
2. Making telephone calls	0	4	6	10
3. Attending meetings	0	5	3	12
4. Giving and attending presentations	0	5	4	11
5. Writing emails	0	4	2	14

Table 3 demonstrates the summary of feedback received from service technicians on the importance of English language communication skills. Twelve respondents viewed conversing and socialising in the

English language and attending meetings as being crucial to job success. The need to communicate in the English language in these areas would be beneficial if the language were enhanced, especially

when attending meetings, during which participants are encouraged to express ideas and views that are applicable in their daily tasks. Comprehending the language is equally important so that the task given can be carried out efficiently.

Another set of communication skills considered important is making phone calls and giving and attending presentations. It is common for service technicians to make phone calls to customers, especially to make service appointments, reschedule appointments and communicate delay of service. This skill set is vital because it is done daily and the need to communicate in the English language rather than in the Malay language will have an impact on customers.

Next is giving and attending presentations. Although the results on communicative functions appear to show that giving and attending presentations is not important for their current job tasks, in terms of skills, 11 respondents agreed that giving and attending presentations is very important. Developing such skills is important for them in order for them to enhance their career. This skill requires active listening and the presentations could come in a form of introducing new services, change in machinery or chemicals and change and upgrading of documentation. The medium of communication in these instances is the English language. This skill is shown to be highly necessary for professional engineers (Mohamed et al., 2014) when working with consultants and clients and for human resource officers

(Moslehifar & Ibrahim, 2012). Presentation skills are usually required by professions that employ workers with mid-proficiency or high-proficiency level of English use rather than professions that employ workers with low-proficiency English. Service technicians in the pest control industry tend to find this particular skill 'lacking' (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987) in terms of their communicative needs but useful for their present situation. Therefore, for the low-proficiency group, lack of communicative competence affects work routine.

The other skill that the service technicians felt they needed was writing emails. The response received from the participants was positive, affirming email writing was a skill they considered important in their daily operations (Kaewpet, 2009). This finding is similar to that found for professional engineers (Kaewpet, 2009) and tourism employees (Prachanant, 2012) i.e. that email writing was an important daily task.

English Language Skills for the Service Technicians

The final part of the questionnaire contained two open-ended questions. The questions were, "Do you speak and listen in other situations?" and "Do you read or write correspondence in other situations?" It was found that 12 respondents to the first question answered that they were required to communicate with customers in order to solve pest issues. This concern was more relevant to non-Malaysian customers. A

greater need was for understanding accent, utterances while listening, responding to customers' questions and complaints, giving suggestions and providing advice. In this aspect, the listening skill was agreed to be an important skill in communication. The second question concerned writing emails; it received eight responses. One respondent stated, "*Saya perlu membaca and menulis email*" ("I am required to read and write emails."), while another stated "*Ya, membaca email pelanggan*" ("Yes, reading customers' emails."). Aside from attending to customers via email, these service technicians also often received emails from supervisors and forwarded emails from customers. Responding to customers' emails is important as the technicians were the ones to inspect and investigate matters the customers' premises, and therefore, customers would be expecting feedback and comments from them. The questionnaire feedback showed that communication was more effective when the technicians constructed simple, short sentences that communicated the main points of the message. Using simple, short sentences is indeed appropriate for email writing. Their response indicated that writing simple emails was an important tool for service technicians.

The findings presented earlier show the areas of communicative needs in terms of 'lacks' and 'wants' (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987) in using the English language among pest control service technicians. The areas that seemed to be critical for upgrade or enhancement of language

were description (self, company and job), telephone conversation, describing processes, providing suggestions and advice, work discussion and decision making and solving problems. These tasks involve active listening and speaking skills. The other area that they appeared to be lacking in was writing emails. Constructing simple and appropriate sentences is important because this style of writing delivers messages effectively. Based on the findings, it appears that the approach needed for enhancing the language proficiency of service technicians in the pest control industry is the narrow-angled approach (Flowerdew, 2013), which is based on the present situation while on duty.

The results also revealed that the language needs of service technicians in the pest control industry are more specific (refer to *Specificity in ESP*, Hyland, 2002). The features, terminology and language used are specifically for one particular occupation in one particular industry. Although the first part of the needs analysis, 'describing and telephone conversation', may be relevant to different occupations across industries, the other features are integrated with pest issues or pest control terminology that can only be used by service technicians or senior service technicians in the pest control industry.

CONCLUSION

This paper has highlighted the feedback and response received from 20 service technicians in the pest control industry as to their needs in the use of the English language. Service technicians must interact

with a broad base of customers of diverse backgrounds daily, and because of this diversity, service technicians would have to be reasonably skilled in using the English language, the most common language used in multi-cultural interaction today. Adequate or good communication skills in English will bring a positive impact on customers, and this is likely to draw more business, a point recognised by employers. Based on the input received from the service technicians in this study, the company agreed that their learning and development department should conduct a 'language needs' programme that would provide suitable communication functions for service technicians. This is a preliminary study; future investigation may include observation of the interaction of service technicians in the pest control industry with customers or an ethnographic study and interviews with the service technicians in order to further understand their communicative needs and language use, which can inform content development of proficiency enhancement module, teaching and learning, assessment and evaluation.

REFERENCES

- Alderson, J. C. (2009). Air safety, language assessment policy, and policy implementation: The case of aviation English. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 29, 168–187.
- Baade, K., & Duckworth, M. (2014). *Business result intermediate teacher's book*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Bhattacharyya, E., Nordin, S., & Salleh, R. (2009). Internship students' workplace communication skills: Workplace practices and university preparation. *The International Journal of Learning*, 16(11), 439–452.
- Blair, D., & Jeanson, S. (1995) *Workplace oral communication curriculum*. Winnipeg, MB: Workplace Education. Manitoba Steering Committee, Manitoba Department of Education and Training, Continuing Education Division.
- Chan, M. Y. (1998). *English language communication training needs of front office assistants of hotels in Kuala Lumpur* (Unpublished Master's Thesis), Universiti Putra Malaysia, Serdang, Malaysia.
- Cornwall, T. B., & Srilapung, V. (2012). Senior flight attendants' English communication needs: A case study of Thai airways international. *US-China Foreign Language*, 11(4), 286–291.
- Crosling, G., & Ward, I. (2002). Oral communication: The workplace needs and uses of business graduate employees. *English for Specific Purposes*, 21(1), 41–57.
- Cutting, J. (2013). English for airport ground staff. *English for Specific Purposes*, 31(1), 3–13.
- Dudley-Evans, T., & St John, M. J. (1998). *Development in English for specific purposes: A multi-disciplinary approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Emery, H., Roberts, A., Goodman, R., & Harrison, L. (2008). *Aviation English: For ICAO compliance*. Oxford: Macmillan Education.
- Fisher, A. (1999). Ask Annie. *Fortune-European Edition*, 140, 246–250.
- Flowerdew, L. (2013). Needs analysis and curriculum development in ESP. In B. Paltridge & S. Starfield (Eds.), *The handbook of English for specific purposes* (pp. 325–346). West Sussex, UK: John Wiley & Sons.

- Hutchinson, T., & Waters, A. (1987). *English for specific purposes: A learning-centred approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Hyland, K. (2002). Specificity revisited: How far should we go now? *English for Specific Purposes*, 21(4), 385–395.
- Hyland, K. (2006). *English for academic purposes: An advanced resource book*. New York: Routledge.
- Hynes, G., & Bhatia, V. (1966) Graduate business students' preferences for the managerial communication course curriculum. *Business Communication Quarterly*, 59(2), 45–55.
- Kaewpet, C. (2009). Communication needs of Thai civil engineering students. *English for Specific Purposes*, 28(4), 266–278.
- Kassim, H., & Ali, F. (2010). English communicative events and skills needed at the workplace: Feedback from the industry. *English for Specific Purposes*, 29(3), 168–182.
- Kaur, S., & Clarke, C. M. (2009). Analysing the English language needs of human resource staff in multinational companies. *English for Specific Purpose*, 8(3), 1–10.
- Kaur, S., & Lee, S. H. (2006). Analysing workplace oral communication needs in English among IT graduates. *English for Specific Purposes World*, 5(1), 1–12.
- Koester, A. (2012). English for occupational purposes. *The Encyclopaedia of Applied Linguistics* (pp. 1–5). Blackwell Publishing Ltd. doi: 10.1002/9781405198431.wbeal0381
- Krizan, A. C., Merrier, P., & Jones, C. L. (2002). *Business communication* (5th ed.). Cincinnati: South-Western.
- Mehta, D., & Mehta, N. K. (2010). Communication skills for engineering professionals. *ADIT Journal of Engineering*, 4(1), 89–96.
- Mohamed, A. A., Radzuan, N. R. M., Kassim, H., & Ali, M. M. A. (2014). Conceptualizing English workplace communication needs of professional engineers: The challenges for English language tertiary educators. *Selangor Business Review (SBR)*, 1(1), 1–9.
- Moslehifar, M. A., & Ibrahim, N. A (2012). English language oral communication needs at the workplace: Feedback from Human Resource Development (HRD) trainees. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 66, 529–536.
- Ober, S. (2001). *Contemporary business communication*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.
- Paramasivam, S. (2013). Materials development for speaking skills in aviation English for Malaysian air traffic controllers: Theory and practice. *Journal of Teaching English for Specific and Academic purposes*, 1(2), 97–122.
- Prachanant, N. (2012). Needs analysis on English language use in the tourism industry. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 66, 117–125.
- Riemer, M. J. (2002). English and communication skills for the global engineer. *Global Journal of Engineering Education*, 6(1), 91–100.
- Sarjit, K., & Hua, L. S. (2006). Analysing workplace oral communication needs in English among IT graduates. *English for Specific Purposes World*, 5(1), 12. Retrieved from <http://www.esp-world.info>
- Sarudin, I., Mohd Noor, Z., Zubairi, A. M., Tunku Ahmad, T. B., & Nordin, M. S. (2013). Needs assessment of workplace English and Malaysian graduates' English language competency. *World Applied Sciences Journal*, 21, 88–94.
- Shahrudin, S., Ali, A. M., & Rafik-Galea, S. (2013). Language use by frontline employees in the rail industry. *Language and Communication*, 2(1), 35–49.

- Smith, M. C. (2000). What will be the demands of literacy in the workplace in the next millennium? *Reading Research Quarterly*, 35(3), 378–383.
- Stevens, B. (2005). What communication skills do employers want? Silicon Valley recruiters respond. *Journal of Employment Counseling*, 42(1), 2–9.
- Stivers, G., Campbell J., & Hermanson, H. (2000). An assessment program for accounting: Design, implementation, and reflection. *Issues in Accounting Education*, 15(4), 553–581.
- Teoh, M. L., Tan, R. S. K., Fauziah, T., & Choo, W. L. (2012). A discursive approach to interactions at job interviews and its implication for training. *English for Specific Purposes World*, 36(12), 1–14.
- Warschauer, M. (2000). The changing global economy and the future of English teaching. *TESOL Quarterly*, 34(3), 511–535.
- Wilson, J. P. (2005). *Human resource development: Learning and training for individuals and organizations* (2nd ed.). London: Kogan Page.



A Study of the Functional Shift and Lexico-Semantic Variation of the Interjection *here* in Sri Lankan English Speech

Upeksha Jayasuriya^{1,2}

¹*Department of Languages, Faculty of Management, Social Sciences and Humanities, General Sir John Kotelawala Defence University, Ratmalana, Sri Lanka*

²*Department of English, Faculty of Arts, University of Colombo, Colombo 07, Sri Lanka*

ABSTRACT

English, once hailed for its supremacy, has now diverged from its singularity with the emergence of World Englishes and embarked on the nativisation of other varieties of English including Sri Lankan English (SLE). The current study focusses on the functional shift and lexico-semantic variation of the interjection *here* in SLE speech. Primary data for this study consisted of threads taken from Facebook and questionnaires distributed among 30 participants who are fluent speakers of SLE. Apart from its original usage in Standard British English as a demonstrative adjective, the findings show that *here* is used in SLE speech for diverse other functions such as conversation opener, discourse marker and even address form. Its nativisation has been fortified by socio-cultural implications with regard to its usage. Gender plays a predominant role in this process of nativisation as female participants tend to use *here* with higher frequency, whereas males often replace it with other address forms. Findings also show how power relations become significant because using the interjection *here* when conversing with people higher in status is considered disrespectful. This study demonstrates the nativisation and endonormative stabilisation of the word *here* leading to a functional shift resulting in semantic variation.

Keywords: Endonormative stabilisation, functional shift, lexico-semantic variation, nativisation, Sri Lankan English, World Englishes

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received: 03 April 2017

Accepted: 30 November 2017

E-mail address:

upekshajayasuriya@gmail.com (Upeksha Jayasuriya)

INTRODUCTION

The transition from 'World English' or 'International English' to a more pluricentric idea, as is evident in the considerably new term, 'World Englishes', has opened many

doors for English to be used by speakers around the world. It has now spread from beyond its centre, Great Britain, and is spoken by a majority of non-native speakers in their own demographic, socio-cultural and linguistic contexts spiced with local flavour. With the emergence of World Englishes and the divergence from its singularity as the language of its former centre, more attention is paid to varieties of English and the nativisation¹ of those varieties (Bolton, 2005), so much so that, nativisation of the English language has become the focus of attention of many researchers and scholars such as Braj Kachru, Yamuna Kachru, Larry Smith, Kingsley Bolton, Cecil Nelson and Andy Kirkpatrick, among others. Although the volume of research on World Englishes is increasing at a notable pace, there seems to remain areas of contradiction and the absence of common ground among scholars on the topic is evident.

As Kachru (1996) mentioned in his article, "World Englishes: Agony and Ecstasy", pluricentricity has given rise to "issues of diversification, codification, identity, creativity, cross-cultural intelligibility, power and ideology" (p. 135) since the emerging varieties of English differ in form and function and are used in linguistically and culturally distinct contexts. These varieties of English Kachru (1996) terms "reincarnations of [the] English Language" (p.137), not necessarily because

they entail lexico-semantic and phonological divergences, but for the reason that they have facilitated the process of liberation from the traditional canons associated with English such as the supremacy of British English. In the same article, Kachru explained the process of nativisation or acculturation of the English language as the change undergone by localised varieties of English through acquisition of new linguistic and cultural identities; this then results in "the use of such terms as Africanisation or Indianisation of English or the use of terms such as Singaporean English, Nigerian English, Philippine English and Sri Lankan English" (Kachru, 1996, p. 138).

As highlighted by Kachru (1996) there exist issues regarding the varieties of English and codification. That codification permits a language variety to acquire a publicly recognised and fixed form is a notion accepted by many sociolinguists, including Cobarrubias (1983), Trudgill (2003) and Trousdale (2010). Trudgill (2003) mentioned that "the results of codification are usually enshrined in dictionaries and grammar books" (p. 24). Against these established notions of codification, Kachru and Smith (2008) contended in their book, "Cultures, Contexts and World Englishes", arguing that a variety of English cannot be invalidated for mere absence of documentation of grammar and other lexical or phonological features; in other words, codification should not be a prerequisite for legitimising a language or a variety. Seidlhofer (2003) too emphasized that many scholars grant authoritative sanction to dictionaries and grammar books

¹Nativisation is Phase 3 of Schneider's dynamic model of World Englishes

when codification for English is primarily sociological, educational and indeed, psychological.

Despite the controversies, the varieties of English used around the world today have produced a large body of literature. Commenting on the role of vocabulary in forming new varieties of English, Fernando (2003) highlighted that similar to American English, Australian English, Indian English and other varieties of English, Sri Lankan English too underwent a shift from Standard British English to its unique variety, largely because of vocabulary. Thus, she pointed out that the use of compounds and hybrids, borrowings and instances of code switching and code-mixing in Sinhala and English have been instrumental in transplanting and developing SLE as a national variety. However, the scope of Fernando's study limits its analysis to 'lexico-semantic variations' pertinent to SLE.

Bamiro (1997) and Tent (2001), in their study of Ghanaian English and Fijian English, respectively, extended their scope to conversions or functional shifts and reborrows. Conversion, also known as functional shift, occurs when vocabulary items borrowed from English undergo a switch from one word class to another as it becomes a part of a variety of English (Tent, 2001).

The frequent variations that can be seen in varieties of English prompt the question, whether all these variations can be accepted. Passé (1955) highlighted that there are permissible variations, and those who vitiate the language categorise 'translation errors'

and 'incorrect usages or ignorant English' as typical Ceylonese departures from 'the King's English'. He further stated that "all instances of translation from the local language into English are called translation errors" (p. 14) and some of these expressions are 'acceptable' or 'defensible' as they do not unduly offend English linguistic habits, while others are solecisms that should be eradicated. This idea contradicts with the ideology of contemporary scholars of World Englishes as varieties of English acceptably include lexico-semantic variations as well as functional shifts. However, it should be noted that Passé (1955) was here commenting on the variety of Ceylon English that has now evolved into Sri Lankan English. Quite interestingly, he predicted in 1955 that "many of the common colloquialisms are bad English but are probably ineradicable, and will in the course of time establish themselves as local usage" (p. 15).

It is noteworthy that while there exist lexico-semantic variations in varieties, functional shifts more often than not occur due to sociological factors as well. Thomas and Wareing (1999) analysed variation of speech or style-shifting, and stress on the fact that audience design provides a theoretical account of the reasons why speakers change the way they talk according to the context they are in and people they talk to on the grounds of solidarity and power relations. This phenomenon is termed 'linguistic convergence'.

The concept of World Englishes, despite certain controversies, has become a branch

of applied linguistics, drawing a large number of researchers around the world. That the legitimisation or acceptance of varieties of English has undergone and is still undergoing an irresolute scenario is also evident as codification in dictionaries and grammar books is considered a prerequisite for legitimising a variety of a language. However, scholars of World Englishes are in contention over this ideology and many studies (Bolton, 2005; Kachru, 1996; Schneider, 2007) have been conducted on varieties of English.

Sri Lankan English, into which a substantial amount of research has been conducted, is known to be a variety of English encompassing distinct variations in phonology, morphology and semantics. Although some of these variations unique to SLE are researched and documented, not all of them are codified in dictionaries or grammar books. However, the mere absence of adequate codification is in no way suggestive of the idea that such variations are not distinctive aspects of the Sri Lankan English linguistic repertoire. In fact, many researchers are encouraged and currently conducting work to provide empirical evidence that SLE is a variety of English encompassing linguistic features of its own (Fernando, 2003; Kandiah, 1979; Mukherjee, 2008; Passé, 1955).

In this context, the current study focusses on the functional shift and lexico-semantic variation of the interjection *here* in Sri Lankan English (SLE) speech. Though *here* does not appear in Michael Meyler's (2007)

*Dictionary of Sri Lankan English*² and is not adequately, or rather correctly, documented elsewhere, it is an interjection that is part of the Sri Lankan English linguistic repertoire, and is used in diverse contexts for multiple purposes. Passé (1955), the only individual who documented the use of the word, does not render justice to it as he labelled it as a 'translation error' that requires correction.

It is in this light that the current study ventures to correct the misinterpretation of prior research (Passé, 1995) on permissible and impermissible variations in Sri Lankan English speech with regard to the functional shift and lexico-semantic variation of the interjection *here*. In so doing, it attempts to identify whether the meaning or functionality of the word as an interjection extends beyond what has been documented both locally and internationally. In order to achieve this aim, the study will focus on discovering diverse usages of the interjection *here* in SLE speech and finding out whether gender has an impact on its usage since research has found that many variations in language are shaped by gender; for instance, women have been found to use more standard language than men (Romaine, 2008) and men lead in sound changes in speech (Labov, 1963). Romaine (2000) further mentioned that variation in speech is not necessarily a phenomenon that happens freely, but rather, is conditioned by social factors such as gender, age, style and social class. Accordingly, the study

²The only Sri Lankan English dictionary to date (2016)

will also assess the role of power relations in the usage of *here* in SLE speech for it is presumed that age and status make a clear distinction in the functionality of the word.

MATERIALS AND METHOD

In the course of this study, quasi face-to-face conversation data taken from chat history and threads on Facebook from February 2015 to June 2015 were used as primary data. The reason for incorporating chat history and threads from Facebook is that the occurrence of *here* in verbal communication is quite random and spontaneous, and, therefore, it was not possible to record its occurrence in real-time speech. Online chat history and threads, which often involve groups, are instances of quasi-verbal communication as today, they have become the most preferable modes of communication among both the young and adult population for these forms of communication are less time and money consuming and are able to capture a somewhat real experience of conversation.

Both chat history and data from questionnaires were gathered from 15 male and 15 female respondents who are fluent speakers of Sri Lankan English, aged 20 to 35 years and are employed as university lecturers, teachers, engineers, lawyers and doctors. In relation to the primary data, chat history and threads were used for analysis with the consent of the participants and privacy and anonymity was thoroughly protected in all instances by deleting and omitting any mention of a name or any other personal information. The questionnaire used in the present study was designed to

elicit information on both the functionalities of the interjection *here* in SLE and the diverse attitudes towards the usage or non-usage of *here* in different circumstances. The design of the questionnaire was to some extent inspired by the method used in the study, “English in Sri Lanka: Language Functions and Speaker Attitudes” by Kunstler, Mendis and Mukherjee (2010). Accordingly, the questionnaire comprised nine questions, of which the first few questions aimed at gathering background information such as age, gender, profession, L1 and L2 of the participant and the different instances in which they used the interjection *here*. The primary data collected from Facebook were incorporated as examples for different usage, as it was believed the participants would find it easier to select from examples than have to recall actual instances of personal use of *here* when speaking in English. The latter part of the questionnaire included questions on usage and the participants’ attitude regarding the use of *here* with people who are older and higher in status than they. The limited number of L1 and L2 English-speaking respondents and geographic constraint of having to limit the study to Colombo and Gampaha districts in the Western Province, Sri Lanka were time and space.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Diverse Usages of the Interjection *here* in Sri Lankan English Speech

The Oxford Compact Dictionary (1996) defines *here* as an adverb as well as an interjection. For the purpose of this study,

the latter will be taken into account as the study dealt with the functionality of the word *here* as interjection: “here *int. 1. Calling attention: short for come here, look here, etc. 2. Indicating one’s presence in a roll-call: short for *I am here*. * *here and there*: in various places...” (Oxford, 1996, p. 463). Based on this Oxford dictionary definition of *here*, Passé (1955) pointed out a more nativised usage of the word in SLE: “here! [mē³]: used in calling to a person, often in place of the person’s name. *Here! Did you read this?* A husband often calls his wife ‘here!’ instead of using her name” (p. 25, emphasis added).

Accordingly, it is clear that the interjection *here* in Ceylon English, an older version of Sri Lankan English, has nuances of variation in its function when compared with its usage in British English. Although Passé (1955) terms this incorrect usage as an error that needs to be eradicated in Ceylon English, data gathered for this study showed that the interjection has become part of the Sri Lankan English linguistic repertoire, with more extended usage than has been discussed by Passé in 1955, before Ceylonese English⁴ evolved into and came to be known as Sri Lankan English.

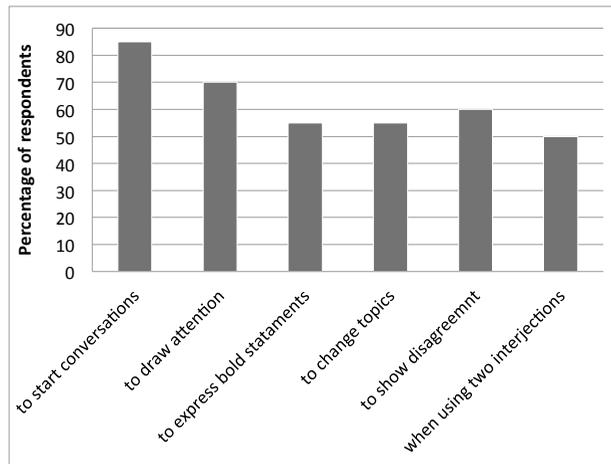


Figure 1. Instances where *here* was used as an interjection by respondents

As Figure 1 denotes in the first part of the questionnaire aimed at identifying diverse functionalities of *here*, out of the 30 respondents, 10 claimed that they did not

use *here* in any of the mentioned instances, while 20 respondents claimed to use it in diverse other instances. A clear majority

³Mē³ is a Sinhala interjection used to focus someone’s attention. It is also used as an address form

⁴Sri Lanka was earlier known as Ceylon and Ceylonese English is an early stage of Sri Lankan English, which is in use at present. SLE is a phonologically, morphologically, lexically and syntactically developed variety of English compared with Ceylon English

of 85% claimed that they use *here* to start conversations. Some of the examples that can be found from Facebook chat history to demonstrate that *here* is used to start conversations are as follows:

Here, did any of you collect the degree certificate yet? I was thinking of going on Monday. (Respondent A)

Here, is it necessary to include interviews men? Last time I didn't. (Respondent B)

On the other hand, 70% of the respondents stated that they used *here* to draw someone's attention, which is the original usage of *here* as an interjection, as per the definition of *here* in the Oxford English dictionary. However, the functional shift is quite evident as a considerable number of respondents (60%), claimed to use *here* when expressing disagreement in such instances as:

"here hw [how] come my post is bfr [before] urs [yours]? i saw urs [yours] bfr [before] i posted noh" (Respondent H)*

"here I cant [can't] send you life ne ane..you have to ask me a for a life then i can send you one⁵" (Respondent A)*

⁵Quasi face-to-face conversation data from chat history, more often than not, deal with personal matters, online networks and games

*[noh], [ne] and [ane] are Sinhala tags that are often used when speaking English to tag code-switch. They can be considered equivalents to the English tags, *right* or *yeah* used at the end of an utterance for confirmation.

It is also noteworthy that more than half of the respondents (55%) claimed to use *here* as an exclamation when making bold statements, such as in the following examples from Facebook chat history:

"here! What is this ah?" (Respondent C)

"Here! You should do what you say or say what you do okay?" (Respondent H).

Using *here* as an exclamation when making bold statements is more evident in speech as the effect is mostly produced by intonation. A similar percentage of respondents used the interjection to change topics as well. This is closely tied to the function of drawing attention because when changing a topic one draws another's attention from one idea to another. Below are some of the examples of data gathered from Facebook chat history regarding the use of *here* to change a topic of a conversation:

we'll see whether we can..here, igta [gotta] go. tata (Respondent D)

Don't know what happened. I hit my leg in the bus also..Here I am getting chilli chocolates!! (Respondent F)

Another interesting phenomenon is the use of vernacular interjections along with *here* as 40% of respondents stated they did. Vernacular interjections taken into consideration are the Sinhala interjections [mē] or [mey] that are used to draw attention when speaking in Sinhala. If, as Passé (1955) stated, *here* means [mē]/[mey] in Sinhala, the use of both interjections in following instances can be considered instances of reduplication, but in two languages.

here, mey, hv [have] u [you] quit smoking (Respondent E)

Mey, here, if you guys come across like a job vacancy thing just lemme [let me] know... (Respondent B)

Although it was assumed that those who use a vernacular interjection and *here* are L1 Sinhala and L2 English bilinguals, the data gathered did not explicitly demonstrate a connection between the two variables. Hence, there exists no perceptible reason behind a usage of that nature, unless it is possibly an instance similar to tag code switching, where the speakers' familiarity with Sinhala interjections comes into play.

The aforementioned analysis and the graph display that the usage of *here* in SLE speech is not, as mentioned in the Oxford English Dictionary or Passé's (1955)

article, limited to calling for attention or replacing a name, but functions in multiple layers, serving diverse purpose. It is more commonly used in SLE as a conversation opener and, to a considerable extent, as a discourse marker to show disagreement. Such semantic variations or the functional shift of lexical items from Standard British English can be considered a unique feature that makes Sri Lankan English yet another variety of English that has a distinct flavour of its own.

The Correlation between Gender and the Use of *here* in SLE Speech

Akin to any other variety of English, Sri Lankan English too was subjected to constant change over time. While new linguistic items are added to the SLE linguistic repertoire as borrowings, blends and conversions, vernacular words and phrases such as *aiyo* are even included in Oxford Online Dictionary (Oxford Online, 2016). However, it does not, by any means, denote that all SLE speakers use SLE words and phrases in their speech in the same manner for the same purposes and with the same frequency. Social factors such as gender, age and nationality of the speakers may have an impact on the choice of linguistic properties one uses in conversation.

As discussed earlier in the literature review, variations in language are often shaped by gender (Labov, 1963; Romaine, 2008). In a similar vein, it was hypothesised that the frequency of and the purposes for

using the interjection *here* could have a correlation with the gender of the speaker.

On closer observation of the findings of the questionnaire, both males (60%) and females (74%) indicated that they used *here* when they speak in English. However, the frequency of usage among females was quite high; their response indicated that they used *here* in many more instances than their male counterparts. In the section

on function, when posed the question, “In which instances and for what purposes do you use the word *here*?”, female participants claimed to use *here* for many purposes such as to start conversations, to draw attention, to change the topic of a conversation, to replace names, to express disagreements and to make bold statements, whereas male participants indicated that they used *here* to start conversations and to draw attention.

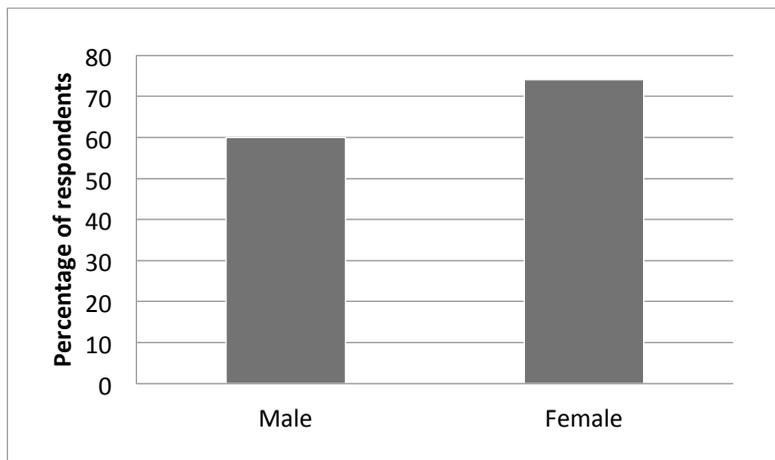


Figure 2. Frequency of usage of *here* by gender

It is also interesting to note that the respondents who used *here* as an interjection used other interjections/address forms such as [*mey*], [*machang*], look, [*ado*]/ [*addey*], hey and the name of the person

interchangeably. Those who stated they did not use *here* when speaking in English used the aforementioned interjections and address forms in place of *here*.

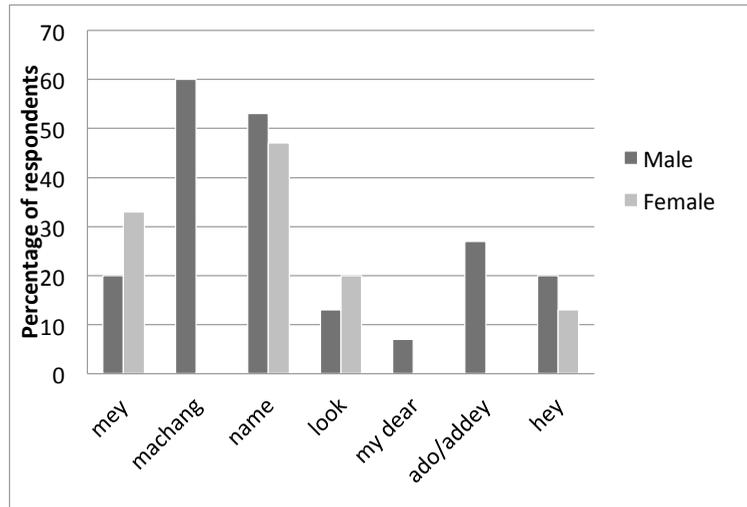


Figure 3. The use of other interjections/address forms by male and female respondents when speaking in English

The data in Figure 3 further clarify why *here* is used less frequently by males; it appears that they tend to use other interjections or address forms, such as [*machang*]⁶ (60%), persons' names (53%) and [*ado*]/[*addey*]⁷ in the sentence initial position shown in Figure 1. Additionally, 45% of the male respondents had specifically mentioned in the questionnaire that they often used [*machang*] or [*ado*]/[*addey*] with males in informal conversation, while the name of the person or *here* was used more with females in the same context. Thus, it was possible that one reason male participants had not opted to use *here* in many instances was because of the availability of other

interjections or address forms established for use by men. Nevertheless, it can be observed in the Sri Lankan context that [*machang*] and [*ado*]/[*addey*] are commonly and popularly used by men when speaking in both Sinhala and English. What comes as surprising is that, as it can be seen in Figure 3, no female respondent claimed to use [*machang*], [*ado*]/[*addey*] or *my dear*. Female respondents who opted less for other interjections/address forms, except for the person's name, seemed to use *here* more frequently when speaking in English, as shown in Figure 2.

Overall, what became evident was the fact that respondents opted for not only other interjections but address forms such as [*machang*], [*ado*], [*addey*] and names as well. Furthermore, if they used *here* interchangeably with or to replace address forms, it is possible this was so because *here* functions as an address form and has thus undergone a semantic shift in SLE speech,

⁶'Machang' is a vernacular address form mostly used among males in Sri Lanka. It is an informal address form that is an equivalent for 'brother'/'bro'/'dude' in English

⁷'Ado/Addey' are vernacular address forms mostly used among males in Sri Lanka. They are informal address forms often used among people in the same solidarity scale and is an equivalent for 'Yo!', 'Heyya!' in English

as the OED defines it only as an interjection and an adverb (Oxford, 1996, p. 463).

The Power Semantics in the Usage of *here* in SLE Speech

According to Brown and Gilman,

There are many bases of power - physical strength, wealth, age, sex, institutionalized role in the church, the state, the army or in the family. Power is a relationship between at least two persons and it is nonreciprocal in the sense that both cannot have power in the same area of behaviour and the power semantic is similarly nonreciprocal. (1960, p. 255)

The nature of power semantics can be better explained by the two pronouns 'tu' and 'vous' in French language. The superior in power says 'tu' and receives 'vous'. However, in English language the pronoun 'you' has no power semantics influencing its usage and it is used by and for superiors and subordinates equally.

Although not a pronoun, *here* in Standard British English functions as an interjection and has no power semantics attached to its usage. However, in Sri Lankan English, *here*, as discussed in this paper, serves many functions including that of address form. Thus, it has been hypothesised based on the observation that power semantics influences the use of *here* in certain situations.

The final section of the questionnaire investigated the attitude of respondents

on whether power relations and power dynamics such as age, status and seniority of the speaker and listener would matter in their usage of the interjection *here* when speaking in English. The following is a selection of answers provided by the respondents to the question whether they would use *here* as an interjection when addressing persons who were older in age or higher in status.

"No. Because I find it more like a word which is used in small talk and friendly conversations rather than in professional ones. And I think it must not be used in addressing persons elder than us coz it doesn't give the proper respect" (Respondent A)

"No. I think it is disrespectful when you use it to a person higher in status. But if I really wanna show my anger or disappointment, I won't hesitate to use it." (Respondent E)

"No. It sounds disrespectful if used when speaking with elders, seniors etc. I would use 'here' when speaking with friends, acquaintances or subordinates. 'Here' can be used to show authority also, "here, you can't skip lectures like this!" (Respondent B)

"No. It doesn't sound correct. It is disrespectful and doesn't go with our culture." (Respondent B)

A total of 93% of the respondents including the above-mentioned responses showed clear rejection of using *here* as an interjection when addressing people who are older or higher in status. Thus, it can be considered an instance of linguistic convergence when speakers change their pattern of speech to fit the status of the person they happen to be talking to (Thomas & Wareing, 1999).

Among the above-mentioned statements, Statements (2) and (3) deserve close attention. Statement (2) declares that the respondent would not hesitate to use *here* to show anger and disappointment; this suggests that *here* can be face-threatening according to power relations between the speaker and listener. Statement (3) emphasises further the idea that *here* can also be used to show authority. Thus, on the whole, what becomes clear is the idea that the majority perceived *here* to be 'disrespectful', 'impolite', or 'rude' for addressing seniors, elders or people higher in status.

If, in this light, one were to reconsider Passé's (1955) definition of *here* in SLE speech that "a husband often calls his wife 'here!' instead of using her name" (p. 25), one would become conscious of the socio-cultural context in Sri Lanka and the power relations between a wife and husband in the institution of family. Unmistakably and quite evidently, power and authority are invested in the husband, while the wife is the subordinate receiver of 'disrespectful', 'impolite' and 'rude' form of address.

Although Passé wrote this in the 1950s, to what extent the situation has changed in the present time is open to debate.

On the whole, the findings suggest that age, status and seniority function as bases of power that ultimately manipulate who has the right to use *here* and against whom it can be used. In a way, it is surprising how a mere interjection in British English (BrE) can be loaded with socio-cultural nuances of the Sri Lankan context, and is governed by its own politics of usage, creating a functional shift and a lexico-semantic variation from its original British English usage.

CONCLUSION

The present study examined the usage of the interjection *here* as it is used in SLE speech today, while assessing the validity of Passé's (1955) definition of the word. Survey results proved that the function of the interjection *here* undoubtedly extended from what was mentioned by Passé (1955) as well as the Oxford English Dictionary (1996). As discovered, *here* is used in SLE speech for diverse functions such as conversation opener, discourse marker of disagreement, and most importantly, as address form. This study brought into focus the functional shift and lexico-semantic variation of the word *here* in relation to Standard British English. The nativisation of this word has also been fortified by socio-cultural implications with regard to its usage. As the survey data suggested, gender too plays a predominant role in the usage of *here* in SLE speech as the female

respondents tended to use *here* with high frequency, whereas the males, used it to a certain extent only as they tended to replace it with other interjections/address forms, subject to linguistic convergence. Finally, yet most importantly, power semantics become significant as using the interjection *here* when conversing with people higher in status or older was considered disrespectful and impolite; this could be due to the socio-cultural framework in Sri Lanka. Though the results are intriguing and insightful, it must also be admitted that the methodology had several constraints. The study was based on a limited sample. The sample was specifically confined to a population of bilinguals with a sound academic background and geographically located in the Western Province, Sri Lanka. However, no viable alternative was available for incorporation as “English language bilingualism is rather an elitist phenomenon in Sri Lanka” (Kunstler et al., 2010). Nevertheless, the study brought into focus the functional shift and the lexico-semantic variation of the interjection *here* as used in the SLE linguistic repertoire and showed how gender and power relations shape its usage. Although Passé labelled its usage an error, the study revealed how it has become nativised and even endonormatively stabilised in the Sri Lankan context. It would appear that Passé’s (1955) prediction that SLE colloquialisms, though substandard English, would in the course of time establish themselves as local usage, has now become a reality. This study was based on one English word that has undergone a functional shift as well as

semantic variation and become part of the SLE linguistic repertoire. It should be noted that there are many other similar words that have not found their way into dictionaries or lessons in grammar books. Yet, all those words are evidence of a variety of English that is our own, Sri Lankan English.

REFERENCES

- Bamiro, E. O. (1997). Lexical innovation in Ghanaian English: Some examples from recent fiction. *American Speech*, 72(1), 105–112.
- Bolton, K. (2005). Where WE stands: Approaches, issues and debates in World Englishes. *Symposium on World Englishes Today*, 24(1), 69–83. doi: 10.1111/j.0883-2919.2005.00388.x
- Brown, R., & Gilman, A. (1960). The pronouns of power and solidarity. In T. A. Sebeok (Ed.), *Style in language* (pp. 253–276). Cambridge: MIT Press.
- Cobarrubias, J. (1983). Language planning: The state of the art. In J. Cobarrubias & J. A. Fishman (Eds.), *Progress in language planning: International perspectives* (pp. 3–27). Berlin: Walter de Gruyter & Co.
- Fernando, S. (2003). The vocabulary of Sri Lankan English: Words and phrases that transform a foreign language into their own. In 9th *International Conference on Sri Lanka Studies*. Matara, Sri Lanka. Retrieved from <http://www.lankalibrary.com/phpBB/viewtopic.php?t=296>
- Kachru, B. B. (1996). World Englishes: Agony and ecstasy. *Journal of Aesthetic Education*, 30(2), 135–155.
- Kachru, Y., & Larry E. S. (2008). *Cultures, contexts and World Englishes*. New York: Routledge.
- Kandiah, T. (1979). Disinherited Englishes: The case of Sri Lankan English Part I. *Navasilu*, 3, 75–89.

- Kunstler, V., Dushyanthi, M., & Joybrato, M. (2010). English in Sri Lanka: Language functions and speaker attitudes. In S. Fernando, M. Gunsekera, & A. Parakrama (Eds.), *English in Sri Lanka: Ceylon English, Lankan English, Sri Lankan English* (pp. 264–284). Colombo: SLELTA.
- Labov, W. (1963). Social motivations of a sound change. In W. Labov (Ed.), *Sociolinguistic patterns* (pp. 273–309). Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press.
- Meyler, M. (2007). *A dictionary of Sri Lankan English*. Colombo: Michael Meyler.
- Mukherjee, J. (2008). Sri Lankan English: Evolutionary status and epicentral influence from Indian English. In K. Stierstorfer (Ed.), *Anglistentag 2007 muenster: Proceedings* (pp. 359–368). Trier: WVT.
- Oxford. (1996). *Oxford Compact English Dictionary* (1st ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Passé, H. A. (1955). Ceylon English. In S. Fernando, M. Gunsekera, & A. Parakrama (Eds.), *English in Sri Lanka: Ceylon English, Lankan English, Sri Lankan English* (pp. 13–29). Colombo: SLELTA.
- Romaine, S. (2000). *Language and society: An introduction to sociolinguistics*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Romaine, S. (2008). Variation in language and gender. In J. Holmes & M. Mayerhoff (Eds.), *The handbook of language and gender* (pp. 98–118). Cornwall: Blackwell Publishing.
- Schneider, E. W. (2007). *Postcolonial English: Varieties around the world*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Seidlhofer, B. (2003). The global spread of English. In B. Seidlhofer (Ed.), *Controversies in applied linguistics*. New York: Oxford.
- Tent, J. (2001). A profile of the Fiji English lexis. *English World-Wide*, 22(2), 209–245.
- Thomas, L., & Wareing, S. (1999). *Language, society and power: An introduction*. London: Routledge.
- Trousdale, G. (2010). *An introduction to English sociolinguistics*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.
- Trudgill, P. (2003). *A glossary of sociolinguistics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Maggot Therapy and Monstrosity: The Grotesque in Margaret Atwood's *The Year of the Flood*

Ong Li Yuan¹, Arbaayah Ali Termizi^{1*}, Nahid Shahbazi Moghadam² and Rosli Talif¹

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

²*Department of English Language and Literature, Faculty of Humanities, Semnan University, 35351-19111, Sookan Park, Semnan*

ABSTRACT

Speculative fiction is able to foresee the changes of the environment and social strata via imitation of future society (Gough, 2003; Otto, 2012). With the same intention, Margaret Atwood makes use of an alternative natural medication, maggot therapy, as an important recuperative method to cure physical lesions and injuries in *The Year of the Flood* (2009). Historically, although once a common practice among healers of antiquity, maggot therapy has since been discarded from medical context, partly due to its carnivorous and parasitic nature. The present paper intends to discuss the implication of this kind of natural therapy and its sense of monstrosity and grotesqueness as presented in Atwood's novel. In using this therapy as motif, the novel illustrates the grotesque through exaggeration and gory and monstrous features, which lead not only the characters but also the readers to experience disorientation due to the unfamiliar state of savagery. With a focus on relevant theories of the grotesque, the study aims to highlight how the monstrosity inherent in maggot therapy renders the grotesque in this novel, that is, by juxtaposing savagery and culture and evoking repulsion and attraction.

Keywords: Grotesque, Margaret Atwood, maggot therapy, uncanny, monstrous

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received: 03 April 2017

Accepted: 30 November 2017

E-mail addresses:

liyuanong1312@gmail.com (Ong Li Yuan)

arbaayah@upm.edu.my (Arbaayah Ali Termizi)

n.shahbazi@semnan.ac.ir (Nahid Shahbazi Moghadam)

rtalif@upm.edu.my (Rosli Talif)

*Corresponding author

INTRODUCTION

Margaret Atwood, the speculative Canadian author and poet, has published works in a wide range of genres like the gothic, dystopian, apocalypse, postmodern and

historical (Cooke, 2004; Howells, 2006). She is well-known for conveying new perspectives of current issues, such as the environment and humanitarian rights (Cooke, 2004). Nathalie Cooke (2004, p.11) and Coral Ann Howell (2005, pp. 161-175) have asserted that Atwood's dystopian and apocalyptic speculative novels like *The Surfacing* (1972), *The Handmaid's Tale* (1985), *Oryx and Crake* (2003), *The Year of the Flood* (2009) and *MaddAddam* (2013), illustrate the effects of social mistreatment and environmental destruction on humanity. The *MaddAddam* trilogy entails speculations of a despairing future society, social exploitation and an uncertain future set in a post-apocalypse world of abusive scientific developments (Cooke, 2004; Dunlap, 2013; Howells, 2006). In addition to the terror of environmental pollution and human exploitation, Galbreath (2010, pp. 28-39), Mosca (2013, pp. 38-52) and McKeever (2014, pp. 57-80) highlighted the posthuman features of the scientific products, such as modern medications and genetically-spliced animals, in the *MaddAddam* trilogy.

Atwood refers to genetic bioengineering in *Oryx and Crake* (2003), a modern scientific innovation that creates hybrid animals and cloned humans to form an ideal society. *The Year of the Flood* points out the uses of alternative medication for remedying current medical treatments. Elizabeth Faure (2015) stated that anthropocentric principles like creating hybrid animals and human overpopulation has led to environmental destruction as a result of the manipulation

and exploitation of nature using scientific developments and technology (pp. 8-14). In *Oryx and Crake* (2003), it is suggested that the environmental condition can be stabilised if the characters developed an "ecocentric attitude" and realised the importance and connection between humans and nature in the natural ecosystem (Faure, 2015, pp. 24-26). In *The Year of the Flood*, Atwood's depiction of ecocentric perspectives of preserving nature with natural resources or normalising natural reproduction is embellished with use of the grotesque through the depiction of natural remedies such as maggot therapy (Faure, 2015, pp. 15-24).

Before proceeding further with this discussion of Atwood's novel, it would be helpful to look at the definition and historical context of maggot therapy as a form of biotherapy to identify the grotesqueness of the therapy's healing process. Biotherapy is defined as an alternative medical therapy that utilises animals, insects and other forms of life and their products like maggots, leeches, fresh-water fish, parasitic worms, bacteria and bee venom and animal-assisted therapy to treat human sickness (Grassberger et al., 2013, p. 2). Maggot therapy was first used by the Australian Aborigines and Mayan tribes in Central America to heal physical injuries (Fleischmann et al., 2004, pp. 14-25; Gottrup & Jørgensen, 2011, p. 291). Medical practitioners began to monitor and experiment with the uses of maggots to cure physical lesions and "diabetic foot" during the Napoleonic era, the American Civil War and the First World War (Fleischmann

et al., 2004, pp. 14–25; Sherman et al., 2013, pp. 6–7; Sherman, 2009, p. 337; Gottrup & Jørgensen, 2011, p. 291). After antibiotics were introduced in the 1940s, clinicians removed maggot therapy from medical practice (Sherman, 2009, p. 337). Nevertheless, the therapy re-emerged and was legally accepted as safe and reasonable with the use of “living therapeutic animals” that could effectively aid in the treatment of “pressure ulcers” and “wounds scheduled for surgery or amputation” (Fleischmann et al., 2004, pp. 14–25; Sherman et al., 2013, p. 7). This therapy is able to remove dead skin, infections and excretes from the injuries. Sherman (2009) explained that scientists conducted “therapeutic myiasis” by “containing the maggots within special dressings that prevent[ed] them from leaving unescorted” (Sherman, 2009, p. 337). Maggot therapy required the breeding and monitoring of sterilised fly larvae in the laboratory. Therapists would feed the maggots with human tissue before using them in a dressing on a patient. Maggot therapy involved three stages of healing, debridement, disinfection and healing (Choudhary et al., 2016, p. 403).

Despite positive feedback to the re-emergence of the therapy, a number of studies also pointed to its setbacks. Zimmer (August 1993) and Strickland (March 2009) reported that the therapy did not aid practitioners in saving the patients’ lives (Zimmer, 1993, par. 11; Strickland, 2009, par. 1). In earlier years, as claimed by Zimmer (August 1993), the therapy caused uneasiness and nausea in patients (Zimmer,

1993). He concluded that the therapy turned out to be costly and less effective and induced more excruciating pain in the patient (Strickland, 2009). In addition, other effects such as hearing loss, vomiting, abdominal pain and loss of appetite would affect the patient as a result of the parasitic relationship with the maggots (Ramana, 2012, p. 2). Many clinical experiments were done to improve the patients’ bandages as well as the time of the healing process (Hirschler, 2009).

METHOD

Conceptual Framework of the Grotesque and Monstrous

The grotesque engages with distortions to natural order and with the merging of human, animal and plant features resulting in outlandish, fantastical and extravagant depictions in artistic expression ranging from painting and architecture to music and literature. While the phenomenon dates back to ancient cave art, critical studies of the grotesque enjoyed relatively low reception in 18th century literary theory and criticism until the second half of the 20th century. Among the many major voices since the mid-20th century onwards are scholars the like of Wolfgang Kayser (1963), Mikhail Bakhtin (1984), Arthur Clayborough (1965), Frances K. Barasch (1971), Philip Thomson (1972), Geoffrey Galt Harpham (1982), Chao Shun-Liang (2010), Justin D. Edwards and Rune Graulund (2013) have contributed to theory concerning the grotesque from different perspectives.

Kayser (1963) defined the grotesque as the inability to differentiate between the normal and the abnormal features of flora and fauna, geometric shape and humans (pp. 181-185). The denunciation of normal things or images is labelled as “ridiculous, distorted and unnatural” (Clayborough, 1965, p. 6). These descriptions can be also associated with “[the] socially reprehensible, the excessive, the preposterous” (Clayborough, 1965, p. 6) or as “a repulsive image and an indeterminable world” (Barasch, 1971, p. 164). The definition of the grotesque was further developed by Philip Thomson (1972) based on elements such as “disharmony”, “the comic and the terrifying”, “extravagance and exaggeration” and “abnormality”, all of which create the “unresolved clash of incompatibles in work and response” (Thomson, 1972, pp. 20–27). As Thomson proposed, abnormality occurs when the “amusement at a divergence from the normal turns to fear of the unfamiliar and the unknown” as a denunciation of the “reality” and “normality” (Thomson, 1972, p. 24).

What can be asserted as unanimously affirmed by various studies is that the grotesque builds on the notion of outlandish, bizarre and frenzied fantasy to prevent from dealing with social conditions or to stand against them through cultural contexts and metaphors (Chao, 2010; Harpham, 1982). Ewa Kuryluk believed that the grotesque was essentially a subculture, an anti-world, that confronted the dominant culture (1987, p. 3). In this manner, culture and the grotesque have a normative relationship since culture “defines the norms and the grotesque is by

essence an opposition to norms” (Harpham, 1982; Moghadam, 2013, p. 19). In *The Year of the Flood*, Atwood creates an anti-world of a natural environment that stands up to modern scientific developments and is by no means devoid of the grotesque. As already mentioned, the present article discusses the grotesque in this novel through a focus on maggot therapy as an epitome of monstrosity that helps to render the essence of the grotesque in creating incompatibility and evoking contradictory emotions.

The concept of the monstrous was pioneered by Aristotle in Part 8 of his *Physics, Book II* to refer to mistaken creation without a “purposive effort” (as cited in McKeon, 1941, par. 5). Aristotle exemplified the idea of monstrosity in the image of a hybrid creature that merged human and ox to capture the absurdity and ridiculousness of the monstrous features generated. In fact, monstrosity, which mostly involves hybridity, is a defining feature of the grotesque. In *The Philosophy of Horror or Paradoxes of the Heart* (1990), Noël Carroll defined a monster as “a being in violation of the natural order” unnaturally produced by modern science or “scientific knowledge” (p. 40). Edwards and Graulund (2013) also characterised monstrous as the characteristic of ‘unnatural combinations of animal species’ and ‘monstrous creatures with grotesque humanoid features’ (pp. 36–37). It is noteworthy, however, that monstrosity is not simply synonymous with the grotesque, but can become a defining feature of the mode by contributing to the contradictory effect the grotesque is capable of achieving.

As Bakhtin (1984) reminded, monstrosity like other characteristics of the grotesque such as obscurity and excessiveness, is not a guarantee of greatness *per se* (p. 127). In fact, monstrosity enters into the realm of the grotesque when the corporeal combination transcends the material state of being and conceptually gives rise to contradictory emotions, producing a Frankenstein effect.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The Year of the Flood

The Year of the Flood narrates the life of a group called God's Gardeners, a religious cult that preserves the balance of the ecosystem through ecocentric behaviour like the practice of recycling and reusing supplies, producing natural healing potions and abiding with the theological lifestyle. Due to their love for nature, they choose to reuse products such as clothes and accessories. This cult despises the science and modernity introduced by a company named CorseCorps, which uses genetic bioengineering and modern technology to produce hybrid animals and modern medication. Repulsed by the corporation's immoral ethics, God's Gardeners isolate themselves from modern corporations and stay among the underprivileged of society, the pleeblands. They protest against SecretBurger for disreputably producing meat burgers, which are made from human and animal proteins. Their early predictions about a pandemic plague make them realise how scientific knowledge deforms the physical nature of the environment. As a result, they practise radical vegetarian

consumption to avoid the consumption of protein-enriched carnivorous food.

Maggots and Monstrosity: The Grotesque in Margaret Atwood's *The Year of the Flood*

Margaret Atwood's novel portrays maggot therapy as a type of biotherapy or alternative medication practised by God's Gardeners. Toby, a character in the novel, and Pilar, an expert in alternative medicine, claim that this therapy is the earliest recuperative method before scientists and medical practitioners introduced antibiotics. After the emergence of antibiotics, maggot therapy, according to them, was "discarded out as out of date along with leeches and bleeding" (Atwood, 2009, p. 107). However, as described by Pilar, the therapy is reintroduced by the physicians "during the First World War" (Atwood, 2009, pp. 107-108) as maggots are able to heal the soldiers' physical injuries more effectively, compared with antibiotics (Atwood, 2009, pp. 107-108):

"...but during the First World War the doctors had noticed that soldiers' wound healed much faster if maggots were present . . . the helpful creatures eat the decaying flesh, they killed necrotic bacteria, and thus were great help in preventing gangrene" (pp. 107-108).

After being acknowledged by the medical officers, these flesh-eating insects are utilised by humans and regulated by science into an act of normalcy; the maggots are ironically transformed from predatory

animals into alternative recuperative agents for the benefit of mankind. As stated by Edwards and Graulund (2013), scientific knowledge regulates the entire abnormal phenomenon into normality (p. 32). In other words, the medical field has normalised and shaped the maggots' monstrous nature into a helpful means to save humans' wounds and sickness by eradicating decayed skin. Interestingly, Atwood further distorts the predatory nature of maggots in her novel. While historically, medical practitioners fed the maggots human tissue, God's Gardeners in the novel feed them "ground meat" (Atwood, 2009, p. 107). Based on observation, Toby is taught to develop the maggots by tying ground meat using "a bundle of strings, which is hung at the edge of the rooftop" (Atwood, 2009, p. 107). As the maggots are hatched on the meat, they feed on the ground meat, drawn to its rotting stench "...because where there was rotting flesh, maggots were sure to follow" (Atwood, 2009, p. 107).

The change from being parasitic in nature to being helpful bio-surgeons renders a unique form of the uncanny to the grotesque in *The Year of the Flood*. Drawing from Freud's discussion of *unheimliche* (Freud, 1919/1953, p. 219), Edwards and Graulund (2013, p.146) explain uncanny as "the experience of seeing something that is simultaneously familiar and unfamiliar," evoking "an emotive response . . . that arises out of the cognitive dissonance of the paradoxical nature of being repulsed by and attracted to that which is both

familiar and peculiar". The uncanny nature of such a healing process is highlighted by the characters' unfamiliarity towards maggot therapy and their mixed response to its being used in this way by God's Gardeners. Notwithstanding the savage and gruesome nature of the carnivorous instinct of maggots, Pilar and other God's Gardeners accept maggot therapy as part of their medical practices. Pilar says that the maggots provide both a "pleasant sensation" but also "pain and bleeding" (Atwood, 2009, p. 108). This indicates that if the therapy is not carefully monitored by Toby, Katuro and Nuala, the outcome can indeed be savage:

"The maggots created a pleasant sensation," said Pilar – a gentle nibbling, as of minnows – but they needed to be watched carefully, because if they ran out of decay and began to invade the living flesh they would be pain and bleeding. Otherwise, the wound would heal cleanly. (p. 108)

That God's Gardeners have trained the bio-surgeons into being predatory machines with the aim of healing human wounds shows the transition of the natural world into the "uncanny realm of mystery through its experience of disorientation, bewilderment, confusion and bafflement" as well as "new combinations and strange instabilities in a given semiotic system' that surpass the conventional oppositions of . . . cultural/savagery" (Edwards & Graulund, 2013, p. 6). As a result, there arises a great tension

of the uncanny; the borderline between the binary opposition between culture and savagery is surpassed as maggot therapy is perceived as a culturally green practice by Toby and his fellow God's Gardeners.

The encounter with the therapy and the various responses of the characters, especially those of Zeb, Ren and Toby, evoke the contradictory emotions typical of a portrayal of the grotesque. Throughout the novel, Zeb undergoes healing processes using maggot therapy, which requires a long monitoring time in order to decrease severe maggot infestation. From the perspective of the grotesque, the maggots are exaggerated as monstrous beings that invade living flesh and form hybridity with the human. In this portrayal, the maggots are perceived as the predator and the human body as the meat on which they feed. When the maggots begin to feed on Zeb's wounds, Pilar warns both Katuro and Toby to monitor the maggots "[t]wenty-hours a day" in order to prevent them from devouring other parts of Zeb's skin (Atwood, 2009, pp. 107–108). Toby and the other Gardeners monitor the maggots day and night for several days to ensure Zeb does not experience fever or develop gangrene. Toby also adds "some Poppy into his Willow tea" as well as checks Zeb's wounds (Atwood, 2009, p. 109). After three days, Zeb's wounds are healed completely; the maggots have done their job without having devoured any of the healthy skin. In response to Nuala's expression of disgust towards the maggots, Zeb jokes that he would eat the maggots like fried "[l]and

shrimp" if they crawl on his living skin (Atwood, 2009, p. 108):

"Or in case I start to eat them," said Zeb. "Land shrimp. Same body plan. Very nice fried. Great source of lipids." He was keeping up a good front, but his voice was weak . . . Nuala bustled in to take over from Toby. . . . "Oh dear, I hate those maggots! Here, let me prop you up! Can't we raise the screening? We need a breeze through She was twittering. . . . Pilar took the night watches: she didn't sleep much at night. . . . Nuala volunteered for the mornings. Toby took over during the afternoons. She checked the maggots every hour. Zeb has no temperature and no fresh blood. (pp. 108-110)

Zeb's joke is indeed macabre, drawing humour out of the grotesque. He treats the pain as food and says the maggots, resembling "land shrimp" might be a "[g]reat source of lipids." He uses macabre humour to manage the unresolved conflict between fascination and repugnance towards having maggots crawling on his skin. On another occasion, Toby attempts to cure Ren without feeling disgusted by the little maggots. She asks Ren to close her eyes and not to move her leg. Although Toby herself is not fond of the maggots, she assures Ren that the maggots are her friends and able to heal her injured legs:

"This will tickle," she tells Ren. "But they'll make you better. Try not to

move your leg.” “What are they?” . . .
“They’re your friends,” says Toby. “But
you don’t need to look” (p. 360)

Ren succumbs to fever and pain due to the three-day treatment. Toby has to monitor the therapy thoroughly in order to prevent the maggots from invading Ren’s living skin. As she knows the maggots are “photophobic,” she carries Ren “up to stairs to the roof” and “drives them into the deepest corners of the wounds” (Atwood, 2009, p. 361). Although the maggots’ nibbling proves torturous, it eventually improves Ren’s condition and her appetite picks up. Like Zeb, Toby develops mixed feelings of disgust and fear towards maggot therapy. When Pilar passes the ground meat to Toby, she tries to tolerate the smell of rotting flesh (Atwood, 2009, p. 107). She has also given up the eating of meat after taking the ‘Vegivows’ pledge (Atwood, 2009, p. 33). She then recalls the awful taste of the meat (Atwood, 2009, p. 132):

“I had a faint memory of meat-eating, back at the Helth-Weyzer Compound. But the Gardeners were very much against it except in times of crisis, so the idea of putting a chink of bloody muscle and gristle into mouth and pushing down inside my throat was nauseating” (p. 132).

It is rather abnormal to have a vegetarian feeding ground meat to maggots; the implication is that Toby is returning to her earlier meat-eating days (Atwood, 2009, p.

33). In Toby’s point of view, meat-eating is an abnormal norm among God’s Gardeners. However, maggot therapy triggers her repressed memories of eating meat when she worked in SecretBurgers (Atwood, 2009, p. 33). It can be implied that, despite her fear and disgust, this recollection hints at a repressed desire for meat and therefore, an inexplicable sense of attraction towards the maggots, who may eat meat, by extension.

After a haemorrhagic plague invades humanity in the novel, maggot therapy becomes the only medical treatment that can treat deep wounds and injuries. Due to the lack of proteins in the post-apocalyptic setting, Toby has to collect maggots from the carcasses of the hybrid pigeons, a species of pig generated by cultivating hybrid cells containing pig and human DNA. Although she is aware of the maggots’ carnivorous instinct, she seems shocked to see the minnows of maggots infesting a dead pigeon. She compares the infestations of the maggots in the dead pigeon to a funeral procession that reeks of rotting flesh: “But pigs? Usually they’d just eat a dead pig. . . . But they haven’t been eating this one. Could the pigs have been having a funeral? Could they be bringing memorial bouquets? She finds this idea truly frightening” (p. 328)

In addition, she imagines herself being infested by maggots. This can be associated with the macabre since she perceives the infestation of maggots as gruesome and terrifying. Due to the horrible stench, she is forced to pull up her dress to cover her nose so that she can step over the carcass (Atwood, 2009, p. 328). She reacts with

revulsion and fear as she picks up a stick to stab at the carcass. Toby's fear and disgust towards the carnivorous maggots that she tries to repress through humour, joking that "the twirling white maggots" are just "land shrimps" so that she can bring herself to collect them, is revealed in this incident (Atwood, 2009, p. 328):

The smell of decaying flesh is rank: it's hard to keep from gagging. She lifts a fold of her top-toe, clamps it over her nose. With the other hand she pokes at the dead boar with her stick: maggots boil forth. . . . Just think of them as land shrimps. . . . Same body plan. "You're up to this," she tells herself. She has to set down the rifle and the mop handle in order to do the next part. She scoops up the twirling white maggots with the spoon and transfers them to the plastic snap-on. She drops some; her hands are shaking. (p. 328)

Her feeling of disgust is intensified as she struggles to collect the maggots for medical purposes. The description of how she tries to collect these carnivorous larvae renders a ghastly effect to her actions as her hands tremble in fear when she is dissecting the pigoon's carcass and when she tries to gather the worms into her plastic bag, highlighting the maggots as monstrous beings. The idea of perceiving the maggots as land shrimps helps Toby to repress her abhorrence and distress towards the maggots and increase her familiarity and acceptance of their natural instincts (Atwood, 2009, p. 328).

CONCLUSION

The grotesquerie of maggot therapy, as captured in *The Year of the Flood*, is normalised by God's Gardeners as part of their cultural practices. While recognising the nature of maggots as meat-eaters and parasites, the Gardeners accept them as therapeutic animals. This highlights the binary opposition of culture and savagery as the benchmark of the 'uncanny grotesque'. Further features of the grotesque are seen in the focal image of maggots feeding on human wounds; this reinforces hybridity, monstrosity, distortion and contradictory emotions.

The juxtaposition of maggots and therapy capture the characters' fear and disgust as well as their fascination at the same time with the phenomenon of maggot therapy. Nuala's subtle disgust towards maggots is placed side by side with Zeb's macabre jokes about the use of the creatures to heal him to portray a sense of the unresolved clash between fascination with and repugnance towards the revolting creatures and the work they have been enlisted to do. Toby's disgust is apparent in her very first exposure to maggot therapy as well as later, when she collects maggots from the pigoon's carcass. If she does not show her revulsion, it is only because she has learnt to repress the smell of rotting meat in order to carry out the therapy. After a hemorrhagic plague invades humanity, her fear and disgust towards the maggots is evident when she sees how the maggots have infested the pigoon's carcass. She has to force herself to imagine them as the more

acceptable land shrimp in order to collect them. This can indicate both her revulsion as well as subconscious attraction to meat.

The characters seem confused as to whether the maggots are helpful bio-surgeons or gruesome monsters. This confusion can be seen as an attempt to normalise savagery as a cultural practice, and it raises the spectre of the grotesque. Bakhtin's emphasis on the material side of human existence, the "grotesque realism" of physical body and the celebration of its degrading as well as regenerating effects (1965/1984, pp.18–19), is the acceptance of the grotesque realities of man's material life. It is perhaps a way of coming to terms with the "problematic nature of existence" and man's imperfect earthly life (Thomson, 1972, p. 11). That the maggots are both healing and monstrous, that they both feed on flesh and help to heal it, that humans and nonhumans are brought together in weird subhuman combinations involves inevitability and irresolvability. This is part and parcel of the grotesque nature of existence, "the awareness of the impossibility of awareness," to borrow a phrase from Edwards and Graulund (p. 142).

REFERENCES

- Atwood, M. (2009). *The year of the flood*. London: Bloomsbury.
- Bakhtin, M. (1984). *Rabelais and his world*. (H. Iswolsky, Trans.). Bloomington: Indiana University Press. (Original work published in 1965).
- Barasch, F. (1971). *The grotesque: A study in meanings*. The Hague & Paris: Mouton.
- Carroll, N. (1990). *The philosophy of horror or paradoxes of the heart*. New York: Routledge.
- Chao, S. L. (2010). *Rethinking the Concept of the Grotesque: Crashaw, Baudelaire, Magritte*. London: Modern Humanities Research Association and Routledge.
- Choudhary, V., Choudhary, M., Pandey, S., Chauhan, V. D., & Hasnani, J. (2016). Maggot debridement therapy as primary tool to treat chronic wound of animals. *Veterinary World*, 9(4), 403–409, doi: 10.14202/vetworld.2016.403-409
- Clayborough, A. (1965). *The grotesque in English literature*. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
- Cooke, N. (2004). *Margaret Atwood: A critical companion*. Westport, Connecticut: Greenwood Press.
- Dunlap, A. (2013). Eco-dystopia: Reproduction and destruction in Margaret Atwood's oryx and crake. *Journal of Ecocriticism: A New Journal of Nature, Society and Literature*, 5(1), 1–15. Retrieved from <https://ojs.unbc.ca/index.php/joe/article/view/389>
- Edwards, J., & Graulund, R. (2013). *Grotesque: The new critical idiom*. New York: Routledge: Taylor & Francis.
- Faure, E. (2015). *A necessary change from 'man' to 'homo sapiens': An ecocritical study of oryx and crake and the year of the flood by Margaret Atwood* (Bachelor's Degree Thesis). Universidad Nacional de Córdoba, Spain. Retrieved from <http://hdl.handle.net/11086/2294>
- Fleischmann, W., Grassberger, M., & Sherman, R. A. (2004). *Maggot therapy: A handbook of maggot-assisted wound healing*. Stuttgart: Medical Publishers.

- Freud, S. (1953). The 'uncanny'. (J. Strachey, Ed. & Trans.). *The standard edition of the complete psychological works of Sigmund Freud* (Vol. XVII, 1917-1919): An infantile neurosis and other works. London: Hogarth Press. (Originally published in 1919).
- Galbreath, M. (2010). *(Un)natural bodies, endangered species, and embodied others in Margaret Atwood's oryx and crake*. University of Central Florida, USA. (Electronic theses and dissertations). Retrieved from <http://star.library.ucf.edu/etd/4439/>
- Gottrup, F., & Jørgensen, B. (2011). Maggot debridement: An alternative method for debridement. *Eplasty: Open Access Journal of Plastic Surgery*, 11(e33), 290–302. Retrieved from <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC3136394/>
- Gough, N. (2003). Speculative fictions for understanding global change environments: Two thought experiments. *Managing Global Transition*, 1(1), 5–27. Retrieved from https://econpapers.repec.org/article/mgtyoungt/v_3a1_3ay_3a2003_3ai_3a1_3ap_3a5-27.htm
- Grassberger, M., Sherman, R. A., Gileva, O. S., Kim, C. M. H., & Mumcuoglu, K. Y. (Eds.). (2013). 'Maggot therapy', in *biotherapy – History, principles and practice*. Dordrecht: Springer Science and Business Media. doi 10.1007/978-94-007-6585-6
- Harpham, G. G. (1982). *On the grotesque: Strategies of contradiction in art and literature* (Vol. XXII). Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.
- Hirschler, B. (2009, March 19). Maggot no wonder cure for festering wounds. *Reuters: Science News*. Retrieved from <https://www.reuters.com/article/us-maggots-healing/maggots-no-wonder-cure-for-festering-wounds-idUSTRE52J09F20090320>
- Howells, C. A. (Ed.). (2006). *The Cambridge companion to Margaret Atwood*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Kayser, W. (1963). *The grotesque in art and literature*. (U. Weisstein, Trans.). Salome and Judas in the cave of sex. Evanston: Northwestern University Press.
- McKeever, J. (2014). *The potential of posthumanism: Reimagining utopia through Bellamy, Atwood, and Slonczewski* (Doctoral Thesis), The University of Texas at Arlington, USA.
- McKeon, R. (Ed.). (1941). *The basic works of Aristotle*. (R. P. Hardie & R. K. Gaye, Trans.). New York: Random House.
- Moghadam, N. S. (2013). *The grotesque in selected modern Persian and post-war British short stories* (Doctoral Thesis). Universiti Putra Malaysia, Malaysia. Retrieved from <http://www.pasir.upm.edu.my/41933/>.
- Mosca, V. (2013). Crossing human boundaries: Apocalypse and posthumanism in Margaret Atwood's oryx and crake and the year of the flood. *Altre Modernità*, 0(9), 38-52. doi: 10.13130/2035-7680/298
- Otto, E. C. (2012). *Green speculations: Science fiction and transformative environmentalism*. Columbus: Ohio State University Press.
- Ramana, K. V. (2012). Human myiasis. *Journal of Medical Microbiology and Diagnosis*, 1(2), 1–3. doi: 10.4172/2161-0703.1000e105.
- Sherman, R. A. (2009). Maggot therapy takes us back to the future of wound care: New and improved maggot therapy for the 21st century. *Journal of Diabetes Science and Technology Society*, 3(2), 336–344. doi: 10.1177/193229680900300215

- Strickland, E. (2009, March 20). Skip the maggots, Doc: Study shows they're not better for wound cleaning. *Discovery Magazine: The magazine of science, technology and future*. Retrieved from <http://blogs.discovermagazine.com/80beats/2009/03/20/skip-the-maggots-doc-study-shows-theyre-not-better-for-wound-cleaning/>
- Thomson, P. (1972). *The grotesque: The new critical idiom*. London: Methuen & Co. Ltd.
- Zimmer, C. (1993, August 1). The healing power of maggots. *Discovery Magazine: The Magazine of Science, Technology and the Future*. Retrieved from <http://discovermagazine.com/1993/aug/thehealingpowero259/>

The Influence of Interactivity on Corporate Cellular Service Quality for Performance Excellence in Jakarta and West Java Provinces

Ratih Hurriyati¹, Lili Adi Wibowo¹, Tjahjono Djatmiko² and Bachtiar H. Simamora^{3*}

¹*School Of Postgraduate, Indonesian University of Education, Bandung, Indonesia*

²*Management Doctorate Program, School Of Postgraduate, Indonesian University of Education, Bandung, Indonesia*

³*Department of Management, BINUS Business School, Undergraduate Program, Bina Nusantara University, 11480 Jakarta, Indonesia*

ABSTRACT

Competition among telecommunications service operators has been increasing significantly. "Quality," where it related to mobile telecommunications services, is an important keyword in the competition. This study aims to determine the effect of interactivity between operators and their customers as well as the influence of interactivity on the service quality of mobile operators. The sub-variables used for the interactivity (as independent variables) include control activities, interactivity responsibilities and non-verbal interactivities information. Quality of service is treated as a dependent variable. Sampling was conducted using the non-probability purposive sampling technique. Regression analysis showed that the quality of service is strongly influenced by the interactivity responsibilities sub-variable. On the other hand, the non-verbal interactivities information sub-variable had the least influence. The results indicate interactivity responsibility is considered to be the variable providing most influence on service quality, while the least influencing variable is the non-verbal information interactivity variable. The determination factor is 52.8%, meaning that

interactivity is just 52.8% of the required variables for influencing the quality of services, while the rest, which is 47.2%, is another variable that is not covered in the model.

Keywords: Control activities, non-verbal information activities, quality of service, responsibility activities

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received: 06 October 2017

Accepted: 12 March 2018

E-mail addresses:

ratih@upi.edu (Ratih Hurriyati)

liliadiwibowo@upi.edu (Lili Adi Wibowo)

tjah08no@gmail.com (Tjahjono Djatmiko)

bsimamora@binus.edu (Bachtiar H. Simamora)

*Corresponding author

INTRODUCTION

Competition among mobile telecommunications operators in Indonesia has been increasing. This rivalry is compounded by an indication that the cellular telecommunications services market is increasing rapidly to the point of saturation. Saturation of the market is related to indication that market growth has shrunk. Competition requires operators to increase their service quality. Quality of service is important because this factor is the only choice factor among customers. Quality of service is a very important variable in corporate competition. It is believed that product quality strongly influences a company's service quality. Interactivity is one of the factors affecting service quality. It has been stated that some telecommunications service providers do not have good interactivity with their

customers. Customers place such operators in the 'not good' category.

This article aimed to examine the correlation between interactivity, telecommunications service providers and their customers. Customers of mobile telecommunications service providers in the provinces of Jakarta and West Java were invited to be respondents in this research. The study employed the descriptive and verificative quantitative method and used three variables as the independent variables and one as the dependent variable. The independent variables were interactivity control (X1), interactivity responsibility (X2), and non-verbal information interactivity (X3), while the dependent variable was quality of service (Y). The non-probability purposive sampling technique was used. A Likert-scale measurement was used.

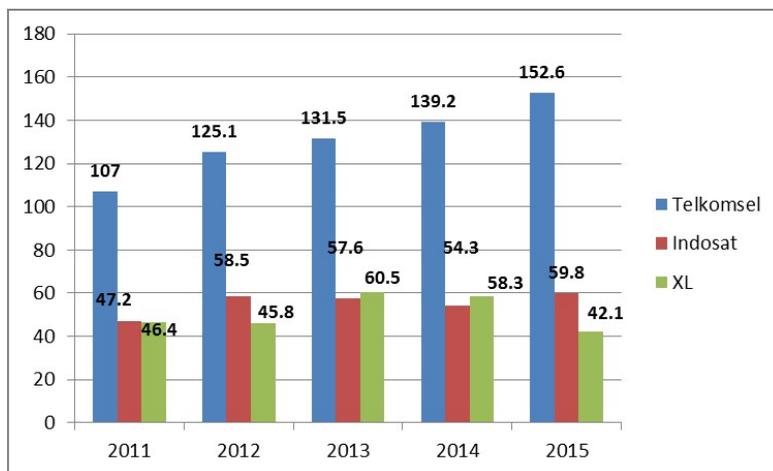


Figure 1. The number of subscribers of mobile telecommunications operators. Taken from the *Indosat Annual Report* by Indosat, 2013, 2014 and 2015 (<https://indosatooredoo.com/en/investor-relation/informasi-keuangan/laporan-tahunan>); *PT Telekomunikasi Selular Annual Report* by Telkomsel, 2013, 2014, 2015 (<http://www.telkomsel.com>); *Annual Report* by XL Axiata, 2013, 2014, 2015 (<https://www.xl.co.id/id/about-us/documents/annual-report>). In the public domain

As Figure 1 shows, the number of customers of the cellular telecommunication industry in Indonesia has grown since 2011. However, the growth has been decreasing in percentage year by year. The customer growth conditions are not the same for every operator. The growth of Telkomsel customers increased steadily over the past five years. However, the growth of customers of the other two operators fluctuated. The saturation in the telecommunications services industry in the last two years could be seen from the growth percentage, that was only about 1%. This growth has an implication for the way mobile telecommunications operators compete with each other.

Service quality of the operators is the key factor for success in the competition since the types of product launched by the operators are relatively similar. Yoo and Donthu (2001) stated that interactivity is one dimension by which the quality of a company's services can be measured. Interactivity can determine the quality of a company's services. The most important phase for determining quality is when there is interactivity between customers and a company (Al-Farsi & Basahel, 2014). The company must pay attention to interactivity factors, design and reliability as quality of services is supported by these factors (Al-Farsi & Basahel, 2014; Yoo & Donthu, 2001). Quality of services is necessary for a company as these factors contribute fairly to loyalty (Amin, Ahmad, & Hui, 2012). This research aimed to address customer perception about the interactivity provided

by mobile telecommunications operators in Jakarta and West Java and the impact of the interactivity factor on the operators' service quality.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Interactivity

With regard to mobile telecommunications, Lee (2012) and Lee, Moon, Kim and Yi (2015) defined interactivity as a state that users experience when they are interacting by using telecommunications services. The level of interactivity in mobile telecommunications services depends on the perception of users and also the awareness of potential users of the adequacy of the interaction provided (Wu, 2006). Interactivity refers to how a website responds to a consumer from an online environment (Zeithaml, 2002). The premium rate culture of the service market is characterised by the presence or absence of mobile interactivity services. Interactivity services are used as a reference that the product is a premium-rated product (Goggin, 2007).

Interactivity perception consists of three dimensions i.e. perception control, perception of response and perception of personalisation (Wu, 2006). Interactivity can be measured using three dimensions: communication, control and response (Song, 2008). Mobile services can be classified according to two kinds of interactivity, personal interactivity (interactivity between humans) and machine interactivity (interactivity between persons and machines). There is a clear distinction in how the performance of the two interactivity

types are measured (Nysveen, 2005). Interactivity is a dimension that can be used in measuring the quality of service companies (Yoo & Donthu, 2001). Interactivity using the Internet allows for responses that can enhance more personalised services (Bitner, 2000). In cellular services, a very different matter is that interactivity occurs in the advertisements of the cellular telecommunication services. In the cellular service, there are chosen response services. The difference between fixed-phone and mobile-phone services is the presence of mobile advertisement services in cellular services with interactivity between consumers and providers (Chaudhuri, 2001). The interactivity variable can be described using several dimensions such as interactivity control, interactivity responsibility and non-verbal information interactivity. The dimensions of the sub-construct can be described as follows:

1. Interactivity control is a sub-construct that describes the control level of service, the originality of obtaining information and the suitability of the services provided by the operator.
2. Interactivity responsibility is a sub-construct that describes the speed of the operator in responding and providing information to customers.
3. Non-verbal information interactivity is a sub-construct that describes icon availability and a numeric code that describes the type of service from the operators.

Quality of Service

Quality of service is defined as customers' experience of the difference between the services they have received and the services they expected. The constructs that measure the gap between customer expectations and customer perception of service are referred to as quality of service (Gronroos, 2000). Cellular telecommunications customers will choose a provider based on the service quality of the provider's network, and this includes the characteristics of the network, the coverage area and the service tariff (Karacuka, Catik, & Haucap, 2013). The definition of quality of service is an assessment or attitude related to the overall excellence of the service. Quality of service can be defined as the performance of the service, and this is the difference between expectations and perception of consumers (Parasuraman, 1988).

Interactivity between customers and the company allows customers to obtain responses from the company in more personalised ways that can describe the quality of service (Bitner, 2000). The quality of service is measured by the efficiency of the service quality, quality flexibility, service quality fulfilment and quality of service contacts. The superiority of service quality is key in achieving customer loyalty, which is treated as the company's primary goal by utilising customer retention (Ehigie, 2006).

A contact, especially time contact, between employees and customers, has a moderating effect on the relationship between employee loyalty and customer

perception of service quality (Silvestro, 2000). Satisfaction has a mediating effect on service quality dimensions (tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, empathy and assurance) and customer loyalty (Butcher, 2001; Caruana, 2002; Lam, 2006). Service quality dimensions can be classified into two main groups: yield group and process group. The yield group is a factor of reliability, while the process group consists of tangibility, responsiveness, assurance and empathy (Mosahab, Mahamad, & Ramayah, 2010). The relationship between service quality, customer satisfaction and customer loyalty can help companies determine target customers by using limited marketing resources (Kheng, Mahamad, Ramayah, & Mosahab, 2010). The dimensions of quality of service include (i) efficiency of service quality, which is a sub-construct describing the quality level of quality efficiency provided by operators; (ii) quality flexibility, which is a sub-construct describing the quality of flexibility for customers provided by operators with regard to the level of confidentiality of customer data; (iii) service

quality fulfilment, which is a sub-construct describing the service quality provided by operators in fulfilling customers' needs; and (iv) service contacts quality, which is a sub-construct describing the service quality related to the hospitality and treatment by officers in handling customer problems.

Framework

A description of the relationship between interactivity and the service quality was used as a reference in determining the author's framework. The framework was established by connecting the variable of interactivity with the service quality variable. The interactivity variable was measured using such dimensions such as activity control, activity responsibility and non-verbal interactivity information. Quality of service was measured using the dimensions of service quality efficiency, flexibility quality, fulfilment requirement quality and service contacts quality. Based on these descriptions, the framework of research was built as in Figure 2.

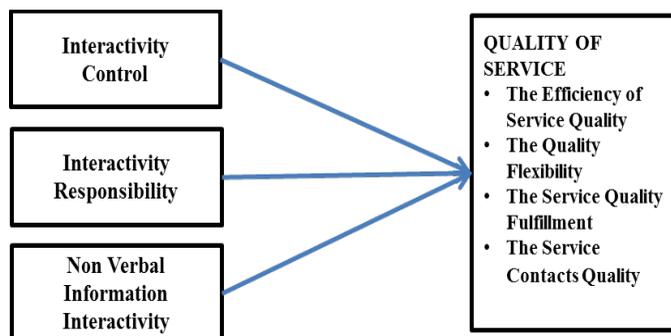


Figure 2. Framework. From “Antecedents and Consequences of Mobile Phone Usability: Linking Simplicity and Interactivity to Satisfaction, Trust, and Brand Loyalty” by Lee, Moon, Kim and Yi (2015), *Information and Management*, 52, 295–304. Copyright 2015 by the American Psychological Association.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

This study applied the quantitative method, where the random sampling technique was used. The multi-linear regression using SPSS was employed as an analysis technique. Descriptive and verificative analysis methods were also used in this research. The samples were taken from the subscribers of operators in DKI Jakarta and West Java Provinces, representing the whole population. The sample size (number of respondents) was determined using the Slovin Formula; the respondents were obtained from a population of 17.3 million customers; the error rate of 5% was 400 respondents. The researcher used a questionnaire that consisted of 11 questions describing the dimensions of interactivity control, interactivity responsibility, non-verbal information interactivity and quality of service. The multiple linear regression analysis was used for measuring the strength of the relationship between two variables and measuring the effect of variables that involved more than one independent variable (Sugiyono, 2012).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Profile of the Respondents

Description of respondents by age. Most of the respondents, 71% or 285 respondents, were between 20 and 35 years old, 8% or 32 respondents were below 20 years old and the remaining 21% or 83 respondents were above 35 years old. Hence, it could be concluded that most of the customers were above 35 years old.

Description of respondents based on occupation.

The majority of the respondents i.e. 63% or 252 respondents were private-sector employees, 11% or 42 respondents were civil servants, 11% or 43 respondents were employees of state-owned companies and the rest, about 16% or 63 respondents, were students/learners. Most of the respondents were from the private sector.

Description of respondents based on average customer income.

Most of the respondents, 42% or 167 respondents, had an income of more than IDR3.5 million, while 31% or 125 respondents earned between IDR1.5 and IDR2.5 million, 17% or 69 respondents earned between IDR2.5 and IDR3.5 million and the remaining 10% or 39 respondents earned less than IDR1.5 million. It could be concluded that the majority of the respondents were from the average-income group.

Respondents' Responses

The respondents' responses could be grouped by independent variable and dependent variable.

Responses grouped by independent variables.

The interactivity control variable (X1) showed a percentage of 60% i.e. it was neutral, while the interactivity responsibility variable (X2) showed a percentage of 70%, falling into the category of good and the non-verbal information interactivity variable (X3) showed a percentage of 64%, also falling into the neutral category. It can be concluded that almost all the

independent variables expressed by the respondents were in the neutral category, except for the interactivity responsibility variable, which was in the good category. The lowest response from the respondents was for the interactivity control variable. Thees responses concerning the independent variables indicated that the interactivity control needed improvement.

Responses grouped by dependent variables. The quality of the service variable had four items. The item, quality flexibility, obtained the highest response from the respondents at a percentage of 73%, categorizing it as good, while the efficiency of service quality and the service contacts quality obtained the lowest responses (60%) from the respondents, categorised as

neutral. Overall, quality of service received 66% responses, and this was categorised as neutral. The responses concerning the dependent variables indicated that the service contacts quality was a variable that needed to be improved.

Test Result

Classical assumption test. The Classical Assumption Test was used to test whether the data fulfilled the criteria of a good regression model; the multicollinearity test and normality test were used to implement the Classical Assumption Test. The tests revealed that there was no multicollinearity among the variables and the variables could be used as a tool to investigate and analyse the problem.

Table 1
Multicollinearity test

Model	Unstandardised Coeff		Stand Coeff	t	Sig	Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std Error				Beta	Tolerance
1 (Constant)	1.045	0.111					
Control	0.214	0.042	0.267	5.135	0.000	0.443	2.259
Responsibility	0.384	0.04	0.487	9.456	0.000	0.459	2.180
Non-Verbal Info	0.03	0.03	0.041	1.009	0.000	0.727	1.376

a. Dependent Variable: Quality

Results of multiple linear regression analysis. Based on the results of the calculations recorded in Table 1, it can be concluded that the form of multiple linear regression equations obtained was as follows:

$$Y = 1.045 + 0.214X1 + 0.384X2 + 0.030X3$$

The regression coefficient X1 was 0.214, the regression coefficient X2 was 0.384 and the regression coefficient X3 was 0.030; this means that for every increment, each dimension of interactivity control (X1), interactivity responsibility (X2) and non-verbal information interactivity (X3) will

increase the quality of service (Y) equal to the value of each regression coefficient. From the above equation, we can understand that the factor with the most influence from the interactivity variable is interactivity responsibility and the factor with the

least influence is non-verbal information interactivity.

Coefficient of determination. The calculation results performed using SPSS for the coefficient of determination are as shown in Table 2.

Table 2
Determination test

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	0.726 ^a	0.528	0.524	0.602	1.807

a. Predictors: (Constant), Nonverbal Info, Responsibility, Control
b. Dependent Variable: Quality

The R square is 52.8%, as given in Table 2, meaning that the independent variable (Xs) used in the model was able to explain the dependent variable, quality of service, (Y) which was 52.8%, while the remaining 47.2 % may be explained by the other variables not included in the research model.

Correlation between descriptive and verificative analysis results. The verificative analysis revealed that the variable with the most influence was interactivity responsibility, with a coefficient of 0.384, while the descriptive analysis revealed that the response percentage was 70%, the highest percentage of response. On the other hand, the interactivity control was the second most influential variable for quality of service, while the descriptive analysis showed that this variable received a response percentage of 60%, the lowest response by the respondents. This meant that

the variable, interactivity control, should be improved in order to increase the quality of service.

CONCLUSION

The variable of interactivity responsibility (X2) fulfilled the respondents’ desire at the response percentage of 70%, which was categorised as good. However, the variables of interactivity control (X1) and non-verbal information interactivity (X3) did not meet the wishes of the respondents, showing a percentage of 60% and 64%, respectively. This suggested that the operators have to take the necessary action to increase interactivity control and non-verbal information interactivity because the respondents perceived these two factors as being unfavourable.

The equations that correlate the dependent and independent variables illustrate that the most influential variable

was interactivity responsibility and the least influential variable was non-verbal information interactivity. This highlighted that the operators have to increase non-verbal information interactivity to improve quality of service. This is considered very important since quality of service will influence customer loyalty.

The coefficient of determination of 0.52.8 or 52.8 % illustrated that the interactivity variable gave an effect of 52.8% to the independent variable required by the model, while the remaining 47.2% was due to influence by other variables not in the model. It is clear that to increase the coefficient of determination in order to refine the accuracy of the results, more factors have to be added in the interactivity variable.

REFERENCES

- Al-Farsi, F., & Basahel, A. (2014). The sequence of electronic service quality on customer satisfaction: theoretical study. *Journal for Innovation Education and Research*, 2-03, 10–24.
- Amin, S. A., Ahmad, U. N. U., & Hui, L. S. (2012). Factors contributing to customer loyalty towards telecommunication service provider. *Procedia – Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 40, 282–286.
- Bitner, M. B. (2000). Technology infusion in service encounters. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 28(1), 138–149.
- Butcher, K. (2001). Evaluative and relational influences on service loyalty. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 12(4), 310–327.
- Caruana, A. (2002). Service Loyalty: The effects of service quality and the mediating role of customer satisfaction. *European Journal of Marketing*, 36(7), 811–828.
- Chaudhuri, A. (2001). The chain of effects from brand trust and brand affect to brand performance: The role of brand loyalty. *Journal of Marketing* 65(2), 81–93.
- Ehigie, B. O. (2006). Correlates of customer loyalty to their bank: A case study in Nigeria. *International Journal of Bank Marketing*, 24(7), 494–508.
- Goggin, G. (2007). Premium rate culture: The new business of mobile interactivity. *New Media and Society*, 9(5), 753–770.
- Gronroos, C. (2000). Creating a relationship dialogue: Communication, interaction and value. *The Marketing Review*, 1(1), 5–14.
- Indosat. (2013). *Indosat 2013 annual report on form 20-F*. Retrieved from <https://indosatooredoo.com/en/investor-relation/informasi-keuangan/laporan-tahunan>.
- Indosat. (2014). *Indosat 2014 annual report*. Retrieved from <https://indosatooredoo.com/en/investor-relation/informasi-keuangan/laporan-tahunan>.
- Indosat. (2015). *Indosat 2015 annual report*. Retrieved from <https://indosatooredoo.com/en/investor-relation/informasi-keuangan/laporan-tahunan>.
- Karacuka, M., Catik, N., & Haucap, J. (2013). Consumer choice and local network effects in mobile telecommunications in Turkey. *Telecommunications Policy*, 37(4), 334–344.
- Kheng, L. L., Mahamad, O., Ramayah, T., & Mosahab, R. (2010). The impact of service quality on customer loyalty: A study of banks in Penang, Malaysia. *International Journal of Marketing Studies*, 2(2), 57–66.

- Lam, R. (2006). SME banking loyalty (and disloyalty): A qualitative study in Hong Kong. *International Journal of Bank Marketing*, 24(1), 37–52.
- Lee, D., Moon, J., Kim, Y. J., & Yi, M. Y. (2015). Antecedents and consequences of mobile phone usability: Linking simplicity and interactivity to satisfaction, trust, and brand loyalty. *Information and Management*, 52(3), 295–304.
- Lee, Y. K. (2012). A understanding of website usability. *Decision Support Systems*. 52(2), 450–463.
- Mosahab, R., Mahamad, O., & Ramayah, T. (2010). Service quality, customer satisfaction and loyalty: A test of mediation. *International Business Research*, 3(4), 72–80.
- Nysveen, H. P. (2005). Intentions to use mobile services: Antecedents and cross-service comparisons. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 33(3), 330–346.
- Parasuraman, A. Z. (1988). Servqual: A multiple-item scale for measuring consumer perceptions of service quality. *Journal of Retailing*, 64(1), 12–40.
- Silvestro, R. C. (2000). Applying the service-profit chain in a retail environment: Challenging the satisfaction mirror. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 11(3), 244–268.
- Song, J. H. (2008). Determinants of perceived web site interactivity. *Journal of Marketing*, 72(2), 99–113.
- Sugiyono. (2012). *Metode penelitian bisnis* [Business research method]. Bandung: Penerbit Alfabeta.
- Telkomsel. (2013). *PT telekomunikasi selular 2013 annual report*. Retrieved from http://www.telkomsel.com/media/upload/annualreport/AR_Telkomsel_2013_ENG_managementreport.pdf
- Telkomsel. (2014). *PT telekomunikasi selular 2014 annual report*. Retrieved from http://www.telkomsel.com/media/upload/annualreport/AR_Telkomsel_2014_ENG_managementreport.pdf
- Telkomsel. (2015). *PT telekomunikasi selular 2015 annual report*. Retrieved from http://www.telkomsel.com/media/upload/annualreport/AR_Telkomsel_2015_ENG_managementreport.pdf
- Wu, G. (2006). Conceptualizing and measuring the perceived interactivity of websites. *Journal of Current Issues and Research in Advertising*, 28(1), 87–104.
- XL Axiata. (2013). *Annual report 2013*. Retrieved from <https://www.xl.co.id/id/about-us/documents/annual-report>
- XL Axiata. (2014). *Annual report 2014*. Retrieved from <https://www.xl.co.id/id/about-us/documents/annual-report>
- XL Axiata. (2015). *Annual report 2015*. Retrieved from <https://www.xl.co.id/id/about-us/documents/annual-report>
- Yoo, B., & Donthu, N. (2001). Developing a scale to measure the perceived quality of an internet shopping site SITEQUAL. *Journal of Electronic Commerce*, 2(1), 31–47.
- Zeithaml, V. P. (2002). *An empirical examination of the service quality-value-loyalty chain in an electronic channel*. Chapel Hill, NC: University of North Carolina.

Effect of Organisational Communication and Culture on Employee Motivation and Its Impact on Employee Performance

Idris Gautama So¹, Noerlina², Amanda Aubrey Djunggara¹, Rehan Fahrobi¹, Bachtiar H. Simamora^{1*} and Athapol Ruangkanjanases³

¹*Department of Management, BINUS Business School, Undergraduate Program, Bina Nusantara University, 11480 Jakarta, Indonesia*

²*Department of Information System, School of Information Systems, Bina Nusantara University, 11480 Jakarta, Indonesia*

³*Chulalongkorn Business School, Chulalongkorn University, Phayathai Road, Pathumwan, 10330 Bangkok, Thailand*

ABSTRACT

Human Resource Management is one of the most important factors in a company's operations. When changes happen, employees need to adapt to the work environment and this can influence many aspects of employees' working life. The performance of employees will influence the performance of an organisation and one of the factors that influences employee performance is employee motivation. The changes can be through communication and culture differences. Television broadcasting service companies must focus on their human resource because they employ a large number of workers. There are 19 major television companies in Indonesia. The broadcasting industry is one of the pioneers of private television stations in Indonesia. Media Citra Nusantara owns RCTI, Global TV and iNews TV. The purpose of this study is to determine the influence of organisational communication and organisational culture on employee motivation and its impact on employee performance in the broadcasting industry. The method of data collection

used in this study is the questionnaire. Questionnaires were distributed to 300 employees. The data analysis method used in this study is path analysis. The results of this study shows that organisational culture does not influence employee performance, while organisational communication and employee motivation influence employee performance.

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received: 06 October 2017

Accepted: 12 March 2018

E-mail addresses:

igautama@binus.edu (Idris Gautama So)

nurlina@binus.edu (Noerlina)

amanda.djunggara@binus.ac.id (Amanda Aubrey Djunggara)

rehan.fahrobi@binus.ac.id (Rehan Fahrobi)

bsimamora@binus.edu (Bachtiar H. Simamora)

athapol@cbs.chula.ac.th (Athapol Ruangkanjanases)

*Corresponding author

Keywords: Employee motivation, employee performance, organisational communication, organisational culture, path analysis

INTRODUCTION

Humans are social beings often need of help from others to carry out daily activities successfully. Communication is unavoidable for organisations to function. Communication is one of the most dominant and important activities in an organisation (Harris & Nelson, 2008). Employees are the force that moves a company towards its goals, and only through communication are a company's goals and objectives delivered to its employees. Human resource is a vital aspect of an organisation because the growth and the success of an organisation depend on its employees. Employees determine how a company operates its business.

A previous study has shown that different aspects of effective organisational communication such as high frequency, openness and accuracy, performance feedback and adequacy of information on organisational policies and procedures are positively related to employees' feelings of happiness in the workplace and job performance (Neves & Eisenberger, 2012). Another study showed that an organisation's communication system has a positive and significant effect on work motivation (Ramadanty & Martinus, 2016). Employee performance is influenced by motivation because if employees are motivated, they will put in more effort into work and will eventually improve their performance (Azar

& Shafighi, 2013). This study analyses organisational communication among employees of broadcasting companies. According to a preliminary interview with the Corporate Secretary of broadcasting companies, with the growing of number of employees today, there is a need to analyse employee performance. Rajhans (2012) stated that to manage the present performance of employees and to motivate them towards better performance, efficient communication practices are needed in all organisations. Thus, the focus of this study was to determine the effect of organisational communication and organisational culture on employee motivation and its impact on employee performance.

The scope of this study was the broadcasting industry in Jakarta, Indonesia. To collect data for this study, a survey was conducted among broadcasting companies. Employee in different positions and departments were recruited. This research was conducted in order: (1) to discover if organisational communication had an influence on employee motivation; (2) to discover if organisational culture had an influence on employee motivation; (3) to discover if organisational communication had an influence on employee performance; (4) to discover if organisational culture had an influence on employee performance; (5) to discover if employee motivation had an influence on employee performance; (6) to discover if organisational communication and organisational culture had an influence on employee motivation simultaneously; and (7) to discover if organisational

communication and organisational culture had an influence on employee motivation and what their impact was on employee performance.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Communication is a basic human function that is indispensable in the smooth running of an organisation, therefore the effectiveness of organisational communication has to be maintained in order to ensure overall good performance. Organisational communication covers the exchange of information, ideas and views within and without an organisation (Locker & Kaczmarek, 2010). Business communication is diverse, and involves both internal stakeholders within the organisation, as well as external stakeholders outside the organisation (Karki, 2012). Effective business communication therefore involves both internal as well as external communication. Internal organisational communication facilitates the flow of information among members of the organisation, while external communication occurs between organisational members and people outside the organisation.

Organisational communication determines how organisational culture is distributed throughout the company. Culture is the sum of the values and norms, code of attitude and way of thinking that is learnt within the family, school, social environment and work (Browaeyns & Price, 2011). There are three levels of culture: artifact, espoused beliefs/norms and values and basic underlying assumption. Artifacts are the visible products of the group such

as the architecture, language, technology and products, clothing style, myths and stories about a group and its rituals and ceremonies. Norms are written or unwritten rules of a society that explain what is happening; they determine what is right or wrong about behaviour and values, general preferences as to what is good or bad and how things should be. Culture also refers to the underlying assumptions that guide people's beliefs, actions and behaviour.

Organisational communication and culture can affect employee motivation depending on the work environment (Simamora, Marsellinus, & Hartono, 2016). Most employees need some motivation to feel good about their jobs and to perform optimally at their jobs. Some employees are money-motivated, while others find recognition and rewards personally motivating. Motivation levels within the workplace have a direct impact on employee productivity. Workers who are motivated and excited about their jobs carry out their responsibilities to the best of their ability, causing production numbers to rise as a result (Ganta, 2014). According to Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, motivation has five layers of needs: physiological needs, safety needs, belongingness and love needs, esteem needs and self-actualisation needs.

Employee motivation is one of the biggest factors that affect employee performance. Employee performance indicates the effectiveness of employees' specific actions that contribute to attaining organisational goals. It is defined as the way to perform job tasks according to the

prescribed job description (Iqbal, Ijaz, Latif, & Mushtaq, 2015; Simamora, 2013). Strengthening employee performance ultimately benefits the company. A qualified, skilled and motivated workforce contributes greatly to achieving organisational success (Rounok & Parvin, 2011). Employee

performance can be measure by the quantity, quality and timeliness of output, attendance at work and effectiveness and efficiency of completed tasks. The relationship between the four variables can be illustrated as done in Figure 1.

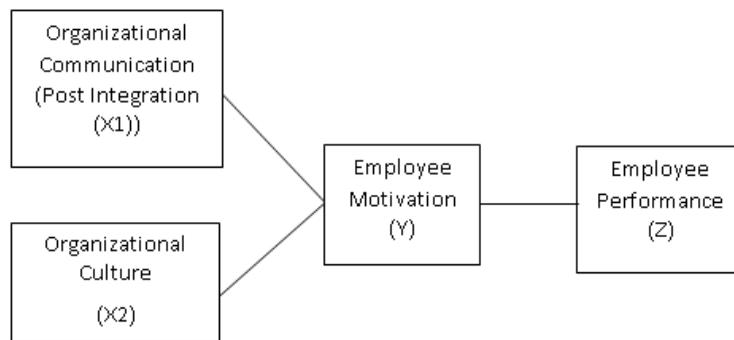


Figure 1. Theoretical framework

MATERIALS AND METHOD

This associative research study involved independent and dependent variables. The method used to collect data was a questionnaire that measured items using the Likert scale. The unit of analysis for this study was individual and involved employees of broadcasting companies. The time horizon was cross-sectional. The source of data was primary data collected from the questionnaire on organisational communication, organisation culture and employee motivation and performance in broadcasting companies. A population of 1,200 employees was whittled down to 300 employees using probability random sampling based on the Slovin formula.

The data analysis methods that were used were: (1) a validity test to determine whether the measurement tools that had been developed could be used for measuring to test how well the instrument was designed for measurement (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013); (2) a reliability test to test for bias to ensure consistent measurement across time and items in the instrument (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013); (3) a normality test to determine the data analysis to discover if data were distributed normally or not to ensure accuracy in the next step (Sugiyono, 2013); (4) a multicollinearity test to determine if the variables in the multiple regression model were associated (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013) to discover if the variables did not have a

relationship with one another because the multiple regression procedure assumes that no variable has a perfect linear relationship with other variables (Tabachnik & Fidell, 2014); (5) a heteroscedasticity test to discover if there was inequality of residual variance in the regression model (Ghozali, 2011), shown through the Spearman Rank Correlation between independent variables and the residual value; (6) a correlation test to identify and trace the influence of one variable on another (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013); if there is a relationship, the Pearson Correlation coefficient will indicate it, and show its strength and direction; (7) a multiple regression test

to discover the relationship between the dependent and independent variables to predict changes to a dependent variable value when the independent variable value increases or decreases (Sugiyono, 2013); and (8) path analysis, which is a model for analysing patterns of relationship between the variables and determining the direct or indirect influence of variable X (exogenous) on variable Y (endogenous); it is the direct extension of multiple regression test and uses the beta coefficients derived from the multiple regression test.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Table 1
Result of Regression Analysis

Influence of Variables	Path Coefficients (Beta)	Sig. Value	T-statistic	Results	R square (individually)	Coefficient Determination (R ²)
X1 on Y	0.277	0.000	4.720	Reject H ₀	9.6%	10.3%
X2 on Y	0.092	0.119	1.564	Accept H ₀	3.6%	
X1 on Z	0.087	0.049	1.975	Reject H ₀	2.5%	53.5%
X2 on Z	0.034	0.431	0.788	Accept H ₀	2.1%	
Y on Z	0.784	0.000	17.862	Reject H ₀	52.9%	

Independent variables: X1=Organisational communication; X2=Organisational culture; Mediating variable: Y=Employee motivation; Dependent variable: Z=Employee performance

Based on the regression analysis test result, organisational communication was seen to influence employee motivation, with an alpha score of <0.05 and a t-statistic of >1.65. This is supported by Rajhans (2012), who showed that communications have a crucial role to play in the management effort to direct employees affected by changes, or to inform and motivate those

who adapt more readily. Also, organisational communication influences employee performance, presenting an alpha score of <0.05 and a t-statistic score of >1.65. As stated by Bhatia and Balani (2015), effective internal communication plays an important role in improving the performance of employees.

Next, employee motivation was seen to influence employee performance as the alpha score was below 0.05 and the t-statistic score was above 1.65. This is supported by Chaudhary and Sharma (2012), who showed that highly motivated employees invest their best in carrying out their duties and responsibilities. Organisational communication and organisational culture influenced employee motivation by 10.3%

simultaneously, while the remaining 89.7% was influence of other factors. Organisational communication, organisational culture and employee motivation influenced employee performance by 53.5% and the remaining 46.5% reflected influence from other factors. In conclusion, according to the regression analysis results, employee motivation should be taken seriously by companies because it improves employee performance.

Table 2
Results of Path Analysis

Variables	Path Coefficient	Causal Influence			Nature of Path Coefficient
		Direct	Indirect through Y	Total	
X1 on Y	0.277	0.277	-	0.277	Moderate
X2 on Y	0.092	0.092	-	0.092	Weak
X1 on Z	0.087	0.23	$0.277 \times 0.784 = 0.217$	0.447	Strong
X2 on Z	0.034	0.90	$0.092 \times 0.784 = 0.072$	0.972	Moderate
Y on Z	0.784	0.784	-	0.784	Strong
ϵ_1	0.947	-	-	0.947	-
ϵ_2	0.681	-	-	0.681	-

Based on the path analysis results, organisational communication moderately influenced employee motivation directly and strongly influenced employee performance indirectly. Organisational culture influenced employee motivation only slightly but indirectly influenced employee performance moderately. Employee motivation strongly influenced employee performance directly. Also, the error of other variables that contributed to employee motivation was 0.947, while to employee performance it was 0.681.

CONCLUSION

Based on the analysis of this study, the following could be concluded: (1) Organizational communication significantly influenced employee motivation in broadcasting companies i.e. by increasing effective communication within the organisation, companies will increase employee motivation as well; (2) Organisational culture has no significant influence on employee motivation in broadcasting companies; (3) Organisational communication significantly

influenced employee performance i.e. by increasing effective communication within the organisation, companies will increase employee performance as well; (4) Culture has no significant influence on employee performance; and (5) Employee motivation significantly influenced employee performance i.e. by increasing employee motivation within the organisation, companies will improve employee performance.

Based on the analysis and discussion, it is recommended that broadcasting companies maintain organisational communication as it has been proven to influence employees to better perform their job. The questionnaire results showed that there was a good flow of communication among employees, with this factor receiving a high average score of 3.63. However, companies still need to improve their organisational communication system to improve employee motivation and employee performance. The authors propose some recommendations for companies. First, companies should build relationship among employees from all levels of managerial administration to bring employees closer as this will smoothen the communication process. Employees in the same department, for instance, can get together for celebrations or on a routine basis.

Companies should also involve employees in decision-making to prevent employees from feeling that the company pays little attention to them. The questionnaire results showed a low average score of 3.20 for the statement on asking and responding to feedback, suggesting that the

company's ask-and-respond system could be improved so that employees' opinions can be better heard. Lastly, because people process information differently, communication through multiple channels can help to upgrade the communication process. For example, companies could rely not only on email blasts but also text messages, phone calls or face-to-face conversation. The more the channels that are used, the more likely it will be for all employees to receive the message.

Next, this research showed that organisational culture did not have significant influence on employee motivation and employee performance. Nevertheless, it would still benefit companies to try to improve their organisational culture. According to the questionnaire results, there was good teamwork as work environment received a high average score of 3.82. Teamwork as a factor of organizational culture can be improved by listening to employees' needs and ideas and opinions through focus group discussions and routine meetings. Companies should show that they trust their employees to make good decisions on behalf of the company.

Lastly, companies should pay more attention to boosting employee motivation as this was showed to have a significant influence on employee performance. One of the factors that most affected employee motivation was recognition and appreciation of work done; this factor received a high average score of 3.91. Thus, companies should establish or expand their recognition system for employees; however, this

system should not to be confused with their compensation system because recognition answers psychological needs and is not a direct request for remuneration.

Furthermore, the compensation system should also be upgraded because the employees surveyed in this study felt that they were being paid unequally for their role and job profile. The questionnaire results showed a low average score of 3.12 for this factor. Companies should compensate and rewards employee appropriately by paying them a competitive salary based on industry rates; indeed, some people use their salary to measure their value to the company they work for. Hence, salary can influence employee performance as employees feel their work contributes to the company's success and will keep on giving better performance when they are being appreciated for it. Another suggestion is to redesign jobs through job rotation and enrichment so that employees do not feel stuck in the same dull pattern doing the same job every day. In conclusion, to enhance employee performance, companies may consider the recommendations of given in this paper. It should also be pointed out that there are other factors that influence employee performance that were outside the scope of this study, and it would do well for companies to consider them too.

REFERENCES

- Azar, M., & Shafiqhi, A. A. (2013). The effect of work motivation on employees' job. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 3(9), 1–9.
- Bhatia, K., & Balani, M. (2015). Effective internal communication: A crucial factor affecting employee performance. In *Proceedings of International Conference on Management, Economics and Social Sciences*. Dubai. ISBN: 9788193137321.
- Browaey, M. J., & Price, R. (2011). *Understanding cross-culture management*. Ontario: Perason Education.
- Chaudhary, N., & Sharma, D. B. (2012). Impact of employee motivation on performance (productivity) in private organization. *International Journal of Business Trends and Technology*, 2(4), 29–35.
- Ganta, V. C. (2014). Motivation in the work place to improve employee performance. *International Journal of Engineering Technology, Management and Applied Science*, 2(6), 221–230.
- Ghozali, I. (2011). *Aplikasi analisis multivariate dengan program SPSS [Application of multivariate analysis using the SPSS programme]*. Semarang: Badan Penerbit Universitas Diponegoro.
- Harris, T. E., & Nelson, M. D. (2008). *Applied organizational communication: theory and practice in a global environment*. New York: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Iqbal, A., Ijaz, M., Latif, F., & Mushtaq, H. (2015). Factors affecting employees' performance: A case of the banking sector in Pakistan. *European Journal of Business and Social Science*, 4(8), 309–318.
- Karki, J. (2012). Types of business communication. *Business Communication*. Retrieved from jkb-karki.blogspot.com/2012/02/types-of-business-communication.html?m=1
- Locker, K., & Kaczmarek, S. (2010). *Business communication: Building critical skills*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

- Neves, P., & Eisenberger, R. (2012). Management communication and employee. *Human Performance*, 25(5), 452–464.
- Rajhans, K. (2012). Effective organizational communication: A key to employee motivation and performance. *Interscience Management Review*, 2(2), 81–85 .
- Ramadanty, S., & Martinus, H. (2016). Organizational communication and motication in the work place. *HUMANIORA*, 7(1), 77–86.
- Rounok, N., & Parvin, M. M. (2011). Fostering employee performance: A literature review. *Industrial Engineering Letters*, 1(3), 1–9 .
- Sekaran, U., & Bougie, R. (2013). *Research methods for business*. West Sussex, UK: John Wiley & Sons.
- Simamora, B. H. (2013). Leadership for performance excellence. *International Business Management*, 7(4), 247–257.
- Simamora, B. H., Marsellinus, J., & Hartono, H. (2016). Strategy alignment with organizational culture assessment instrument (OCAI) results of cellular industry in Indonesia. *International Journal of Economics and Management*, 10(S1), 81–93.
- Sugiyono. (2013). *Statistika untuk penelitian* [Statistics for research]. Bandung: Alfabeta.
- Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2014). *Using multivariate statistic* (6th ed.). Boston: Pearson Education.



Business Strategy Selection Using SWOT Analysis with ANP and Fuzzy TOPSIS for Improving Competitive Advantage

Lim Sanny, Bachtiar H. Simamora*, Johanes Ronaldy Polla and Jason Lee Atipa

Department of Management, BINUS Business School, Undergraduate Program, Bina Nusantara University, 11480 Jakarta, Indonesia

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this research is to improve the dimension analysis of SWOT with group decision-making. This study analyses the internal and external environment of companies for formulating alternative strategies during the planning process of strategy formulation. The main focus of this research is to choose the best alternative strategy based on each factor and sub-factor of the SWOT analysis, where the strengths and opportunities are treated as advantages and weaknesses and threats are treated as costs. This research was completed using the Analytic Network Process (ANP) and Fuzzy Technique for Order Performance by Similarity to Ideal Solution (TOPSIS). The incorporation of the ANP and Fuzzy TOPSIS methods is proposed at the end of the study and can be applied with a SWOT analysis to formulate the best alternative strategy.

Keywords: ANP, Fuzzy TOPSIS, group decision-making, multi-criteria determination analysis, SWOT analysis

INTRODUCTION

Global trade in the era of hyper-competition is happening due to the development

of technology, information and various emerging business strategies. This opportunity should be utilised to the maximum by businesses because it lowers the entry barriers for opening a new business for domestic products. The globalisation of the economy on the one hand will open up domestic product market opportunities to the international market on a competitive basis, while also opening opportunities for global product entry into the domestic market. A

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received: 06 October 2017

Accepted: 12 March 2018

E-mail addresses:

lsanny@binus.edu (Lim Sanny,)

bsimamora@binus.edu (Bachtiar H. Simamora)

johanepolla@binus.edu (Johanes Ronaldy Polla)

jasonleeatipa@binus.ac.id (Jason Lee Atipa)

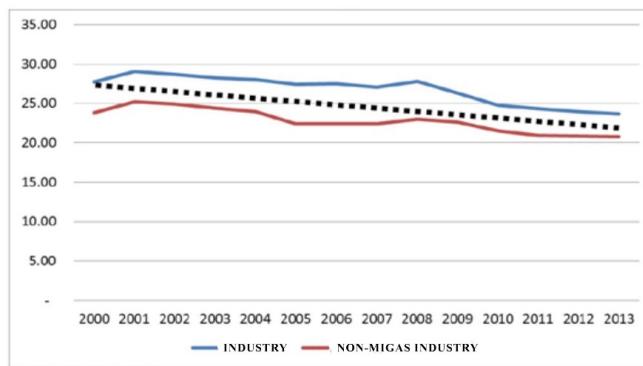
*Corresponding author

real example of this effect of globalisation is the existence of a free market, namely the growth of foreign products that cause Indonesian products to lose competitiveness in the market.

Industrial development in Indonesia has decreased from year to year. With the ACFTA (Asian China Free Trade Agreement), more and more Chinese products enter Indonesia, such as textile products, toys and other products, and these products are outperforming domestic products. In 2000,

the industrial sector accounted for 27.7% of Indonesia's total gross domestic product, with 23.8% coming from non-oil and gas industries. In 2001 the contribution of the industrial sector to the national economy increased to 29%, with non-oil and gas industries accounting for 25.2%. However, since 2002, the contribution of the industrial sector has decreased consistently, reaching 23.7% in 2013 and non-oil and gas industry contributing 20.8% (vibizmedia.com, 2015).

THE DEVELOPMENT OF INDUSTRIAL GDP PORTION
IN YEAR 2000 - 2013 (%)



Resource: BPS - edited

Figure 1. The proportion of industry in PDB. From “Optimism of Indonesia’s Economic Growth: Indonesian Industrial Development (2015-2019) - Part 1”, by vibizmedia.com, 2015. (<http://vibizmedia.com/2015/07/31/pembangunan-industri-indonesia-2015-2019-bagian-1/>). In the public domain

Figure 1 shows a decline in the contribution of industrial products to Indonesia’s GDP. With global trading mechanisms such as free trade agreements that facilitate cross-border trade and minimise trade barriers, the global market has become a competitive market target. Environmental analyses, especially internal and external, are critical to developing a sustainable competitive

advantage, identifying opportunities and threats and providing opportunities to cooperate with other companies. The literature reveals that different approaches and techniques are used for macro-environment.

The selection of a global business strategy will have a profound impact on corporate growth. These strategies, such as

alliance, acquisition and diversification, can help a company to improve its performance and will have an effect on increasing its competitive advantage. The strategy can be run if it is in line with the vision and mission of the company. The decision of a company to take systematic service improvement action is decisive in following up on consumer complaints so that it can ultimately bind consumer loyalty (Elu, 2005).

LITERATURE REVIEW

According to David (2011), the purpose of an external audit is to develop a limited list of opportunities that can benefit a company and the threats it should avoid. As indicated by limited terms, external audits do not aim to develop a comprehensive list of all factors that affect business, but rather identify the key variables that offer action responses. Companies must be able to respond either offensively or defensively to these factors by formulating strategies that can take advantage of external opportunities or opportunities or that minimise the impact of potential threats. The major external forces are divided into five broad categories: 1) Economic strength; 2) Social, cultural, demographic, and environmental strengths; 3) Political, governmental and legal strengths; 4) The power of technology; and 5) Competitive strength.

Internal Audit

According to David (2011), an organisation has strengths and weaknesses in the functional areas of business. No business is

strong or weak in all areas. Internal strengths and weaknesses, coupled with external opportunities and threats and clear mission statements provide the basis for setting goals and strategies. Goals and strategies are set with the aim of utilising strengths and overcoming internal weaknesses.

Internal strengths can be divided into six categories: 1) The power of management; 2) The power of marketing; 3) Financial strength/accounting; 4) Strength of production/operation; 5) Strength of research and development; and 6) Strength of information management systems. SWOT analysis is at the core of any strategy to direct its resources and capabilities to external corporate environmental opportunities (Yuksel, 2011). Therefore, the relationship between a company and its environment in terms of strategic management refers to the external conditions of the environment and the internal environment (resources and abilities).

David (2011) described the SWOT analysis as a systematic way to identify factors of strength (STRENGTH), weakness (WEAKNESS) within a company and factors opportunity (OPPORTUNITY) and threat (THREAT) within the environment facing the company. This analysis is based on the assumption that an effective strategy will maximise strengths and opportunities and minimise weaknesses and threats. SWOT analysis studies the following aspects of an organisation:

- 1) Strengths: Resources (financial, human, energy, machinery, buildings and so on) skills or distinctive advantages

possessed by other individuals or organisations. Strengths are also called core distinctives or core competencies.

- 2) Weaknesses: Limitations or lack of resources, skills, capabilities that hinder the progress of the company in performance (competency), profits income, improvement managerial and product.
- 3) Opportunities: Important situations that benefit the company; it is very important for companies to be able to see various opportunities well from the lens of business to achieve its targets and goals.
- 4) Threats: Important situations that are unprofitable can be eliminated or be repaired, no matter how the company overcomes them; obstacles have the capability of inhibiting progress and are not profitable.

Framework of Thinking

The framework for this research is illustrated in Figure 2.

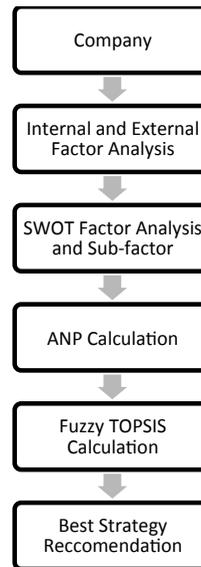


Figure 2. Research framework

MATERIALS AND METHODS

In this study, the authors used the descriptive research method. The analytical method used the concept of strategy formulation framed by David (2011), which covers three stages of implementation and uses the matrix as

an analytical model. The three stages of the framework in question are the input stage, matching stage and decision-making stage. Figure 3 shows the operational variables employed in this research.

Operational Variables

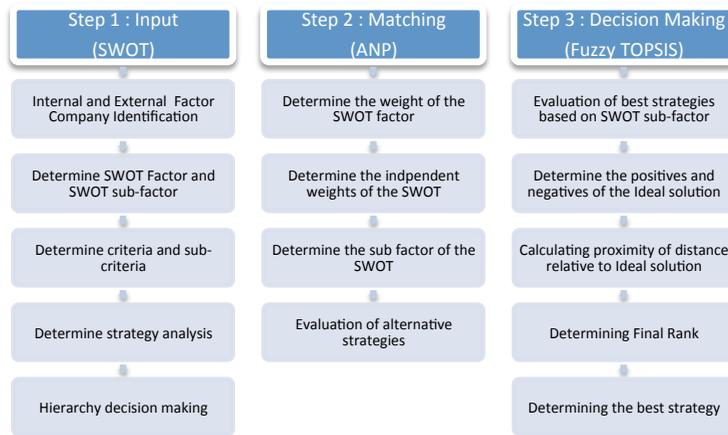


Figure 3. Operational research variables

SWOT Matrix Analysis

A SWOT matrix is an important matching tool that helps managers to develop four types of strategy: SO strategy (strengths-opportunities), WO strategy (weaknesses-opportunities), ST strategy (strengths-threats) and WT strategy (weaknesses-threats). Matching the major external and internal factors is the most difficult part of developing a SWOT matrix and requires good judgement according to David (2011).

SO strategy. An SO strategy uses a company’s internal strengths to take advantage of external opportunities. All managers desire their organisation to be in a position where internal strengths can take advantage of external trends and events. Organisations will generally adopt WO, ST or WT strategies to prepare the ground for implementation of an SO strategy. If the company has serious weaknesses, it will

struggle to overcome them and turn them into a force. When an organisation is faced with a great threat, the company will first try to circumvent it by concentrating on opportunities available to it.

WO strategy. A WO strategy aims to improve an internal weakness by taking advantage of external opportunities. Sometimes, there are key external opportunities but also internal weaknesses that hinder the company from exploiting them.

ST strategy. An ST strategy uses corporate power to avoid or reduce external influences and threats. This does not mean that a strong organisation must always face threats in its external environment directly.

WT strategy. A WT strategy is a defensive tactic aimed at reducing internal weaknesses and avoiding external threats. An organisation that faces a barrage of

external threats and internal weaknesses is in a perilous position. In reality, such companies may have to struggle to survive, merge, shrink, declare bankruptcy or opt for liquidation.

According to David (2011), there are eight steps in creating a SWOT matrix: 1) Make a list of some of the company’s major external opportunities; 2) List some of the company’s major external threats; 3) List some of the company’s major internal strengths; 4) List some of the company’s major internal weaknesses; 5) Match internal strengths with external opportunities and note the results in an SO strategy cell; 6)

Match the internal weaknesses with external opportunities and note the results in a WO strategy cell; 7) Match internal strengths with external threats and note the results in a ST strategy cell; and 8) Match the internal weaknesses with external threats and record the results in a WT strategy cell.

The purpose of each matching tool in Stage 2 is to generate a viable alternative strategy, rather than to choose which strategy works best. Not all strategies developed in the SWOT analysis will be selected for implementation. Table 1 below shows the Matrix SWOT:

Table 1
SWOT Matrix

	Internal	STRENGTH (S) Determine 5-10 Internal Strength Factors	WEAKNESS (W) Determine 5-10 External Weakness Factors
External			
OPPORTUNITY (O) Determine 5-10 external opportunity factors		SO STRATEGY Creating strategies that use force to take advantage of opportunities	WO STRATEGY Creating strategies that minimise weaknesses to take advantage of opportunities
THREAT (T) Determine 5-10 external threat factors		ST STRATEGY Creating strategies that use force to overcome threats	WT STRATEGY Creating strategies that minimise weaknesses and avoid threats

ANP Analytic Network Process (ANP)

Analytic Network Process or ANP is a mathematical theory that allows a decision maker to face factors of interrelated dependence and feedback systematically. ANP is one of the Multiple Criteria Decision-Making (MCDM) methods developed by Thomas L. Saaty. This method is a new approach among qualitative methods, and is a further development of the previous

method of Analytic Hierarchy Process (AHP) (Tanjung & Devi, 2013).

An advantage of ANP over other methods is its ability to assist decision makers in measuring and synthesising a number of factors in the hierarchy or network. Among the many advantages of this new method is the simplicity of the concept offered. The simplicity of this method allows for its easy application

in diverse study areas such as decision-making, forecasting, evaluation, mapping, strategising and resource allocation, among others.

ANP is used to solve problems that depend on alternatives and criteria. In analytical techniques, ANP uses paired comparisons of alternatives and project criteria. In the AHP network there is a level of objectives, criteria, sub-criteria and alternatives, where each level has elements. Meanwhile, the level in AHP is called a cluster on an ANP network that can have criteria and alternatives in it, which is now called a node.

By using feedback networks, elements can be dependent or tied to components such as hierarchical networks but can also depend on the same elements. Furthermore, an element may depend on other elements

present in a component. A component is a straight line connecting to another cluster, which is called the outer dependence. However, the elements that will be compared are in the same component, so that the elements form a relationship, a “line of rotation”, which is then called an inner dependence.

This axiom states that the elements to be compared are not too different from one another. If the difference between them is too large it will have an impact as a larger assessment error. The scale used in AHP and ANP differs from the scale used in general Likert measurements, which is commonly 1 to 5. The scale used in the ANP has a larger range i.e. 1 to 9 or even wider. Table 2 records the scale used in the weighting of the ANP.

Table 2
ANP scale table

Description	Level of Interest	Explanation
Very much greater influence/ importance level	9	The evidence in favour of one element versus the other has the highest proof of possible affirmation.
Between grades 7 and 9	8	The value of a compromise between two adjacent values
Very big influence/level of importance	7	One element is stronger than the other, and the dominant is shown in practice.
From the value 5 to the value 7	6	The value of a compromise between two adjacent values
Greater influence/degree of importance	5	Powerful experiences and judgements support one element over the other.
Between 3 and 5	4	The value of a compromise between two adjacent values
Slightly greater influence/level of interest	3	Experience and judgement slightly support one element versus the other.
Between 1 and 3	2	The compromise value is between two adjacent values.
Equally influential/level of interest	1	Two comparable elements contribute in the same way towards achieving the goal.

Note: Adapted from “Application of ANP and TOPSIS Fuzzy Methods in Determining Marketing Strategy” by P. Astuti, 2014, Undergraduate Thesis, Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia

ANP Main Function

According to Tanjung and Devi (2013) there are three main functions of ANP, which are considered below.

Structuring complexity. Complex problems, if not well structured, will be difficult to decipher. For complicated and complex problems, ANP helps in structuring the problem.

Measurement in ratio scale. Measurements using a ratio are necessary to reflect the proportion from subject. Any method with a hierarchical structure should use a scale priority ratio for elements above the lowest level of the hierarchy. This is important because the priority (weighting) of elements at any level of the hierarchy is determined by dividing the priority of the parent element. Since the multiplication of two interval level measurements is mathematically meaningless, a ratio scale is required for this multiplication.

Synthesis. Synthesis means uniting all parts into one. Because matters such as critical decision situations, forecasts and allocations of resources all often involve too many dimensions for humans to intuitively

synthesise, a method for synthesising these problems from many dimensions is needed. A more important function in the ANP is its ability to assist decision makers in measuring and synthesising a number of factors in the hierarchy or network.

Fuzzy Concept

A fuzzy set is an object class with a continuum membership value. As specified by the membership function (characteristic) assigned to each object the membership class ranges between zero and one. According to Rouhani, Mehdi and Mostafa (2012) there are about five basic definitions of fuzzy, as quoted from Amiri (2010). These are explored below.

First, a number of fuzzy triangles can be defined by (a_1, a_2, a_3) . The membership function $\mu_{\tilde{a}}[x]$ is defined as follows:

$$\mu_{\tilde{a}}[x] = \begin{cases} 0; & x \leq a_1 \\ \frac{x - a_1}{a_2 - a_1} & ; a_1 < x \leq a_2 \\ \frac{a_3 - x}{a_3 - a_2} & ; a_2 < x \leq a_3 \\ 0; & x \geq a_3 \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

Figure 4 shows the triangular fuzzy number expressed in graphic form.

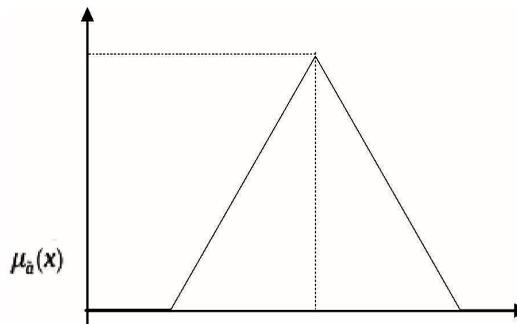


Figure 4. Triangular fuzzy number (TFN). From “An Integrated Approach with Group Decision Making for Strategy Selection in SWOT Analysis” by Yuksel, 2011, *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 2(11), p. 134–161. Copyright 2015 by the American Psychological Association

Second, if the two fuzzy numbers of triangles respectively, then the operational law of the are indicated by (a_1, a_2, a_3) and (b_1, b_2, b_3) , two fuzzy numbers of triangles is as follows:

$$\tilde{a}(+) \tilde{b} = (a_1, a_2, a_3)(+)(b_1, b_2, b_3) = (a_1 + b_1, a_2 + b_2, a_3 + b_3) \tag{2}$$

$$\tilde{a}(-) \tilde{b} = (a_1, a_2, a_3)(-)(b_1, b_2, b_3) = (a_1 - b_1, a_2 - b_2, a_3 - b_3) \tag{3}$$

$$\tilde{a}(x) \tilde{b} = (a_1, a_2, a_3)(x)(b_1, b_2, b_3) = (a_1 x b_1, a_2 x b_2, a_3 x b_3) \tag{4}$$

$$\tilde{a}(/) \tilde{b} = (a_1, a_2, a_3)(/)(b_1, b_2, b_3) = (a_1/b_1, a_2/b_2, a_3/b_3) \tag{5}$$

$$k \tilde{a} = (k a_1, k a_2, k a_3) \tag{6}$$

Third, a linguistic variable that comes with words like very low, low, medium, high and very high is used to describe complex conditions. Fuzzy numbers can also represent linguistic values.

Fourth, if \tilde{a} and \tilde{b} are the two fuzzy numbers of triangles that have been shown by each triplet (a_1, a_2, a_3) and (b_1, b_2, b_3) , then the vertex method used to determine the distance between \tilde{a} and \tilde{b} is:

$$d(\tilde{a}, \tilde{b}) = \sqrt{\frac{1}{3} [(a_1 - b_1)^2 + (a_2 - b_2)^2 + (a_3 - b_3)^2]} \tag{7}$$

Fifth, weighted normalisation of the fuzzy decision matrix is made using the formula below:

$$\tilde{V} = [\tilde{v}_{ij}]_{n \times j} \quad i=1,2,\dots,n \text{ and } j=1,2,\dots,m \tag{8}$$

$$\tilde{v}_{ij} = \tilde{x}_{ij} \otimes \tilde{w}_i \quad \tilde{x} = (\tilde{x}_{ij}, i = 1,2, \dots, n, j = 1,2, \dots, m) \tag{9}$$

A set of alternative rating presentations $A_j = (j=1, 2, \dots, m)$ with criteria $C_i = (i=1, 2, \dots, n)$ and a set of weights of importance to each criterion with $W_i, i=1, 2, \dots, n$ and linguistic variables are used to assess alternative

ratings and criteria provided by decision makers in pairwise comparisons. In the preparation of the scale of interest, the Saaty scale can be transformed into triangular fuzzy number. The scale is shown in Table 3.

Table 3
Scale fuzzy number

(Fuzzy Number) Adjustment to the Saaty Scale	TFN	Linguistic Scale for Relative Weights of Criteria	Linguistic Scale for the Performance Value of Alternative
9	(7,9,9)	Absolutely more important	Very good
7	(5,7,9)	More important	Good
5	(3,5,7)	More important	Medium
3	(1,3,5)	Less important	Bad
1	(1,1,3)	Equally important	Really bad

Note: Adapted from “Application of ANP and TOPSIS Fuzzy Methods in Determining Marketing Strategy” by P. Astuti, 2014, Undergraduate Thesis, Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia

The membership function curve for scale in Table 3 can be described as shown in Figure 5.

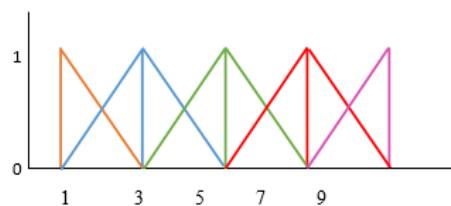


Figure 5. Curve for assessment scale. From “Application of ANP and TOPSIS fuzzy methods in determining marketing strategy” by Astuti, 2014, Undergraduate Thesis, Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia

In the initial process, the data are processed in the form of fuzzy numbers and the output is in the form of fuzzy numbers, while the input for the next process uses real numbers. Therefore, the process of mapping fuzzy numbers onto real numbers uses the average method of geometry.

Fuzzy TOPSIS

TOPSIS is a method of identifying solutions from a set of several criteria and limited alternatives (Ashtiani, Haghghirad, Makui, & Montazer, 2008). The basic principle is that the chosen alternative must have the shortest distance from the positive ideal solution and the furthest distance from the ideal negative solution. In TOPSIS, the performance rating and weighting criteria are assigned crisp values.

The main advantage of TOPSIS compared to other methods of complex problem decision-making is that it is easy to use, it can take into account all types of criterion (subjective and objective), it follows rational logic and is easy for practitioners to understand, the calculation process is very easy and the concept allows the best alternative criteria to be depicted. Mohamad and Ibrahim (2017) said that the Fuzzy set with similarity measure approaches is known

to be effective in handling imprecise and subjective information in solving decision-making problems. Many methods have been introduced based on these two concepts. However, most methods do not take into account the reliability factor of the imprecise information in the evaluation process. Using simple mathematics, important weights can be easily inserted (Nasab & Milani, 2012). According to Ashtiani et al. (2008), the multi-criteria decision-making of a problem has n number of alternatives A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n and m criteria C_1, C_2, \dots, C_m . Each alternative is evaluated with respect to the criteria. All values/ratings assigned to alternatives with respect to the decision matrix are denoted by $X(X_{ij})_{n \times m}$.

The steps of TOPSIS Fuzzy method introduced by Onut and Soner (2007) are as follows:

- a. Use linguistic choice for alternatives: Fuzzy linguistic assessment [0,1] and no need for normalisation
- b. Calculate the normalisation decision matrix

$$\tilde{v}_{ij} = \tilde{x}_{ij} \times w_i \tag{10}$$
- c. Determine the ideal solution and the negative ideal solution of the following equation:

$$A^- = \{V_1^-, \dots, V_i^-\} = \{(min \tilde{V}_{ij} | i \in \Omega b), (max \tilde{V}_{ij} | i \in \Omega c)\} \tag{11}$$

$$A^* = \{V_1^*, \dots, V_i^*\} = \{(max \tilde{V}_{ij} | i \in \Omega b), (min \tilde{V}_{ij} | i \in \Omega c)\} \tag{12}$$

Ω_b is a set of profit criteria and Ω_c is a set of cost criteria.

d. Calculate the distance of each alternative from the ideal solution using the following equation:

$$e. D_i^+ = \sum_{j=1}^m d(\tilde{V}_{ij}, A^+) \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n \quad (13)$$

f. Calculate preference with ideal solution:

$$D_i^- = \sum_{j=1}^m d(\tilde{V}_{ij}, A^-) \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n \quad FC_i = \frac{D_i^-}{D_i^- + D_i^+} \quad (14)$$

The greatest preference value indicates that the alternative becomes more elected. Selected strategy alternatives can be considered for determining the right marketing strategy.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The structure of hierarchical decisions using SWOT factors, sub-factors and alternative strategies is shown in Figure 6.

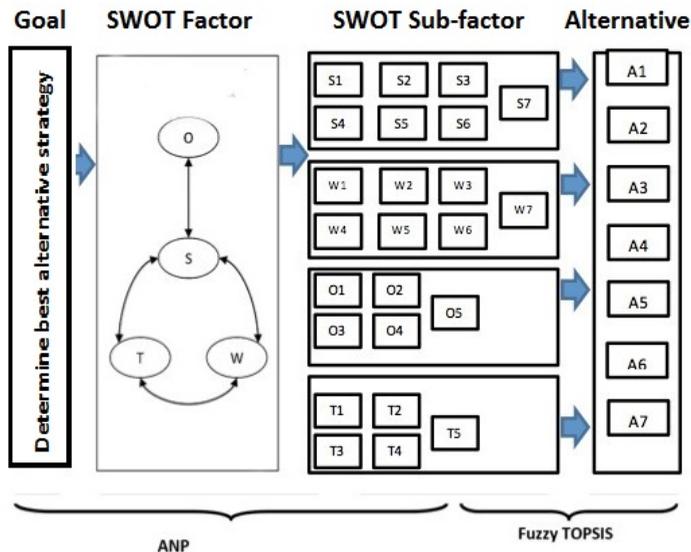


Figure 6. Model for decision-making

This analysis is used to derive the best strategy as the first step. The second stage is used to determine the factors of the SWOT analysis; the SWOT factors are divided into internal and external factors of the company. The SWOT analysis can be more effective and relevant when calculated using ANP techniques. In this third stage all sub-factors of the SWOT are used to perform the appropriate analysis to determine the right alternative strategy for the company. The fourth stage is to formulate the best alternative strategy for the company from the SWOT factors and its sub-factors.

The input stage consists of factors from the SWOT analysis, including the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats. The matching stage consists of SWOT sub-factors, and both stages are tested using the ANP calculation run on the Super Decision software. Furthermore, the final stage is the decision-making stage, in which the results of the SWOT sub-factor calculation using ANP is combined with an alternative strategy determined using the Fuzzy TOPSIS method. In this research the strategy of cooperation with business partners was found to be the best strategy with the biggest score among the alternative strategies. This strategy is widely used to enhance the competitive advantage of a company to establish cooperation covers to provide the best price, creating a win-win solution for fellow business partners, strengthening relationships with customers and business partners and maintaining solidarity by holding regular events.

These results agree with those of a previous study by Yuksel (2011) that the right strategy for the company can be done in three stages: working group, ANP calculation and calculation using Fuzzy TOPSIS. The best alternative strategy, as concluded by this study, is to reduce profit margin i.e. to lower product prices. Although the best alternative strategies are different, the components in the research methodology used are more or less the same. Also, this research recommends that the best strategy is long-term planning of a company that is in accordance with the company's vision and mission.

Second, the results of this study were in line with previous studies conducted by Yuksel (2011) that showed that companies can use PESTEL and ANP analysis to formulate the right strategy for the company's macro-environment in the country. Although the method used was different, the purpose of the research was the same i.e. to determine the best alternative strategy for the company.

Third, the results of this study were in line with previous studies conducted by Azimi, Yazdani-Chamzini, Fouladgar, Zavadskas and Basiri (2011) that showed that the best strategy for the mining sector is to increase production and repair in decision-making based on a similar analysis using SWOT, ANP and TOPSIS. Although alternative results of the resulting strategies were different, the objectives of the research were the same i.e. to determine the best strategy for the company.

Fourth, the results of this study were in line with previous studies conducted by Bruno and Ivana (2015) that showed that SWOT analysis, Fuzzy TOPSIS and K-Means could be used to formulate strategic alternatives for the economic development of Croatia.

Finally, the results of this study indicated that in line with previous research conducted by Alptekin (2013) to formulate alternative results, the best strategy was to support innovation as a requirement to increase consumer demand by using SWOT analysis and TOPSIS. Alptekin's research focussed on furniture companies and used only SWOT analysis and TOPSIS test.

CONCLUSION

It can be concluded that the condition of internal and external factors are: 1) Strengths that comes from internal factors of the company; 2) Weaknesses that come from internal factors of the company; 3) Opportunities that come from external factors of the company; and 4) Threats from external factors.

The strengths of Indonesian companies include the fact that competitors in the mechanical electrical industry are still few, support for domestic products is growing, there is high solidarity in work, there is abundant employment, development is very high, the citizens are friendly, making it is easier for businesses to be run. The most highly prized strength of a company is the ability to fulfil time commitments. Their weaknesses include constraints in the import of products,

ineffective and inefficient human resources, rampant wild fee charges, labour strikes and disturbances, high entertainment costs in business approaches and differences in standard regulations between countries and unknown brand image.

Opportunities that companies in Indonesia can take advantage of include improved government systems that support local products, increasingly visible business opportunities with time-lapsing, improved Indonesian education that has an effect on employment, improved technology and high development levels. Finally the threats to Indonesian companies include inadequate economic conditions, poor moral influences such as corruption, collusion and nepotism, tighter government policy on imports and the existence of MEA (ASEAN Economic Community), which has led to more competitors flooding the market.

Alternative business strategies can be formulated through data matching using ANP consisting of SWOT factors and SWOT sub-factors. The input stage of SWOT analysis is based on calculation using ANP and SWOT factors. The first rank is the opportunity with the largest total weight of 0.372, the second rank is the threat with a weight of 0.198 and the last is the weakness with a weight of 0.126. Based on this it is evident that the company's opportunities are still great for increasing competitive advantage.

In the data matching stage using ANP, SWOT factors and SWOT sub-factors, the strength of on-time project process (S7) had the largest weight of 0.084 compared

with the other sub-factors. In the weakness category, the company's unknown brand image (W7) had the greatest weight of 0.041, compared with other weakness sub-factors. In the opportunity category, the level of development in Indonesia was found to be very high (O2), with the greatest weight being 0.086 compared with other sub-factors of opportunity. In the threat category, the higher corporate receivables (T3) had the largest weight of 0.078 compared with other sub-factor threats.

In the decision-making phase using Fuzzy TOPSIS, the best alternative strategy for a company was found to be a partnership with business partners (A6). This was ranked first with the greatest weight of other alternative formulation strategies. From the data processing using the Fuzzy TOPSIS method, a partnership with Business Partners (A6) ranked first, with a total score of 0.634701. This score was the highest compared with six other alternative strategies, which were: 1) Improve the work system within the company (A5), with a total score of 0.60371 in second ranking; 2) Increase the company's performance level (A4), with a total score of 0.567873 in third ranking; 3) Expand target market (A3), with a total score of 0.504744 in fourth ranking; 4) Increase sales (A1), with a total score of 0.434995 in fifth ranking; 6) Improve the quality of product design (A7), with a total score of 0.37586 in sixth ranking; and 8) Operational cost efficiency (A2), with a total score of 0.373045 in the last ranking.

REFERENCES

- Alptekin, N. (2013). Intergration of SWOT analysis and TOPSIS method in strategic decision-making process. *The Marcotheme Review*, 2(7), 1–8.
- Amiri, M. P. (2010). Project selection for oil development by using AHP and fuzzy TOPSIS. *Expert System with Application*, 37(9), 6218–6224.
- Ashtiani, B., Haghighirad, F., Makui, A., & Montazer, G. A. (2008). Extension of fuzzy TOPSIS method based in interval-valued fuzzy sets. *Applied Soft Computing*, 8(2), 457–461.
- Astuti, P. (2014). *Penerapan metode fuzzy ANP dan TOPSIS dalam penentuan strategi pemasaran* [Application of ANP and TOPSIS fuzzy methods in determining marketing strategy] (Undergraduate Thesis), Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia, Indonesia.
- Azimi, R., Yazdani-Chamzini, A., Fouladgar, M., Zavadskas, E., & Basiri, M. (2011). Ranking the strategies of mining sector through ANP and TOPSIS in a SWOT framework. *Journal of Business Economics and Management*, 12(4), 670–689. <http://dx.doi.org/10.3846/16111699.2011.626552>
- Bruno, T. R., & Ivana, B. (2015). Evaluation of Croatian development strategies using SWOT analysis with fuzzy TOPSIS method and k-means method. *Journal of Economics, Business and Management*, 3(7), 687–693.
- David, F. R. (2011). *Strategic management*. Jakarta: Salemba Empat.
- Elu, B. (2005). Manajemen penanganan komplain konsumen di industri jasa [Management of consumer complaints handling in service industry]. *Jurnal Ilmu Administrasi dan Organisasi, Bisnis dan Birokrasi*, 13(3), 1–13.

- Lynch, R. (2009). *Strategic management*. England: Pearson Education Limited.
- Mohamad, D., & Ibrahim, S. Z. (2017). Decision making procedure based on Jaccard similarity measure with z-numbers. *Pertanika Journal of Science and Technology*, 25(2), 561–574.
- Nasab, H. H., & Milani, A. S. (2012). An improvement of quantitative strategic planning matrix using multiple criteria decision making and fuzzy numbers. *Applied Soft Computing*, 12(8), 2246–2253.
- Onut, S., & Soner, S. (2007). Transshipment site selection using the AHP and TOPSIS approaches under fuzzy environment. *Waste Management*, 28(9), 1552–1559.
- Rouhani, S., Mehdi, G., & Mostafa, J. (2012). Evaluation model of business intelligence for enterprise system using fuzzy TOPSIS. *Expert System with Application*, 39(3), 3764–3771.
- Tanjung, H., & Devi, A. (2013). *Metode Penelitian Ekonomi Islam* [Islamic Economic Research Methods]. Jakarta: Gramata Publishing.
- Vibizmedia.com. (2015). *Special report optimisme pertumbuhan ekonomi Indonesia: Pembangunan industri Indonesia (2015-2019) – Bagian 1* [Optimism of Indonesia's Economic Growth: Indonesian Industrial Development (2015-2019) – Part 1]. Retrieved October 20, 2016, from <http://vibizmedia.com/2015/07/31/pembangunan-industri-indonesia-2015-2019-bagian-1/>
- Yuksel, I. (2011). An integrated approach with group decision making for strategy selection in SWOT analysis. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 2(11), 134–161.

Iran's Social Sciences Issues in Web of Science (WoS): Who Said What?

Seyed Mahdi Etemadifard¹, Hadi Khaniki², Abbas Ghanbari Baghestan^{3*} and Mehrnoosh Akhtari-Zavare⁴

¹*Department of Sociology, Faculty of Social Science, University of Tehran, Iran*

²*Department of Communication, Faculty of Communication, Allameh Tabataba'i University, Iran*

³*Department of Communication, Faculty of Social Science, University of Tehran, Iran*

⁴*Department of Public Health, Tehran Medical Sciences Branch, Islamic Azad University, Iran*

ABSTRACT

The complexity and interconnected patterns of change in the 21st century have resulted in significant transformation in Iran. During the last two decades, much academic effort from a variety of disciplines went into trying to understand, examine and predict these transformations. However, there are no in-depth studies on these profound social and cultural changes as exemplified in global scientific productions. Using a bibliometric approach, we present a comprehensive study of the image of the social sciences in Iran based on the search item "Iran's Social Sciences" in the Web of Science (WoS). The data were collected from Web of Science's Core Collections between 2000 and 2017 and was limited to document-type articles in the category of Social Science Citation Index (SSCI). Collection efforts resulted in 4,666 documents being retrieved. The majority of the documents were published in English and were written by Iranian authors. The results of this study show that international collaboration through networking and co-authorship was lower than the global average. In terms of content, health- and medical-related concepts and themes were

dominant in overall publications. Given this remarkable insight, more collaboration between sociologists in Iran with scholars from other countries is needed to better highlight the desired issues and topics. Further research might focus on the current 'business models' of publishing. While we advise launching more scientific journals at the global level, it is important to evaluate whether international business models of

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received: 1 February 2018

Accepted: 25 May 2018

E-mail addresses:

etemady@ut.ac.ir (Seyed Mahdi Etemadifard)

hadi.khaniki@gmail.com (Hadi Khaniki)

ghanbari.abbas@ut.ac.ir (Abbas Ghanbari Baghestan)

m.akhtari@iautmu.ac.ir (Mehrnoosh Akhtari-Zavare)

*Corresponding author

publishing are really encouraging or if they pose unnecessary bias and restrictions on knowledge development and participation of Iranian world-class sociologists.

Keywords: Bibliometric, image, scientific production, social sciences, sociologists

INTRODUCTION

The complexity and interconnected patterns of change in the 2^{1st} century have resulted in significant social, cultural and political transformation across the world. These transformations tend to have far-reaching repercussions, especially in developing countries. Iran is no exception due to population growth, demographic transitions, globalisation and the emergence of new information and communication technologies. Iran has encountered many profound social, cultural, economic and political changes and transformations in the last two decades. From a political point of view, three different governments called Reformist (اصلاح طلب), Conservative (اصولگرا) and Moderate (اعتدال گرا) with their own typical discourse took power and governed the nation in that span of time. From a social point of view, due to the emergence of the Internet and the proliferation of social media, the perception of the younger generation and their way of understanding the world is critically different from those of older generations. Women's level of education has increased dramatically as have their demand for improving their quality of life and their position in society. From a cultural point of view, traditional

norms have been questioned by younger generations and social interaction and cultural traditions have profoundly changed both symbolically and substantively.

During the mentioned periods, much academic inquiry has tried to understand, examine and predict these transformations from each disciplinary point of view using interdisciplinary and multidisciplinary approaches. Some research has focussed on social, cultural (Baghestan & Hassan, 2009) and communication development (Ghanbari-Baghestan, Indriyanto, SazmandAsfaranjan, & Akhtari-Zavare, 2016), some on religious and Islamic rules in society (Tezcur & Azadarmaki, 2008), some on the younger generation (Montazeri, Sadighi, Omidvari, Farzadi, & Maftoon, 2009), social welfare (Harris, 2010), knowledge of health issues (Akhtari-Zavare, Ghanbari-Baghestan, Latiff, Matinnia, & Hoseini, 2014), especially among women (Akhtari-Zavare, Ghanbari-Baghestan, Latiff, & Khaniki, 2015) and family (Abbasi-Shavazi, Morgan, Hossein-Chavoshi, & McDonald, 2009) as well as the future of the social, cultural and religious order in society. The results of all these efforts were frequently published in local and international academic and scientific journals, books and other academic documents. However, there are no in-depth studies on how these profound social and cultural changes were presented in global scientific publications. It is very important to understand 'who said what' about these changes in Iran and make the insights available for the world's scientific and academic society. Which aspects of these

changes have been illustrated and highlighted internationally with what directions? It is also important to know if they are creating the right perception of the social and cultural issues in Iran or not. Through this study, using a bibliometric approach, we present a comprehensive study of the image of issues in Social Sciences related to Iran recorded in the Web of Science (WoS) scientific database, which is a trustworthy, large and powerful database for literature analysis. It is also the most prestigious database for scientific productions, and therefore the most appropriate database to explore.

Bibliometrics presents a useful tool to assess the large amount of literature within a field of study. Bibliometrics is defined as “a set of methods to quantitatively analyse academic literature and scholarly communication” (Das, 2015). Bibliometric methods have been used to measure scientific progress in many disciplines of science and social science. They are a common research instrument for the systematic analysis of publications (Ale Ebrahim et al., 2014; Ingwersen, 2000; Kalantari et al., 2017). Bibliometrics measures research production based on various indices such as number of publications, number of citations and average citation per year. Most bibliometric indices involve counting the number of times scientific papers are cited. This approach is based on the assumption that influential studies will be cited more frequently than less influential studies (Ibanez, Larranaga, & Bielza, 2013). Web-based citation databases such as Scopus and Web of Science and

citation search engines such as Google Scholar, Microsoft Academic Search and CiteSeerX are frequently used for deriving bibliometric data (Das, 2015).

METHOD

The data were collected from Web of Science Core Collections (WoS) on 17 January, 2018 (i.e. the collection date). The timespan searched was from 2000 to the end of 2017. Out of six databases consisting of the Science Citation Index Expanded (SCI-Expanded), Social Science Citation Index (SSCI), Arts and Humanities Citation Index (A&HCI), Conference Proceeding Citation Index Science (CPCI-S), Conference Proceeding Citation Index Social Science and Humanities (CPCI-SSH) and Emerging Sources Citation Index (ESCI), the data collection was limited to the Social Science Citation Index (SSCI) only. The data were further refined and limited to document type articles and a title search of TI = Iran*. The summary of the process of data collection is illustrated in Table 1. With the above search strain limitations, 4,666 documents were retrieved and used for data analysis. The top 500 documents based on “Average Citation per Year (ACPY)” were selected for qualitative content analysis using the Qiqqa software. The average citation per year (ACPY) is more accurate and more scientific than total citation and is used to identify documents with high impact in their field of study (Chuang, Wang, & Ho, 2011; Ho, 2014; Müller, Ansari, Ale Ebrahim, & Khoo, 2016).

Table 1
A summary of data collection

No.	Date of Data Collection	17 January, 2018
1	Database	Web of Science Core Collections (WoS)
2	WC Indexed	Social Science Citation Index (SSCI)
3	TI	Iran*
4	Timespan	2000-2017
5	Refined by Documents Type	Articles
6	Result	4,666
7	For Content Analysis	Top 500 Articles based on ACPY

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A total of 4,666 publications were located using a customised query in the Web of Science Database category of Social Science Citation Index (SSCI) and relevant to Iran. Figure 1 charts the growth of the total number of publications from 2000;

we found that the annual number of issues on the search item “Iran’s Social Sciences” that were published grew from 56 in 2000 to 533 in 2017. The growth of publications has remained constant between 2000 and 2005; however, there was significant growth in publication each year from 2005 to 2017.

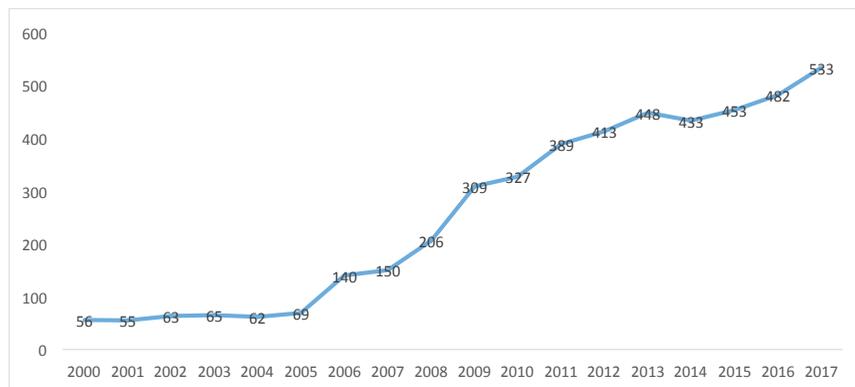


Figure 1. Publication of issues using the search item “Iran’s Social Sciences” from 2000 to 2017

Publication Languages and Contribution from Top Countries

The majority of retrieved documents were published in English (4,598), while the rest were published in German (44), French (8), Turkish (7), Norwegian (4) Spanish

(2), Czech (1) Polish (1) and Portuguese (1). To gain a more detailed understanding of the publication activity by country, the total number of publications related to the topic was analysed over the period of study. Iran, with 3,156 publications, is the leading

country in terms of the total number of issues published based on the search item "Iran's Social Sciences" in the 21st century. This suggests that Iranian scholars and researchers alone contributed to 67.63% of all publications. Iranian authors recorded the largest number of publication of issues on Social Sciences from the early 21st century mainly because its health and medical scientists have been aggressive in engaging social issues. Apart from Iran, scholars and researchers from 73 other countries through networking or co-authorship were involved in 1,510 scientific publications (32.37%)

and contributed to the scientific productions related to issues on the search item "Iran's Social Sciences" found in WOS. Among them, the United States (865), England (321), Australia (213), Canada (186), Sweden (160), Malaysia (90) and Germany (86) were at the top of the list. Figure 2 shows each country's contribution to world output in the research scope. A free version of StatPlanet software was used in this study for creating an interactive world map and for visualising the distribution of all papers among different countries.

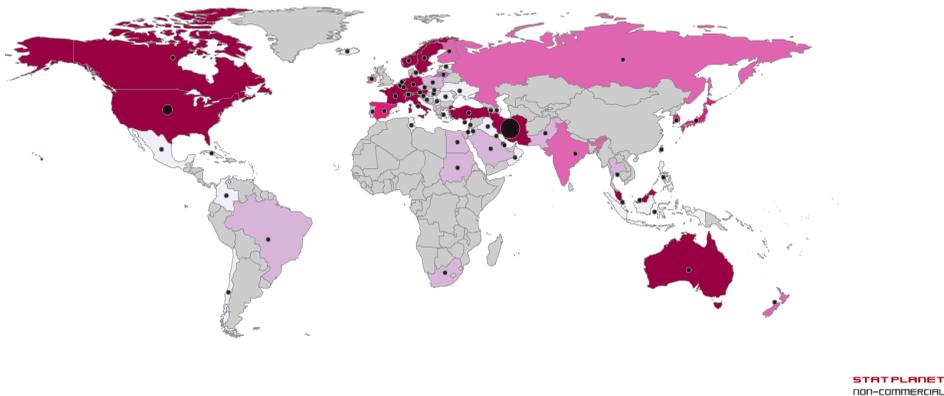


Figure 2. The contribution of different countries to publications on Iran's social sciences

Top Authors and Related Affiliations

The top 30 authors (in terms of number of publications) who were selected had in total published 840 (18%) of 4,666 documents in their areas of study. The data were sorted according to the average citation per year and the top 30 documents were selected for further qualitative content analysis. The top

30 papers alone received 2,650 citations. The average citation per year (ACPY) for these top 30 articles varied from a maximum of 11 to a minimum of 3.5 citations. Further insight can be gained from Table 2, which shows the total publications of each author cross checked with the top 30 most highly cited documents related to the topic of study.

Table 2

Top authors based on number of publication and top documents based on ACPY

No.	Top Authors	Number of Publications	Top Authors Based on “Average Citation per Year (ACPY)”	Total Citations
1	Montazeri A.	63	(Ghiassi-nejad, Mortazavi, Cameron, Niroomand-rad, & Karam, 2002)	166
2	Majdzadeh R	49	(Noorbala, Yazdi, Yasamy, & Mohammad, 2004)	162
3	Ahmadi F	42	(Saadat, Ansari-Lari, & Farhud, 2004)	140
4	Larijani B	38	(Gerritsen et al., 2006)	127
5	Pakpour Ah	37	(Wiking, Johansson, & Sundquist, 2004)	127
6	Watson Pj	36	(Kelishadi et al., 2003)	116
7	Ghorbani N	35	(Kelishadi et al., 2008)	113
8	Mohammad K	34	(Lotfali pour, Falahi, & Ashena, 2010)	98
9	Nedjat S	33	(Taleghani, Yekta, & Nasrabadi, 2006)	89
10	Salehi M	31	(Azadeh, Ghaderi, & Sohrabkhani, 2008)	88
11	Kelishadi R	30	(Montazeri, 2004)	88
12	Haghdooost Aa	27	(Rudmin & Ahmadzadeh, 2001)	86
13	Mirzazadeh A	27	(M. Zamani, 2007)	81
14	Mohammadi E	27	(Ghassemzadeh, Shahraray, & Moradi, 2008)	80
15	Heshmat R	26	(Hosseinpoor et al., 2006)	78
16	Rashidian A	25	(Farzadfar et al., 2012)	77
17	Kazemnejad A	23	(Sarrafzadegan et al., 2009)	75
18	Motlagh Me	23	(Tajvar, Arab, & Montazeri, 2008)	71
19	Qorbani M	23	(Zamani-Farahani & Henderson, 2010)	70
20	Salsali M	21	(Nobakht & Dezhkam, 2000)	68
21	Ardalan G	20	(Hood et al., 2001)	67
22	Hosseini M	20	(Hanafizadeh, Behboudi, Koshksaray, & Tabar, 2014)	66
23	Rahimi-Movaghar V	20	(Farzanegan & Markwardt, 2009)	66
24	Vaismoradi M	20	(Feizizadeh & Blaschke, 2013)	65
25	Mohammadi R	19	(Kazemi, Sharifi, Jafari, & Mousavinasab, 2009)	65
26	Takeyh R	19	(Rafiee, Mahiny, Khorasani, Darvishsefat, & Danekar, 2009)	65
27	Abbasi-Shavazi Mj	18	(Asadi-Lari, Sayyari, Akbari, & Gray, 2004)	65
28	Arab M	18	(Mohammodi et al., 2006)	64
29	Fotouhi A	18	(Min & Bozorgmehr, 2000)	64
30	Ghazinoory S	18	(S. Zamani et al., 2006)	63

In 2014, one in four scientific articles produced across the world were co-authored by foreign collaborators. In the same year the rate of international co-authorship in high income countries was 34% (one in three), in the European Union it was 46% and in low-income countries and lower middle income countries it was 86% and 38%, respectively (“UNESCO Science Report: Towards 2030,” 2015). The results of this study shows that international collaboration for co-authorship in the area of study was lower than the global average. To show the importance of international collaboration in terms of the impact of a research and by cross checking of Table , a good example is “Montazeri A,” who recorded the largest number of publication with 63 articles. As

it can be seen in the table, he alone has appeared to be the first author with the highest number of publications. However, when it comes to the impact of the research measured by time of the citation, his highest impact publication ranked as number 11 with 88 citations.

The top 30 organisations that appeared as top affiliations listed in the articles in this study are shown in Table 3. In terms of quantity, these 30 top organisations have been affiliated in 4,084 (87.52%) out of 4,666 articles. It is worth highlighting that 2,083 affiliations were recorded in the 4,666 articles related to issues related to the social sciences in Iran searched under “Iran’s Social Sciences in WoS.

Table 3
Top recorded affiliations of the authors

No.	Affiliations	Frequency	%	No.	Affiliations	Frequency	%
1	Tehran University of Medical Sciences	820	17.574	16	University of London	77	1.65
2	Islamic Azad University	352	7.544	17	Baqiyatallah University of Medical Sciences Bmsu	71	1.522
3	University of Tehran	321	6.88	18	Mashhad University Medical Science	69	1.479
4	Shahid Beheshti University Medical Sciences	263	5.637	19	Allameh Tabataba'i University	66	1.414
5	Tarbiat Modares University	224	4.801	20	Academic Center for Education Culture Research Acecr	65	1.393
6	Iran University of Medical Sciences	203	4.351	21	Shahid Beheshti Univ	62	1.329
7	Ministry Of Health Medical Education Mohme	154	3.3	22	Qazvin University of Medical Sciences (Qums)	55	1.179
8	Isfahan University Medical Science	149	3.193	23	Sharif University of Technology	49	1.05

Table 3 (continue)

No.	Affiliations	Frequency	%	No.	Affiliations	Frequency	%
9	Kerman University of Medical Sciences	148	3.172	24	University of Isfahan	46	0.98
10	Shiraz University of Medical Science	144	3.086	25	Ferdowsi University Mashhad	43	0.92
11	Tabriz University of Medical Science	119	2.55	26	Hamadan Univ Med Sci	43	0.92
12	Univ Social Welf Rehabil Sci	107	2.293	27	Kermanshah University of Medical Sciences	42	0.9
13	University of California System	98	2.1	28	Ahvaz Jundishapur University Of Medical Sciences Ajums	41	0.87
14	Shiraz Univ	97	2.079	29	Iran University Science Technology	40	0.85
15	Karolinska Institute	77	1.65	30	Shahrood University Of Technology	39	0.83

As it can be seen, most of them underwent an increase in scientific production. However, the distribution of these results is not homogeneous. Surprisingly, the authors with “health & medical science” and “technical & engineering” organization affiliations appeared to have more contributions compared to none “health & medical” or “technical & Engineering” affiliations. Even though it is not possible to exactly differentiate between two categories, for example, in the case of Islamic Azad University and the University of Tehran, etc., those authors with exact affiliation of “Medic.Scie org” or “technical & engineering org” published 2,449 articles, which consisted of 52.4% of the total publications.

Iran has some long established and prominent universities and research centres with exclusive focus on the Social Sciences

disciplines such as cultural studies, women and family studies, welfare and social development, anthropology and demography and rural development, among others. These include the University of Tehran’s Faculty of Social Sciences, Allameh Tabataba’i University’s Faculty of Social Sciences, Shahid Beheshti University’s Faculty of Social and Human Science. These universities frequently and periodically conduct extensive research into social and cultural changes and transformations in the country. This can be seen from the higher-level study curriculum, which focusses on pure sociological aspects of society, and has been offered in most institutions of higher education in Iran since the 1930s. However, a look at their relative contribution shows they have had less participation in scientific production in the WoS database.

Table 4
The main themes of the top 500 highly cited papers

Themes	Parentage of Assigned to the Themes	Themes	Parentage of Assigned to the Themes
Health-Related Quality; Health Survey	<p>1. PTSD; chemical warfare; iranian; southern iran; health related quality 4. mental health; EMDR; CBT; CASPIAN-III; adult population 10. iran; road traffic; islamic republic; road traffic injuries; west azarbaijan province Others</p>	Rural Development in Iran	<p>2. iran; islamic republic; EU; rural iran; spinal cord injury 3. health care; health care services; HCV; primary health care; HBV 17. tehran Others</p>
Health Care; Health Care Services; HCV; Primary Health Care; HBV	<p>3. health care; health care services; HCV; primary health care; HBV 12. iranian 2. iran; islamic republic; EU; rural iran; spinal cord injury Others</p>	Mental Health, Adult Population	<p>4. mental health; EMDR; CBT; CASPIAN-III; adult population 1. PTSD; chemical warfare; iranian; southern iran; health related quality 12. iranian Others</p>
Integrative Self-Knowledge	<p>5. muslim; iranian; integrative self-knowledge; PSST; empirical study based 10. iran; road traffic; islamic republic; road traffic injuries; west azarbaijan province 14. iranian; iranians; iranian women; among iranian; iran Others</p>	Iranian Immigrants, Women	<p>6. iranian; iranian immigrants; EPDS; iranian immigrant women; edinburgh postnatal depression s 11. iranian version; health-related quality; psychometric properties; health survey; SF-12 4. mental health; EMDR; CBT; CASPIAN-III; adult population Others</p>
HIV/AIDS, Behaviour among Iranians	<p>8. hiv; HIV/AIDS; iran; behaviors among; among iranian 13. iranian; iran; qualitative study; factors affecting; cross-sectional study 17. tehran Others</p>	Road Traffic, Injuries	<p>10. iran; road traffic; islamic republic; road traffic injuries; west azarbaijan province 9. iranian; among iranian; WHOCOL-BREF; iranian medical; iranian adolescents 13. iranian; iran; qualitative study; factors affecting; cross-sectional study Others</p>

The top journals that published the highest number of articles related to the topic are illustrated in Figure 5. Quantity wise, more than 25% (1,184 articles) of all collected articles were published in 12 journals. It is important to note that 1,332

journals with a minimum number of one publication related to issues related to the social sciences in Iran based on the search item “Iran’s social Sciences” were recorded in the WoS.

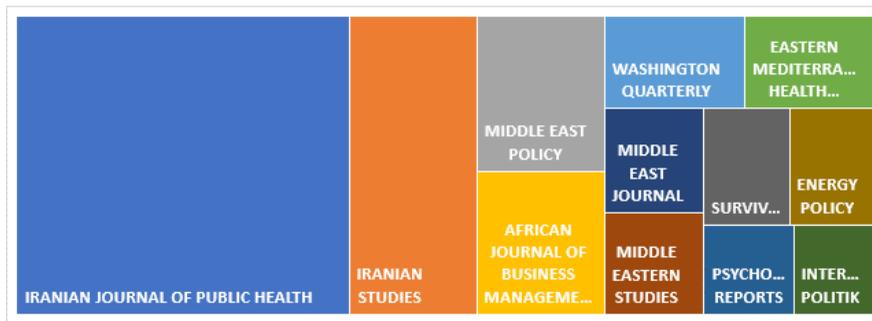


Figure 5. Main sources (journals) of the publications

CONCLUSION

Much is left to be desired in the image of issues related to the social sciences in Iran under the search item “Iran’s Social Sciences” in the WoS. Even though quantity-wise the related scholarly outputs seemed to be good enough, the dominant concepts and meaning framework were highly skewed and were not homogeneous. Considering the huge social and cultural changes and development achieved in the country during the last two decades, especially from the exclusive sociological point of view, less attention has been made to properly demonstrate issues such as “social/cultural discourse of the government”, “change to the nature of life”, “social and cultural transformation”, “youth and women’s development in the country” among the international academic and scientific society.

The outcome of qualitative analysis of the study demonstrated that the most highlighted themes in the top 500 highly-cited articles were mainly on “Health and Medical” topics. Furthermore, the research in this area needs to be encouraged to concentrate more on sociology, anthropology, family and women’s studies, marriage and couple of studies, social welfare and rural development, youth development, social participation and community involvement, identity and social and cultural interaction, especially in relation to new modern digital communication technology.

Given this remarkable insight enabled by the data collected in this study, perhaps more collaboration between sociologists in Iran with scholars from other countries in different regions can be conducted to better highlight the desired issues and

topics in order to increase the impact of their research. Further research might also focus on the current 'business models' of publishing in this area, both internally and at the international level. While we advise sociologists and organisations affiliated with the social sciences in the country to launch more scientific journals at the global level, it is important to evaluate whether the international business models of publishing in this area actually encourage or pose unnecessary bias and restrictions on knowledge development and participation of Iranian sociologists in the world's scientific publications.

REFERENCES

- Abbasi-Shavazi, M. J., Morgan, S. P., Hossein-Chavoshi, M., & McDonald, P. (2009). Family change and continuity in Iran: Birth control use before first pregnancy. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 71(5), 1309–1324. doi:10.1111/j.1741-3737.2009.00670.x
- Akhtari-Zavare, M., Ghanbari-Baghestan, A., Latiff, L. A., & Khaniki, H. (2015). Breast cancer prevention information seeking behavior and interest on cell phone and text use: A cross-sectional study in Malaysia. *Asian Pacific Journal of Cancer Prevention*, 16(4), 1337–1341. doi:10.7314/APJCP.2015.16.4.1337
- Akhtari-Zavare, M., Ghanbari-Baghestan, A., Latiff, L. A., Matinnia, N., & Hoseini, M. (2014). Knowledge of breast cancer and breast self-examination practice among Iranian women in Hamedan, Iran. *Asian Pacific Journal of Cancer Prevention*, 15(16), 6531–6534. doi:10.7314/APJCP.2014.15.16.6531
- Ale Ebrahim, N., Salehi, H., Embi, M. A., Habibi Tanha, F., Gholizadeh, H., & Motahar, S. M. (2014). Visibility and citation impact. *International Education Studies*, 7(4), 120–125. doi:10.5539/ies.v7n4p120
- Asadi-Lari, M., Sayyari, A. A., Akbari, M. E., & Gray, D. (2004). Public health improvement in Iran – Lessons from the last 20 years. *Public Health*, 118(6), 395–402. doi:10.1016/j.puhe.2004.05.011
- Azadeh, A., Ghaderi, S. F., & Sohrabkhani, S. (2008). A simulated-based neural network algorithm for forecasting electrical energy consumption in Iran. *Energy Policy*, 36(7), 2637–2644. doi:10.1016/j.enpol.2008.02.035
- Baghestan, A. G., & Hassan, M. A. (2009). Iran's media landscape: Law, policy and media freedom. *Human Communication*, 12(3), 239–254.
- Chuang, K. Y., Wang, M. H., & Ho, Y. S. (2011). High-impact papers presented in the subject category of water resources in the essential science indicators database of the institute for scientific information. *Scientometrics*, 87(3), 551–562. doi:10.1007/s11192-011-0365-2
- Das, A. K. (2015). Introduction to research evaluation metrics and related indicators. In B. K. Sen & S. Mishra (Eds.), *Open access for researchers, Module 4: Research evaluation metrics*. France: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization.
- Farzadfar, F., Murray, C. J. L., Gakidou, E., Bossert, T., Namdaritabar, H., Alikhani, S., ... & Ezzati, M. (2012). Effectiveness of diabetes and hypertension management by rural primary health-care workers (Behvarz workers) in Iran: a nationally representative observational study. *Lancet*, 379(9810), 47–54. doi:10.1016/s0140-6736(11)61349-4

- Farzanegan, M. R., & Markwardt, G. (2009). The effects of oil price shocks on the Iranian economy. *Energy Economics*, 31(1), 134–151. doi:10.1016/j.eneco.2008.09.003
- Feizizadeh, B., & Blaschke, T. (2013). GIS-multicriteria decision analysis for landslide susceptibility mapping: Comparing three methods for the Urmia lake basin, Iran. *Natural Hazards*, 65(3), 2105–2128. doi:10.1007/s11069-012-0463-3
- Gerritsen, A. A. M., Bramsen, I., Deville, W., van Willigen, L. H. M., Hovens, J. E., & van der Ploeg, H. M. (2006). Physical and mental health of Afghan, Iranian and Somali asylum seekers and refugees living in the Netherlands. *Social Psychiatry and Psychiatric Epidemiology*, 41(1), 18–26. doi:10.1007/s00127-005-0003-5
- Ghanbari-Baghestan, A., Indriyanto, S., SazmandAsfaranjan, Y., & Akhtari-Zavare, M. (2016). Preferred communication channels used by students to interact with their lecturers. *International Journal of Innovation and Learning*, 19(2), 227–241. doi:10.1504/IJIL.2016.074476
- Ghassemzadeh, L., Shahraray, M., & Moradi, A. R. (2008). Prevalence of internet addiction and comparison of internet addicts and non-addicts in Iranian high schools. *Cyberpsychology and Behavior*, 11(6), 731–733. doi:10.1089/cpb.2007.0243
- Ghiassi-nejad, M., Mortazavi, S. M. J., Cameron, J. R., Niroomand-rad, A., & Karam, P. A. (2002). Very high background radiation areas of Ramsar, Iran: Preliminary biological studies. *Health Physics*, 82(1), 87–93. doi:10.1097/00004032-200201000-00011
- Hanafizadeh, P., Behboudi, M., Koshksaray, A. A., & Tabar, M. J. S. (2014). Mobile-banking adoption by Iranian bank clients. *Telematics and Informatics*, 31(1), 62–78. doi:10.1016/j.tele.2012.11.001
- Harris, K. (2010). Lineages of the Iranian welfare state: Dual institutionalism and social policy in the Islamic Republic of Iran. *Social Policy and Administration*, 44(6), 727–745. doi:10.1111/j.1467-9515.2010.00740.x
- Ho, Y. S. (2014). Classic articles on social work field in Social Science citation index: A bibliometric analysis. *Scientometrics*, 98(1), 137–155. doi:10.1007/s11192-013-1014-8
- Hood, R. W., Ghorbani, N., Watson, P. J., Ghramaleki, A. F., Bing, M. N., Davison, H. K., ... & Williamson, W. P. (2001). Dimensions of the mysticism scale: Confirming the three-factor structure in the United States and Iran. *Journal for the Scientific Study of Religion*, 40(4), 691–705.
- Hosseinpour, A. R., Van Doorslaer, E., Speybroeck, N., Naghavi, M., Mohammad, K., Majdzadeh, R., . . . & Vega, J. (2006). Decomposing socioeconomic inequality in infant mortality in Iran. *International Journal of Epidemiology*, 35(5), 1211–1219. doi:10.1093/ije/dyl1164
- Ibanez, A., Larranaga, P., & Bielza, C. (2013). Cluster methods for assessing research performance: Exploring Spanish computer science. *Scientometrics*, 97(3), 571–600. doi:10.1007/s11192-013-0985-9
- Ingwersen, P. (2000). The international visibility and citation impact of Scandinavian research articles in selected social science fields: The decay of a myth. *Scientometrics*, 49(1), 39–61. doi:10.1023/a:1005657107901
- Kalantari, A., Kamsin, A., Kamaruddin, H. S., Ale Ebrahim, N., Gani, A., Ebrahimi, A., & Shamshirband, S. (2017). A bibliometric approach to tracking big data research trends. *Journal of Big Data*, 4(30), 1–18. doi:10.1186/s40537-017-0088-1

- Kazemi, A., Sharifi, F., Jafari, N., & Mousavinasab, N. (2009). High prevalence of Vitamin D deficiency among pregnant women and their newborns in an Iranian population. *Journal of Womens Health, 18*(6), 835–839. doi:10.1089/jwh.2008.0954
- Kelishadi, R., Ardalan, G., Gheiratmand, R., Majdzadeh, R., Hosseini, M., Gouya, M. M., ... & Mahmoud-Arabi, M. S. (2008). Thinness, overweight and obesity in a national sample of Iranian children and adolescents: CASPIAN Study. *Child Care Health and Development, 34*(1), 44–54. doi:10.1111/j.1365-2214.2007.00744.x
- Kelishadi, R., Pour, M. H., Sarraf-Zadegan, N., Sadry, G. H., Ansari, R., Alikhassy, H., & Bashardoust, N. (2003). Obesity and associated modifiable environmental factors in Iranian adolescents: Isfahan healthy heart program – Heart health promotion from childhood. *Pediatrics International, 45*(4), 435–442. doi:10.1046/j.1442-200X.2003.01738.x
- Khalil, G. M., & Crawford, C. A. G. (2015). A bibliometric analysis of US-based research on the behavioral risk factor surveillance system. *American Journal of Preventive Medicine, 48*(1), 50–57. doi:10.1016/j.amepre.2014.08.021
- Lotfalipour, M. R., Falahi, M. A., & Ashena, M. (2010). Economic growth, CO(2) emissions, and fossil fuels consumption in Iran. *Energy, 35*(12), 5115–5120. doi:10.1016/j.energy.2010.08.004
- Min, P. G., & Bozorgmehr, M. (2000). Immigrant entrepreneurship and business patterns: A comparison of Koreans and Iranians in Los Angeles. *International Migration Review, 34*(3), 707–738. doi:10.2307/2675942
- Mohammodi, M. R., Mohammad, K., Farahani, F. K. A., Alikhani, S., Zare, M., Tehrani, F. R., ... & Alaeddini, F. (2006). Reproductive knowledge, attitudes and behavior among adolescent males in Tehran, Iran. *International Family Planning Perspectives, 32*(1), 35–44. doi:10.1363/3203506
- Montazeri, A. (2004). Road-traffic-related mortality in Iran: A descriptive study. *Public Health, 118*(2), 110–113. doi:10.1016/s0033-3506(03)00173-2
- Montazeri, A., Sadighi, J., Omidvari, S., Farzadi, F., & Maftoon, F. (2009). World AIDS day campaign in Iran: A population-based study. *Iranian Journal of Public Health, 38*(1), 1–3.
- Müller, A. M., Ansari, P., Ale Ebrahim, N., & Khoo, S. (2016). Physical activity and aging research: a bibliometric analysis. *Journal of Aging and Physical Activity, 24*(3), 476–483. doi:10.1123/japa.2015-0188
- Nobakht, M., & Dezhkam, M. (2000). An epidemiological study of eating disorders in Iran. *International Journal of Eating Disorders, 28*(3), 265–271. doi:10.1002/1098-108x(200011)28:3<265::aid-eat3>3.0.co;2-l
- Noorbala, A. A., Yazdi, S. A. B., Yasamy, M. T., & Mohammad, K. (2004). Mental health survey of the adult population in Iran. *British Journal of Psychiatry, 184*(1), 70–73. doi:10.1192/bjp.184.1.70
- Rafiee, R., Mahiny, A. S., Khorasani, N., Darvishsefat, A. A., & Danekar, A. (2009). Simulating urban growth in Mashad City, Iran through the SLEUTH model (UGM). *Cities, 26*(1), 19–26. doi:10.1016/j.cities.2008.11.005

- Rudmin, F. W., & Ahmadzadeh, V. (2001). Psychometric critique of acculturation psychology: The case of Iranian migrants in Norway. *Scandinavian Journal of Psychology*, 42(1), 41–56. doi:10.1111/1467-9450.00213
- Saadat, M., Ansari-Lari, M., & Farhud, D. D. (2004). Consanguineous marriage in Iran. *Annals of Human Biology*, 31(2), 263–269. doi:10.1080/03014460310001652211
- Sarrafazadegan, N., Kelishadi, R., Esmailzadeh, A., Mohammadifard, N., Rabiei, K., Roohafza, H., ... & Malekafzali, H. (2009). Do lifestyle interventions work in developing countries? Findings from the Isfahan Healthy Heart Program in the Islamic Republic of Iran. *Bulletin of the World Health Organization*, 87(1), 39–50. doi:10.2471/blt.07.049841
- Tajvar, M., Arab, M., & Montazeri, A. (2008). Determinants of health-related quality of life in elderly in Tehran, Iran. *BMC Public Health*, 8(1), 323. doi:10.1186/1471-2458-8-323
- Taleghani, F., Yekta, Z. P., & Nasrabadi, A. N. (2006). Coping with breast cancer in newly diagnosed Iranian women. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 54(3), 265–272. doi:10.1111/j.1365-2648.2006.03808_1.x
- Tezcur, G. M., & Azadarmaki, T. (2008). Religiosity and Islamic rule in Iran. *Journal for the Scientific Study of Religion*, 47(2), 211–224. doi:10.1111/j.1468-5906.2008.00403.x
- UNESCO. (2015). *UNESCO Science Report: Towards 2030*. Press release. Retrieved from <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0023/002354/235407e.pdf>
- Van Eck, N. J., & Waltman, L. (2010). Software survey: VOSviewer, a computer program for bibliometric mapping. *Scientometrics*, 84(2), 523–538. doi:10.1007/s11192-009-0146-3
- Wiking, E., Johansson, S. E., & Sundquist, J. (2004). Ethnicity, acculturation, and self reported health. A population based study among immigrants from Poland, Turkey, and Iran in Sweden. *Journal of Epidemiology and Community Health*, 58(7), 574–582. doi:10.1136/jech.2003.011387
- Zamani, M. (2007). Energy consumption and economic activities in Iran. *Energy Economics*, 29(6), 1135–1140. doi:10.1016/j.eneco.2006.04.008
- Zamani, S., Kihara, M., Gouya, M. M., Vazirian, M., Nassirimanesh, B., Ono-Kihara, M., ... & Ichikawa, S. (2006). High prevalence of HIV infection associated with incarceration among community-based injecting drug users in Tehran, Iran. *J AIDS-Journal of Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndromes*, 42(3), 342–346. doi:10.1097/01.qai.0000219785.81163.67
- Zamani-Farahani, H., & Henderson, J. C. (2010). Islamic tourism and managing tourism development in Islamic societies: the cases of Iran and Saudi Arabia. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 12(1), 79–89. doi:10.1002/jtr.741

The Roles of E-Tailer Quality as Antecedent of E-Satisfaction and Its Impact on Customer Attitudinal Loyalty Creation

Dyah Budiastuti

School of Business and Management, Bina Nusantara University, Indonesia

ABSTRACT

This paper aims at examining the effect of e-Tailer quality on customers' e-satisfaction, which in turn impacts the creation of customers' attitudinal loyalty. The study uses an empirical survey with the active participation of 283 respondents. Using Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) analysis, this study indicates that e-Tailer quality has a positive correlation and significant effect on the formation of customers' e-satisfaction. Furthermore, e-satisfaction is positively correlated and has a substantial impact on the formation of attitude-based customer loyalty. Interestingly, e-Tailer quality does not have a fully significant effect on the formation of attitudinal loyalty. Only platform quality dimensions have a considerable impact on the formation of attitudinal loyalty. Third-party e-Marketplace companies are alleged to have a significant influence on the creation of consumer-based loyalty in the realm of C2C business in Indonesia.

Keywords: e-Tailer quality, e-satisfaction, attitudinal loyalty, digital ecosystem, Indonesia, platform quality, e-commerce

INTRODUCTION

Every business needs customer loyalty (Hidayat, Zalzal, & Ekasasi, 2016; Yee, Ling, & Leong, 2015). In this context, both

large-scale and individual scale businesses need to cultivate customer trust to survive and grow (Bilgihan, 2016; Kim, Jin, & Swinney, 2009; Ladhari & Leclerc, 2013; Sahney, Ghosh, & Shrivastava, 2013; Toufaily, Ricard, & Perrien, 2013). Large-scale businesses have corporate-class clients or large retailers. As in large-scale business chains, all mechanisms of transaction are bound by contracts as a foundation of the trust-building mechanism (Turilli, Vaccaro,

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received: 18 September 2017

Accepted: 12 May 2018

E-mail address:

dbudiastuti@binus.edu (Dyah Budiastuti)

& Taddeo, 2010). Thus, in addition to interpersonal trust-based relationships, large-scale business transactions are protected by the existence of guaranteed legal contracts.

In contrast to large-scale businesses, it is much harder on the part of small retailers to get customer loyalty. Buyers are not bound by legal contracts requiring them to observe specific responsibilities to remain loyal to the purchaser, and as such are free to make a purchase and to move to another retailer (Atmojo et al., 2014). In other words, in a small business, a customer's loyalty to a particular retailer is determined by the customer (Tjhin, Tavakoli, & Atmojo, 2016). Research into customer loyalty in the e-Commerce ecosystem has shown that price and availability of products are some of the aspects that determine the choice of the retailer (Liu, Feng, & Wei, 2012; Liu, Wei, & Chen, 2009). Furthermore, price comparison features enable a customer to compare the selling prices of several products quickly and simultaneously.

For consumer-to-consumer transactions (C2C) in Indonesia, Atmojo et al. (2016) have found that customer loyalty in digital and offline markets is a critical aspect for consumer retention. In other words, there are opportunities for C2C retailers to secure customer loyalty and grow their business. This explores the causes of attitude-based customer loyalty in e-Marketplace transactions in Indonesia. Platform quality and vendor responsiveness are considered factors of e-Tailer quality. E-satisfaction serves as a mediation variable between

e-Tailer quality and attitudinal loyalty. The findings could be a valuable reference for retailers to develop their service networks. Moreover, the results could serve as a foundation for similar studies, especially those dealing with digital business in Indonesia.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Electronic Retailer (e-Tailer) Quality

According to Pavlou, Liang and Xue (2007) and Ou, Pavlou and Davison, (2014), e-Tailer quality is a powerful factor alongside e-Image (Atmojo et al., 2015) that supports the establishment of online trust, guanxi, and e-Satisfaction. In this research, e-Tailer quality refers to the vendors' ability to accommodate the needs of consumers in terms of technology infrastructure and social interaction to achieve optimal customer service and satisfaction. E-Tailer quality is a theoretical construct that can be studied from several perspectives such as the quality of e-Commerce (Cyr, 2013; Ribbink, Riel, Liljander, & Streukens, 2004) and vendor responsiveness in fulfilling customer orders (Ou et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2011). Regarding the quality of e-Commerce business transactions, Cyr (2013) mentioned that online businesses need to develop information content, information design, navigation design and visual design when preparing a digital marketing platform. In a comparative study of eight countries, Cyr (2013) described that for countries with high levels of uncertainty avoidance such as Canada and the United States, it is vital for platform developers to provide excellent

information content and platform design. US and Canadian consumers have a very high level of discomfort over instability and ambiguity in business transactions. In other words, an imperfect e-Commerce platform design is a barrier to success for vendors in achieving consumer purchase intention. Furthermore, for countries with substantial uncertainty (both high and low business transaction volatility) such as India, Japan and China, meeting minimum quality standards of e-Commerce is essential for operating online. In other words, in addition to the social capital, businesses need to develop minimum standards to convince consumers about the security of transactions and to achieve shopping convenience.

Concerning the quality standards of an e-Commerce platform, websites and mobile sites need network connections protected by a secure socket layer or encryption technology. Every vendor should develop an e-Commerce platform with visual and navigational design standards outlined in the eight golden rules by Ben Shneiderman. According to Ou et al. (2014), every online business is also required to have a communication system that is real-time, open and honest. A communication system using text-based instant messaging and a mechanism for consumer feedback and testimonials is an example of a medium that must be provided by the e-vendor. Such computer-based communication facilities highlight the vendor's social presence in the e-Commerce ecosystem as well as the creation of social capital in online business channel transactions (Cyr, 2013).

This study defined a quality e-Commerce platform as digital media that can accommodate the needs of users in conducting sustainable business transactions. The study adapted Cyr's (2013) measurement indicators to the Indonesian context. The measurement indicators consist of: (i) the completeness of information content provided by vendors in guiding consumers on the web or mobile platforms; (ii) the design of a user interface (graphical user interface) provided by the vendor to attract consumers; (iii) the ease of navigation features that makes it easy for consumers to shop; (iv) well-organised information content layout that meets consumers' expectations; (v) e-Commerce platform that is updated by the vendor; (vi) reliable network connections and adequate payment security mechanisms; (vii) product type variance level and shipping delivery methods; and (viii) a variety of purchase packages and a diversity of payment methods.

Vendor responsiveness reflects the capability of online vendors to fulfil customer needs. Sophisticated technological infrastructure does not guarantee successful online business. Without good service performance and without being based on the attitudes of honesty, empathy and good deeds, online business will not perform optimally (Gregg & Walczak, 2008; Ou et al., 2014). Excellence in business transforms potential customers into loyal customers. In the online environment, social presence and social capital are social interactions that should be shaped by businesspeople to

prevent negative experiences for consumers as a result of transacting online using machines. Therefore, the responsiveness of the businessman is needed so that consumers do not feel that the shopping experience differs from in-store shopping. Referring to research by Ou et al. (2014), vendor responsiveness is defined as two-way communication between vendors and consumers that is controlled and synchronised. Zhang et al. (2011) defined the fulfilment of consumer orders as a process of completing a consumer's demand for products/services offered by vendors either online or offline. It is understood that a product ordered and paid for by the consumer must be delivered to the consumer safely and as described. The ability of vendors to complete the ordering process quickly and responsibly is a positive aspect of services to consumers.

Referring to the fundamental research by Ou et al. (2014) and Zhang et al. (2011), this study defined vendor responsiveness as a seller's ability to recognise, accommodate, and customise consumer needs to provide the best service to consumers through the e-Commerce platform. The measurement indicators of vendor responsiveness in this study consisted of (i) level of ability in terms of vendor responsiveness in completing the customer ordering process; (ii) responsiveness standards and vendor ethics ensuring vendors provide appropriate accountability in cases of dispute while maintaining ethics and kindness in communicating with consumers; (iii) communication capability that allows for transparent and honest two-

way communication with consumers; (iv) seller openness to suggestions by providing consumers with the opportunity to offer suggestions and criticism needed to improve services; and (v) capability for remaining fair by providing answers to consumers quickly and responsibly, while allowing consumers discretion over the information content provided by the vendor.

Electronic Satisfaction

Kim, Chung and Lee (2011) defined electronic satisfaction (e-Satisfaction) as a key factor that vendors need for creating long-term relationships and acquiring recurring purchase intention from consumers. Wu (2013) defined e-Satisfaction as the positive outcome of a vendor's services. E-Satisfaction is the consumer's confirmation of the facilities and quality of services provided by online vendors. According to Wang and Tong (2010), online satisfaction comprises the cognitive dimension, emotional dimension and behavioural dimension (conative).

Cognitive satisfaction is related to extrinsic factors that motivate consumers to visit and intend to purchase products from a particular vendor. For example, an online testimonial provided by an anonymous customer about the quality of a seller's services can increase the confidence of other consumers to purchase products from the recommended vendor. Furthermore, professional references on the seller's work skills and excellent online shopping experience can motivate potential customers to purchase from that vendor.

Emotional customer satisfaction is related to a buyer's motivation to recommend the service to others. The reasons and purpose of emotional satisfaction differ, but irrespective of purpose, consumer recommendations are a significant motivational force attracting other potential consumers. The third dimension of customer satisfaction is behaviour-based satisfaction. Consumer intention to make repeat purchases consists of intrinsic and extrinsic factors. It is risky for a consumer to conduct business transactions with an unknown party, particularly when the party is located in distant regions. Any information relating to the characteristics or image of online vendors contributes to a consumer's satisfaction capital and motivates the customer to transact online. When consumers comment on their experience transacting with a particular vendor, future consumers who transact based on that information are doing so based on behaviour-based comfort in the e-commerce transaction.

In this study, e-satisfaction was defined as the customers' evaluation of products or services obtained in an electronic transaction experience that has met the expected value or benefits for the product or service. Cognitive-based e-Satisfaction is defined as the satisfaction felt by the consumer after being exposed to the quality of service that has met expectations. The measurement indicators consist of the level of time efficiency and the perceived benefits. Here, emotionally based e-Satisfaction results in the consumer's motivation to share his or her positive experience. This is measured

by the support level when consumers recommend others to try online shopping due to the ease of transaction. Behaviour-based e-satisfaction is when consumer expectations are met, and they are motivated to repeat purchase online. It is measured by consumers' level of commitment to repurchasing and the product/service being able to meet expectations.

Customer Attitudinal Loyalty

Several scholars (Yoo, Sanders, & Moon, 2013) defined attitudinal loyalty as consumers' attitude and preference based on self-desire as well as the external environment to recommend that others should purchase from a particular vendor. According to Toufaily et al. (2013), attitudinal loyalty is the consumers' motivation to invite others to purchase from a particular vendor. Sharifi and Esfidani (2014) defined attitudinal loyalty as the cognitive and affective component of consumer attitude to influence oneself and others to purchase from a particular vendor. The cognitive component comprises the human attitude that leads to the mental construction of the benefit of a product. Human attitudes related to emotional patterns such as respect or admiration also contribute to attitudinal loyalty.

In this study, attitudinal loyalty referred to consumers' intrinsic and extrinsic motivations to recommend a certain vendor's services to others. It was measured by four indicators: (i) level of consumer support through favourable reviews of vendors that are often used to guide online

purchase behaviour; (ii) consumer support for repeat purchases; (iii) level of confidence in vendor integrity; and (iv) level of support by providing purchase recommendations to close relatives. If a colleague, close relative or consumer family wished to buy products/services online, the consumer would recommend the vendor.

Based on the detailed theoretical framework, this research proposed the following hypotheses:

- H1: E-Tailer quality (through e-Platform quality and vendor responsiveness) is positively correlated and has a significant effect on the establishment of Indonesia's e-Commerce customers' e-Satisfaction.
- H2: E-Satisfaction is positively correlated and has a significant effect on the establishment of attitudinal loyalty among Indonesia's e-Commerce customers.
- H3: E-Tailer quality (through e-Platform quality and vendor responsiveness) is positively correlated and has a significant effect on Indonesia's e-Commerce customers' attitudinal loyalty.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The non-probabilistic sampling method with convenience sampling approach was the most appropriate strategy for the context of this research (Atmojo et al., 2014; Herington & Weaven, 2007; Huang, Liang, Lai, &

Lin, 2010; Sahney et al., 2013). In this study, the respondents selected for analysis were experienced e-commerce customers in Indonesia. In other words, the sample comprised buyers of online products who had bought from the same vendor/retailer at least twice. The vendor was a merchant who sells on Indonesia's e-Commerce association (IdEA) ecosystems. Tokopedia, BukaLapak, Kaskus and Lazada are examples of companies providing hybrid technology platforms that provide marketplace facilities for peer-to-peer sales transactions. A total of 283 usable surveys were returned from a total of 300 questionnaires distributed to respondents directly. The demographic composition was 154 male respondents and 130 female respondents. All respondents were undergraduate students of a private university in Jakarta.

For data collection, the empirical survey was employed and the questionnaires were administered directly to respondents. This approach was considered the most appropriate for the purpose of the study. Furthermore, the questionnaire instrument used a Likert qualitative scale with intervals of 1-5 (low-high) that were converted to a quantitative scale using the successive interval (MSI) method. Scale conversion was used to obtain more stable and objective weighting scores. To address outliers, we used the Mahalanobis Distance approach with the assistance of the SPSS 17 software. The aim of controlling outliers was to guarantee the data were valid and reliable so as to reduce the risk of 'extraordinary' data inclusion that could lead to biased

research results. The last stage of analysis was to test the model and hypotheses. In the final stage of analysis, we applied the Structural Equation Modelling-Partial Least Squares (SEM-PLS) method with the latest SmartPLS version 3 software. The use of

SEM-PLS was appropriate for this research given that it was exploratory research (Latan, Ringle, & Jabbour, 2016; Ringle, Wende, & Will, 2005). Figure 1 illustrates this study's research model.

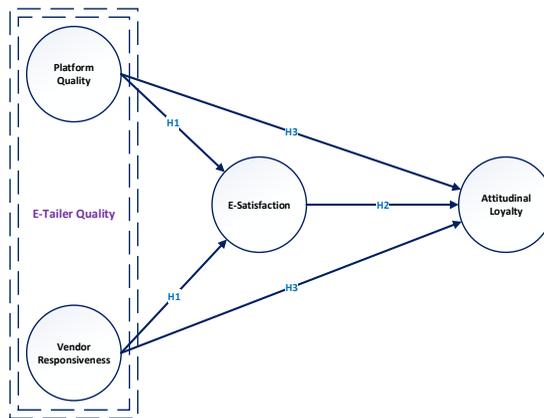


Figure 1. Structural research model used in this study

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Figure 2 presents the results of the inner model test using SmartPLS software.

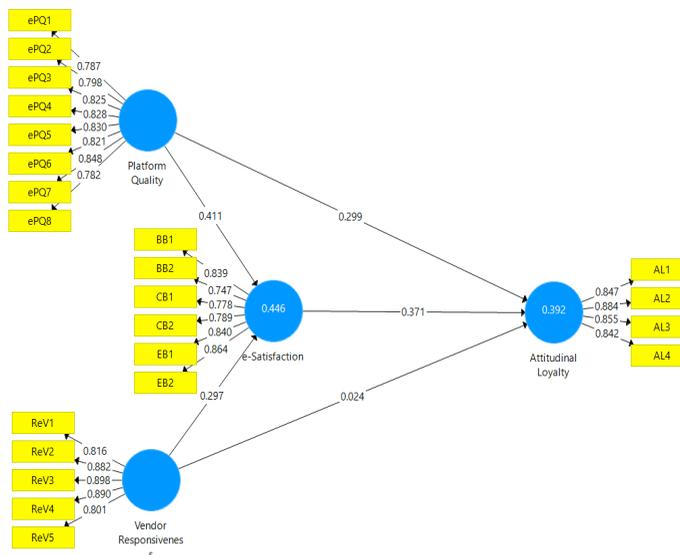


Figure 2. Path coefficient and coefficient for determining R2 from inner model testing

Table 1
Determination of coefficient values

Var/R ²	e-Satisfaction	Attitudinal Loyalty
R ²	0.446	0.392
R ² Adjusted	0.443	0.385

Note: R²=0.75=Substantial; R²=0.50=Moderate; R²=0.25=Weak. Wong (2013); Hair, Hult, Ringle, and Sarstedt (2014); R²=0.67=Substantial; R²=0.33=Moderate; R²=0.19=Weak. Chin (1998)

According to the coefficient R² shown in Table 1, e-Satisfaction moderately (Chin, 1998) explained the formation of 39.2% variance in attitudinal loyalty. Moreover,

the e-Tailer quality moderately (Chin, 1998) explained the 44.6% variance in e-Satisfaction. The path coefficient score in Figure 1 indicated that platform quality had the strongest correlation with e-Satisfaction at the value of 0.411. This was followed by the correlation between e-Satisfaction and attitudinal loyalty, with a value of 0.371. The weakest correlation in this structural model lay in the correlation of vendor responsiveness and attitudinal loyalty, with a path coefficient value of 0.024. Table 2 describes the score results of reflective outer model testing.

Table 2
Reflective outer model measurement

Latent Var.	Cronbach's alpha α	rho_A	Composite Reliability	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
Platform Quality	0.928	0.929	0.941	0.664
Vendor Responsiveness	0.91	0.914	0.933	0.737
e-Satisfaction	0.895	0.896	0.92	0.657
Attitudinal Loyalty	0.879	0.88	0.917	0.735

According to the results in Table 2, with rho_A > 0.4 and Cronbach's alpha α > 0.7, all of the measurement models in this study met the criteria for good individual value of reliability. Moreover, the results fulfilled the confirmatory study requirements (Hair et al., 2014; Wong, 2013). All indicators in this study scored > 0.6 each. This indicates that the structural model met the suitable

criteria. Referring to Wong (2013) and Hair et al. (2014) regarding the structural model convergent validity, the minimum standard of the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) value should be in the range of > 0.5. All variables exceeded 0.5, meaning the measurement model met the expected level. Table 3 shows the Fornell-Larcker Criterion analysis to measure the discriminant validity.

Table 3
Criterion analysis for discriminant validity measurement referring to Fornell-Larcker test

Latent Var.	Attitudinal Loyalty	Platform Quality	Vendor Responsiveness	e-Satisfaction
Attitudinal Loyalty	0.857*			
Platform Quality	0.555	0.815*		
Vendor Responsiveness	0.484	0.774	0.859*	
e-Satisfaction	0.578	0.641	0.615	0.810*

The square root of each AVE value was required to measure the discriminant validity. The results of the Fornell-Larcker analysis are given in Table 3. The (*) means that every marked score had a greater value than the other correlation score variables in each column. For example, attitudinal loyalty in column one had a higher value (0.857) than platform quality (0.555), vendor responsiveness (0.484), and e-Satisfaction (0.578). As for the values in other columns,

attitudinal loyalty had a higher score than the other variables.

Bootstrapping Process

With a total sample of 283 confirmed records, we used a sub-sample of 5000 data, two-tailed test, no-sign changes and complete bootstrapping. The memory heap was set at 2048 MB. Figure 3 shows the results of the inner model after the bootstrapping procedure.

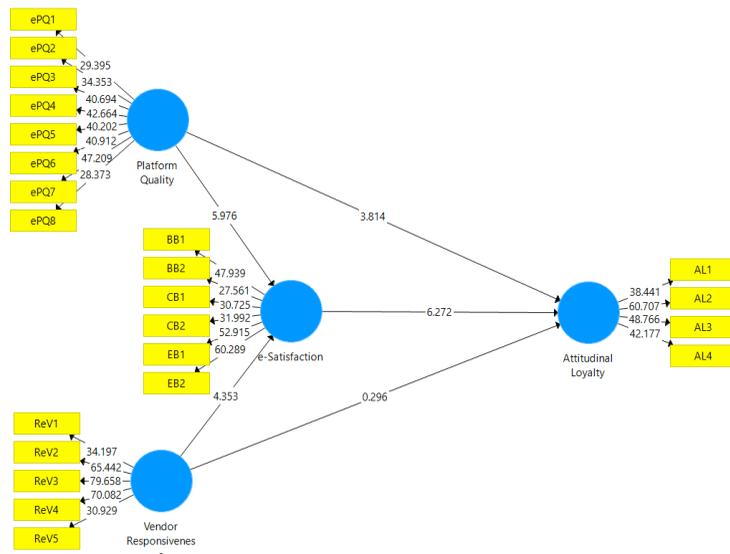


Figure 3. Results of inner model test after the bootstrapping process

Table 4 describes the inner model path coefficients after the bootstrapping procedure.

Table 4
Inner model path coefficient values after Bootstrapping process

Latent Var.	Original Sample	Sample Mean	STDEV	T-Statistics	p-Values
Platform Quality → Attitudinal Loyalty	0.299	0.296	0.078	3.814	0.000
Platform Quality → e-Satisfaction	0.411	0.412	0.069	5.976	0.000
Vendor Responsiveness → Attitudinal Loyalty	0.024	0.027	0.081	0.296	0.768
Vendor Responsiveness → e-Satisfaction	0.297	0.296	0.068	4.353	0.000
e-Satisfaction → Attitudinal Loyalty	0.371	0.372	0.059	6.272	0.000

Measuring the path coefficient significance level on the inner and outer model, Wong (2013) explained that the comparison results from T-statistics values with the critical t-values should follow several conditions: (i) two-tailed t-test analysis; (ii) the critical t-value should be better than 1.65 when the analysis is set at a 10% significance level; (iii) If the researcher uses a 1% significance level, then the critical t-value should be higher than 2.58; and (iv) If the researcher uses a 5% significance level, then the critical t-value should be higher the 1.96. According to the path coefficient values described in Table 4, using the level of significance set at 5%, the path coefficient in this inner model had positive correlation and was statistically significant in the relation between Platform Quality → Attitudinal Loyalty, with a coefficient value of 3.814 (p-value <0.05).

This was followed by the relationship between Platform Quality → e-Satisfaction with a coefficient value of 5.976 (p-value <0.05). The relationship between Vendor Responsiveness → e-Satisfaction with → coefficient value of 4.353 (p-value <0.05). Moreover, the relationship between e-Satisfaction → Attitudinal Loyalty with a coefficient value of 6.272 (p-value <0.05). Only the relationship between Vendor Responsiveness → Attitudinal Loyalty was insignificant, with a coefficient value of 0.296 (p-value >0.05).

The Hypothesis Testing (with Total Effects)

The final section of this study showed the results of the cumulative effects after the bootstrapping process given in Table 5.

Table 5
Hypotheses testing

Latent Var.	Original Sample	Sample Mean	STDEV	T-Statistics	p-Values
Platform Quality → Attitudinal Loyalty	0.451	0.449	0.073	6.19	0.000**
Platform Quality → e-Satisfaction	0.411	0.412	0.069	5.976	0.000**
Vendor Responsiveness → Attitudinal Loyalty	0.134	0.137	0.079	1.705	0.088
Vendor Responsiveness → e-Satisfaction	0.297	0.296	0.068	4.353	0.000**
e-Satisfaction → Attitudinal Loyalty	0.371	0.372	0.059	6.272	0.000**

**,* Statistically significant at the range of 1% and 5%, respectively

Referring to the cumulative value of the effects described in Table 5, we concluded that:

- H1: E-Tailer quality (through e-Platform quality and vendor responsiveness) is positively correlated and has a significant effect on the establishment of Indonesia's e-Commerce customers' e-Satisfaction. (H1 accepted, p-values significant at [0.000] <0.05 and <0.01, respectively).
- H2: E-Satisfaction is positively correlated and has a significant effect on the establishment of Indonesia's e-Commerce customers' attitudinal loyalty. (H2 accepted, p-values significant at [0.000] <0.05 and <0.01, respectively).
- H3: E-Tailer quality through the dimension of vendor responsiveness is positively correlated but has no significant effect on the establishment of Indonesia's e-Commerce customer attitudinal loyalty. (H3 rejected, p-values insignificant at [0.088] >0.05).

CONCLUSION

This research found that e-Tailer quality (through e-Platform quality and vendor responsiveness) had a positive and significant direct effect on e-Satisfaction, with a T-statistic value of 5.976 (platform quality) (p-values <0.05) and 4.353 (vendor responsiveness) (p-values <0.05). The e-Satisfaction variable in this study was positively correlated and had a significant effect on the establishment of Indonesia's e-Commerce customer attitudinal loyalty, with a T-statistic value of 6.272 (p-values <0.05). Interestingly, we found that e-Tailer quality through the dimension of vendor responsiveness was positively correlated with attitudinal loyalty, but the dimension was not sufficient to build a significant effect on attitudinal loyalty. Instead, platform quality had a positive correlation and significant effect on customers' attitudinal loyalty. Considering the sample of respondents used were e-Marketplace customers, as long as third-party e-Marketplace service providers such as Tokopedia, Lazada and BukaLapak have proper procedures for maintaining the

integrity and reliability of their suppliers (users acting as sellers), customers will not feel overly concerned. In other words, by joining the third-party e-Marketplace, the occurrence of potential fraud by the seller is minimised. This will make customers feel at ease and protected when shopping online.

REFERENCES

- Atmojo, R. N. P., Anindito, Pardamean, B., Abbas, B. S., Cahyani, A. D., & Manulang, I. D. (2014). Fuzzy simple additive weighting based, decision support system application for alternative confusion reduction strategy in smartphone purchases. *American Journal of Applied Sciences*, *11*(4), 666–680. <http://doi.org/10.3844/ajassp.2014.666.680>
- Atmojo, R. N. P., Mahesa, R., Wandoko, W., Tjhin, V. U., Prabowo, H., Budiastuti, D., & Astuti, T. N. K. (2015a). Research plan development concerning e-image impact towards online purchase intention and premium pricing strategies in indonesia community based online market. In *2015 International Conference on Science in Information Technology (ICSITech)* (pp. 1–6). Yogyakarta.
- Atmojo, R. N. P., Tjhin, V. U., Wandoko, W., Budiastuti, D., Polla, G., Mahesa, R., & Astuti, T. N. K. (2016). Rekening bersama (RekBer) the Indonesian escrow service of money. *International Journal of Multimedia and Ubiquitous Engineering*, *11*(3), 399–410.
- Bilgihan, A. (2016). Gen Y customer loyalty in online shopping: An integrated model of trust, user experience and branding. *Computers in Human Behavior*, *61*, 103–113. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2016.03.014>
- Chin, W. W. (1998). The partial least square approach to structural equation modeling. *Modern methods for business research*, *295*(2), 295–336.
- Cyr, D. (2013). Website design, trust and culture: An eight country investigation. *Electronic Commerce Research and Applications*, *12*(6), 373–385. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.elerap.2013.03.007>
- Gregg, D. G., & Walczak, S. (2008). Dressing your online auction business for success: An experiment comparing two ebay businesses. *MIS Quarterly*, *32*(3), 653–670.
- Hair, J. F. J., Hult, G. T. M., Ringle, C., & Sarstedt, M. (2014). A primer on partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM). *Long Range Planning*, *46*(1-2). <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.lrp.2013.01.002>
- Herington, C., & Weaven, S. (2007). Can banks improve customer relationships with high quality online services? *Managing Service Quality*, *17*(4), 404–427. <http://doi.org/10.1108/09604520710760544>
- Hidayat, A., Zalzal, G. G., & Ekasasi, S. R. (2016). The role of relationship marketing on customer loyalty toward Indonesian fast food restaurant. *Pertanika Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities*, *24*(S), 215–224.
- Huang, C. C., Liang, W. Y., Lai, Y. H., & Lin, Y. C. (2010). The agent-based negotiation process for B2C e-commerce. *Expert Systems with Applications*, *37*(1), 348–359. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.eswa.2009.05.065>
- Kim, J., Jin, B., & Swinney, J. L. (2009). The role of retail quality, e-satisfaction and e-trust in online loyalty development process. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, *16*(4), 239–247. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.jretconser.2008.11.019>
- Kim, M. J., Chung, N., & Lee, C. K. (2011). The effect of perceived trust on electronic commerce: Shopping online for tourism products and services in South Korea. *Tourism Management*, *32*(2), 256–265. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2010.01.011>

- Ladhari, R., & Leclerc, A. (2013). Building loyalty with online financial services customers: Is there a gender difference? *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, 20(6), 560–569. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.jretconser.2013.07.005>
- Latan, H., Ringle, C. M., & Jabbour, C. J. C. (2016). Whistleblowing intentions among public accountants in indonesia: Testing for the moderation effects. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 139(1), 1–16. <http://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-016-3318-0>
- Liu, Y., Feng, J., & Wei, K. K. (2012). Negative price premium effect in online market – The impact of competition and buyer informativeness on the pricing strategies of sellers with different reputation levels. *Decision Support Systems*, 54(1), 681–690. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.dss.2012.08.013>
- Liu, Y., Wei, K. K., & Chen, H. (2009). Pricing strategy in online retailing marketplaces of homogeneous goods: Should high reputation seller charge more? In *Value Creation in E-Business Management* (pp. 155-168). Springer, Berlin, Heidelberg. http://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-642-03132-8_13
- Ou, C. X., Pavlou, P. A., & Davison, R. M. (2014). Swift guanxi in online marketplaces: The role of computer-mediated communication technologies. *MIS Quarterly*, 38(1), 209–230.
- Pavlou, P. A., Liang, H., & Xue, Y. (2007). Understanding and mitigating uncertainty in online exchange relationships: A principal-agent perspective. *MIS Quarterly*, 31(1), 105–136.
- Ribbink, D., Van Riel, A. C., Liljander, V., & Streukens, S. (2004). Comfort your online customer: Quality, trust and loyalty on the internet. *Managing Service Quality*, 14(6), 446–456. <http://doi.org/10.1108/09604520410569784>
- Ringle, C. M., Wende, S., & Will, A. (2005). *SmartPLS 3.0*. Retrieved from <http://www.Smartpls.de>.
- Sahney, S., Ghosh, K., & Shrivastava, A. (2013). “Buyer’s motivation” for online buying: An empirical case of railway e-ticketing in Indian context. *Journal of Asia Business Studies*, 8(1), 43-64. <http://doi.org/10.1108/JABS-07-2011-0036>
- Sharifi, S. S., & Esfidani, M. R. (2014). The impacts of relationship marketing on cognitive dissonance, satisfaction, and loyalty. The mediating role of trust and cognitive dissonance. *International Journal of Retail and Distribution Management*, 42(6), 553–575.
- Tjhin, V. U., Tavakoli, R., & Atmojo, R. N. P. (2016). The determinants affecting e-loyalty: Hospitality industry in indonesia. In *2016 2nd International Conference on Science in Information Technology (ICSITech)* (pp. 131–136). Balikpapan, Indonesia.
- Toufaily, E., Ricard, L., & Perrien, J. (2013). Customer loyalty to a commercial website: Descriptive meta-analysis of the empirical literature and proposal of an integrative model. *Journal of Business Research*, 66(9), 1436–1447.
- Turilli, M., Vaccaro, A., & Taddeo, M. (2010). The case of online trust. *Knowledge, Technology and Policy*, 23(3-4), 333-345. <http://doi.org/10.1007/s12130-010-9117-5>
- Wang, C., & Tong, H. (2010). Research on psychological dimensions of e-commerce customer satisfaction. In *Proceedings of the International Conference on E-Business and E-Government, ICEE 2010* (pp. 2105–2108). <http://doi.org/10.1109/ICEE.2010.532>
- Wong, K. K. (2013). Partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM) techniques using smartPLS. *Marketing Bulletin*, 24(1), 1-32.

- Wu, I. L. (2013). The antecedents of customer satisfaction and its link to complaint intentions in online shopping: An integration of justice, technology, and trust. *International Journal of Information Management*, 33(1), 166–176. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijinfomgt.2012.09.001>
- Yee, W. F., Ling, C. S., & Leong, L. K. (2015). Factors affecting customer loyalty in the telecommunications industry in the Klang Valley, Malaysia. *Pertanika Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities*, 23(S), 117–130.
- Yoo, C. W., Sanders, G. L., & Moon, J. (2013). Exploring the effect of e-wom participation on e-loyalty in e-commerce. *Decision Support Systems*, 55(3), 669–678.
- Zhang, Y., Fang, Y., Wei, K. K., Ramsey, E., McCole, P., & Chen, H. (2011). Repurchase intention in B2C e-commerce – A relationship quality perspective. *Information and Management*, 48(6), 192–200. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.im.2011.05.003>

An Analysis of the most Consistent Errors in English Composition of Shiraz Medical Students

Zahra Momenzade¹, Laleh Khojasteh^{2*} and Reza Kafipour²

¹*Department of English language, Yasooj Branch, Islamic Azad University, Yasooj, Iran*

²*School of Paramedical Sciences, Shiraz University of Medical Sciences, Shiraz, Iran*

ABSTRACT

This study aimed at finding the most consistent errors of 42 medical students before and after they attended a writing course. The students were asked to write about assigned topics both at the beginning and the end of their writing course before Surface Strategy Taxonomy was used to analyse their assignment. To see if there is a significant difference between errors made by students before and after their writing instruction, paired sample t-test and Wilcoxon test were run. The results indicated that the most consistent error, both in test and retest, was *omission*. Furthermore, the number of errors in the retest reduced significantly compared with the number of errors in test which could be, at the first glance, interpreted as satisfactory training of writing skills. However, when the significant difference between each type of errors (*omission, misordering, addition* and *misformation*) was examined, the results showed that except for the *omission* error, the reduction of all the other types of errors was not significant. This result could help writing instructors in this university to know the areas of language that their students are struggling with and devote more time and energy to overcome their weakness. Furthermore, teaching and learning writing would be more purposeful.

Keywords: Error analysis, English composition, most consistent errors, surface strategy taxonomy, writing

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received: 15 September 2016

Accepted: 22 March 2018

E-mail addresses:

zahra_momenzade@yahoo.com (Zahra Momenzade)

khojastehlaleh@yahoo.com (Laleh Khojasteh)

rezakafipour@gmail.com (Reza Kafipour)

*Corresponding author

INTRODUCTION

It is never easy for those from non-Anglicised linguistic and cultural backgrounds to write in a language other than their own (Afrasiabi & Khojasteh, 2015; Heydari & Bagheri, 2012). In Asia, the problem, as reported by Rabab'ah (2003), is quite dire

whereby university students face challenges in English academic writing. Utilisation of error analysis (hereafter EA) is beneficial for not only students but also English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers. Undoubtedly, a better comprehension of the errors EFL learners commit while writing and the source of these kinds of errors can assist instructors to know students' weak points. In addition, it will help teachers to choose suitable teaching strategies in order to enhance the learning skills of EFL learners. The primary aim of this study is to show how EA can assist teachers to focus on student's weaknesses that need reinforcement (Al-haysoni, 2012).

According to Myles (2002, p. 10) "the more content-rich and creative the text, the greater the possibility there is for errors at the morphosyntactic level." Therefore, one of the best tools that can help researchers assist EFL learners is by using error analysis which is considered one of the most influential theories of second language acquisition. Error analysis gives the researchers and teachers a chance to compare the learners' acquired norms with those of the target language in order to identify the errors committed (James, 1988).

Most studies on EA (see Khansir, 2013; Mungungu, 2010; Vahdatinejad, 2008) looked at how students were asked to write about an assigned topic before the error analysis. However, this study is unique in its nature because the same procedure has been done twice to find the most recurrent and consistent errors made by EFL learners even though they had attended a writing course

for the period of four and a half months (one semester). These kinds of studies provide the researchers with more fruitful results than the others because the findings can shed light on the errors by EFL learners even after receiving numerous feedback (oral and written) during their academic writing course.

So, given the important role of writing as one of the main skills of English learning and how error recognition will aid language learners and teachers to recognise common difficulties, the study objectives are:

- 1) To identify the most recurring errors made by Iranian medical students.
- 2) To see if there is any significant difference between errors made by medical students before and after instruction.

REVIEW OF PREVIOUS STUDIES

This section discusses recent studies on error analysis in writing.

Khansir (2008) carried out a syntactical error analysis. A group of 100 second-year college students at Mysore University in India participated in this research. The purpose of the study was to categorise errors made by the students in sentences. The result of the study revealed that there are systematic errors in learner's target language which were related to auxiliary verbs, passive voice, and tenses which showed that English language instruction is insufficient.

In a corpusbased study, Sun and Shang (2010) investigated errors among English majors in Ludong university,

China. The major focus of their study was error features, why learners made those errors, the developmental characteristics of errors in different grades, and why those developmental features occur. Grammatical errors were the most, 11.48%, in terms of subject-verb agreement. It was also revealed that these errors were caused by vocabulary and impact of negative transfer from learner's native language. Yet, in another corpus study, Shamsdin and Malady (2010) examined the writing errors of first-year students at Universiti Teknologi Malaysia (also known as UTM). The results showed that first-year students were making grammatical and lexical errors in their writing. In 66 paragraphs analysed, 1,202 errors were detected, out of which 85 were subject-verb agreement errors (7.07%).

Zawaherh (2012), examined compositions of 350 10th grade students in Jordan. Subjects were required to write an essay about "a journey to the ancient city of Jerash in Jordan". Their writings were collected and analysed to detect errors. Outcomes of the study showed that tenth graders mostly made subject and verb agreement errors. That is, 104 errors were detected for the lack of agreement between subject and verb. It was also inferred that errors were due to Arabic language interference. Moreover, the results revealed omission of *to be verb* which is likely due to native language interference.

In another study, Gustilo and Mango (2012) examined learners' errors and their assessment of ESL writers from Philippines. This study included 150 essays written by

freshmen college students attending their first week of classes at Metro Manila. Their study found subject-verb agreement errors were the most consistent in their writing.

Omidipour (2014) conducted an error analysis on two sample writings of 40 Iranian students. He adopted Corder's (1973) model of error analysis which classified the errors as Orthographic errors, Syntactico-morphological errors, and Lexico-semantic errors. The results revealed 120 errors in learners' writing from which 19 of them were orthographic errors, 76 of them Syntactico-morphological errors and 25 lexico-semantic errors.

In another study conducted by Wu and Garza (2014), the nature and distribution of writing errors of 6th grade EFL learners were analysed. This study focused on grammatical, lexical, semantic, mechanics, and word order types of errors. The results showed that out of 22 categories of errors identified in 6th graders' writings, the most prominent were grammatical errors, with the greatest related to subject-verb agreement. The other types of errors in descending order were sentence fragment, sentence structure, singular/plural and verb omission. In general, findings revealed that Taiwanese 6th graders had more interlingual/transfer errors rather than intralingual/developmental errors.

As can be seen from the above reviewed studies, none of the studies mentioned above had done a two-stage error analysis to investigate the most consistent errors in students' writings within the period of four and a half months (one semester). Therefore,

analysing students' errors in two stages, one at the beginning of the semester and then at the end of it can really help teachers and researchers to identify errors that are most persistent even after receiving training in writing skills.

METHOD

Population

The target population in this study was all medical students, collectively referred to as EFL students, enrolled for the writing course at Shiraz University of Medical Sciences in the fall semester of 2015. The reason behind choosing this population was that these students were among the EFL university students who, at the time of collecting data for this study, were required to take writing courses as a compulsory 3-unit course before their graduation.

Participants

The researchers utilised convenient sampling to choose 42 medical students in their second semester of their studies from two out of eight other classes offered in writing because these classes were the only two classes for which their instructor was

the same. The age of the participants ranged between 20 and 30 and they consisted of both male and female students. As to the proficiency level of the students, it could be said their proficiency level was intermediate to upper intermediate, since in Iran students were required to have intermediate level of English language at National University Entrance Exam if they want to be admitted to Shiraz University of Medical Sciences as one of the leading medical universities in Iran.

Since in this study two classes were selected and homogeneity of the classes chosen was very important, the first compositions that all 42 students wrote at the very first session of their writing course were marked to determine whether there was a statistically significant difference between the means of two groups. An Independent sample t-test was utilised for this purpose. Significance was determined at (p<0.05) level.

An independent sample t-test for equality of means was used to determine the differences in test scores of the two classes for writing performance at the beginning of the semester. The table below shows the results of test.

Table 1
The mean of test scores of two groups in two writing classes

Variable	Frequency	Mean	SD	T	sig
Class 1	19	38.2	3.3	-0.667	0.507
Class 2	23	38.7	5.2		

Results of the test showed a mean (M) of 38.2 and a standard deviation (SD) of 3.3 for the group in class 1 and a mean (M) of 0.387 and a standard deviation (SD) of 5.2 for the group in class 2. Equal variances assumed the sig. level for the difference between test mean score of the first class and test mean score of the second class was 0.507 which is higher than P value (0.05). It shows the difference is not significant. Thus, it could be concluded that both groups were homogenous so they can be merged.

Instruments

Students' Compositions. Medical students' compositions were used as the main instrument in this study. At the beginning of the term, the students wrote 100- to 150-word paragraph about "what can be done to change the growing trend of obesity in children?" At the end of the term, again the instructor asked the students to write on "the effects that smoking can have on the body". The reason why these topics were chosen was first, both topics were from a genre which is expository in nature. This type of discourse describes, evaluates and explains the topic in the form of collection/description, comparison, cause/effect, enumeration, problem/solution and procedural. Second, the participants were medical students and they all had background information and knowledge of these two topics.

Surface Strategy Taxonomy. To identify students' errors, Surface Strategy Taxonomy by Dulay, Burt, and Krashen (1982) was

adopted. Surface Strategy Taxonomy highlights the ways surface structures are changed. It is by using this taxonomy that researchers can come up with a logical conclusion about learners' errors. This taxonomy classifies errors as: *omission*, *addition*, *misformation* and *misordering*.

Procedure

The researchers adopted convenient sampling to choose 49 (24 male and 25 female) medical students who were required to take writing courses as a compulsory 3-unit course before they graduate. This sampling is convenient because all 49 students of this study (N=23 from one class and N=26 from another class) were instructed by the same teacher (one of the researchers); hence, the researchers could control the effect that various teaching instructions on the students' writing performance. It is also worth mentioning that although two classes were chosen to participate in this study, this study was not experimental in nature and only the writing assignments of two classes were used as the source for error analysis to increase the amount of data for the researchers.

In both classes, Paragraph development: A guide for the students of English as a Second Language (2nd Ed.) was used as a reference book. The instructor focused on a three-phase strategy for building students' writing skills through planning, writing, and revising. In the meantime, writing conventions such as spelling, punctuation, capitalisation, and grammar were emphasised. As to the grading

and giving feedback, the main focus of the writing instructor was on writing mechanics, idea development, and word choice. Evaluation included a midterm and a final test, two in-class quizzes, and weekly homework assignments on the most recent content covered in class. Finally, in all of the homework assignments, it was the instructor who assigned the topics, not the students (though they could come to an agreement on the topic). Also, almost all the topics were in areas related to the students' field of study, medicine (e.g. stress, obesity, exercise and weight loss, health education, to name a few).

As to data collection, it was performed both at the beginning of the semester and at the end of the semester. The errors were explained thoroughly to two independent raters who had the experience of teaching English for 10 years. Then, the errors were coded by two raters and after that by using Cohen's (1960) kappa. The inter-rater reliability test was utilised to make sure of inter-rater agreement between the two raters who had identified the errors in medical students' compositions. The researchers used Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20 to analyse this and the result showed 0.87 inter-rater agreement between the raters of this study. By convention, a Kappa greater than 0.70 is considered acceptable inter-rater reliability.

Data Analysis

This study focused on four types of errors (omission, addition, misformation, and misordering) of writing compositions of

medical students at graduate level. To answer the first research question (what are the most consistent and recurring errors made by medical students?), frequency and mean of the errors were identified descriptively using SPSS version 20. Then to see if there is a significant difference between errors made by medical students before and after their writing instruction, paired sample t-test and Wilcoxon test were run.

RESULTS

Normality test

To investigate the research questions, it is necessary to establish normality assumption using One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Normality Test and Shapiro-Wilk. Table 2 illustrates the results of normality analysis for the four types of errors investigated both in test and retest. As it can be seen here, all the significant levels are lower than 0.05 except retest omission errors and test misformation error. Although test misformation error shows significance value of .084 which shows normal distribution of scores before instruction, retest misformation error shows a very strong lack of normalcy. This may be due to the improvement happened in writing performance of the learners after instruction, leading to errors/scores with lower dispersion. Since lack of dispersion is very strong in retest (sig= .000), non-parametric test, namely Wilcoxon test is performed. For omission error, what happened is vice versa, that is, in test omission errors significance level shows normalcy of scores/errors. Although in

retest omission errors the significance level does not show normalcy, its effect is not strong. Therefore, parametric test, paired sample t-test, should be used. In brief, the nonparametric test of Wilcoxon was run to investigate the existence of any significant difference between the 3 types of errors

(addition, misformation, misordering) made by medical students' test and retest writing test and paired sample t-test was run to investigate the existence of any significant difference between test and retest writings in terms of omission errors.

Table 2
Tests of normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	Df	Sig.
test-total-error	.147	42	.024	.945	42	.044
retest-total-error	.150	42	.019	.934	42	.018
test-omission-error	.142	42	.032	.945	42	.044
retest-omission-error	.122	42	.119	.962	42	.173
test-addition-error	.205	42	.000	.865	42	.000
retest-addition-error	.233	42	.000	.828	42	.000
test-misformation-error	.131	42	.068	.953	42	.084
retest-misformation-error	.215	42	.000	.853	42	.000
test-misordering-error	.409	42	.000	.635	42	.000
retest-misordering-error	.373	42	.000	.705	42	.000

Inferential statistic

In order to answer the first research question, “What are the most consistent and recurring errors made by medical students?”,

frequency and mean of the test and retest errors were identified and presented in Table 3.

Table 3
Difference between errors in test and retest

Error	Pretest		Posttest		P value
	Mean	SD	Mean	STD	Sig.
Total	12.83	.97	9.59	.56	.002
omission	19.11	1.37	4.33	.42	.000
addition	1.97	.31	1.38	.17	.135
misordering	.571	.12	.50	.13	.695
misformation	3.95	.53	3.38	.27	.588

As can be seen in the table, the most common types of errors of test and retest in the descending order are *omission*, *misformation*, *addition* and *misordering*. It is interesting to see that here, the order of the most recurring errors both in test and retest has not been changed. Hence, although the number of *omission* errors has been decreased dramatically, it is still remained one of the most consistent errors in the retest. However, despite attending grammar and writing skills, the participants of this study did not really outperform in the other types of errors such as *addition*, *misformation*, and *misordering*. This shows that since the other types of errors were not as frequent as *omission* errors in the test (and most probably in the paragraphs students wrote at the beginning of the semester), not enough attention has been given to the training and the feedback provided during the semester to reduce the number of these types of errors towards the ending of the semester (shown in the retest).

For the second research question, “Is there any significant difference between errors made by medical students before and after instruction?”, the p value helps to answer this question.

As can be seen in Table 3, the number of total errors in retest reduced significantly as compared with the number of total errors in test ($.002 < .05$) which shows that training was satisfactory in terms of reducing the overall number of errors.

By looking at the table, we can see that there is a decrease in the number of omission errors from test to retest and this reduction is

significant ($.000 < .05$). For additional errors, although the number of *addition* errors was reduced from test to retest, this reduction is not significant ($.135 > .05$). Hence, it can be concluded that teaching writing did not have a significant impact on the *addition* errors. *Misformation* errors were also reduced from test to retest, but this reduction was not significant ($.588 > .05$). This, too, shows that teaching writing could not really reduce students’ *misformation* type of errors. Similar to what we could see in other types of errors (except for omission), Table 3 shows misordering errors were reduced from pre-test to post-test but this is not significant ($.695 > .05$).

DISCUSSION

As reported earlier, the result of the first objective showed that *omission* error was the most consistent error followed by *misformation*, *addition* and *misordering*. This result is in line with another error analysis study done by Zawareh (2012) who reported that the most consistent errors found in the writings of 350 Jordanian 10th graders were prepositions and verb *omission* errors followed by verb *misformation*. The result of this study is also in agreement with Omidipour (2014) who reported that *omission* errors (e.g., omission of preposition, plural markers, regular past tense markers, third person singular markers, to name a few) were among the most consistent errors made by 40 Persian learners. The result of this study is also consistent with that of Wee, Sim and Jusoff (2010) who reported that

in the descending order the most common errors of Malaysian university students were *omission*, *addition*, *misformation* and *misordering*. Among all *omission* errors, the omission of the third person singular “-s/es/ies”; of “-ing”; of “-ed” and of be-verb were the most common. The result of this study, however, contrasts with that of another study that reported *misformation of words*, *prepositions* and *articles* as the most common errors made by 25 sophomore medical students (Eun-pyo, 2003). As to the root of these errors, most of the studies were carried out in Iran or other similar Asian settings (see Abisamra, 2003; Barzegar, 2013; Beheshti, 2013; Falhasiri, Tavakoli, Hasiri, & Mohammadzadeh, 2011; Kafipour & Khojasteh, 2012; Sattari, 2012). Studies indicated that a great number of errors made by upper-intermediate to advanced level learners were due to faulty learning which should be based on interlingual or developmental (Khodabandeh, 2007). If these errors are to be avoided, it is very important to treat the errors promptly before they lead to fossilisation (Skinner, 1957). One sensible action that can be taken into consideration in this regard is to draw students’ attention to their most recurrent errors. However, as Falhasiri et al. (2011) stated, teachers should be selective in their types of feedback based on the types of errors made by the students. For example, in the case of this study, feedback can sometimes be less effective for intralingual errors as opposed to interlingual ones in the short period of time, so it requires more effort and patience on the part of writing instructors

(Falhasiri et al., 2011). Another reason is lack of motivation. According to Brookhart (2008), good feedback which focuses on both cognitive and motivational factors can help learners feel they have control over their own learning. Therefore, teachers should be aware of the impacts of their feedback on motivation of their learners and how this successively will affect students’ writing ability. For example, in the case of the participants of this study whose language proficiency was at intermediate level, it would be helpful if more positive written comments are provided to the students rather than just pointing out students’ errors by circling or underlining them, the method which was actually applied by the writing instructor of the course.

This study was also aimed at finding out if there was any significant difference between errors made by medical students before and after writing instruction. The results showed that the total number of errors in the retest reduced significantly when compared with the total number of errors in the test. However, after investigating the significant difference between four types of errors made in the test and retest, it was revealed that except for the *omission* error, a reduction of other types of errors was not significant. Although it was not under the scope of this study to see whether attending writing classes and receiving explicit error feedback from teachers could positively affect students’ writing, the results of this study showed that not much has been achieved in terms of accuracy in students’ end-semester writings. According to Liu

(2008), although direct feedback can reduce students' errors in the immediate draft, it cannot really improve students' accuracy. It is very important, however, to organise mini-lessons or workshops with the focus on different types of errors or aspects of grammar in order to increase students' awareness towards self-editing (Liu, 2008). Not finding a significant difference between the errors made by students at the beginning of the semester and the end (except for *omission* error) can show that surface error-corrections if used as a primary medium of written feedback could not be really effective for high-proficiency level learners (Kepner, 1991). Sometimes learners do not act upon the feedback the way they should because the written feedback is not frequent, timely, sufficient and detailed enough, and their main focus is on marks rather than learning (Glover & Brown, 2006).

The EFL/ESL teachers should seriously think about the type of feedback that should be given in various situations (e.g. in the present case when a majority of errors made are were intralingual in nature). Deductive (explicit) explanation or inductive (implicit) clarifications are two types of feedback extensively discussed in the literature on writing; however, the latter, it seems can be more beneficial for students in the long run. According to Ferris (2002), direct feedback is more favourable for the beginner level's and for errors that are considered "untreatable". Although it is sometimes perceived by the students that indirect feedback cannot really solve their more complicated errors (Ferris & Roberts, 2001),

Chandler (2003) believes that indirect feedback can challenge students' cognitive effort to rectify their mistakes. Although it is not within the scope of this study to explain about the kind of feedback the writing instructor of this investigation (one of the researchers of this study) provided his/her students with, it can be valuable for the readers of this study to know that direct metalinguistic feedback was the most common feedback given to students throughout the semester. This might be one the reasons why not much progress was observed in terms of errors made by the students at the end of the semester. Not asking students to revise their work and hand in their composition to the writing instructor again can be another contributing factor for not observing much improvement in students' writing. According to Chandler (2003), not much progress can be seen in students' writing if they do not revise their work based on their teachers' feedback.

IMPLICATIONS

Although attitudes towards L2 learner error treatment has always been controversial, the findings of this study are useful for both ESL/EFL learners and teachers. It is important for learners to know their errors because first, in many cultures, learners value feedback from their teachers highly and second, because it is very important to be accurate in academic and scientific writing when targeting professional audiences (Hyland & Hyland, 2006). Therefore, learners would be more aware of the errors they make and they can be more careful in their

writings. However, it is also very important to consider L2 learners' proficiency level and the stage which this feedback is given to students. For example, Burston (2001) believed that when the students are in the middle of drafting and revising their drafts, it is better for them to incorporate their teachers' feedback and respond to it immediately rather than wait until their final draft. Furthermore, studies showed students welcomed direct feedback compared with indirect ones, with no codes to name a few (Hyland & Hyland, 2006).

Additionally, teachers would be able to understand students' specific areas of weakness and focus on improving them. Therefore, both teaching and learning would be more purposeful. Error analysis also enables teachers to predict learners' most common errors which will in turn be an efficient aid for creating teaching materials and choosing teaching methods (Kiato & Kiato, 2008).

CONCLUSION

The results of the study indicated that the most consistent error, both in test and retest, is *omission*. Therefore, not enough attention has been given by teachers based on student feedback. This study revealed that although the number of errors in the retest (taken at the end of the writing course) reduced significantly when the significant difference between each type of errors (*omission*, *misordering*, *addition* and *misformation*) was taken into consideration, except for the *omission* error, the reduction in all other

types of errors was not significant. Thus, it can be concluded here that sometimes writing instructors who focus on one particular error rather than the others might lead students to repeat the errors which may lead to fossilisation. One sensible action in this regard is to draw students' attention to the most recurrent errors if our goal is to achieve more accuracy and clearer communication.

REFERENCES

- AbiSamra, N. (2003). *An analysis of errors in Arabic speakers' English writing* (Doctoral dissertation). American University of Beirut, Lebanon. Retrieved from <http://abisamra03.tripod.com/nada/languageacq-erroranalysis.html>
- Afrasiabi, M., & Khojasteh, L. (2015). The effect of peer-feedback on EFL medical students' writing performance. *Khazar Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences*, 18(4), 5-16.
- Al-haysoni, M. (2012). An analysis of article errors among Saudi female EFL students: A case study. *Asian Social Science*, 8(12), 55- 66.
- Barzegar, M. (2013). Persian EFL students' error analysis. *Asian Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities*, 2(4), 322-334.
- Beheshti, Z. (2013). Syntactic analysis of errors in Iranian EFL learners' written productions. *Journal of Applied Linguistics and Language Research*, 2(6), 1-12.
- Brookhart, S. M. (2008). *How to give effective feedback to your students*. ASCD: Alexandria, VA.
- Burston, J. (2001). Computer-mediated feedback in composition correction. *CALICO Journal*, 19(1), 37-50.

- Chandler, J. (2003.) The efficacy of various kinds of error feedback for improvement in the accuracy and fluency of L2 student writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 12(3), 267-296.
- Cohen, J. (1960). A coefficient of agreement for nominal scales. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 20(1), 37-46.
- Corder, S. P. (1973). *Introducing applied linguistics*. London: Penguin Books.
- Dulay, H., Burt, M., & Krashen, S. D. (1982). *Language two*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Falhasiri, M., Tavakoli, M., Hasiri, F., & Mohammadzadeh, A. R. (2011). The effectiveness of explicit and implicit corrective feedback on interlingual and intralingual errors: A case of error analysis of students' compositions. *Journal of English Language Teaching*, 4(3), 251-264.
- Ferris, D. R. (2002). *Treatment of error in second language student writing*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.
- Ferris, D. R., & Roberts, B. (2001). Error feedback in L2 writing classes: How explicit does it need to be? *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 10(3), 161-184.
- Glover, C., & Brown, E. (2006). Written feedback for students: too much, too detailed or too incomprehensible to be effective? *Bioscience Education E-Journal*, 7(1), 1-16. Retrieved September 11, 2017, from <http://www.bioscience.heacademy.ac.uk/journal/vol7/beej-7-3.pdf>
- Gustilo, L., & Magno, C. (2012). Learners' errors and their evaluation: The case of Filipino ESL writers. *Philippine ESL Journal*, 8(9), 96-113.
- Heydari, P., & Bagheri, M. S. (2012). Error analysis: Sources of L2 learners' errors. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 2(8), 83-89.
- Hyland, K., & Hyland, F. (2006). Feedback on second language students' writing. *Language Teaching*, 39(2), 83-101.
- James, C. (1988). *Errors in language learning use: Exploring error analysis*. Harlow, Essex: Addison Wesley Longman Limited.
- Kafipour, R., & Khojasteh, L. (2012). A comparative taxonomy of errors made by Iranian undergraduate learners of English. *Canadian Social Science*, 8(1), 18-24.
- Kepner, C. G. (1991). An experiment in the relationship of types of written feedback to the development of second language writing skills. *Modern Language Journal*, 75(3), 305-313.
- Khansir, A. A. (2008). Place of error analysis in language teaching. *Journal of Indian Linguistics*, 69, 195-202.
- Khansir, A. A. (2013). Error analysis and second language writing. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 3(2), 363-370.
- Khodabandeh, F. (2007). Analysis of students' errors: The case of headlines. *The Asian ESP Journal*, 3(1), 6-21.
- Liu, Y. (2008). The effects of error feedback in second language writing. *Arizona Working Papers in SLA and Teaching*, 15, 65-79.
- Mungungu, S. S. (2010). *Error analysis: investigating the writing of ESL Namibian learners* (Doctoral dissertation), University of South Africa, Pretoria. Retrieved from uir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10500/4893/dissertation
- Myles, J. (2002). Second language writing and research: The writing process and error analysis in student texts. *TESL-EJ*, 6(2), 45-69.
- Omidipour, M. (2014). An analysis of errors in writing among adults Persian learners of English. *International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World*, 5(3), 176-187.
- Rabab'ah, G. (2003). Communicating problems facing Arab learners of English. *Journal of Language and Learning*, 3(1), 180-197.

- Sattari, A. (2012). An analysis of grammatical errors in Iranian students' English writings. *Iranian EFL Journal*, 8(2), 143-157.
- Shamsudin, S., & Mahady, N. R. A. (2010). *Corpus linguistics based error analysis of first year Universiti Teknologi Malaysia students' writing* (Unpublished Ph.D. Disseration), Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, Malaysia.
- Skinner, B. (1957). *Verbal behavior*. New York: Appleton Century Crofts.
- Sun, J., & Shang, L. (2010). A Corpus-based study of errors in Chinese English majors' English writing. *Asian Social Science*, 6(1), 86-94.
- Vahdatinejad, S. (2008). *Students' error analysis and attitude towards teacher feedback using a selected software: A case study* (Master's dissertation), Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, Bangi, Malaysia. Retrieved from http://esp-world.info/Articles_40/Sawalmeh
- Wee, R. Sim, J., & Jusoff, K. (2010). Verb-form errors in EAP writing. *Educational Research and Review*, 5(1), 16-23.
- Wu, H. P., & Garza, E. V. (2014). Types and attributes of English writing errors in the EFL context – A Study of error analysis. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 5(6), 1256-1262.



Relationship between Health Care and Tourism Sectors to Economic Growth: The Case of Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand

Chan-Fatt Cheah and A. S. Abdul-Rahim*

Department of Economics, Faculty of Economics and Management, Universiti Putra Malaysia, 43400 UPM, Serdang, Selangor, Malaysia

ABSTRACT

The objective of this study is to examine the relationship between health care and tourism sectors to economic growth in Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand. Panel ARDL test was employed to investigate their long- and short-run relationships by examining annual time series data from 1995–2016. Results show a significant positive short- and long-run relationship between development of healthcare and tourism sectors to economic growth in Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand. As stated in the ASEAN Tourism Strategic Plan 2016-2025, Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand should work together to promote ASEAN as a health tourism destination to the world.

Keywords: Economic growth, healthcare sector, tourism, ASEAN

INTRODUCTION

Over the past few years, demand in healthcare and tourism sectors has shown a steady increase in Malaysia, Singapore

and Thailand. Both sectors contributed significantly to the gross domestic product (GDP) of Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand. The healthcare sector contributed 3.9% to Malaysia's GDP; 4.4% to Singapore's GDP; and 4.1% to Thailand's GDP in 2016 (World Bank, 2018). The tourism sector contributed 3.5% to Malaysia's GDP; 7.4% to Singapore's GDP; and 2.7% to Thailand's GDP in 2016 (World Bank, 2018).

Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand are well known as medical tourism destinations for tourists from around the world. By using

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received: 19 September 2016

Accepted: 30 April 2018

E-mail addresses:

thefatt@hotmail.com (Chan-Fatt Cheah)

abrahimabsamad@gmail.com (A. S. Abdul-Rahim)

*Corresponding author

costs in the United States as a benchmark for healthcare services, the average cost savings for Malaysia is 65-80%. Cost savings for Singapore are between 25-40%, and between 50-75% for Thailand (Patients Beyond Borders, 2017). In 2013, 770,134 tourists sought healthcare services in Malaysia. In 2012 850,000 foreign tourists sought treatment in Singapore. In 2013, 520,000 tourists received medical treatment in Thailand (Health-Tourism.com, 2015).

According to Malaysia's Healthcare Travel Council (2014), it has experienced growth in inbound health tourism in recent years. Singapore's health tourism remains strong because its medical facilities were fully accredited by Joint Commission International (JCI). Before this development, Singapore faced stiff competition from Malaysia and Thailand (Euromonitor International, 2014). Thailand has become a world-class health tourism destination for two reasons: (1) it is considered an excellent value-for-money destination, and (2) it offers the highest quality healthcare services in Asia (Euromonitor International, 2014).

Studies have pointed to a positive correlation between health expenditure and economic growth. Atilgan et al. (2017) corroborated this in his case study of Turkey. Tang and Tan (2015) found that promoting tourism in Malaysia contributed to its economic growth in the short- and long-run while Ohlan (2017) found that tourism sector boosted economic growth in India in the short- and long-run.

Lee and Hung (2010) meanwhile pointed to a long-run relationship between healthcare and tourism sectors in Singapore.

Lee (2010) pointed to the long-run relationship between healthcare and tourism sectors in Singapore. Cheah and Abdul-Rahim (2014) meanwhile noted a long-run relationship between economic growth, and the development of healthcare and tourism sectors in Malaysia.

Under ASEAN Tourism Strategic Plan 2016-2025, Thailand is the regional coordinator to promote medical tourism. The ASEAN Tourism Strategic Plan 2016-2025 vision for ASEAN is "*By 2025, ASEAN will be a quality tourism destination offering a unique, diverse ASEAN experience, and will be committed to responsible, sustainable, inclusive and balanced tourism development, so as to contribute significantly to the socioeconomic well-being of ASEAN people.*"

The relationship between healthcare and tourism sectors to economic growth have been studied; for example, 1981-2011 (Cheah & Abdul-Rahim, 2014) and in Singapore from 1978-2007 (Lee & Hung, 2010), but there has been no similar study focusing on Thailand. Because Thailand serves as the coordinator and top tourist destination in ASEAN, the relationships between healthcare and tourism sectors in Thailand is of interest to study. Cheah and Abdul-Rahim (2014) and Lee and Hung (2010) captured the impact of health tourism in Malaysia and Singapore.

This study used data from 1995-2016 and employed the same model as Lee and Hung (2010) and Cheah and Abdul-Rahim (2014) while incorporating different measurements of the variables. We employed real total healthcare expenditures per capita as a proxy for healthcare sector development and total tourist expenditures per tourist for tourism sector development. In comparison, Lee and Hung (2010) and Cheah and Abdul-Rahim (2014) employed government expenditures on healthcare per capita as a proxy for healthcare sector development and total tourist arrivals for tourism sector development.

This study aims to examine the relationship between healthcare and tourism sectors to economic growth of Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand. This is because Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand are the leading players in medical tourism in ASEAN. The study will attempt to show how promoting medical tourism in these countries can boost their economic growth as outlined in ASEAN Tourism Strategic Plan 2016-2025.

DATA AND METHOD

Annual time series data from 1995-2016 were analysed in this study. Data related to real income per capita (*GDP*) was used as a proxy for economic growth in Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand; real total healthcare expenditures per capita (*HEALTH*) served as a proxy for the development of healthcare sector in Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand;

and real total tourist expenditures per tourist (*TOURISM*) served as a proxy for tourism sector development in Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand. All the data was obtained from world development indicators, such as the World Bank (2018).

The health-led growth hypothesis by Atilgan et al. (2017) and tourism-led growth hypothesis by Tang and Tan (2015) was examined in this study. To estimate the relationships between the variables and cross countries in this study, the panel ARDL approach is more relevant when compared to ARDL bound tests that only allow for single country estimation at a time.

The panel ARDL approach also allows for the determination of cointegration despite the different order of integration resulting from the use of panel data. The mean group estimator (MG) estimates the dynamic panels for large time observations and large groups (Pasaran & Smith, 1995). A pooled mean group (PMG) estimates the dynamic panels as MG, but PMG considers both averaging and pooling as an intermediate estimator compared with MG (Pasaran et al., 1997). Dynamic Fixed Effects (DFE) restricts the coefficient of the co-integrating vector to be equal across all panels (Pasaran et al., 1997).

Before beginning to estimate the model, it is essential to investigate the order of integration for the variables used. Levin et al.'s (2002) (LLC) test and Im et al.'s (2003) (IPS) test were employed with intercepts and time trends for the level and first

difference for each variable. LLC tests are based on homogeneity of the autoregressive parameter (Eq. (1)); IPS tests are based

on heterogeneity of the autoregressive parameter (Eq. (2)).

$$\Delta y_{it} = \rho_i y_{i,t-1} + \sum_{j=1}^{p_i} \beta_{ij} \Delta y_{i,t-j} + z'_{it} \gamma_i + \epsilon_{it} \tag{1}$$

$$\Delta y_{it} = \alpha_i + \rho_i y_{i,t-1} + \sum_{j=1}^{p_i} \beta_{ij} \Delta y_{i,t-j} + \epsilon_{it} \tag{2}$$

Next, the panel ARDL approach allows for the determination of cointegration despite the different order of integration resulting from the use of panel data. The MG estimates the dynamic panels for large numbers of time observations and large numbers of groups (Pasarán & Smith, 1995). PMG estimates the dynamic panels as MG, but PMG considers both averaging and pooling as an intermediate estimator compared with

MG (Pasarán et al., 1997). DFE restricts the coefficient of the cointegrating vector to be equal across all panels (Pasarán et al., 1997).

In this study, the MG model, the PMG model and the DFE model were employed to investigate the long- and short-run relationships based on the models below:

(a) MG long-run relationship models:

$$GDP_{it} = \theta_0 + \gamma_{i1} GDP_{i,t-1} + \gamma_{i1} TOURISM_{it} + \gamma_{i2} HEALTH_{it} + \epsilon_{it} \tag{3}$$

$$HEALTH_{it} = \theta_0 + \gamma_{i1} HEALTH_{i,t-1} + \gamma_{i1} GDP_{it} + \gamma_{i2} TOURISM_{it} + \epsilon_{it} \tag{4}$$

$$TOURISM_{it} = \theta_0 + \gamma_{i1} TOURISM_{i,t-1} + \gamma_{i1} GDP_{it} + \gamma_{i2} HEALTH_{it} + \epsilon_{it} \tag{5}$$

where

$$i = 1, 2, \text{ and } 3$$

$$\theta_i = \frac{\beta_i}{1 - \gamma_i}$$

$$\hat{\theta}_i = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \theta_i$$

$$\hat{\beta}_i = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \beta_i$$

(b) PMG and DFE long-run relationship models:

$$GDP_{it} = \mu_i + \sum_{j=1}^p \lambda_{ij} GDP_{i,t-j} + \sum_{j=0}^q \delta_{1j}^i TOURISM_{i,t-j} + \sum_{j=0}^q \delta_{2j}^i HEALTH_{i,t-j} + \varepsilon_{it} \quad (6)$$

$$\begin{aligned} HEALTH_{it} &= \mu_i + \sum_{j=1}^p \lambda_{1t} HEALTH_{i,t-j} + \sum_{j=0}^q \delta_{1j}^i GDP_{i,t-j} \\ &+ \sum_{j=0}^q \delta_{2j}^i TOURISM_{i,t-j} + \varepsilon_{it} \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

$$\begin{aligned} TOURISM_{it} &= \mu_i + \sum_{j=1}^p \lambda_{1t} TOURISM_{i,t-j} + \sum_{j=0}^q \delta_{1j}^i GDP_{i,t-j} \\ &+ \sum_{j=0}^q \delta_{2j}^i HEALTH_{i,t-j} + \varepsilon_{it} \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

where

$i = 1, 2, \text{ and } 3$

$t = 1, 2, 3, \dots, T$

$j = \text{optimum time lag}$

$\mu_i = \text{fixed effect}$

(c) short-run relationship with error correction models:

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta GDP_{it} &= \mu_i + \varphi_i (GDP_{i,t-1} - \lambda_1 TOURISM_{it} - \lambda_2 HEALTH_{it}) \\ &+ \sum_{j=1}^{p-1} \gamma_j^i \Delta GDP_{i,t-j} + \sum_{j=0}^{q-1} \delta_{1j}^i \Delta TOURISM_{i,t-j} \\ &+ \sum_{j=0}^{q-1} \delta_{2j}^i \Delta HEALTH_{i,t-j} + \delta_{it} \end{aligned} \quad (9)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \Delta HEALTH_{it} &= \mu_i + \varphi_i(HEALTH_{i,t-1} - \lambda_1 GDP_{it} - \lambda_2 TOURISM_{it}) \\
 &+ \sum_{j=1}^{p-1} \gamma_j^i \Delta HEALTH_{i,t-1} + \sum_{j=0}^{q-1} \delta_{1j}^i \Delta GDP_{i,t-j} \\
 &+ \sum_{j=0}^{q-1} \delta_{2j}^i \Delta TOURISM_{i,t-j} + \delta_{it}
 \end{aligned} \tag{10}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \Delta TOURISM_{it} &= \mu_i + \varphi_i(TOURISM_{i,t-1} - \lambda_1 GDP_{it} - \lambda_2 HEALTH_{it}) \\
 &+ \sum_{j=1}^{p-1} \gamma_j^i \Delta TOURISM_{i,t-1} + \sum_{j=0}^{q-1} \delta_{1j}^i \Delta GDP_{i,t-j} \\
 &+ \sum_{j=0}^{q-1} \delta_{2j}^i \Delta HEALTH_{i,t-j} + \delta_{it}
 \end{aligned} \tag{11}$$

where

$i = 1, 2, \text{ and } 3$

$t = 1, 2, 3, \dots, T$

$\varphi_i =$ Error-correction coefficient

Following this, the Hausman test was employed to decide the appropriate estimator between MG and PMG models. The DFE

model was employed as a countercheck for MG and PMG models estimated.

RESULTS

The results in Table 1 show *GDP* and *HEALTH* both are I(0) variables and *TOURISM* is I(1) variable.

Table 1
Results of the LLC test and IPS test

	LLC		IPS	
	Level	First Difference	Level	First Difference
GDP	-4.1541***	-2.5198***	-2.8536***	-1.7753**
HEALTH	-2.7731***	-4.7049***	-1.7423**	-2.7164***
TOURISM	-1.5183*	-1.6552**	-1.2848*	-2.1557**

*, ** and *** indicate significance at 10% level, 5% level and 1% level respectively

The results of the estimations are shown in Table 2, Table 3 and Table 4 below.

Table 2
Results of panel ARDL (Dependent variable: GDP)

	PMG	MG	DFE
Long Run Parameters			
	Coefficient	Coefficient	Coefficient
HEALTH	19.73743*** (0.000)	17.9812*** (0.000)	15.2228*** (0.000)
TOURISM	0.6584 (0.153)	1.7532 (0.003)	0.6090 (0.606)
Average Convergence Parameter			
ECT	-0.4516*** (0.001)	-0.6311*** (0.000)	-0.6424*** (0.000)
Short Run Parameter			
Δ HEALTH	5.9773*** (0.000)	3.6958*** (0.000)	3.2978*** (0.000)
Δ TOURISM	0.8441 (0.536)	0.0985 (0.955)	-1.0401 (0.596)
Constant	1250.3980** (0.024)	3298.3620 (0.216)	4167.3470*** (0.000)
Hausman Test ^a	χ^2 11.82***	P-value 0.0027	

Note: The corresponding p-value s given in (...)

^aPMG is an efficient estimation than MG under null Hypothesis

*, ** and *** indicate significance at 10% level, 5% level and 1% level respectively

Table 3
Results of panel ARDL (Dependent variable: HEALTH)

	PMG	MG	DFE
Long Run Parameters			
	Coefficient	Coefficient	Coefficient
HEALTH	0.0570*** (0.000)	0.05058*** (0.000)	0.0574*** (0.000)
TOURISM	0.2320* (0.078)	0.0452 (0.761)	0.2390*** (0.008)
Average Convergence Parameter			
ECT	-0.2161 (0.167)	-0.6534*** (0.000)	-0.4356*** (0.000)

Table 3 (continue)

	PMG	MG	DFE
Short Run Parameter			
Δ HEALTH	0.0223 (0.120)	-0.0016 (0.697)	0.0012 (0.834)
Δ TOURISM	-0.0163 (0.178)	-0.0025 (0.845)	0.0373 (0.320)
Constant	-190.0545 (0.291)	-184.1313 (0.274)	-212.0843*** (0.000)
	χ^2	P-value	
Hausman Test ^b	3.42	0.1812	

Note: The corresponding p-value is given in (...)

^bPMG is an efficient estimation than MG under null Hypothesis

*, ** and *** indicate significance at 10% level, 5% level and 1% level respectively

Table 4

Results of panel ARDL (Dependent variable: TOURISM)

	PMG	MG	DFE
Long Run Parameters			
	Coefficient	Coefficient	Coefficient
HEALTH	-0.1545 (0.530)	0.0506*** (0.000)	0.0574*** (0.000)
TOURISM	0.9367 (0.831)	0.0452 (0.761)	0.2390*** (0.008)
Average Convergence Parameter			
ECT	-0.0463 (0.492)	-0.6534*** (0.000)	-0.4356*** (0.000)
Short Run Parameter			
Δ HEALTH	0.0747 (0.268)	-0.0016 (0.697)	0.0012 (0.834)
Δ TOURISM	0.0559 (0.894)	-0.0025 (0.845)	0.0373 (0.320)
Constant	132.8278 (0.385)	-184.1313 (0.274)	-212.0843*** (0.000)
	χ^2	P-value	
Hausman Test ^c	15.27***	0.0001	

Note: The corresponding p-value is given in (...)

^cMG is an efficient estimation than PMG under null Hypothesis

*, ** and *** indicate significance at 10% level, 5% level and 1% level respectively

Based on the result of the Hausman Test as shown in Table 2, H_0 is rejected at a 5% significance level. All of the *ECT* terms for the three models above are negatively statistically significant, and $0 < ECT < 1$, indicates that there are both long- and short-run relationships for the estimated models. It can be concluded the PMG model is preferred and supported by DFE model. A significant positive long-run and short-run relationship between healthcare sector

development to economic growth was noted. Therefore, the health-led growth hypothesis supports this finding. The results of short-run Panel ARDL by country are shown in Table 5 below.

Results of the Hausman Test in Table 3 and 4 show that PMG models are preferred. However, the *ECT* terms for the PMG models above are not negatively statistically significant indicating long- and short-run relationships do not exist for the models.

Table 5
Results of short-run panel ARDL (PMG model) by country

	Malaysia	Singapore	Thailand
Average Convergence parameter			
ECT	-0.6820*** (0.000)	-0.2273 (0.193)	-0.44542* (0.086)
Short Run Parameter			
Δ HEALTH	4.6123 (0.377)	7.0278 (0.140)	6.2921* (0.096)
Δ TOURISM	2.7493** (0.028)	-1.7993 (0.511)	1.5824*** (0.002)
Constant	1201.1730*** (0.002)	2232.7190 (0.191)	317.3021** (0.080)

Note: The corresponding p-value s given in (...)

*, ** and *** indicate significance at 10% level, 5% level and 1% level respectively

Malaysia and Thailand *ECT* terms show significant short-run relationship at 5% and 10% level respectively. Malaysian tourism development shows a significant positive relationship to economic growth in Malaysia. Development of tourism in Malaysia has boosted its economic growth. In Thailand, healthcare and tourism development will lead to positive economic growth. Both healthcare and tourism sectors in Thailand play an essential role in

promoting economic growth. Therefore, the health-led growth hypothesis and tourism-led growth hypothesis of this study are supported in Thailand in the short-run.

The long-run and short-run results of this study prove that health-led growth hypothesis is correct for the case of Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand but not for the case of tourism-led growth hypothesis. The increase in health expenditure will lead to higher economic growth for the case of

Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand. Results of this study are in line with Atilgan et al. (2017) and Lee and Hung (2010). The present study also found tourism development has a significant positive relationship to economic growth in Malaysia which contradicts with the findings of Cheah and Abdul-Rahim (2014). Different proxy for tourism development was employed compared with Cheah and Abdul-Rahim (2014) who used tourist arrival as its proxy.

CONCLUSION

Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand are already well known for their low-cost healthcare services among Asian countries. Increasing public health expenditures will promote medical tourism which in turn will boost economic growth in Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand.

Tourism sector development in Malaysia and Thailand also plays an essential role in promoting economic growth in the short-run. Malaysia and Thailand are rich in natural resources and forest reserves compared with Singapore. The vast green forest rich in biodiversity attracts many tourists as part of health tourism (Patients Beyond Borders, 2017).

There is a need for Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand policymakers to come up with a common policy on promoting health tourism. A low cost medical and health tourism package should be introduced to compete with non-ASEAN member countries. Cross-border health and medical

tourism can be promoted between Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand. Thailand as coordinator for promoting health tourism can play an important role in realising the objectives of ASEAN Tourism Strategic Plan 2016-2025.

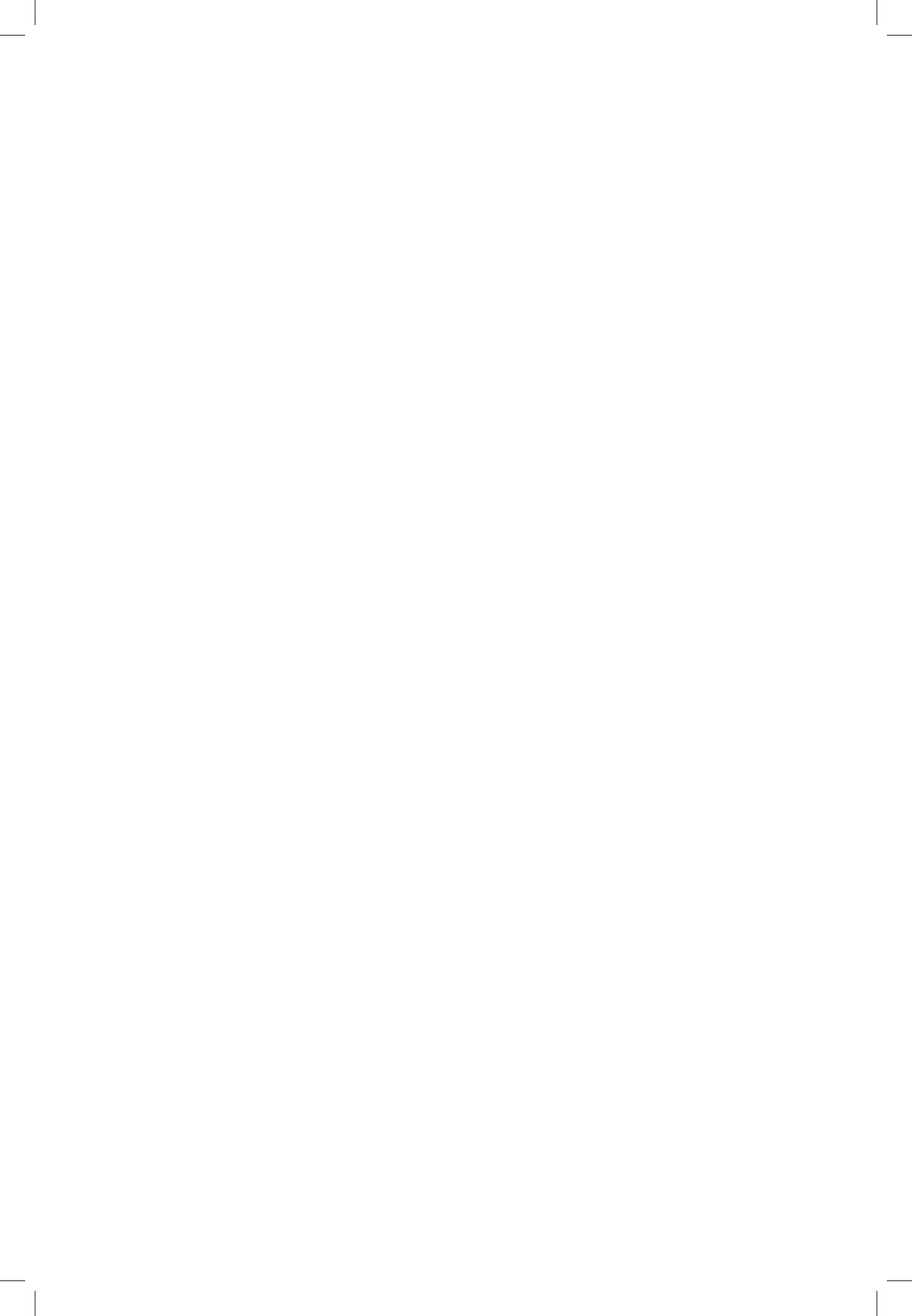
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The authors are thankful for the research grants Fundamental Research Grant Scheme (FRGS) under the Ministry of Education, Malaysia (Project Code: FRGS/1/2016/SS08/UPM/02/4). Grateful thanks to the anonymous reviewers for the valuable comments that helped to considerably improve the manuscript.

REFERENCES

- Atilgan, E., Kilic, D., & Ertugrul, H. M. (2017). The dynamic relationship between health expenditure and economic growth: is the health-led growth hypothesis valid for Turkey? *The European Journal of Health Economics*, 18(5), 567-574.
- Blackburne, E. F., & Frank, M. W. (2007). Estimation of nonstationary heterogeneous panels. *Stata Journal*, 7(2), 197-208.
- Cheah, C. F., & Abdul-Rahim, A. S. (2014). Tourism, Health and Income in Malaysia. In *SHS Web of Conferences* (Vol. 12, p. 01039). EDP Sciences.
- EI. (2014). *Health and Wellness Tourism in Malaysia*. Euromonitor International. Retrieved November 25, 2016, from <http://www.euromonitor.com/health-and-wellness-tourism-in-malaysia/report>
- EI. (2014). *Health and Wellness Tourism in Singapore*. Euromonitor International. Retrieved November 25, 2016, from <http://www.euromonitor.com/health-and-wellness-tourism-in-singapore/report>

- EI. (2014). *Health and Wellness Tourism in Thailand*. Euromonitor International. Retrieved November 25, 2016, from <http://www.euromonitor.com/health-and-wellness-tourism-in-thailand/report>
- HT. (2015). *Medical tourism statistics and facts*. Health Tourism. Retrieved November 25, 2016, from <https://www.health-tourism.com/medical-tourism/statistics/>
- Lee, C. G. (2010). Healthcare and tourism: Evidence from Singapore. *Tourism Management*, 31(4), 486-488. doi:10.1016/j.tourman.2009.05.002
- Lee, C. G., & Hung, W. T. (2010). Tourism, health and income in Singapore. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 12(4), 355-359. doi: 10.1002/jtr.755
- MHTC. (2014). *Overall healthcare travelers 2007-2012*. The Malaysia Healthcare Travel Council. Retrieved November 25, 2016 from <http://www.mhtc.org.my/en/statistics.aspx>
- Ohlan, R. (2017). The relationship between tourism, financial development and economic growth in India. *Future Business Journal*, 3(1), 9-22.
- Pasaran, M. H., & Smith, R. (1995). *New directions in applied macroeconomic modelling* (No. 9525). Faculty of Economics, University of Cambridge.
- PBB. (2017). *Medical Tourism Statistics and Facts. Patients Beyond Borders*. Retrieved March 10, 2018 from <http://www.patientsbeyondborders.com/medical-tourism-statistics-facts>
- PDT. (2015). *ASEAN Tourism Strategic Plan 2016-2025*. Philippine Department of Tourism. Jakarta, Indonesia: ASEAN Secretariat.
- Pesaran, M. H., Shin, Y., & Smith, R. P. (1997). *Pooled estimation of long-run relationships in dynamic heterogeneous panels*. University of Cambridge, Department of Applied Economics.
- Tang, C. F., & Tan, E. C. (2015). Does tourism effectively stimulate Malaysia's economic growth? *Tourism Management*, 46, 158-163.



Case Study

Informal Leadership Learning on the Journey to Headship: A Case Study of National Professional Qualification for Headship Participants in Malaysia

Gurcharan Singh Bishen Singh

Cluster of Education and Social Sciences, Open University Malaysia, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

ABSTRACT

The current focus on school leader preparation around the world is based on the belief that school leaders make a difference in both effectiveness and efficiency of schooling. This study is part of an evaluative case study on the National Professional Qualification for Headship (NPQH) programme in Malaysia. It seeks to investigate the perceptions of ten incumbent secondary school principals who are graduates of the NPQH programme on the informal leadership learning they acquired from the time they graduated to the roles they played as principals. The study investigated informal leadership learning in the professional setting at school, professional setting outside school as well as leadership learning outside the professional setting. The findings of this qualitative inquiry point towards a great deal of informal leadership learning in the professional setting at school. Whilst informal leadership learning in the professional setting outside of school was reportedly derived from the active role played by the respondents themselves, very little leadership learning was acquired outside the professional setting. The implication of this study for the preparation of school heads in Malaysia is discussed and proposals made towards optimising the benefits of informal leadership learning for aspiring heads.

Keywords: Headship Preparatory Training, Informal leadership learning, Leadership learning, School leadership

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received: 18 October 2016

Accepted: 29 March 2018

E-mail address:

gurcharan_singh@oum.edu.my (Gurcharan Singh Bishen Singh)

INTRODUCTION

Around the world today, much emphasis is being given to leadership development programmes as an element to enhance school effectiveness and improve educational

systems. The current focus on school leader preparation around the world is based upon the belief that effective school leadership positively influences student learning and school improvement (Day et al., 2011; Young et al., 2013). There are formal programmes for headship preparation involving formal learning. Professional development courses are also offered to school leaders to enhance their knowledge and skills through formal and structured learning. Formal learning is generally characterized by an organized learning event or a prescribed learning framework which eventually earns the learner a qualification or credit of some sort (Eraut, 2000). Formal learning is usually planned and structured (Choi & Jacobs, 2011). Informal learning, on the other hand, is predominantly unstructured, experiential and non-institutional (Marsick & Volpe, 1999).

In Malaysia, since 1999, a one-year fulltime headship preparatory training programme called National Professional Qualification for Headship (NPQH) programme was organised by the Ministry of Education through its educational management and leadership institute, IAB (Institut Aminuddin Baki). This study is part of a larger doctoral study which evaluated the effectiveness of NPQH (National Professional Qualification for Headship) training programme on headship practices (Singh, 2010). The NPQH programme is now known as the National Professional Qualification for Educational Leaders (NPQEL) has a duration of 5 months. The

first batch of participants from the NPQH programme graduated in 2000 and the subsequent batches every year thereon. Aspiring head teachers who graduate from the programme do not necessarily assume the headship post immediately; some waiting for a few months while others a few years.

The NPQH programme aims to create effective school leaders (Institut Aminuddin Baki [IAB], 2004). Upon completing the one-year NPQH programme participants are re-posted to schools to continue their career with the aspiration of becoming heads at some point. The period of completing the NPQH programme and assuming office as school head dependent on seniority and job performance. It is therefore argued that leadership learning may have occurred for the participants in various settings from the time they complete the programme to their assuming of the headship post. The NPQH programme, however, does not gauge this learning as it is not part of the formal structure of the course. The period of leadership learning, albeit beyond the formal NPQH programme, could contribute to leadership development of aspiring heads.

Since aspiring heads are appointed to office at different time intervals this study aims to investigate informal leadership learning on the route to headship. Informal leadership learning could have occurred at the professional level in school and outside of school as well as at the non-professional level. This study looks at the informal leadership learning of the NPQH graduates

from the period of their graduation to their appointment as school principals. This paper is based on the following research question:

What are the principals' perceptions of informal leadership learning that has taken place between their graduation from NPQH and their headship, in the following contexts?

- (i) Professional learning in school;
- (ii) Professional learning outside of school;
- (iii) Learning outside of the professional context.

The respondents of this study were 10 secondary school principals who graduated from the NPQH programme. The gap between them completing the programme and appointment as head teacher varied from less than 1 year and 7 years.

Leadership Learning

Kolb's Cycle of Learning (Kolb, 1984) suggests that effective learning occurs when one is able to involve fully and openly in all the four stages of the learning cycle – concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualisation and active experimentation. This well-known theory implies that learners must have some concrete experience by involving themselves experientially in some kind of activity, and some reflective observation by reflecting on the experience. The two stages should be followed by a phase of integrating their observation or building generalization. The final phase is active experimentation,

a stage where they can test their theories and use them in making decisions and solving problems. This theory is applicable in leadership development of aspiring principals as they learn in their formal training and gain some learning beyond the intervention as they move towards headship.

As leadership learning continues after training, it has been argued that some of the most powerful learning occurs while on the job – both incidentally and in structured ways ((Rainbird, Fuller & Munro, 2004; Raelin, 2008; Woodall & Winstanley, 1998). Woodall and Winstanley (1998) categorise workplace learning into three: learning from another person, learning from tasks, and learning with others. This follows an earlier assertion by Bandura (1977) that people can learn by observing the behaviour of others as well as the outcomes of those behaviours. Southworth (2002) reported that head teachers learned most and developed their leadership practices by doing the job. In the same vein, Rhodes and Brundrett (2006) argue that if effective professional development is characterised by on-the-job learning, then leadership training relying only on content-driven courses may be less effective in developing leadership talent compared to engagement by the learners in their own professional context. This follows the assertion by Earley and Evans (2004, p.330) that 'the most significant experiences were frequently on the job – workplace rather than workshop.' Even though leadership learning seems to be attributed to the workplace, it has been reported that learning by school leaders

in the professional context is not only confined to the place they work in. Earley and Weindling (2004) synthesized more than 20 years of their headship and leadership development work in the UK and reported that school heads believed the most valuable 'on-the-job' learning activity came from working with others, especially effective head teachers. At the same time, the heads perceived that the most useful 'off-the-job' learning activities were attending courses, visiting other schools, networking with other head teachers, working on specialist tasks and having meetings or contacts with non-educationalists.

Similarly, Earley and Bubb (2004, p.174) attributed 'working with an effective head teacher, and everyday work experience' as two main on-the-job activities that assisted in leadership learning. Learning from head teachers as influential leadership learning was highlighted by Zhang and Brundrett (2010) when some school leaders in their study were reportedly enlightened by the influence of their previous head teachers. The school leaders felt that such role models were essential and their attitude and experiences were highly regarded.

The claims and assertions made by these authors are relevantly related to the NPQH graduates in the presumption that they acquired some learning between the periods of graduation from the NPQH programme to their assuming headship position. The literature also points towards different settings for leadership learning – in the professional as well as outside the professional setting. It is the aim of this

study to capture some insight into the extent of leadership learning acquired by NPQH graduates.

In this study, professional learning in school constitutes the learning while respondents undertook their own roles and job functions at school. Professional learning outside school involves activities that the respondents took outside of their own formal role in school. This includes their involvement in outside school meetings, professional associations, and even the Parent Teacher Association. Learning outside of the professional context means leadership learning that might occur in everyday life which is not related to their professional role.

Whilst this study intended to capture perceptions on the extent of leadership learning by the NPQH graduates it does not provide detail examples of leadership lessons learned in the period.

METHOD

The data gathered in this study is the perceptions and views of the sample, the principals, which will constitute the reality, interpreted by the researcher. The interpretations are then structured in themes, leading to judgments about the leadership learning of the NPQH graduates in Malaysia.

This study adopts the qualitative method. Patton (2002) proposes using the open-ended response approach in qualitative evaluation study to capture the understandings of the respondents. This study uses the open-ended responses approach through the semi-structured interview to understand

respondents' perceptions regarding their leadership learning.

The semi-structured interviews in this study were conducted face to face with individual respondents and carried out at the schools where the respondents were principals. The interviews were recorded on a digital voice recorder and then transcribed and translated for analysis.

This study utilized purposive sampling as a non-probability form of sampling. Bryman (2008) informs that the goal of purposive sampling is to sample participants in a strategic way so that those sampled are relevant to the questions being posed. The participants of this study were assured of privacy, confidentiality and anonymity. Hence, their real names are not used and were assigned an alpha-numeric reference each, i.e. from P1 (Principal 1) to P10 (Principal 10).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

The findings of this study are presented in the following three different sub-sections with the relevant quotations from the responses.

Informal Leadership Learning in the Professional Setting in School

Asked about the leadership learning in professional setting at school, all 10 heads admitted that they learned a great deal. The emergent theme is leadership learning from heads. Some learned by emulating what their leaders were doing while others learned from the negative examples they observed

and experienced in their leaders. Three of the principals said that their learning was by observing the negatives in their leaders. This constitutes learning as the respondents reflected on the negatives and tried avoiding it in their own leadership as heads. A typical response from a female head, who was herself working under a female head before she became a principal, is as follows:

“I did learn from her [principal], whether in a positive way or a negative way. She had an autocratic style which was alright at some times but was not too good at other times. I learned that using a particular style, in this case the autocratic style, was not effective in all situations and I avoided this style in my own practice as a head now.” (H3)

One principal shared his experience of learning from two of his heads and he compared them in the following response:

“I was a senior assistant to two different heads in two different schools. The first one taught me so much about how to handle the staff and create a good rapport with them. The second headteacher was one who just bulldozed through whatever needed doing in the school. It was so mechanistic and lacking the humanistic touch.” (H6)

He went on to say about his own practice as a head, “I am mindful of my own leadership...I avoid doing what I observed as ineffective and detrimental” (H6).

Informal Leadership Learning in the Professional Setting Outside of School

The question on informal leadership learning in a professional setting outside the school received responses from eight principals which raised the theme of learning through involvement with various bodies or associations. Three principals related that they learned a great deal from their involvement in the Senior Assistants association, which is an association of school senior assistants both at the state level as well as the national level. One of the three heads stated:

“I was also involved in the Senior Assistants association in my state. I had a leadership role to play there and learned a lot on how to lead colleagues on the same level. This role helped to shape me for my eventual role as a head where I was able to lead my subordinates and deal with different situations.” (H7)

Another principal shared his experience of learning through his involvement in the Parent Teachers Association (PTA) and he related it as following:

“I learned a lot from my involvement in the school PTA. As a Senior Assistant in my previous school, I had a lot of support from the PTA and they often look up for me to discuss programmes with them and suggest ways for the parents to get involved.” (H2)

He further claims that the experience helped him in his headship post as he had gained “maturity in dealing with staff in the school as well as others outside”.

Informal Leadership Learning Outside of Professional Setting

Apart from investigating informal leadership learning acquired by the respondents in professional setting in the school and outside of school, question was also posed to them about informal leadership learning outside of their professional setting.

The question on leadership learning outside of professional setting attracted responses from seven out of 10 principals in this study. Three of them were involved with youth organisations (H3, H4 and H8), three others in local housing and neighbourhood associations (H10, H1 and H5), and one was involved with non-government organisation (NGO). However, all but one of them admitted that their involvement outside the professional setting was limited by the fact that they were already busy with their professional work and could not devote any more time than they already had. Two such responses are quoted below:

“Outside of the professional context, I joined the local housing association. I am not so active in the association though for I am already active in school and other professional bodies.” (H5)

“Yes, to a certain extent but we are so busy in school that we cannot spend

much time in these associations outside of the profession.” (H1)

The one exception to the group was a principal who was actively involved in a non-government association, and she shared her experience in the following:

“I was actively involved in an NGO and assumed the role of a leader. I learned a lot in my capacity as a leader in that NGO as I had to lead people from all walks of society.” (H7)

The research question probed the respondents on the perceptions of their informal leadership learning between their graduation and their appointment into headship. The contexts of the informal leadership learning were divided into professional setting and outside of professional setting. The professional setting was further divided into professional learning at school and professional learning outside of school. This was followed by the leadership learning outside of the professional setting.

In the professional setting at school, all 10 respondents perceived that they learned a great deal about leadership. Informal leadership learning primarily occurred through their experiencing and reflecting on the leadership of their superiors. However learning here does not denote only positive learning as some respondents learned through their observation and reflection on styles of leadership demonstrated by their superiors. Therefore, the informal leadership learning that occurred in the

respondents was based on a set of leadership theories that they learned formally in the NPQH programme and observed in action at schools. In other words, the espoused theories were measured against the observation and reflection of the theories in use at the material time. Some respondents (n=5) even had the opportunity to compare and contrast more than one head teacher and could mentally classify the different styles of these leaders into positive and negative styles. In spite of this, both the situations constituted leadership learning. The findings of this study indicate that informal learning in the school is an important aspect in the development of a future leader. However, there is also an indication that learning to lead did not necessarily happen by emulating the practices of superiors, i.e. the school heads, but followed the judgment of the respondents who reflected against the repertoire of knowledge they had about effective leadership.

Informal leadership learning in the professional setting outside the school seems to be derived by respondents experiencing a more active role in professional bodies such as the Senior Assistants association and other associations such as the Parent Teacher Association (PTA). Active involvement in professional bodies as well as associations gave them the opportunity to lead and learn directly from their own experiences. The opportunity to act out leadership roles allowed them to demonstrate their preferred leadership styles. The study also found that respondents did not acquire much leadership learning outside the professional

setting. This was mainly because they were reportedly not actively involved in many associations outside of their professional due to lack of time.

The findings in this study show that informal learning mainly occurred in the professional setting, be it inside the school or outside. The findings seem to confirm the notion that some of the most powerful leadership learning occurs on the job (Earley and Evans, 2004; Rainbird et al., 2004; Raelin, 2008; Woodall and Winstanley, 1998). It also shows agreement with Woodall and Winstanley (1998) who have included learning from another person and learning with others at the workplace as contributors to leadership learning. The findings also signify a similarity with the synthesis of work done on headship and leadership development in UK by Earley and Weindling (2004) where the most valuable 'on-the-job' learning activity was working with others, especially effective head-teachers. In the case of this study, the respondents reported learning a great deal from their head-teachers. The respondents were mainly in their senior management posts, as senior assistants, when they perceived learning from their superiors. These findings seem to agree with Earley and Bubb (2004) who attributed working with an effective headteacher as one of the two main activities that assisted in leadership learning. The other main activity they recognised as assisting leadership learning is the everyday work experience of learners. This study shows aspiring heads

also acquired leadership learning from their own leadership roles which occurred through their everyday work experience.

The 'on-the-job' context by these researchers is similar to professional setting at school in this study. However, learning in this study was not only derived from the perceived positive styles of effective head-teachers but also from the negative styles of other head-teachers. This concurs with Bandura (1977) who suggested that people can learn by observing the behaviour of others. The 'off-the-job' learning in the study of Earley and Weindling (2004) is similar to the professional setting outside the school in this study. The heads in England perceived learning from networking with other head-teachers whilst the respondents in this study learned from their involvement with other senior assistants. The English heads also perceived learning through meetings and contacts with non-educationalists, such as in PTAs.

The ability to observe the leadership styles of their superiors and placing them into positive and negative styles from their formal NPQH course. Learning derived from the formal course and the acting out of the role lends itself to the concrete experience in Kolb's learning theory (1984). The learners then reflected on the experience and built some generalisations when they were able to determine the appropriate leadership styles. The cycle is completed when the learners themselves are going through active experimentation as they assumed the role of heads in schools.

CONCLUSION

This study found that informal leadership learning continued after training when NPQH graduates assumed senior management roles in schools before they took up the headship post. As informal leadership learning at school was based on observation and reflection on the leadership of their superiors, leadership learning outside school seems to have stemmed from their own leadership practice. The opportunity of being in a position to reflect and judge leadership styles of superiors and practice their own preferred leadership style seems to have provided a good balance in selecting the best. This was perhaps possible because the NPQH graduates were given the opportunity to hold the senior assistant post and their active involvement in activities that provided them leadership roles. However, this was not planned nor monitored in the NPQH programme as it is beyond the scope of the course itself. This study recommends that the preparatory initiative for aspiring principals be extended beyond the formal course, to include the phase after the graduation. This is deemed imperative given that the intended final product of the NPQH course itself is an effective principal.

It could be inferred from this study that giving graduates an opportunity to hold a senior management post before their headship can provide a good opportunity for leadership learning. The benefit of informal leadership learning in the senior post is further complemented by active involvement in leadership roles in

work-based activities. The implication of these findings for Malaysia indicates the importance of appointing graduates into senior management posts in schools to allow them to continue their leadership learning in a practical setting. It is therefore a recommendation of this study that NPQH graduates be given a senior management post before taking up headship in general.

This study proposes formalising informal leadership learning to provide opportunities to senior assistants on their journey to headship. Insofar as preparatory training in Malaysia is concerned, it is proposed that aspiring heads should maintain a leadership learning log to document their informal learning derived from observation as well as reflection. The leadership learning log could also be used as a tool in performance appraisal for appointment into headship position.

This study also recommends that the NPQH course should incorporate learning from the formal course as well as learning on the job at the participants' workplace. This means the duration of the course should include some mode of delivery that enables the participants to learn while being on their post. Having a blended learning approach that involves formal classroom training and workplace learning through usage of ICT could be a way forward. This view is supported by Rhodes and Brundrett (2006) who argue that leadership training relying only on content-driven courses may be less effective in developing leadership talent compared to engagement by the learners in their own professional context.

In view of emerging knowledge and research in the leadership learning of school leaders, future empirical investigation is suggested to focus on the leadership learning of aspiring heads in the formal course as well as in the informal setting back at their workplace. The leadership learning derived from the experience of aspiring head teachers on the route to headship should not be left to chance but utilised to strengthen and enhance the quality of the NPQH course.

REFERENCES

- Aziz, M. N. (2003). *An investigation into the headship training programme for aspiring primary school headteachers* (Unpublished doctoral thesis), University of Bristol, United Kingdom.
- Bandura, A. (1977). *Social learning theory*. New York: General Learning Press.
- Bryman, A. (2008). *Social research methods* (3rd ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- CC. (1979). *Report on the implementation of educational policy*. Cabinet Committee. Kuala Lumpur: DBP
- Choi, W., & Jacobs, R. L. (2011). Influences of formal learning, personal learning orientation, and supportive learning environment on informal learning. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 22(3), 239-257.
- Day, C., Sammons, P., Leithwood, K., Hopkins, D., & Gu, Q. (2011). *School leadership and student outcomes: Building and sustaining success*. McGraw-Hill Education: New York, NY.
- Earley, P., & Bubb, S. (2004). *Leading and managing continuing professional development: Developing people, developing schools*. London: Sage.
- Earley, P., & Evans, J. (2004). Making a difference? Leadership development for head teachers and deputies – ascertaining the impact of the National College for School Leadership. *Educational Management Administration and Leadership*, 32(3), 325-338.
- Earley, P., & Weindling, D. (2004). *Understanding school leadership*. London: Paul Chapman.
- Eraut, M. (2000). Non-formal learning and tacit knowledge in professional work. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 70(1), 113-136.
- Guskey, T. R. (2002). *Evaluating professional development*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.
- IAB. (2004). *Buku panduan pelaksanaan program NPQH 2004*. Genting Highlands: Institut Aminuddin Baki.
- Kolb, D. (1984). *Experiential learning*. London: Prentice-Hall.
- Marsick, V. J., & Volpe, M. (Eds.). (1999). *Informal learning on the job*. San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler Communications.
- Patton, M. Q. (2002). *Qualitative research and evaluation methods* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- Raelin, J. A. (2008). *Work-based learning: Bridging knowledge and action in workplace*. San Francisco: John Wiley.
- Rainbird, H., Fuller, A., & Munro, A. (2004). *Workplace learning in context*. London: Routledge.
- Rhodes, C. P., & Brundrett, M. (2006). The identification, development, succession and retention of leadership talent in contextually different primary schools: a case-study located within the English West Midlands. *School Leadership and Management*, 22(1), 21-27.

- Ribbins, P., & Gunter, H. (2002). Mapping leadership studies in education: Towards a typology of knowledge domains. *Educational Management and Administration, 30*(4), 359-385.
- Schwandt, T. A. (1993). Theory for the moral sciences. In D. Flinders & G. Mills (Eds.), *Theory and concepts in qualitative research* (pp. 5-23). New York: Teachers College Press.
- Singh, G. S. B. (2010). *The National Professional Qualification for Headship (NPQH) programme for secondary school headteachers in Malaysia: An evaluative case study* (Doctoral thesis, University of Birmingham, UK). Retrieved from <http://etheses.bham.ac.uk/588/1/BishenSingh10EdD.pdf>
- Southworth, G. (2002). Instructional leadership in schools: reflections and empirical evidence. *School Leadership and Management, 22*(1), 73-92.
- Woodall, J., & Winstanley, D. (1998). *Management development: Strategy and practice*. London: Blackwell.
- Young, M. D., Crow, G. M., Murphy, J., & Ogawa, R. T. (Eds.). (2013). *Leveraging what works in preparing educational leaders*. University Council for Educational Administration: Charlottesville, VA.
- Zhang, W., & Brundrett, M. (2010). School leaders' perspectives on leadership learning: The case for informal and experiential learning. *Management in Education, 24*, 154-158.



**REFEREES FOR THE PERTANIK
JOURNAL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES AND HUMANITIES**

VOL. 26 (2) JUN. 2018

The Editorial Board of the Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities wishes to thank the following:

Abdollah Bicharanlou
(UT, Iran)

Abdul Karim Muhammad
Shahri
(UPM, Malaysia)

Adler Manurung
(BINUS, Indonesia)

Ahmad Fauziah
(UKM, Malaysia)

Ahmad Habibah
(UKM, Malaysia)

Ahmad Lone Fayaz
(PSAU, Saudi Arabia)

Ahmad Rizal Mohd Yusof
(UKM, Malaysia)

Ahmad Rusniah
(UUM, Malaysia)

Ahmad Shuib
(UPM, Malaysia)

Ambigapathy Pandian
(UNIMAS, Malaysia)

Amelia Abdullah
(USM, Malaysia)

Amily Fikry
(UiTM, Malaysia)

Ang Lay Hoon
(UPM, Malaysia)

Anisah Che Ngah
(UKM, Malaysia)

Arbaayah Ali Termizi
(UPM, Malaysia)

Arfan Shazad
(UUM, Malaysia)

Azilah Kasim
(UUM, Malaysia)

Baharumshah Ahmad
Zubaidi
(UPM, Malaysia)

Bayu Taufiq Possumah
(UMT, Malaysia)

Chan Yuen Fook
(UiTM, Malaysia)

Chandran Sandaran Shanti
(UTM, Malaysia)

Chua Soo Yean
(USM, Malaysia)

Darshan Singh Sarjit S. Gill
(UPM, Malaysia)

Dessy Irawati-Rutten
(BNI, The Netherlands)

Diana Sari
(UNPAD, Indonesia)

Didik Sulistyanto
(UBL, Indonesia)

Faridah Jalil
(UKM, Malaysia)

Fauziah Che Leh
(UPSI, Malaysia)

Goh Kim Leng
(UM, Malaysia)

Gorjian Bahman
(IAU, Iran)

Habil Hadina
(UTM, Malaysia)

Hardev Kaur Jujar Singh
(UPM, Malaysia)

Harini Mittal
(BSS, United States of America)

Huzili Hussin
(UniMAP, Malaysia)

I Nyoman Nurjaya
(UN, Indonesia)

Ibrahim Faridah
(UKM, Malaysia)

Ida Baizura Bahar
(UPM, Malaysia)

Ilyana Jalaluddin
(UPM, Malaysia)

Ismail Izaham Shah
(UiTM, Malaysia)

Jeannet Stephen
(UMS, Malaysia)

Kaigang Li
(CSU, United States)

Khamurudin Mohd Noor
(UPM, Malaysia)

Lau Teck Chai
(UTAR, Malaysia)

Laura Christ Dass
(UiTM, Malaysia)

Malini Ganapathy
(USM, Malaysia)

Manjet Kaur Mehar Singh
(USM, Malaysia)

Mat Ghani Gairuzazmi
(IUM, Malaysia)

Md Taher Billal Khalifa
(MU, Bangladesh)

Mohamed Ishak Abd Hamid
(MMU, Malaysia)

Mohd Ali Afida
(UPM, Malaysia)

Mohd Nizam Osman
(UPM, Malaysia)

Mohd Pakri Mohamad
Rashidi
(USM, Malaysia)

Mohd Roslan Mohd Nor
(UM, Malaysia)

Mohd Rushdan Mohd Jailani
(USIM, Malaysia)

Muhammad Danial Azman
(UM, Malaysia)

Mustafa Zarina
(USM, Malaysia)

Nadaswaran Shalini
(UM, Malaysia)

Naemah Amin
(IIUM, Malaysia)

Naginder Kaur Surjit Singh
(UiTM, Malaysia)

Nasrudin Subhi
(UKM, Malaysia)

Nordin Hussin
(UKM, Malaysia)

Normah Abdullah
(UiTM, Malaysia)

Nuraisyah Chua Abdullah
(UiTM, Malaysia)

Opim Salim Sitompul
(USU, Indonesia)

Pantri Heriyati
(BINUS, Indonesia)

Paramaswari Jagathan
(USM, Malaysia)

Ramiza Darmi
(UPM, Malaysia)

Reza Kafipour
(SUMS, Iran)

Ruzbeh Babae
(UP, Portugal)

Sabri Mohamad Fazli
(UPM, Malaysia)

Satkunanathan Anita Harris
(USM, Malaysia)

Shaidatul Akma Adi Kasuma
(USM, Malaysia)

Sharma Amarendra
(EC, United States of America)

Sharon Sharmini Danarajan
Victor
(UPM, Malaysia)

Soon Seng Thah
(OUM, Malaysia)

Suharjito
(BINUS, Indonesia)

Toshiko Yamaguchi
(UM, Malaysia)

Veda Mallemari
(MHRD, India)

Wan Roselezam Wan Yahya
(UPM, Malaysia)

Yap Ngee Thai
(UPM, Malaysia)

Yong Mei Fung
(UPM, Malaysia)

Zafirah Al-Sadat Zyed
(UM, Malaysia)

Zulnaidi Yaacob
(USM, Malaysia)

BCC – Bronx Community College
BINUS – Bina Nusantara University
BNI – Bank Negara Indonesia
CSU – Colorado State University
EC – Elmira College
IAU – Islamic Azad University
IIUM – International Islamic University Malaysia
MHRD – Ministry of Human Resource Development
MMU – Multimedia Malaysia
MU – Metropolitan University
OUM – Open University Malaysia

PSAU – Prince Sattam Bin Abdulaziz University
SUMS – Shiraz University of Medical Sciences
UB – Universitas Brawijaya
UBL – Budi Luhur University
UiTM – Universiti Teknologi MARA
UKM – Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia
UM – University of Malaya
UMS – Universiti Malaysia Sabah
UMT – Universiti Malaysia Terengganu
UNIMAS – Universiti Malaysia Sarawak
UNPAD – Padjadjaran University

UP – University of Porto
UPM – Universiti Putra Malaysia
UPSI – Universiti Pendidikan Sultan Idris
USIM – Universiti Sains Islam Malaysia
USM – Universiti Sains Malaysia
USU – University of Sumatera Utara
UT – University of Tehran
UTAR – Universiti Tunku Abdul Rahman
UTM – Universiti Teknologi Malaysia
UUM – Universiti Utara Malaysia

While every effort has been made to include a complete list of referees for the period stated above, however if any name(s) have been omitted unintentionally or spelt incorrectly, please notify the Chief Executive Editor, *Pertanika* Journals at nayan@upm.my.

Any inclusion or exclusion of name(s) on this page does not commit the *Pertanika* Editorial Office, nor the UPM Press or the University to provide any liability for whatsoever reason.

Pertanika Journals

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

INSTRUCTIONS TO AUTHORS (Manuscript Preparation & Submission Guide)

Revised: June 2016

Please read the Pertanika guidelines and follow these instructions carefully. Manuscripts not adhering to the instructions will be returned for revision without review. The Chief Executive Editor reserves the right to return manuscripts that are not prepared in accordance with these guidelines.

MANUSCRIPT PREPARATION

Manuscript Types

Pertanika accepts submission of mainly **four** types of manuscripts for peer-review.

1. REGULAR ARTICLE

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

Size: Generally, these are expected to be between 6 and 12 journal pages (excluding the abstract, references, tables and/or figures), a maximum of 80 references, and an abstract of 100–200 words.

2. REVIEW ARTICLE

These report critical evaluation of materials about current research that has already been published by organizing, integrating, and evaluating previously published materials. It summarizes the status of knowledge and outline future directions of research within the journal scope. Review articles should aim to provide systemic overviews, evaluations and interpretations of research in a given field. Re-analyses as meta-analysis and systemic reviews are encouraged. The manuscript title must start with "Review Article:".

Size: These articles do not have an expected page limit or maximum number of references, should include appropriate figures and/or tables, and an abstract of 100–200 words. Ideally, a review article should be of 7 to 8 printed pages.

3. SHORT COMMUNICATIONS

They are timely, peer-reviewed and brief. These are suitable for the publication of significant technical advances and may be used to:

- (a) report new developments, significant advances and novel aspects of experimental and theoretical methods and techniques which are relevant for scientific investigations within the journal scope;
- (b) report/discuss on significant matters of policy and perspective related to the science of the journal, including 'personal' commentary;
- (c) disseminate information and data on topical events of significant scientific and/or social interest within the scope of the journal.

The manuscript title must start with "*Brief Communication:*".

Size: These are usually between 2 and 4 journal pages and have a maximum of three figures and/or tables, from 8 to 20 references, and an abstract length not exceeding 100 words. Information must be in short but complete form and it is not intended to publish preliminary results or to be a reduced version of Regular or Rapid Papers.

4. OTHERS

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

PLEASE NOTE: NO EXCEPTIONS WILL BE MADE FOR PAGE LENGTH.

Language Accuracy

Pertanika **emphasizes** on the linguistic accuracy of every manuscript published. Articles must be in **English** and they must be competently written and argued in clear and concise grammatical English. Contributors are strongly advised to have the manuscript checked by a colleague with ample experience in writing English manuscripts or a competent English language editor.

Author(s) **must provide a certificate** confirming that their manuscripts have been adequately edited. A proof from a recognised editing service should be submitted together with the cover letter at the time of submitting a manuscript to Pertanika. **All editing costs must be borne by the author(s)**. This step, taken by authors before submission, will greatly facilitate reviewing, and thus publication if the content is acceptable.

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

MANUSCRIPT FORMAT

The paper should be submitted in one column format with at least 4cm margins and 1.5 line spacing throughout. Authors are advised to use Times New Roman 12-point font and *MS Word* format.

1. Manuscript Structure

Manuscripts in general should be organised in the following order:

Page 1: Running title

This page should **only** contain the running title of your paper. The running title is an abbreviated title used as the running head on every page of the manuscript. The running title should not exceed 60 characters, counting letters and spaces.

Page 2: Author(s) and Corresponding author information.

This page should contain the **full title** of your paper not exceeding 25 words, with name(s) of all the authors, institutions and corresponding author's name, institution and full address (Street address, telephone number (including extension), hand phone number, and e-mail address) for editorial correspondence. First and corresponding authors must be clearly indicated.

The names of the authors may be abbreviated following the international naming convention. e.g. Salleh, A.B.¹, Tan, S.G^{2*}., and Sapuan, S.M³.

Authors' addresses. Multiple authors with different addresses must indicate their respective addresses separately by superscript numbers:

George Swan¹ and Nayan Kanwal²

¹Department of Biology, Faculty of Science, Duke University, Durham, North Carolina, USA.,

²Office of the Deputy Vice Chancellor (R&I), Universiti Putra Malaysia, Serdang, Malaysia.

A **list** of number of **black and white / colour figures and tables** should also be indicated on this page. Figures submitted in color will be printed in colour. See "5. Figures & Photographs" for details.

Page 3: Abstract

This page should **repeat** the **full title** of your paper with only the **Abstract** (the abstract should be less than 250 words for a Regular Paper and up to 100 words for a Short Communication), and **Keywords**.

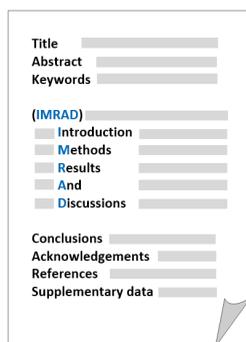
Keywords: Not more than eight keywords in alphabetical order must be provided to describe the contents of the manuscript.

Page 4: Introduction

This page should begin with the **Introduction** of your article and followed by the rest of your paper.

2. Text

Regular Papers should be prepared with the headings *Introduction, Materials and Methods, Results and Discussion, Conclusions, Acknowledgements, References, and Supplementary data* (if available) in this order.



Title _____
Abstract _____
Keywords _____

(IMRAD)
Introduction _____
Methods _____
Results _____
And _____
Discussions _____

Conclusions _____
Acknowledgements _____
References _____
Supplementary data _____

MAKE YOUR ARTICLES AS CONCISE AS POSSIBLE

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. It 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.

3. Equations and Formulae

These must be set up clearly and should be typed double spaced. Numbers identifying equations should be in square brackets and placed on the right margin of the text.

4. Tables

All tables should be prepared in a form consistent with recent issues of Pertanika and should be numbered consecutively with Roman numerals. Explanatory material should be given in the table legends and footnotes. Each table should be prepared on a new page, embedded in the manuscript.

When a manuscript is submitted for publication, tables must also be submitted separately as data - .doc, .rtf, Excel or PowerPoint files- because tables submitted as image data cannot be edited for publication and are usually in low-resolution.

5. Figures & Photographs

Submit an **original** figure or photograph. Line drawings must be clear, with high black and white contrast. Each figure or photograph should be prepared on a new page, embedded in the manuscript for reviewing to keep the file of the manuscript under 5 MB. These should be numbered consecutively with Roman numerals.

Figures or photographs must also be submitted separately as TIFF, JPEG, or Excel files- because figures or photographs submitted in low-resolution embedded in the manuscript cannot be accepted for publication. For electronic figures, create your figures using applications that are capable of preparing high resolution TIFF files. In general, we require **300 dpi** or higher resolution for **coloured and half-tone artwork**, and **1200 dpi or higher** for **line drawings** are required.

Failure to comply with these specifications will require new figures and delay in publication.

NOTE: Illustrations may be produced in colour at no extra cost at the discretion of the Publisher; the author could be charged Malaysian Ringgit 50 for each colour page.

6. References

References begin on their own page and are listed in alphabetical order by the first author's last name. Only references cited within the text should be included. All references should be in 12-point font and double-spaced.

NOTE: When formatting your references, please follow the **APA reference style** (6th Edition). Ensure that the references are strictly in the journal's prescribed style, failing which your article will **not be accepted for peer-review**. You may refer to the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association* for further details (<http://www.apastyle.org/>).

7. General Guidelines

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

Acknowledgements: Individuals and entities that have provided essential support such as research grants and fellowships and other sources of funding should be acknowledged. Contributions that do not involve researching (clerical assistance or personal acknowledgements) should **not** appear in acknowledgements.

Authors' Affiliation: The primary affiliation for each author should be the institution where the majority of their work was done. If an author has subsequently moved to another institution, the current address may also be stated in the footer.

Co-Authors: The commonly accepted guideline for authorship is that one must have substantially contributed to the development of the paper and share accountability for the results. Researchers should decide who will be an author and what order they will be listed depending upon their order of importance to the study. Other contributions should be cited in the manuscript's Acknowledgements.

Copyright Permissions: Authors should seek necessary permissions for quotations, artwork, boxes or tables taken from other publications or from other freely available sources on the Internet before submission to Pertanika. Acknowledgement must be given to the original source in the illustration legend, in a table footnote, or at the end of the quotation.

Footnotes: Current addresses of authors if different from heading may be inserted here.

Page Numbering: Every page of the manuscript, including the title page, references, tables, etc. should be numbered.

Spelling: The journal uses American or British spelling and authors may follow the latest edition of the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary for British spellings.

SUBMISSION OF MANUSCRIPTS

Owing to the volume of manuscripts we receive, we must insist that all submissions be made electronically using the **online submission system ScholarOne™**, a web-based portal by Thomson Reuters. For more information, go to our web page and [click "Online Submission"](#).

Submission Checklist

1. **MANUSCRIPT:** Ensure your MS has followed the Pertanika style particularly the first four pages as explained earlier. The article should be written in a good academic style and provide an accurate and succinct description of the contents ensuring that grammar and spelling errors have been corrected before submission. It should also not exceed the suggested length.

COVER LETTER: All submissions must be accompanied by a cover letter detailing what you are submitting. Papers are accepted for publication in the journal on the understanding that the article is **original** and the content has **not been published** either **in English** or **any other language(s)** or **submitted for publication elsewhere**. The letter should also briefly describe the research you are reporting, why it is important, and why you think the readers of the journal would be interested in it. The cover letter must also contain an acknowledgement that all authors have contributed significantly, and that all authors have approved the paper for release and are in agreement with its content.

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

The above must be stated in the cover letter. Submission of your manuscript will not be accepted until a cover letter has been received

2. **COPYRIGHT:** Authors publishing the Journal will be asked to sign a copyright form. In signing the form, it is assumed that authors have obtained permission to use any copyrighted or previously published material. All authors must read and agree to the conditions outlined in the form, and must sign the form or agree that the corresponding author can sign on their behalf. Articles cannot be published until a signed form (*original pen-to-paper signature*) has been received.

Please do **not** submit manuscripts to the editor-in-chief or to any other office directly. Any queries must be directed to the **Chief Executive Editor's** office via email to nayan@upm.my.

Visit our Journal's website for more details at <http://www.pertanika.upm.edu.my/home.php>.

HARDCOPIES OF THE JOURNALS AND OFF PRINTS

Under the Journal's open access initiative, authors can choose to download free material (via PDF link) from any of the journal issues from Pertanika's website. Under "**Browse Journals**" you will see a link, "*Current Issues*" or "*Archives*". Here you will get access to all current and back-issues from 1978 onwards.

The **corresponding author** for all articles will receive one complimentary hardcopy of the journal in which his/her articles is published. In addition, 20 off prints of the full text of their article will also be provided. Additional copies of the journals may be purchased by writing to the Chief Executive Editor.



Why should you publish in

Pertanika?

BENEFITS TO AUTHORS

PROFILE: Our journals are circulated in large numbers all over Malaysia, and beyond in Southeast Asia. Our circulation covers other overseas countries as well. We ensure that your work reaches the widest possible audience in print and online, through our wide publicity campaigns held frequently, and through our constantly developing electronic initiatives such as Web of Science Author Connect backed by Thomson Reuters.

QUALITY: Our journals' reputation for quality is unsurpassed ensuring that the originality, authority and accuracy of your work are fully recognised. Each manuscript submitted to Pertanika undergoes a rigid originality check. Our double-blind peer refereeing procedures are fair and open, and we aim to help authors develop and improve their scientific work. Pertanika is now over 38 years old; this accumulated knowledge has resulted in our journals being indexed in SCOPUS (Elsevier), Thomson (ISI) Web of Science™ Core Collection, Emerging Sources Citation Index (ESCI), Web of Knowledge [BIOSIS & CAB Abstracts], EBSCO, DOAJ, ERA, AGRICOLA, Google Scholar, ISC, TIB, Journal Guide, Citefactor, Cabell's Directories and MyCite.

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

CODE OF ETHICS: Our Journal has adopted a Code of Ethics to ensure that its commitment to integrity is recognized and adhered to by contributors, editors and reviewers. It warns against plagiarism and self-plagiarism, and provides guidelines on authorship, copyright and submission, among others.

PRESS RELEASES: Landmark academic papers that are published in Pertanika journals are converted into press-releases as a unique strategy for increasing visibility of the journal as well as to make major findings accessible to non-specialist readers. These press releases are then featured in the university's UK and Australian based research portal, ResearchSEA, for the perusal of journalists all over the world.

LAG TIME: The elapsed time from submission to publication for the articles averages 3 to 4 months. A decision on acceptance of a manuscript is reached in 3 to 4 months (average 14 weeks).



Address your submissions to:
The Chief Executive Editor
Tel: +603 8947 1622
nayan@upm.my

Journal's Profile: www.pertanika.upm.edu.my/

Call for Papers 2017-18

now accepting submissions...

Pertanika invites you to explore frontiers from all key areas of agriculture, science and technology to social sciences and humanities.

Original research and review articles are invited from scholars, scientists, professors, post-docs, and university students who are seeking publishing opportunities for their research papers through the Journal's three titles; JTAS, JST & JSSH. Preference is given to the work on leading and innovative research approaches.

Pertanika is a fast track peer-reviewed and open-access academic journal published by Universiti Putra Malaysia. To date, Pertanika Journals have been indexed by many important databases. Authors may contribute their scientific work by publishing in UPM's hallmark SCOPUS & ISI indexed journals.

Our journals are open access - international journals. Researchers worldwide will have full access to all the articles published online and be able to download them with zero subscription fee.

Pertanika uses online article submission, review and tracking system for quality and quick review processing backed by Thomson Reuter's ScholarOne™. Journals provide rapid publication of research articles through this system.

For details on the Guide to Online Submissions, please visit http://www.pertanika.upm.edu.my/guide_online_submission.php

About the Journal

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

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

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

JSSH deals in research or theories in social sciences and humanities research. It aims to develop as a flagship journal with a focus on emerging issues pertaining to the social and behavioural sciences as well as the humanities, particularly in the Asia Pacific region. It is published four times a year in *March, June, September* and *December*.



An Award-winning
International-Malaysian Journal
— CREAM AWARD, MoHE
—Sept 2015



Iran's Social Sciences Issues in Web of Science (WoS): Who Said What? <i>Seyed Mahdi Etemadifard, Hadi Khaniki, Abbas Ghanbari Baghestan and Mehrnoosh Akhtari-Zavare</i>	1159
The Roles of E-Tailer Quality as Antecedent of E-Satisfaction and Its Impact on Customer Attitudinal Loyalty Creation <i>Dyah Budiastuti</i>	1175
An Analysis of the most Consistent Errors in English Composition of Shiraz Medical Students <i>Zahra Momenzade, Laleh Khojasteh and Reza Kafipour</i>	1189
Relationship between Health Care and Tourism Sectors to Economic Growth: The Case of Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand <i>Chan-Fatt Cheah and A. S. Abdul-Rahim</i>	1203
Case Study	
Informal Leadership Learning on the Journey to Headship: A Case Study of National Professional Qualification for Headship Participants in Malaysia <i>Gurcharan Singh Bishen Singh</i>	1215

Survivability through Basic Needs Consumption among Muslim Households B40, M40 and T20 Income Groups <i>Noorhaslinda Kulub Abd. Rashid, Nor Fatimah Che Sulaiman and Nur Afifah Rahizal</i>	985
Topic Sentence Coaching: Keys to Unlock Intricacy of Academic Writing <i>Nahed Ghazzoul</i>	999
Domestication and Foreignization Strategies in Two Arabic Translations of Marlowe's <i>Doctor Faustus</i> : Culture-Bound Terms and Proper Names <i>Ali Badeen Mohammed al-Rikaby, Tengku Sepora Tengku Mahadi and Debbita Tan Ai Lin</i>	1019
The Woman and the Animal in Anita Desai's <i>Cry, The Peacock</i> <i>Gurpreet Kaur</i>	1035
The Quest of Identity in Sophia Kamal's Art Exhibition "WUDU" <i>Ling, C. B. I. and Abdullah, S.</i>	1047
The Perspective of Creative Practitioners on the Use of Social Media Among Creative Arts Students <i>Shanthi Balraj Baboo and Lim Jing Yi</i>	1063
Analysing the English Communication Needs of Service Technicians in the Pest Control Industry <i>Hee, S. C. and Azlin Zaiti Zainal</i>	1079
A Study of the Functional Shift and Lexico-Semantic Variation of the Interjection <i>here</i> in Sri Lankan English Speech <i>Upeksha Jayasuriya</i>	1097
Maggot Therapy and Monstrosity: The Grotesque in Margaret Atwood's <i>The Year of the Flood</i> <i>Ong Li Yuan, Arbaayah Ali Termizi, Nahid Shahbazi Moghadam and Rosli Talif</i>	1111
The Influence of Interactivity on Corporate Cellular Service Quality for Performance Excellence in Jakarta and West Java Provinces <i>Ratih Hurriyati, Lili Adi Wibowo, Tjahjono Djatmiko and Bachtiar H. Simamora</i>	1123
Effect of Organisational Communication and Culture on Employee Motivation and Its Impact on Employee Performance <i>Idris Gautama So, Noerlina, Amanda Aubrey Djunggara, Rehan Fahrobi, Bachtiar H. Simamora and Athapol Ruangkanjanases</i>	1133
Business Strategy Selection Using SWOT Analysis with ANP and Fuzzy TOPSIS for Improving Competitive Advantage <i>Lim Sanny, Bachtiar H. Simamora, Johanes Ronaldy Polla and Jason Lee Atipa</i>	1143

The Impact of Pedagogical Intervention in Developing the Speaking Proficiency of Engineering Students <i>S. Shantha and S. Mekala</i>	735
Impact of Public Expenditures on FDI Inflows into Developing Countries <i>Othman, N., Andaman, G., Yusop, Z. and Ismail, M. M.</i>	751
Perception of Female Students towards Social Media-Related Crimes <i>Suriati Ghazali and Norhayati Mat Ghani</i>	769
The Development of Household Empowerment Index among Rural Household of Pakistan <i>Abrar-ul-Haq, M., Jali, M. R. M. and Islam, G. M. N.</i>	787
Online-Newspaper Reports of 2015 Nigerian Presidential Election: The Impact of Readers' Comments on Voters <i>Adelakun, Lateef Adekunle</i>	811
Women Competence on Home Gardening to Support Food Diversification <i>Conny Naomi Manoppo, Siti Amanah, Pang S Asngari and Prabowo Tjitropranoto</i>	825
Enhancing Meaningful Learning of Poems Using Edmodo <i>Nagalethimee Annamalai, Muhammad Kamarul Kabilan and Suraswaran Annamalai</i>	841
Homi K. Bhabha's Concept of Ambivalence in J. M. Coetzee's <i>Disgrace</i> <i>Alireza Farahbakhsh and Rezvaneh Ranjbar Sheykhani</i>	859
Cultural Conceptualisations of Edible Items in Persian <i>Fatemeh Irajzad and Mohsen Kafi</i>	873
The Chaotic English Language Policy and Planning in Bangladesh: Areas of Apprehension <i>Mohammad Mosiur Rahman and Ambigapathy Pandian</i>	893
Teaching News Writing in English: From Genre to Lexicogrammar <i>Tri Wiratno</i>	909
Metaphors in Political Tweets during National Elections <i>Renugah Ramanathan, Tan Bee Hoon and Shamala Paramasivam</i>	929
Marriage Migration: Lived Experience of Foreign Spouses Married to Malaysian Citizens <i>Tedong, P. A., Roslan, K. and Abdul Kadir, A. R.</i>	945
The Diversification Benefits within Islamic Investments: The Case of Malaysia-Based Islamic Equity Investors <i>Nazrul Hazizi Noordin and Buerhan Saiti</i>	961

Pertanika Journal of Social Sciences & Humanities
Vol. 26 (2) Jun. 2018

Contents

Foreword	i
<i>Nayan Deep S. Kanwal</i>	
Review Articles	
The Malay Economy and Exploitation: An Insight into the Past	589
<i>Abdullah Abid, Muhammad Hakimi Mohd Shafiai and Mohd Adib Ismail</i>	
Disclosing HIV Status: Confidentiality, Right to Privacy and Public Interest	601
<i>Sani Ibrahim Salihu, Yuhanif Yusof and Rohizan Halim</i>	
Regular Articles	
Relationship between Organizational Capabilities, Implementation Decision on Target Costing and Organisational Performance: An Empirical Study of Malaysian Automotive Industry	615
<i>Hussein H. Sharaf-Addin, Normah Omar and Suzana Sulaiman</i>	
Charcoal Production and Distribution as a Source of Energy and its Potential Gain for Soil Amendment in Northeast Thailand	643
<i>Butnan, S., Toomsan, B. and Vityakon, P.</i>	
Domains and Indicators of Consumer Legal Literacy in Malaysia	659
<i>Norhafifah, S., Elistina, A. B., Zuroni, M. J., Afida, M. M. A. and Norhasmah, S.</i>	
Re-actualisation of Honesty as a Principle in Human Rights in the Nusantara Constitution	675
<i>Jazim Hamidi</i>	
A Comparative Study on Quality of Life among Youths with and without Disabilities	689
<i>Rohana Jani, Abd Aziz Alias, Nur Fatimah Abdullah Bandar and Ruth Selvaranee Arunasalam</i>	
Factors Influencing the Intention of Kedayan Muslims to Perform the Traditional Culture Associated with Syncretism	705
<i>Ros Aiza Mohd Mokhtar, Aiedah Abdul Khalek, Che Zarrina Sa'ari and Abd Hakim Mohad</i>	
Causal Nexus between Health and Economic Development: Evidence among OIC High-Income Economies	717
<i>Zurina Kefeli, Mohd Azlan Shah Zaidi and Abdul Azeez Oluwanisola Abdul Wahab</i>	



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
43400 UPM Serdang
Selangor Darul Ehsan
Malaysia

<http://www.pertanika.upm.edu.my/>
E-mail: executive_editor.pertanika@upm.my
Tel: +603 8947 1622 / 1619

PENERBIT
UPM
UNIVERSITI PUTRA MALAYSIA
PRESS

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

