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**SOCIAL SCIENCES
& HUMANITIES**

JSSH

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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*

The journal is indexed in SCOPUS (Elsevier), Clarivate-Emerging Sources Citation Index (ESCI), BIOSIS, National Agricultural Science (NAL), Google Scholar, MyCite, ISC. In addition, Pertanika JSSH is recipient of “CREAM” Award conferred by Ministry of Higher Education (MoHE), Malaysia.

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 Methods, **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.

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 (CEE) and the Editorial Board Members 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 CEE sends the article-identifying information having been removed, to three reviewers who are specialists in the subject matter represented by the article. The CEE requests 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 field.

3. The CEE, in consultation with the Editor-in-Chief (EiC), examines the reviews and decides whether to reject the manuscript, invites the author(s) to revise and resubmit the manuscript. The CEE may seek additional reviews. Final acceptance or rejection rests with the CEE and EiC, who reserve 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 CEE 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 CEE in consultation with the EiC and Editorial Board Members examine their comments and decide whether the paper is ready to be published, needs another round of revisions, or should be rejected.

7. If the decision is to accept, an acceptance letter is sent to all the author(s), the paper is sent to the Press. The article should appear in print in approximately three months.

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

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Foreword

Welcome to the Second Issue of 2019 for the Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities (JSSH)!

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

This issue contains 42 articles; 3 are review articles, 3 are case study and the rest are regular articles. The authors of these articles come from different countries namely Sweeden, Jordan, Pakistan, Saudi Arabia, Thailand, Indonesia, Malaysia, Nigeria, Philippines and Pakistan.

Selected from the scope of Language and linguistic is a regular article entitled “Self-Assessment of Academic Vocabulary” by Fredrik Lindqvist and Anne Dragemark Oscarson from Sweeden. The study focused on academic vocabulary, an essential aspect of higher education, became increasingly important for pupils to master as larger groups go on to university studies. There was however little research was done on how well-prepared Swedish pupils deem themselves to be for the higher educational requirements in English as a foreign language and whether they was able to assess their vocabulary skills with any degree of accuracy. In this article, a mixed method approach was used to explore a group of pupils’ (N=45) self-efficacy, and self-assessment with regards to vocabulary size and mastery using the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) proficiency scales. A vocabulary test was then administered and the results were compared to their self-assessments. A few follow up interviews were conducted to get a deeper understanding the pupils’ reasoning. The results indicated that high performing pupils considered themselves well prepared for university studies but tend to overestimate their vocabulary skills, indicated that Swedish pupils might have not met the curriculum’s goals of had developed a realistic view of their language level and competence. Detail for the study is available on page 747.

Selected from the scope of Education is a regular article entitled “Developing Democratic Culture through Civic Education” by Bambang Yuniarto from Indonesia. The study mentioned that since the reformation era, socio-political realities of the life of the nation within the frame of democracy in Indonesia have not shown people’s intelligence and awareness for real democracy. An important agenda would be to build school as a laboratory of democracy and the microcosmos of democracy. This research employed a qualitative approach through the case study method. The data was collected through interviews, observation, and document analysis. The findings of this study indicated: (1) democracy education is perceived as effort to teach the understanding of rights and obligations to improve students discipline; (2) the planning and the implementation of civic learning refers to systematic democratic learning; and (3) Student Council activities and extra-curricular activities provide a real experience of democracy and socio-cultural values. In conclusion, the research indicated that the Integrated High School of Krida Nusantara Bandung, West Java, adopted a pattern of disciplinary education that was aligned to the National Education System, religious education, military discipline, and boarding care. Detail for the study is available on page 915.

Selected from the scope of Management is a regular article entitled “Green Food Product Purchase Intention: Factors Influencing Malaysian Consumers” by Auroomooga Putten Yuviraj Yogananda and Praveen Balakrishnan Nair from Malaysia. The study focused on the rising concerns for food safety and insecurity, coupled with environmental issues, push consumers to make ethical choices affecting their purchase behaviour. The demand trend for green food products was rising and fast-growing economies like Malaysia was not exempted. The green food products industry was in its infancy stage in Malaysia and stakeholders need consumer behavioural research to develop

Malaysia's green food industry. Few contextual researches have been undertaken in Malaysia and therefore this study was conducted to determine the significance of the link between consumer behavioural factors and the intent to purchase green food products. An adapted extended Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) model was used in the study and the influence of Environmental Attitude (EA), Subjective Norm (SN), Perceived Behavioural Control (PBC), Environmental Knowledge (EK), Health Consciousness (HC) and Environmental concern (EC) on green product purchase intention was examined. A total of three hundred questionnaires were distributed in the Klang Valley and 284 usable responses received were used to examine the significance of relationships using multiple regression analysis. Findings indicated that EC, PBC, HC and SN had a significant relationship to Intent to Purchase (ITP) green food products. The factors that marketers should focus on were environmental concern, price, availability, health benefits and initiatives to promote environmental knowledge and attitude that might influence the purchase intentions, positively. Detail for the study is available on page 1131.

Selected from the scope of Arts and culture is a regular article entitled "Consumer and family economics" by Lee Siew Peng, Sedigheh Moghavvemi and Lee Su Teng from Malaysia. The purpose of this study was to explore the dimensions of service quality and test an integrative model to study the influence of service quality, image, and trust on customer loyalty in the Malaysian banking sector. In this study, the service quality model was enhanced to improve the bank's image. Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) was used to test the proposed research model. The proposed model indicated that delivering high-quality service can be resulted in achieving the well-known image; the result showed a positive relationship between image and trust, and trust and customer loyalty in both Islamic and conventional banks. Therefore, based on the findings, service quality, bank image and trust were considered to be antecedents of customer loyalty. Bank image was indirectly related to customer loyalty through trust. Detail for the study is available on page 1275.

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

We would also like to express our gratitude to all the contributors, namely the authors, reviewers, Editor-in-Chief and Editorial Board Members of JSSH who have made this issue possible.

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

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Self-Assessment of Academic Vocabulary among Swedish Upper Secondary School Pupils

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ABSTRACT

Academic vocabulary, an essential aspect of higher education, is becoming increasingly important for pupils to master as larger groups go on to university studies. There is however little research done on how well-prepared Swedish pupils deem themselves to be for the higher educational requirements in English as a foreign language and whether they are able to assess their vocabulary skills with any degree of accuracy. In this article, a mixed method approach was used to explore a group of pupils' (N=45) self-efficacy, and self-assessment with regards to vocabulary size and mastery using the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) proficiency scales. A vocabulary test was then administered and the results were compared to their self-assessments. A few follow up interviews were conducted to get a deeper understanding the pupils' reasoning. The results indicate that high performing pupils consider themselves well prepared for university studies but tend to overestimate their vocabulary skills, indicating that Swedish pupils may not meet the curriculum's goals of having developed a realistic view of their language level and competence.

Keywords: Academic vocabulary, CEFR, EFL, self-assessment

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INTRODUCTION

Swedish speakers of English consider themselves to be some of the best in the world, and many feel they fall short only to native speakers. According to Education First's English Proficiency Index (Education First, 2015), Sweden also ranks number one among the seventy queried countries.

However, during one of the author's teacher training period, pupils at the end of upper secondary school were asked to read a 7-page long novel by Lovecraft (1920), and a large number of pupils could not read past the first page despite having two weeks to work with the text. Pupils were instead reading novels geared to a pre-adolescence level and were thus simply not encountering enough challenging vocabulary. There is at the same time a growing concern among university teachers that Swedish university students do not possess the necessary skills required to deal with the more advanced language needed at higher learning institutions (Köhlmyr, 2013; Oscarson, 2016). Airey (2009) showed that Swedish university freshmen overrated their own abilities and that there was a significant divergence between the study practices of these students when they encountered English material compared to Swedish material at a similar level. As the Swedish curriculum (Skolverket, 2011) proposes that pupils should be able to "evaluate their study results and development needs in relation to the demands of their education" it appears in light of the above questionable whether all Swedish pupils are actually able to do so. A contributing factor may be that the English Step 7 course, the highest level offered by upper secondary school in Sweden, teaches content deemed to be on the B2 level (higher degree) in general on the Council of Europe's Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) scale (Oscarson, 2015). Meanwhile academic language is rated as C-level, which makes

it difficult for pupils to assess language they might have had few or no real encounters with.

Both Airey (2009) and Oscarson (2016) investigated students already accepted into university, either by virtue of their upper secondary school degrees or by passing a form of university pre-entry qualifications test¹. English 7 is not a compulsory course even for university preparatory programs and therefore first year university students, may actually have stopped at English Step 6 (which is also deemed at B2). It is therefore possible that the findings by Airey (2009) and Oscarson (2016) are due to the disparity between the two different levels of the English courses at the upper secondary level, reflecting a lack of understanding of the real requirements to manage studies at an academic institution. The question is whether school pupils and university students lack a standard to compare themselves with and this makes it difficult for them to judge whether they possess the necessary proficiency in academic English. Therefore, how the pupils' self-efficacy and their self-assessments of their language skills (e.g. vocabulary) correspond with the level they are expected to reach during the last months of upper secondary schooling, when many are set on continuing on to university studies, is an important matter to understand. To what degree are upper secondary pupils actually aware of the level required of them at university, in a school system which advocates formative assessment practices such as self-assessment?

¹ Entitled *Högskoleprovet* in Swedish

The aim of this study therefore concerns pupils' self-efficacy with regard to their language ability before the transition to university studies. In particular, the aim is to investigate if there is a difference between Swedish pupils' (at English Step 7) estimation of their vocabulary skills and their actual performance level, as well as their awareness of this level. Thus the following research questions were investigated:

- To what extent do pupils express that they feel prepared for university studies where academic English is required?
- To what extent are pupils, at the end of the highest course in English at the upper secondary level, able to assess their level of vocabulary in English accurately?
- To what degree do pupils reach the curriculum goals, regarding self-regulated learning of English at the end of the highest course in English at the upper secondary level?

There are several factors behind striving for a better educated population. Economically, a higher percentage of educated citizens leads to stronger economic growth. From a democratic perspective, well-educated citizens make well-founded decisions and work towards more equality in society as education serves as a means to limit the division created by social factors. University graduates generally have a higher pay, a lower degree of unemployment and better health (Utbildningsdepartementet

2001/02:15). Therefore, the aspiration behind the Swedish government's proposition: *Den Öppna Högskolan* [The Open University²] (Utbildningsdepartementet 2001/02:15) was the intention to widen the recruitment base for a broader spectrum of pupils.

Hyland (2004) believed that it was language which was the key to unlock the social change that the Government was looking for. University offers a different set of rules, values and a new language that can seem foreign to university students with non-academic backgrounds (Bron & Lönnheden, 2005). Basturkmen and Shackleford (2014) reported that international students described themselves as 'lost in a flood of terminology' when encountering academic English language. Thus, without mastering the language of academia, pupils cannot progress to higher levels of education (Belcher, 2006). Acquiring proper academic vocabulary and learning to use it is essential to prepare pupils for their future (Hyland & Tse, 2007). Basturkmen and Shackleford (2014) describe this as a 'lexical bar' that pupils need to pass.

English is often described as *the* academic lingua franca (Mauranen et al., 2010) making academic English and an academic vocabulary important stepping stones to a successful transition to the upper levels of education. However, the required level of language is not readily available to *all* pupils before they make the transition into university. Korp's (2006) and Berggren's (2013) studies of English classes in Swedish upper secondary schools showed

² Authors' translation

that the upper secondary programmes pupils had chosen largely affected the content of the English courses – even when the level and content were supposed to be the same. The more academically inclined pupils received far more preparation for university studies than pupils doing vocational programmes.

Furthermore, the Swedish curriculum for upper secondary school (Skolverket, 2011) specifies life-long learning as a major goal. In the last decade, the formative assessment practice of self-assessment has therefore become an important tool to promote self-regulated learning. The curriculum goals state, for example, that pupils should become “aware of their own as well as other’s competences³” and that they should be able to “reflect on their own experiences and use their abilities⁴” as well as become “aware of their own knowledge and insights” as “a prerequisite for personal growth⁵”. At the highest level of English learning within the upper secondary school system, Step 7, the grading criteria mention explicitly that the pupils should be able to make proper assessment of their skills (Skolverket, 2011).

The Swedish curriculum is also designed to give teachers a lot of leeway regarding the content of their classes. Neither the English Step 6 or Step 7 syllabuses (Skolverket, 2011) specifically mention vocabulary but rather the need for pupils to meet text of “different types”. It is therefore up to each teacher to decide what vocabulary Swedish pupils encounter in English class.

Theoretical Background and Previous Research

The theory behind the idea that learning is aided by understanding one’s own thought processes is usually referred to as metacognition (being able to think about your own thinking). It is based on the ability to evaluate your own results, that is, *self-assessment*, and the ability to take actions to direct your own thinking, that is, *self-management* (Rivers, 2001). Metacognition can therefore be seen as an important factor in the construction of new knowledge. By helping learners become aware of their ability to plan, monitor and evaluate their learning, participants can become active in the learning process and from there develop self-regulating strategies (Wenden, 1998). *Self-regulated learners* have better control and more autonomy over both learning processes and learning outcomes (Butler & Lee, 2006). In a meta-study by Panadero et al. (2017) exploring the effects of self-assessment on self-regulatory learning and self-efficacy, the results clearly pointed towards the importance of self-assessment practices to “promote students use of learning strategies” as well as “its impact on motivational variables such as self-efficacy” thus making pupils and students better equipped for life-long learning.

Research in the area of academic vocabulary and vocabulary learning in relation to pupils’ self-efficacy and self-assessment of languages, especially EFL is briefly presented as follows.

³ Authors’ translation

⁴ Authors’ translation

⁵ Authors’ translation

Academic Vocabulary. Studying English for the sake of university studies is generally called English for Academic Purposes (EAP). Standard variations of words can take on new genre-specific meanings, making every day English insufficient and unreliable in academic contexts (Hyland & Tse, 2007). Vocabulary meaning and usage can rapidly change due to cultural and national factors (Tangpijaikul, 2014). Academic language shares some common features such as the use of more low frequency lexical items, a more diverse and precise vocabulary, nominalization, explicit discourse organisation, discipline specific conventions and frequent use of the passive voice (Coxhead & Byrd, 2007; Deluca, 2010).

Most Swedish adolescents encounter English at an early stage, through TV, films, videogames, and music and other activities outside the school context (Korp, 2006). Webb (2010) has, for example, shown that watching TV with discipline specific content provides opportunities for discipline specific vocabulary acquisition. Alemi and Tayebi (2011) described this as incidental learning, in comparison to explicit instruction and strategy training. The theory is that the more pupils are exposed, the easier they will learn. Nation (2005), on the other hand, indicated the evidence was not strong enough to conclude that incidental learning was better than direct instruction and held that learners did not acquire a word better by incidental learning than through direct instruction. Olsson (2016) found that while directed exposure could have an initial effect, it did

not have an impact on the development of academic vocabulary over time. Academic vocabulary did *not* increase during upper secondary education, despite pupils entering with a certain academic vocabulary through previous external exposure to English. Vocabulary size is an important indicator of language proficiency and especially relevant to English for specific purposes, such as academic English (Janulevicienė & Kavaliauskiene, 2007), and academic vocabulary seems to be attained through academic studies.

Self-efficacy, Self-Assessment and EFL.

Learner beliefs are generally held to influence their learning. According to Mills et al. (2007) for example, the higher the learners' academic *self-efficacy*, the better they tend to self-regulate, the more accurately they tend to self-assess and the more intrinsically they tend to be interested in school subjects. There are few studies on learner beliefs and language learning, but it is generally thought that belief systems help learners to define what is expected of them (when attributed to controllable factors) and act in accordance (Hsieh & Schallert, 2008).

The foremost value of *self-assessment* lies in its promotion of learning. Brown (2004) asserted that self-assessment activated the process of life-long learning, developed learner responsibility and autonomy. Self-assessment can be said to include simple practices such as relating one's own work to set criteria, to more complex functions such as in-depth analysis of strengths and weaknesses to further

understand what is needed to learn more and to internalize these standards. In a recent meta-study, Panadero et al. (2017) explored the effects of self-assessment on self-regulatory learning and self-efficacy. The results clearly pointed towards the importance of self-assessment practices to “promote students use of learning strategies and its impact on motivational variables such as self-efficacy”.

Even though it is not the foremost reason for self-assessment, there are those who voice concerns regarding the variable degree of agreement between pupil and teacher assessment (Butler & Lee, 2006). Falchikov and Goldfinch (2000), for example, found several factors affecting the validity of self-assessment such as the subject area studied. An early study by Falchikov and Boud (1989) found that science showed higher degrees of validity than social sciences and art and that accuracy increased with higher levels of achievement, while Oscarson (1997) and Ross (1998) found a high degree of validity in foreign languages. A later study by Falchikov and Goldfinch (2000) showed that the complexity of the assessment was also a factor, such that the less complex the task, the higher validity of self-assessed understanding related to teacher assessment.

Self-Assessment and EFL. Research in the area of self-assessment of language learning (Blanche & Merino, 1989; Brown, 2004; Oscarson, 1997, 1998/2019; Ross, 1998, 2006; Taras, 2010) provide generally positive results for self-assessment. The

indication is that the understanding of own learning processes in developing language skills foster self-regulatory and responsible study habits and in this way leads to higher motivation and encourages life-long language learning skills. Duque and Medina (2017) also pointed to an additional aspect, that was, goalsetting. “When students self-assess, they are able to acknowledge their learning strengths [...] this practice enabled students to set learning commitments, use learning strategies that also allow them to raise awareness and take further actions”. This is in line with other research findings, “[s]elf-assessments are more accurate when based on task content closely tied to students’ situations as potential users of the language in question”, and “[t]he evidence is that it is easier for learners to assess their ability in relation to concrete descriptions of more narrowly defined linguistic situations” (Oscarson, 1997). In other words, learners need to comprehend the relevant language level they need to reach, that is, in this case, the academic language required of them at university. Authentic “can-do” statements such as those provided by the CEFR (Council of Europe, 2001) can facilitate this understanding. As Brown et al. (2014) pointed out, it was often lack of exposure to the expected language level or criteria which made the more unskilled pupils had a tendency to overrate their ability.

Self-Assessment and EFL Vocabulary. In a study by Duque and Medina (2017) the researchers looked at the influence of self-assessment of *vocabulary* on pupils’

oral fluency. They found that through self-assessment the learners were able to acknowledge their learning strengths and weaknesses. The approach enabled learners to set learning goals regarding vocabulary use, use different strategies on how to reach these goals and become aware themselves of different courses of action. Through this process they gradually became more independent learners. The goal setting raised awareness learning needs and was seen as an essential component of this process. Duque and Medina (2017) thus found that learners thought self-assessment was beneficial for their vocabulary development and helped their goal-setting, that was, resulted in raised awareness of their learning needs.

Janulevicienė and Kavaliauskienė (2007) found that vocabulary was an important indicator of language proficiency and especially relevant to ESP, such as academic English. 5% who assessed their vocabulary as excellent displayed the same results in the tests, and 40% of the learners overestimated their knowledge of ESP vocabulary (i.e. two thirds of the learners overestimated their ESP vocabulary). Their conclusions were that learners needed to recognize both their lack of knowledge as well as be able to recognize accomplishments and the importance of developing learner awareness of needs. They found that training learners in self-monitoring and self-evaluating was essential in achieving goals and that learners needed to be taught strategies for self-monitoring.

In her work, Oscarson (2009, 2016) studied Swedish pupils' and university students' self-assessment of their *writing*

proficiency, but apart from that there is, in spite of its importance, little published research regarding how Swedish language learners assess their academic vocabulary. The present study therefore fills an important gap, considering the importance it has on pupils' further education.

METHOD

Design

The study was conducted using a mixed method approach to highlight any discrepancy between *the established performance* and the pupils' own evaluations. In comparison with qualitative data, quantitative data derived from questionnaires/surveys and tests allow for larger generalization and has a greater built in protection against interpretive bias. Meanwhile it provides little depth as to the reasoning behind the learner's own assessment. To explore the latter feature, three follow up interviews provided a more qualitative insight into a complex situation, allowing the pupils the chance to motivate the decisions in their own words. The results from Airey's (2009) and Oscarson's (2016) studies suggested that there could be a discrepancy between the pupils' assessments and their performance. The interviews were therefore conducted in order to reach a more penetrating analysis to the quantitative phase.

Participants

In Sweden children start school at the age of 7 after a year of compulsory pre-school. After another six years of compulsory schooling, 95% continue on to a non-

compulsory upper secondary school (<https://www.globalis.se/Statistik/Gymnasial-utbildning>) where they choose a three year, vocational or theoretical program of study. The participants, who were between 17 and 19 years of age, came from three theoretical programs at the school in a large Swedish town where one of the authors (Lindqvist) was doing his pre-service teaching. The sample is thus one of convenience. All the pupils doing course 7 and in their final year were included and were enrolled in either Natural Sciences (n=16), Economics (n=15), or Social Sciences (n=14). In total there were 45 participants of which 16 (38%) were male and 27 (61%) were female. 1 person (1%) chose not to define as either. The participants were from ethnically diverse backgrounds and many did not speak Swedish as their first language.

The Swedish grading system is based on a six-letter scale, from F to A (where F is the lowest grade and signifies a failing mark, and A the highest). Each subject/course has defined standards for grades E (*Pass*), C (*Pass with Distinction*) and A (*Pass with Special Distinction*) that express what the pupil needs to achieve in order to be awarded a particular grade. Grades B and D mean that the pupil has fulfilled all the criteria for the respective grades below but not yet reached all the criteria for the grades above. Grades were assigned a

number where F = 1 and A = 6 and the group had a mean score of $M=4.27$ $SD=0.81$ (i.e. C on average), signifying that the sample may be regarded as a fairly high achieving group (with no pupils below the grade D) (See Table 1).

Instruments and Materials

A questionnaire, a vocabulary test and an interview guide were used in the collection of data for the study.

Questionnaire. Part I (Appendix A) covered attitudes towards further education, English usage and grades as well as pupils' self-efficacy for using English at higher learning institutions. **Part II** used the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (CEFR) (<https://www.coe.int/en/web/common-european-framework-reference-languages>) self-assessment scales to assess at what level the pupils rated their vocabulary level, as well as reading (finding information and arguments) and writing (reports and essays) skills.

Vocabulary Test. A *cloze*-test with an initial letter provided (Appendix B), was used to enable comparison of the pupils' test results with their self-assessments. Despite agreement about certain features of academic language, there is no agreed upon list of essential academic words even

Table 1
Grades of participating pupils in numbers and percent as well as mean grade

Grade	F (1)	E (2)	D (3)	C (4)	B (5)	A (6)	Mean Grade
N=45 (100%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	7 (15.6%)	22 (48.9%)	13 (28.9%)	3 (6.7%)	4.27

though several attempts have been made. In the vocabulary test used in the study, words and sentences were collected from *The English Vocabulary Profile* (English Profile, 2012) a part of the English Profile Programme which is a long-term research programme sponsored by the Council of Europe and based upon extensive research using the Cambridge Learner Corpus (CLC). The C2 level words were matched with Coxhead's (2000) Academic Word List (AWL). The words in the test were randomly selected and sentences created by using the EVP dictionary example sentences. Once the sentences were constructed, all but the first letter of the key word to be tested was removed and replaced with a blank. Underneath each blank, an explanation from the AWL was given. There were five sentences with different words for each CEFR-level, randomly presented in the test.

Interview Guide. The interview guide (Appendix C) was semi-structured and the questions were based upon Part I of the *Questionnaire* regarding attitudes as well as the pupil's reaction to the results of Part II and the *Vocabulary test*, that is, how well their self-assessments corresponded to the results of the vocabulary test.

Procedure

Before being given the first part of the questionnaire during an ordinary lesson and informed that the data would be used as a part of a small study, the pupils received a walkthrough of the complete questionnaire.

They were also informed in regards to confidentiality and that they were free to opt out at any time. All the instructions and the questionnaire, with the exception of the vocabulary test, were in Swedish to avoid any misunderstandings due to language. Pupils were then given each part of the three-part questionnaire separately and upon completion asked to raise their hand so they could be given the next part. The pupils had a total of 45 minutes to complete the questionnaire, due to the time constraint of the lesson.

In order to get a better understanding of why the pupils answered as they did on the questionnaire and allow them to comment on the results of the vocabulary test, semi-structured interviews were held two to three weeks after the questionnaire with three of the pupils. Pupils were asked to volunteer for follow up interviews during the initial data collection, and three agreed. The interviews were conducted at a local café and their reflections and responses on the first eight questions were recorded before they received the results on the vocabulary test. The questions were asked one by one and the only follow up questions were requests for clarifications or elaborations, and thus situational responses, to the pupils' answers. They were then shown the results which in all three cases prompted questions regarding their performance. Before the last three questions regarding the results of the vocabulary test were finally asked, they were told that they were expected to be at the CEFR B2 level.

Analysis

The questionnaire data, including the vocabulary test results, were analysed using the statistical program SPSS.

The vocabulary test was scored with each correct answer giving one point to its corresponding CEFR-level, that is, an A1 question scored one A1 point. If a pupil had more than three points at one level, they were deemed to have reached mastery of that level. When a pupil gave a correct answer, but used another word than the expected one, the word was looked up in the English Vocabulary Profile (English Profile, 2012) and scored according to corresponding level. For example: If a pupil managed to answer a C1 question with an appropriate B1 word they scored an extra B1 point. It was thus theoretically possible to score more than the 'maximum' five at any given level, but this did in fact not occur. The mastered CEFR levels were then compared to the pupil's self-assessments.

The interviews were transcribed and then read numerous times in search of pupils' thoughts. In essence, questions probed pupils' perceptions of how well they felt prepared for university studies where academic English was required, the extent to which they felt they were able to assess their vocabulary competence accurately (with regard to both mastery and size) and thus reach the curriculum goals regarding self-regulated learning of English.

Validity

The current view of validity relates, among other questions, to how well an instrument measures what it should measure. The measure thus encompasses the concept of reliability ("without reliability no validity"). Instruments which do not provide consistent measurement do not yield high validity either (Chapelle, 2012; Eliasson, 2013). The CEFR's scale system is based on empirical research and is often used as a benchmark for tests and examinations across languages and national boundaries (Council of Europe, 2001). The CEFR scales regarding for example vocabulary and the vocabulary test based on the English Vocabulary Profile can thus be said to be valid in a general sense, even though statistical reliability can only be ascertained by an analysis of the data emanating from its use.

Triangulation, using several forms of data collection to study a single phenomenon, is another method for increasing validity. By collecting data from several sources, each individual data point is strengthened (Cresswell, 2014). This study has used a mixed method approach where the follow up interviews, even if only three individual ones, served as in-depth support to the initial quantitative data collection. It has been stressed that qualitative data input needs to be recorded (Eliasson, 2013; Tracy, 2010), and in the case of our voice recordings they were transcribed immediately to preserve accuracy and detail. As the sample consisted of middle to high performing pupils, generalisations of results can only be made regarding similar samples.

Limitations

The given time frame of the project meant that the amount of data available for collection was limited to a single school. As in any questionnaire, it was conducted on a voluntary basis and this may thus have limited the range of participating pupils. On the other hand, as the questionnaire was done at the end of the school year, the pupils who chose to participate in the follow up interviews were all middle to high-achieving pupils who were likely to continue on to academia. Despite the limitations, it is therefore reasonable to assume that it is possible to gain a certain insight into the self-efficacy and self-assessment abilities of middle to well performing pupils attending similar schools.

Ethical Considerations

The study was conducted following The Swedish Research Council's ethical principles as presented in *Good Research Practice* (Vetenskapsrådet, 2011). The researcher informed the participants and explained the purpose of the study. The purpose, to investigate self-efficacy and performance, was not revealed until after they had filled out the questionnaire as that knowledge may have otherwise affected the outcome. Instead this was revealed after they had handed in their questionnaire and they were free to withdraw. The three interviewed pupils volunteered and were called Alpha, Bravo and Charlie to ensure confidentiality, and in keeping with American Psychological Association (APA)'s recommended practice of removing gender bias as far as possible (APA, 2018).

RESULTS

The results are presented first through the quantitative data generated from the pupils' questionnaires, and then illustrated by the pupils' interviews. Only some of the more significant results can be reported in this brief article.

The Extent to which Pupils Express that they Feel Prepared for University Studies where Academic English is Required

The pupils were asked to rate, on a *Likert* scale ranging between 1-10, to what degree they agreed with given statements regarding self-efficacy when it came to how well upper secondary school versus own preparation had prepared them for academic English at university (see Appendix A). The numeric values are set out in Figure 1.

Asked if they felt school had prepared them for academic English, pupils answered that this was largely so. More than half of the pupils (N=32) placed themselves to the right of the middle of the scale ($M=6.56$) and almost the same number (N=26) considered that they had prepared themselves well ($M=5.67$).

Further the pupils claimed that it did not matter whether their future education was in English or in Swedish ($M=6.07$), even though a considerable number of the pupils expected the English they were to encounter at university would be challenging ($M=9.42$).

Two areas where academic English at university may be particularly challenging, are reading to find information and argument

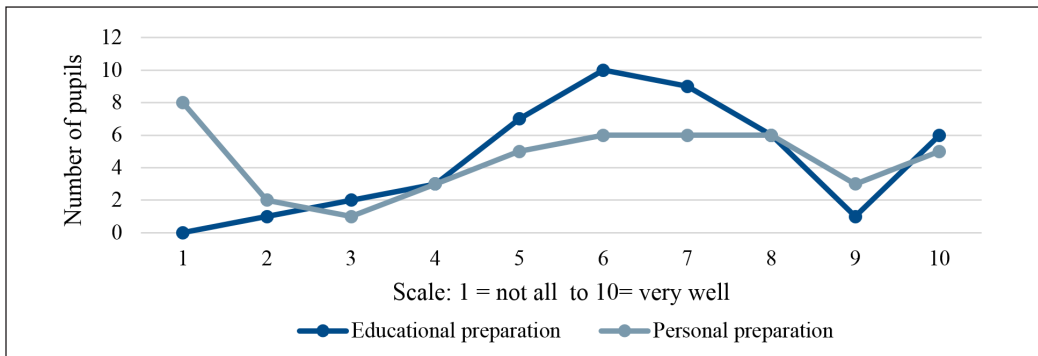


Figure 1. The extent to which pupils express that they feel prepared for university studies where academic English is required, i.e. “My education has prepared me/ I have personally prepared myself for academic English at University” (N=45)

as well as writing reports and essays. The CEFR-levels were used as a self-assessment tool to verify the perceived self-efficacy of the pupils. Table 2 displays the pupils’ responses to the CEFR statements. (NB: the CEFR scale regarding *reading to find information and arguments* contains no C2 level and thus hits the ceiling at C1).

The majority of pupils considered themselves to be at the B2 level with regard to both reading to find information and argument (N=45) as well as writing reports and essays (N=43) ($M=4.22$ and $M=4.63$ respectively). This indicates that they see themselves having reached the level of the course they are doing (i.e. English Step 7) that is deemed to be at B2 (high) (Oscarson, 2015) and qualified to proceed to university studies. When it comes to reading, almost one third believe that they have mastered

the C1 level suggesting they have moved past the content of the course being taught.

Interview Responses. All three interviewed pupils reported that they intended to go on to university. While Alpha and Bravo already had plans for certain programmes, Charlie intended to study courses of personal interest. They all expressed concern that the English they would encounter at a university would be far more difficult than what they had experienced so far, partly due to their teacher’s insistence that what they were studying now was just “in preparation for the real difficulties at a university”.

There were two issues they found particularly worrisome: the vocabulary and the belief that everything would be in English and thus they would not be allowed to ask for clarifications in Swedish. The pupils

Table 2
Pupils’ self-assessment of reading (finding information and arguments) (N=45) and writing (reports and essays) (N=43) levels using the CEFR scale. Distributions and mean scores

Skill	Missing	A1	A2	B1	B2	C1	C2	Mean
Reading	0	0 (0%)	1 (2.2%)	3 (6.7%)	26 (57.8%)	15 (33.3%)	-	4.22
Writing	2	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	21 (48.8%)	17 (39.5%)	5 (11.6%)	4.63

reported they had gone through “scientific texts” and “certain academic words” yet all three pupils expressed specific concern regarding “advanced vocabulary”. Bravo and Charlie had received persistent feedback that they did not use “advanced words” but expressed uncertainty about what “advanced vocabulary” actually entailed. They were also concerned about the structure of the more advanced texts they were expected to write. Bravo felt those who were “school smart”⁶ were unfairly favoured, meaning that pupils who conformed academically and produced the texts that followed academic standards were given preference regardless of content. Charlie believed that certain ways of writing, for example by using advanced and difficult words, was required in order to get high grades, but accepted this. However, both of these pupils were unfamiliar and to a certain degree uncomfortable with academic language, expressing that it was “too posh, too strict” and “it feels like we are just copying. It’s not natural”.

All three pupils believed that their receptive skills were at a higher level than their productive skills and thus they were sure that they would be able to understand university material, at least if given time to study and “look things up”. On the

other hand, they were unsure about their productive skills especially if there were stress factors involved such as a set time limit, a high stakes assignment or a group activity where peer pressure could affect their performance.

The Extent to which Pupils are Able to Self-Assess their Vocabulary Level in English

Self-assessments of Vocabulary Range and Vocabulary Control. The pupils assessed their vocabulary skills on two CEFR scales: *vocabulary range*, that is how large the pupils deemed their vocabulary, including both number of lexical items, as well as their ability to understand associations connected to words (in both every day and idiomatic usage) and *vocabulary control*, the degree to which they were able to use their vocabulary correctly (Table 3).

The results of the self-assessments show that the majority believe themselves to be at the B2 – C1 level, with a mean vocabulary range $M=4.53$ ($N=45$) and vocabulary control $M=4.82$ ($N=44$).

Vocabulary Test Results. The pupils participated in a vocabulary test with 30 items (5 items for each level). An extra point was given for words produced at a higher

⁶ Authors’ translation of *Gymnasiesmart*

Table 3
Pupils’ self-assessment of vocabulary range (n=45) and vocabulary control (N=44) using the CEFR scale. Distributions and mean scores

Skill	Missing	A1	A2	B1	B2	C1	C2	Mean
Vocabulary range		0 (0%)	0 (0%)	7 (15.6%)	14 (31.1%)	17 (37.8%)	7 (15.6%)	4.53
Vocabulary control	1	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	3 (6.8%)	12 (27.3%)	19 (43.2%)	10 (22.7%)	4.82

level than the item required, that is, if they were able to use a word from a higher CEFR level to fill in the word correctly the item was scored correspondingly (according to the EVP English Profile, 2012).

The acceptable or “passing point” for each CEFR-level was set at having marked three out of five words correct on the vocabulary test. The number of points reached by the pupil is presented in Table 4. The number of pupils who reached the different CEFR-levels are presented in Table 5.

As can be seen in Table 5, there is a marked decline of points at the C1 level (only 7 out of 45 pupils reached the C1 level having 3 or more correct answers). On the other hand, as seen in Table 4, 17 out of 45 pupils reached a minimum of two C1 points showing that they progressed beyond the B2 level even if mastery was not yet attained.

The difference between the pupils’ self-assessments of vocabulary control and vocabulary range, and their results on the vocabulary test, are set out in Figure 2.

Table 4

Pupils who reached the various levels on the academic vocabulary test related to each CEFR level (N=45)

Points	A1	A2	B1	B2	C1	C2
5	8 (17.8%)	10 (22.2%)	3 (6.7%)	8 (17.8%)	0	0
4	27 (60%)	14 (31.1%)	12 (26.7%)	3 (6.7%)	0	0
3	6 (13.3%)	12 (26.7%)	21 (46.7%)	8 (17.8%)	7 (15.6%)	0
2	2 (4.4%)	6 (13.3%)	5 (11.1%)	12 (26.7%)	17 (37.8%)	2 (4.4%)
1	1 (2.2%)	1 (2.2%)	1 (2.2%)	4 (8.9%)	13 (28.9%)	10 (22.2%)
0	1 (2.2%)	2 (4.4%)	3 (6.7%)	10 (22.2%)	8 (17.8%)	33 (73.3%)

Table 5

Pupils who reached the different CEFR-levels on the vocabulary Test (N=45)

	A1	A2	B1	B2	C1	C2
Acceptable level	45 (100%)	36 (80%)	36 (80%)	19 (42%)	7 (16%)	0

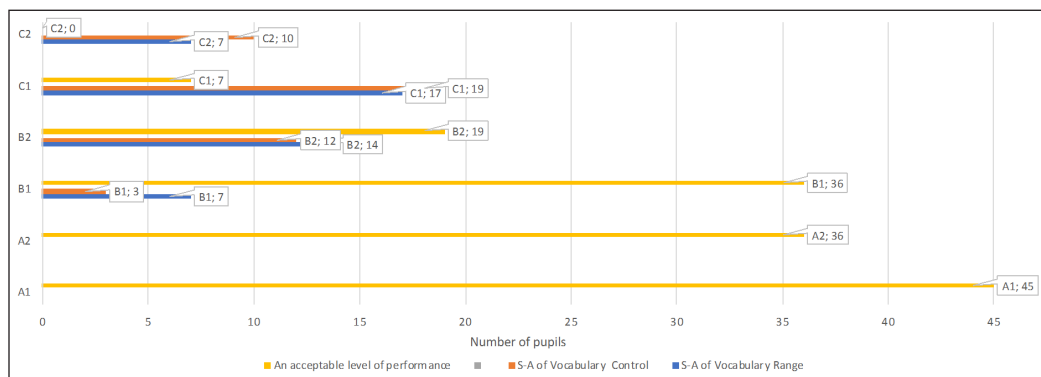


Figure 2. Pupils’ self-assessment of vocabulary range and vocabulary control compared to reached acceptable levels on the vocabulary test (N=45)

In Figure 2 it is apparent that fewer pupils reached the higher CEFR-levels. No pupils reached the C2 level, despite the fact that 7 out of 44 (Vocabulary range) and 10 out of 45 (Vocabulary control) pupils assessed themselves to be at this level. All the pupils assessed themselves above the basic A-level, yet there were also four pupils, who did not reach the A2 level on the tests (by getting 3 points or more). The A2 level tests consisted of lexical items related to routine everyday actions and lexical items related to basic needs and content. This is vocabulary that teachers in Sweden expect pupils to have mastered before entering upper secondary school.

The largest difference is seen between B1 and B2, where 36 out of 45 pupils (80%) reached the B1 level on the test, but only 19 out of 45 (42%) reached the B2 level. Considering the grades received by the pupils in the group, one could have expected B2 (high) level. The C2 level describes a well-educated native speaker, well able to understand idiomatic as well as everyday expressions, their connotations as well as consistently being able to use their vocabulary appropriately in different contexts. 24 pupils assessed themselves to have reached level C1 – C2 when it came to vocabulary range, and 29 pupils assessed themselves to have reached level C1 – C2 when it came to vocabulary control. The mean for the pupil groups' self-assessment of their vocabulary range ($M=4.53$) and Vocabulary control ($M=4.82$) (B2 – C1 level) are higher than the mean result on the vocabulary test ($M=3.13$) (slightly above B1-level). Here there is a difference

between the pupils' ability as shown in the test, and their own assessments as only 7 out of the 45 pupils reached the C1 level and no one C2.

Interview Responses. The three interviewed pupils expressed surprise that they did not reach the highest level (C2) on the vocabulary test. Alpha's explanation was that it was merely a dip in performance, having recently spent time working on another school project. Bravo did admit to having felt insecure when taking the test but Charlie had expected to receive a full score. In spite of high expectations they did not give any specific explanations for their failure to reach these.

All three pupils either believed themselves to be, or felt that it was expected of them to be, at a higher level than they actually were. Bravo and Charlie were thus relieved to understand that the course expectation was set at the B2 level but were still not satisfied with falling short of the C2 level. Bravo in particular was "shocked" at not being able to assess own abilities as it should have been an "easy win". Alpha simply shook it off as being unprepared while Charlie, admitted it was a "reality check"⁷ and a sobering moment but was grateful for the realization.

The Degree to which Pupils Reach the Curriculum Goals, Regarding Self-Regulated Learning of English

One important aspect of self-regulated learning is the ability to self-assess one's own knowledge level and ability in different

⁷ Authors' translation of *Nertagen på jorden*

language skills, in this case academic English. This includes such aspects as being able to comprehend and write low frequency words and lexical items as well as specific words for specific disciplines and academia in general. As seen above, the pupils as a group were able to do so to varying degrees, but not as well as one would expect after twelve years of schooling in a country where this is part of the curriculum.

In the interviews, all three pupils confessed to having a hard time accurately assessing their abilities. Charlie had problems assessing the correct level of what was expected even though there was an understanding that there was a more advanced level to strive for. Alpha made the most accurate assessment but could not reflect around own learning or level. Rather, the explanation was, “things just happen” that is, outer circumstances were responsible for the results more than own activity and effort. Alpha simply saw this ability as “something that would develop with time”. Bravo on the other hand had more varied reflections around the assessment and expressed worry, stemming from comparisons with where “one was supposed to be”. The realization that own skills were not up to par was evident, but there was also a failure to take responsibility. The fact that there is an accepted and even required way of writing and structuring texts was “bizzare and boring”. Bravo does not reflect on how to improve but is more concerned with the unfairness of the fact that there is a set norm, an academic genre and that performance was not considered qualified

enough when not followed. The three pupils thus demonstrate a lack of insight into their own performance as none of them are able to explain why their assessments differed from their test results. The central content in the English 7 course focuses on scientific texts, yet they are unable to recognise academic vocabulary and express what it is that they need to learn and strive for, more than at a very basic level.

Summary of Results

The pupils in the study considered themselves well prepared for university studies when it came to academic vocabulary in English but expected to find it difficult. The majority of pupils in the study, taking the English Step 7, are at the B1 level. Only a small group (n=7) of the highest performing pupils recognized C1 level vocabulary and no pupil showed any greater familiarity with C2 level vocabulary. The pupils in the study overestimated their abilities, on average believing themselves to be at or close to the C1 level. The three interviewed pupils were able to reflect on their own performance on the given vocabulary test but not at any deeper level. They were inaccurate in their assessments of their own results, and had problems anticipating what was expected of them at the next level.

DISCUSSION

Self-regulated learning and an ability to self-assess is knowledge pupils are expected to have mastered when they reach higher education, where teachers are not directly going to intervene on an individual level.

Therefore, the aim of this study concerned pupils' self-efficacy with regard to language ability before the transition to university studies, to investigate whether there was any difference between Swedish pupils' beliefs in their vocabulary skills, their actual performance as well as their awareness of their reached level.

The results of the questionnaire showed the extent to which the pupils in the study expressed that they felt prepared for university studies where academic English was required. It showed a fairly confident group of pupils who had, like many Swedish adolescents, encountered English from an early age, through school and other activities outside the school context (Korp, 2006). The pupils expressed that they were at ease speaking English, but also that they might encounter difficulties further ahead, especially when it came to writing. There was also a certain discrepancy between their awareness of the challenging nature of academic English at university and their relative indifference as to which language would be used in their further education (i.e. instruction in English or Swedish). In the questionnaire they stated that they would manage equally well in the two languages. Airey's (2009) study also showed that when English was used in a non-English classroom, pupils believed themselves to be unaffected by the complications of a foreign language. However, in reality, they required more time and more work to reach similar results than when their first language was used. The three interviewed pupils, for example, all said that they

believed they would be able to work within an academic setting both with regards to reading academic texts and writing reports and essays, while at the same time expressing a certain uncertainty about what advanced vocabulary actually entailed. This is an example of how upper secondary education can miss giving pupils a clear understanding of the goals they need to reach. The pupils had not worked with any "can-do" statements or other understandable criteria to give them a realistic expectation of the discourse they would encounter later on in their studies. The Swedish grading criteria are generally considered vague and difficult to understand, even for many teachers, and thus one may expect even more so for most pupils. If pupils believe themselves to be able to manage a skill or develop a competence, and yet cannot define exactly what is expected of them, they will have difficulties seeing what is actually within their own control, as Hsieh and Schallert (2008) pointed out.

The study also showed that the pupils in the study, who were at the end of the highest course in English at the upper secondary level, tended to overestimate their level of vocabulary knowledge in English to a large extent. A third of the group believed themselves to have already reached the reading and writing level *above* the courses taught at upper secondary school and in particular overestimated their abilities when dealing with a specific skill set. The required academic vocabulary was not readily accessible to them. This was somewhat better than the results of

Januleviciene and Kavaliauskiene's (2007) study but still a fairly stark mismatch. On the other hand, this lack of fluency in academic vocabulary is not surprising in itself, given that the pupils, on average, can be said to be at the B1 level, which is below the academic standard later expected at universities. The common belief that Swedish pupils have a high level of proficiency in English, may also influence them to over-estimate their ability and to expect to perform well at the next step, that of academic English.

The investigated medium to high proficiency Swedish pupils do not seem to possess the necessary self-assessment skills, nor the vocabulary level expected, when leaving upper secondary school. There are several possible reasons for this. The most obvious reason behind their inaccurate self-assessments would be that they lacked practice, a factor which Oscarson (2009) and Januleviciene and Kavaliauskiene's (2007) also found. The investigated pupils had never self-assessed previously, nor had they had any contact with the CEFR scales. It was the first time they were ever given bench-mark statements describing the level expected from them with regards to academic skills such as writing reports and essays or vocabulary range. The interviewed pupils revealed this, when they rather than basing their results on any known criteria instead compared themselves with each other, "Am I better than my classmate?" One may argue that the CEFR scales are also rather vague and that this could have influenced the pupils' inaccurate self-assessments, but other studies have shown

that it is often easier to assess general, non-complex tasks and abilities compared to specific skills (Falchikov & Goldfinch, 2000; Oscarson, 2009). The important factor seems to be an understanding of the relevant language level they need to reach, in this case when it comes to academic vocabulary, in relation to defined and concrete situations (Oscarson, 1997). A more reasonable explanation is therefore that they have not yet been exposed to or have any experience of a higher level, of what may be called academic vocabulary. As they have not had sufficient contact, they do not know what they may not understand. Brown et al. (2014) also emphasized that lack of exposure to the expected language level could cause pupils to overrate their ability. These findings point towards an area (i.e. vocabulary) where Swedish upper secondary English teaching may need to pay more attention. The communicative approach to language teaching *may* have led to less focus being paid to vocabulary and grammar in spite of their importance for communication and communicative competence. The interviewed pupils actively derided vocabulary learning in class, but a simple way to increase vocabulary range is by exposing pupils to and supplying texts which are difficult enough to prepare them for the demands of university level material. The pupils do not seem to be challenged enough to realise their need of improvement. English Step 7 is often the last chance for most pupils to improve their English skills within the ordinary school system and there should not be too large a gap between what is covered at upper secondary school and

university level. One of interviewed pupils, Charlie, appreciated the self-assessment task as awareness raising, expressing need to understand the coming “reality”, something which was also suggested in a study by Duque and Medina (2017) where self-assessment was found beneficial for goalsetting and for learners taking further action on their own part towards mastery on their own.

The pupils in the present study do not seem to reach the curriculum goals regarding self-regulated learning and self-assessment abilities of English at the end of the highest course in English at the upper secondary level. This is interesting considering the fact that this goal has been part of the Swedish curriculum and syllabus of English from grade one for more than a decade. To help develop both self-regulation and *learning*, self-assessment needs to be practiced throughout compulsory and non-compulsory school, in all language courses and classes, and be seen as a key element in that it entails that the learner understands their own learning process. If pupils were trained to self-assess their language ability, they should be able to apply the skill at the end of upper secondary education. In many universities lecturers’ experience, this is however not the case (Köhlmyr, 2013; Oscarson, 2016), a circumstance also manifested in the continuing debate about university students lack of writing skills, both in English and in Swedish. A large part of writing practice at university consists of training students to understand and manage academic vocabulary without teacher intervention.

Jönsson (2017) described the discussion on formative assessment practices in Sweden as unfocused and the terminology as unclear. This may be a reason for teachers, who are uncertain of its purpose, to disregard the training of self-assessment in class. Also, if it is only seen as a way of gathering information for further instructional input in the classroom, from the teachers’ point of view, other ways may seem easier and it may thus be neglected. The interviewed pupils all confessed to having a hard time accurately assessing their abilities. One pupil, Charlie, had problems both assessing own level and expectations, even when understanding that there existed a more advanced level. Another pupil, Bravo, realized that present skills were not up to par, but failed to take any responsibility. The third pupil, Alpha, with the most accurate self-assessment, used external and irrelevant circumstances as an excuse, rather than own inadequate input of activity and effort. All three pupils thus showed a surprising lack of insight. Despite the proclaimed aim to develop self-regulating learners and the fact that the central language content was scientific texts during the last upper secondary course in English, the pupils were unable to identify and comprehend academic vocabulary or express what it was that they needed to master more thoroughly.

CONCLUSION

Despite the limitations, this study offers some insights into the self-efficacy and self-assessment abilities of medium to high performing pupils with a focus on

academic vocabulary. It gives support to previous conclusions drawn concerning self-assessment and writing proficiency (Oscarson, 2009, 2016) with regard to the need of self-assessment training, and Swedish pupils' overconfidence in their English abilities (Airey, 2009). Similar to Olsson's (2016) findings, the mastery of academic vocabulary did not seem to increase at an expected rate during upper secondary education. The pupils entered with differing academic vocabulary knowledge due to, among other things, variable outside school exposure to the language. In spite of being medium to high performance learners, they did not gain sufficient academic vocabulary size to be fully prepared for academic studies. The results of this study point to the fact that pupils are not being challenged enough when it comes to lexicon – neither in reading nor in writing – and are, moreover, not aware of expected levels at the next stage. In other words, the level of English vocabulary taught does not adequately prepare the pupils for university studies. Further, in spite of clear curriculum goals, the pupils' self-assessments are not realistic enough and they do not seem to be trained to become the independent, self-regulated learners with life-long learning skills that the educational system aspires them to be.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Readiness and Attitudes Questionnaire

Namn:

Kön: Man Kvinna

Klass/Program:

Kurs: 5 6 7

Senast jag fick betyg i engelska fick jag betyget _____

Välj från skalan 1-10 hur mycket du anser påståendena stämmer överrens med dig.

Sätt ett kryss i den ruta som passar.

A: "Jag avser att fortsätta mina studier vid ett högre lärosäte (universitet/ motsvarande)."

<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
1: Stämmer inte alls								10: Stämmer mycket väl överrens	

B: "Jag tycker om att använda det engelska språket."

<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
1: Stämmer inte alls								10: Stämmer mycket väl överrens	

C: "Jag använder ofta engelska på min fritid."

<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
1: Stämmer inte alls								10: Stämmer mycket väl överrens	

D: "Jag känner mig utmanad av engelskan i skolan."

<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
1: Stämmer inte alls								10: Stämmer mycket väl överrens	

E: "Jag tror att engelskan vid högre lärosäte (universitet/motsvarande) är utmanande."

<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
1: Stämmer inte alls								10: Stämmer mycket väl överrens	

F: "Jag anser min skolgång har förberett mig för att använda engelska vid universitetet."

<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
1: Stämmer inte alls								10: Stämmer mycket väl överrens	

G: "Jag har på egen hand förberett mig för att använda engelska vid universitetet."

<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
1: Stämmer inte alls								10: Stämmer mycket väl överrens	

H: "Det spelar ingen roll för mig om min utbildning är på engelska eller svenska."

<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
1: Stämmer inte alls								10: Stämmer mycket väl överrens	

Appendix B

Vocabulary Test

Tack för att du deltar i min studie. Nedanför finns flera engelska meningar som saknar ett ord. Fyll i vilket ord du tror att det är. Till din hjälp har du en förklaring av ordet samt första bokstaven. Detta test kommer endast att användas till min studie och inte som bedömningsmaterial. All information är konfidentiell. Det vill säga, endast jag vet vem som har svarat. I min uppsats kommer ni sedan att anonymiseras (dvs. era namn, samt skola, kommer ersättas med påhittade namn).

1. She's even decorated the spare room in a _____ of your visit.
- *expecting something to happen or in preparation for something happening*
2. A c _____ to the authority of the President
- *an expression of disagreement with ideas, rules, or someone's authority*
3. The original idea for the novel was c _____ in Rome.
- *to think of an idea or plan*
4. The stock market crash marked the start of a severe d _____.
- *a time when there is not much business activity*
5. Her book is i _____ personal.
- *extremely*
6. The delays are due to the s _____ volume of traffic.
- *used to emphasize the large size or amount of something*
7. People like them need to compete for time as travelling via public transport may mean a loss of _____.
- *large amounts of money received by a government as tax, or by a company*
8. She was born into a life of p _____.
- *an advantage that only one person or group has, usually because of their position or because they are rich*
9. Good n _____ is essential for growing children.
- *the food that you eat and the way that it affects your health*
10. The troops eventually o _____ most of the island.
- *to move into a place and take control of it*
11. They were planning to mount an i _____ of the north of the country.
- *when an army enters a country by force in order to take control of it*
12. Please i _____ which free gift you would like to receive.
- *to say something or give a signal to show what you mean or what you intend to do*
13. There is scientific e _____ that the drug is addictive.
- *something that makes you believe that something is true or exists*
14. I'm just amazed at the q _____ of food that gets eaten.
- *a lot of something*
15. He's a f _____ Russian speaker.
- *able to use a language naturally without stopping or making mistakes*
16. John has been a _____ from school for three days now.
- *not in the place where you are expected to be, especially at school or work*
17. Strong winds had caused serious d _____ to the roof.
- *harm or injury*
18. She was p _____ employed as a tour guide.
- *before the present time or the time referred to*
19. Just at that m _____ the phone rang.
- *a point in time*

20. A close couple should have no s _____ from each other.
- *something that you tell no one about or only a few people*
21. The t _____ from York to Newcastle takes about an hour by train.
- *a journey in which you visit a place for a short time and come back again*
22. All the horses are finding it difficult to j _____ the last fence.
- *to go over something by moving up into the air*
23. There were 90 g _____ at their wedding.
- *someone who comes to visit you in your home, at a party, etc.*
24. Her car is in e _____ condition.
- *extremely good*
25. The service will be held at 12 n _____.
- *12 o'clock in the middle of the day*
26. When she left college, she got a j _____ as an editor in a publishing company.
- *the regular work that you do in order to earn money*
27. Liz and Phil have a d _____ and three sons.
- *your female child*
28. The show will be on u _____ the end of the month.
- *continuing to happen before a particular time or event and then stopping*
29. Philippa is the y _____ person in the family.
- *having lived or existed for only a short time and not old*
30. He shaved off his b _____ but kept his moustache.
- *the hair that grows on a man's chin*

Appendix C

Interview Guide¹

Hello and thank you for participating in this study.

- What are you planning to study in the future/Why are you not planning to go on to further studies?
- Do you use English in your spare time? If so, in what manner?
- Why/why not, do you feel challenged by the level of English you study at school?
- In what manner do you feel that school has/has not prepared you for further higher education?
- Do you think English is different at university? If so, in what manner do you think it's different?
- Why/why not would there be a difference for you if your courses are in English?
- What does it feel like to self-assess yourself?
- You wrote that you were at level X. After having done the test, do you feel the same way? Do you think that your self-assessment is in alignment with the results of the test? Why? Why not? (*Show them the results of the test at this point*)
- How come the results look as they do? Was it expected?
- Do you feel that your self-assessment was correct? Do you think that you would have been able to assess other skills, reading skills or listening skills? Would it have been easier or more difficult? Why?
- Who do you feel has the ultimate responsibility for your education?
- Would it be OK for me to contact you again if there is something else I need to ask?

Thank you for participating in my study!

¹ Translated into English by the authors

Framing Modern Language Education – A European Approach

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ABSTRACT

This is an updated text version of a speech given at the 1st ASEAN English Language Teaching Conference held at the Universiti Putra Malaysia, Malaysia, 15-17 March 2018. The theme of the Conference was “Maximizing the Potential in ASEAN Diversities through the English Language”. Language education development work undertaken under the auspices of the Council of Europe and the European Union is reviewed and related to this theme. Improvement of the conditions for language learning and intercultural communication has long been a concern in the Council of Europe and work has been undertaken in many areas of language policy, language education, and language assessment. Examples of advances are the formulation of principles for the description of goals for language learning, the elaboration of a comprehensive Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR), and the production of a model for a European Language Portfolio. Some such initiatives are here illustrated and commented on in light of the theme of the Conference. The point is made that language study of the kind referred to here leads to improved intercultural communicative ability and enhanced learner empowerment and that the approach in question may stimulate similar initiatives, with similar means, in other contexts. In conclusion, it is suggested that the provision of language instruction is particularly efficacious if it can be realized within a theoretical framework that allows both easy comparison between learning targets and transparent evaluation of their attainment.

Keywords: CEFR, intercultural communication, language assessment, language education, language policy, learner empowerment, linguistic diversity, self-diagnosis of language ability

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INTRODUCTION

The theme of this first International ASEAN ELT Conference, “Maximizing the Potential in ASEAN Diversities through the English Language”, has a familiar ring to it. It reminds one of issues that have

been discussed in Europe for quite some time. For instance, when the Council of Europe was set up after World War II, the aims of the organization were determined to be, among other things, “to promote awareness and encourage the development of Europe’s cultural identity and diversity” (Lobey, 2005). In a later Council of Europe document, it was argued “that a better knowledge of modern European languages will lead to the strengthening of links and the increase in international exchanges on which economic and social progress in Europe increasingly depends” (Trim, 2007)¹. The European Commission (of the EU) likewise has “a long-standing commitment to promoting language learning and linguistic diversity” (Commission of the European Communities, 2007). Evidently, the theme of the present Conference on one hand and certain basic ideas behind what has happened in Europe over the last several decades, on the other, have an important feature in common, and that is the attention paid to the role of language study and learning. Or more specifically, the view that language, not least knowledge of the English language, plays a critical role for the development and enhancement of fruitful co-operative action at a supranational level. Associate Professor Dr. Arshad Abd. Samad of the Organizing Committee succinctly expresses this basically common realization in these words:

“In today’s globalized village, international cooperation plays a critical

¹ Quoting a preamble to Resolution (69)2 (‘On an intensified Modern-Language Teaching Programme for Europe’)

role in socio-economic success of nations. ASEAN countries acknowledge the importance of English as an international language ...” (Conference Book, 2018, p. 8)

In light of this parallel between the stances expressed in Europe and the ASEAN region, it seems worthwhile to try to summarize and discuss some of the measures that the Council of Europe and the European Union have taken in *their* attempts to renew and boost language education in member states. The point of departure is that the “diversity” in question is enormous and that foreign language skills are highly valued and widely regarded as important learning objectives (Commission of the European Communities, 2007). My rather humble offer is therefore a short reminder of what many language educators feel are very helpful outcomes of the development work undertaken. Hopefully, they will help to stimulate the discussion and development of new ideas at this Conference.

As from the 1960’s, the Council of Europe has been intensely involved in a broad range of language projects aiming for many practical goals. The work has mainly been undertaken by experts from member countries under the coordination of the Council’s Language Policy Division (now Language Policy Programme). Similarly, the The European Commission has actively conducted language research and development work in the past few decades, e.g. in the area of assessment.

What can be presented here is of course a strictly limited view of the subject. Language education in Europe is a

multifarious business and it is only possible to touch on *some examples* of theoretical principles and suggested practices that have been discussed and put to the test in our own various contexts. Their relevance to language teaching in contexts that differ significantly from those under which they were developed must of course be determined in each individual case.

Developments

As mentioned above, the question of how to solve problems related to international language communication and foreign language learning has been on the agenda of the Council of Europe for a long time. The key role of languages came into focus in the 1960's when the first of a series of *Modern languages projects* was launched by the Council's Language Policy Division (now Language Policy Programme) (Trim, 2007). It was based on the realization that in order to further the aims of the organization, it was important to raise the level of citizens' communicative skills. Having attained a certain functional level was believed to be critically important, both in an individual and a collective perspective.

Some of the guiding principles adhered to in project activities were that the first step to take was to strengthen the learning of languages by adults, and then, successively, the learning by wider groups of students; that linguistic diversity must be respected; that retained multilingualism should be seen as self-evident; that language is primarily a means for communication between people; that communicative ability is the goal of

chief interest; and that constructive support of the *independent learner*, for instance through promotion of autonomous learning and self-assessment of skills achieved, is important (Oscarson, 1980).

Significant progress was made in many areas of language policy, language education, and language assessment. Examples of concrete innovative developments were the description of goals and standards for communicative language learning, starting with the development of the *Threshold level*, exemplified for English by van Ek (1975). Then followed the elaboration of the comprehensive *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR)* (Council of Europe, 2001) and the production of a *European Language Portfolio* (Council of Europe, 2013). A further important outcome was the organization of 31 international *Workshops* for teacher trainers, centred on examination and discussion of the principles for language learning and evaluation formulated by the Council (Council of Europe, 2019).

In particular, a shift of attention from form to function caught on and was quickly followed by EFL textbook writers. Syllabus designers soon adopted the apparatus of situations, themes, notions and functions as a descriptive framework/vehicle for both curricular guidelines and public examinations (Trim, 2007). The key source of information for educators and materials producers was the CEFR "blue book" (Council of Europe, 2001), which has been translated into 40 languages and sold in record-breaking numbers.

After this brief sketch of the general background, let us now turn to examining, in a little more detail, the way in which much of European language education has been framed in recent years. The review will be fairly practical and focus on concrete results, starting with the CEFR.

The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR)

One of the things the Council of Europe came to stress was that of important targets in language learning. What are they? How can they be defined? In what ways can the attainment of them be assessed? Answers were provided language by language. Naturally enough, English was focused first, and after that came a whole range of other languages. In all, there exist no less than 40 language-based representations (basically translations) of the original (Council of Europe, 2001).

CEFR has now become a household acronym in contemporary language education discourse. The best brief explanation of what it stands for is given on the Council of Europe homepage (<https://www.coe.int/en/web/common-european-framework-reference-languages/>):

“The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment (CEFR) is exactly what its title says it is: a framework of reference. It was designed to provide a transparent, coherent and comprehensive basis for the elaboration of language syllabuses and curriculum guidelines, the

design of teaching and learning materials, and the assessment of foreign language proficiency.”

The framework is thus envisaged primarily as a planning tool to be used in order to contribute to greater clarity and more easily defined aspects of language education theory and practice. While it does not prescribe any particular methodology for reaching levels specified in it, adoption of the CEFR does have certain instructional implications such as focus on action-oriented classroom activities and communicative practice.

The CEFR has been well received and has found wide use in the reform of foreign language curricula, in the development of teaching materials, and in assessment and evaluation (Mader & Urkun, 2011; North, 2014). The central component is a range of scales which specify six levels of language ability, extending from level A1 (called Breakthrough), through levels A2, B1, B2, C1, and up to level C2 (Mastery). The scales now also include three ‘plus’ levels (A2+, B1+, B2+). Each level is defined by a number of descriptors that reflect actual language use. Underlying the elaboration of the scales are detailed analyses of communicative contexts, themes, tasks and purposes.

There now exist upwards of 50 such scales covering different aspects of communicative language ability as well as different communicative language activities and strategies. Examples are scales of grammatical accuracy, spoken fluency, and overall reading comprehension (Council of Europe, 2001).

The conceptual work and the practical results of discussions and fieldwork have been tested outside Europe as well, with somewhat varying results. The fact is, however, that reference to and use of CEFR scales and level descriptors is becoming more and more common internationally. The scales are often employed to compare tests and examinations, both across different languages and across institutional and national borders. An Asian case was described by Wu & Wu (2007). They undertook a test-linking investigation in Taiwan, following a decision by the Ministry of Education to adopt the CEFR as a model when establishing target levels of English proficiency for Taiwanese students. Comparisons between different systems of qualifications were found to be difficult, depending in part on vagueness in the description of criteria. There were, for example, problems in aligning the General English Proficiency Test with the CEFR (according to the experience of GEPT exam boards).

A more recent example of using CEFR level descriptors for test calibration purposes was reported by Zou and Zhang (2017), where the focus was on the question of adaptability. The research query was whether the descriptors can be edited to suit local circumstances, which in this case was a Chinese higher education context and the description of the writing ability of English major candidates. Questionnaire and interview data were used as the basis for band setting. Results showed that it was possible to construct a reliable writing ability scale for English majors using CEFR

descriptors, but that these in many cases needed to be slightly reworded or to be assigned to a different level.

A study by Uri and Aziz (2018) showed positive attitudes expressed by teachers to mapping the SPM, the new equivalent of the Malaysian Certificate of Education, to the CEFR (see further Uri and Aziz below).

The CEFR Companion Volume

In response to reactions and feedback from both language education policy makers and users in the field, there has recently been launched (May 2018) a complement to the original CEFR publication of 2001 under the title of *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment. Companion volume with new descriptors* (Council of Europe, 2018). Requests for change have mainly concerned the need for further support material, especially with respect to the range of illustrative descriptors of second/foreign language proficiency.

Essentially, this extension thus comprises an update of the illustrative scales of 2001. It contains a new complementary set of descriptors which fill gaps in the original. Examples of previously missing scales, now available, are those of *Mediation*, *Reactions to literature*, *Online interaction*, and *Sign language*. For the sake of better overview, a set of new as well as previously developed descriptors relevant to the category of *Young learners* have been selected and put together, and these are now downloadable on the CEFR official website (www.coe.int, under Collated representative samples).

Included in the volume is also an introduction to the aims and main principles of the CEFR.

Members of educational institutions in 56 countries around the world participated in the validation of the new descriptors, and also assisted in piloting. Fittingly, it is therefore pointed out in the Preface to the Companion volume that it “owes much to the contributions of members of the language teaching profession across Europe and beyond.” The production of the Companion Volume has no doubt benefitted from this empirical feedback.

An online version of the publication is available at: [CEFR 2018 Companion Volume](https://www.coe.int/en/web/common-european-framework-reference-languages/relating-examinations-to-the-cefr)

The Manual for relating Language Examinations to the CEFR

It is not uncommon that testing agencies and educational systems make claims that their tests are linked to the CEFR, often without provision of supporting empirical data (Bartning et al., 2010; Papageorgiou, 2009). As a result, such claims tend to be viewed with a degree of scepticism as to how valid they are and what empirical evidence exists. More general and practical queries are: In what way can in fact tests and examinations be linked to the CEFR in a reasonably dependable manner? What concrete steps need to be taken in the validation process?

This Manual for relating Language Examinations to the CEFR (Council of Europe, 2018) provides answers to such questions. It describes certain technical

procedures by means of which providers of language tests and examinations can relate their instruments and results to the CEFR. A subsidiary aim indicated by the authors is to stimulate cooperative networking and competence building in the area of test interpretation. Achievement of such an aim is likely to contribute to better clarity in matters of inter-institutional language proficiency measurements.

The Manual can be downloaded at <https://www.coe.int/en/web/common-european-framework-reference-languages/relating-examinations-to-the-cefr>

Self-Diagnosis of Language Ability – DIALANG

As explained earlier (at p. 775), the CEFR concept can be used in several different ways and for different purposes, e.g. as a “basis for the elaboration of language syllabuses and curriculum guidelines, the design of teaching and learning materials, and the assessment of foreign language proficiency” (<https://www.coe.int/en/web/common-european-framework-reference-languages/>). The creation of DIALANG, a freely available language diagnosis system, is an example of how the framework has been employed in the last-mentioned area, i.e. assessment.

DIALANG was developed in a major joint effort supported by the European Union and involving a number of higher education institutions in member states between the years 1996 and 2004 (Alderson, 2006). Tests are delivered over the Internet, online,

and can be downloaded via the project Website (<https://dialangweb.lancaster.ac.uk/>) hosted at Lancaster University. Test results are expressed in CEFR scale terms as exemplified in the previous section.

On offer in DIALANG are parallel tests in these languages: Danish, Dutch, English, Finnish, French, German, Greek, Icelandic, Irish-Gaelic, Italian, Norwegian, Portuguese, Spanish and Swedish. Test instructions and feedback are also available in some other languages, including Mandarin Chinese, Bahasa Indonesian, Korean, and Japanese. There are sub-tests in reading, writing, listening, vocabulary, and grammar. Also included in the system are instant feedback functions, which give the test taker instant information about results obtained, as well as advice on how the next level of proficiency may be reached. It is reported on the system's home page that several million test sessions tests have been recorded over the years. A brief count showed that some 18,000 tests were started in one month alone (Dec 2017).

DIALANG is special in that it is a self-managed test instrument. Its main purpose is to inform users directly, i.e. not via somebody else, about their language levels. The results that the system delivers can therefore not be employed for certification purposes. The tests can, however, be used in several other ways and are very useful tools in the hands of both learners and educators. Apart from serving individual self-assessment purposes, the test material is also administered in classes and study groups as a general measure of ability at

the start of courses and language programs. Sometimes work with the material is organised as group activities in class under the instruction of a teacher.

It should be reiterated that DIALANG is a tool for users and learners in the first place, for their own guidance, and it is not a high stakes test. But while the results do not carry strong weight as external evidence, they can still be of very great value, not least when used on a purely personal basis.

The European Language Portfolio (ELP)

Another product which has been found suitable as an assessment tool, but also as a learning aid, is the *European Language Portfolio*, or ELP for short (Council for Cultural Cooperation, 2000). It is a resource for recording a learner's progress and achievements in languages. This too uses the CEFR as its frame of reference. Again, the distinguishing characteristic is that the learners are themselves involved in the estimation of the quality of own work samples and of levels reached, normally in discussion with their instructor. A commonly held view behind this involvement is that if students become more cognizant of the learning process and its results, and thereby enhance their self-awareness and realistic beliefs in their abilities, they will also become more insightful and efficient learners (Alderson, 2006).

Learner autonomy is thus a prime focus in ELP philosophy. As explained by Little (2005), the portfolio has a reporting function in that it involves two kinds of

self-assessment: summative in a so-called Language passport, and formative in a Language biography which “uses goal-setting and self-assessment checklists derived from the CEFR’s illustrative scales” (p 326). The checklists are normally used intermittently as the learning progresses, so that achievement may be discerned more easily. Included in an ELP is also a Dossier of work samples judged by the learner to best represent own ability.

Today the ELP exists in many languages and in most of them in different versions for different age groups. Over a hundred models have been validated and accredited by the Council of Europe. The full versions of 51 of them, in various languages, can be downloaded from this site: <http://elp.ecml.at/Portfolios/tabid/2370/language/en-GB/Default.aspx>

A Teaching Portfolio

A counterpart to the above is the European Portfolio for Student Teachers of Languages (EPOSTL), which is primarily intended as a self-assessment tool for students undergoing their initial teacher training, but which is also suitable for practising teachers. Its main purposes are to stimulate users to reflect on their knowledge and skills, to estimate their own didactic competences, to monitor their progress and to record their experiences of teaching during the course of their training. The material contains among other things checklists relating to the planning and teaching of lessons, to methodology, and to assessment.

The portfolio builds on experiences from the CEFR and the ELP as well as the project European Profile for Language Teacher Education—A Frame of Reference (Kelly et al, 2004). It has been translated into several languages.

EPOSTL can thus be used as a fairly general assessment tool in a great many different ELT contexts. For practical examples, go to: <https://www.ecml.at/ECML-Programme/Programme2016-2019/Towardsa-CommonEuropeanFrameworkofReference-forLanguageTeachers/Guidetoresources/tabid/3022/language/en-GB/Default.aspx>; <https://www.ecml.at/ECML-Programme/Programme2016-2019/>

The portfolio can be downloaded at: <https://www.ecml.at/Resources/ECMLPublications/tabid/277/language/en-GB/Default.aspx?q=EUROPEAN%20PROFILE>

International Impact

The CEFR has had a normative impact on language education in Europe. It is widely adopted as the standard reference document for teaching and testing languages, similarly to the role played by the ACTFL document ‘Guidelines’ in the US (Liskin-Gasparro, 2003). A majority of countries indicate expected minimal exit levels, in terms of the CEFR scheme, at the end of compulsory and upper secondary school (European Union, 2013).

Views on and use of the CEFR in Asia, both in the original form and as adaptations, have been reported from a number of countries. A few examples may be briefly mentioned.

In Malaysia, a recent qualitative study on English teachers' (N=331) and Ministry of Education officials' views on the implementation of CEFR showed that "teachers generally accepted the framework ... positively" even though their knowledge of the CEFR was very limited (Uri & Aziz, 2018). This was considered a challenge to implementation of the system in the country. The government officials, however, "strongly believed that the adoption of CEFR would result in good outcomes". According to a previous article from the same authors, "the [Malaysian] government has agreed not only to incorporate and align the framework into the present education system but accelerate its implementation" (Aziz & Uri, 2017).

As of 2018, CEFR-aligned English textbooks are being used in Malaysian schools following the standard curricula for primary and secondary education (Chin, 2018). The aim is that this will improve the proficiency of students. Plans are also underway to align the Malaysian University English Test (MUET) with the framework.

Thailand's Ministry of Education announced in 2014 introduction of the CEFR in schools. This was part of a policy to improve the level of English proficiency among Thai students. A case study involving a sample of teachers at state secondary schools in the south of Thailand revealed pronounced differences in individual teachers' knowledge and appreciation of the policy plans (Franz & Teo, 2018). These were in fact little known by the majority

of participants in the study. Meanwhile considerable government resources seem to have been invested in launching the system.

In a qualitative case study with 21 participants, Van Huy and Hamid (2015) investigated the adoption of the CEFR in a Vietnam public university setting. They found that the CEFR did not seem to solve "the complex and time-consuming problem of improving the quality of English language education in Vietnam".

A Japanese long-term project (CEFR-J) resulted in the production of a large number of descriptors adapted from the original to be used in schools (North, 2014). The possibility of creating an Asian model based on the CEFR, i.e. a CAFR, has also been discussed (Yoneoka, 2014). As mentioned above, Chinese researchers successfully developed a writing ability scale adapted for English Majors based on CEFR writing descriptors (Zou & Zhang, 2017).

As the above selection shows, reactions have been mixed in Asian countries. It is obvious that more information work needs to be given particularly in those cases where the approach described in this article is judged to be of wider interest. Further empirical studies are also crucially important in order to put indicated ideas and possible practices to the test.

Readers interested in a very particular source of information about the CEFR and its impact may wish to listen in to two video-taped interviews with the late Director of several Council of Europe language projects, Dr John Trim, who comments on

the origin of the CEFR and on the history of modern foreign language teaching and learning, respectively.²

Among other things, Dr Trim talks about the history and achievements of the Council of Europe language projects since the 1970's. With his usual caution and humility, Dr Trim points out that "the Council of Europe has no directive power. It is a mechanism for cooperation between the member governments." Discussing the notion of "freedom for teachers", Dr Trim furthermore makes the point that "empowerment is what I think the research world, and the academic world, can provide to the language learning practitioners". This statement might be taken to mean, here, that by backing research, and notably English language teaching researchers, we participate in furthering the cause of "maximized potential in ASEAN diversities through the English language".

A further field of inquiry deserves some consideration. In Europe, and beyond, outcomes of comparative studies of student achievement, such as PISA (Programme for International Student Assessment) and IEA (The International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement), have become more and more important as indicators of educational standards. Thereby the chances for fruitful competence building and cooperation in many areas of study,

including that of languages, have no doubt increased measurably. Support for such mutual efforts is likely to boost the potential of language teaching the world over.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

In view of the theme of this 1st ASEAN English Language Teaching Conference, the aim of this presentation has been to exemplify efforts made in Europe to improve the conditions for language learning and intercultural communication among its citizens. It is hoped that the samples given will stimulate discussion and lead to further ideas on how to maximize "the Potential in ASEAN Diversities through the English Language".

Over the last few decades, there have been significant advances in European language education. Many of them emanate from initiatives taken by the Council of Europe (the Language Policy Programme) and the European Union. The outcomes have been very successful and have attracted considerable attention, not only in Europe but in some other parts of the world as well. Curricula, syllabuses, and materials for teaching and assessment are types of instruments that have been impacted in the first place. The effect from the public reception of the CEFR concept is particularly noticeable.

Much of the work has further aimed at supporting fundamental values such as access to language, enhanced communication skills, and increased national as well as international and intercultural understanding. Results obtained have, in

² Go to <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=mSJNGHDK6IM&list=PL33753FF2F7614EC0> An interview with John Trim and Nick Saville, taped in 2011, and https://www.youtube.com/results?search_query=john+trim John Trim in a conversation with Richard Smith and Nicola McLelland, taped in 2012.

line with this, facilitated interaction between “stakeholders” in language education, e.g. teachers, learners, school managers, curriculum designers, text book writers, and testing agencies.

The wide attention the CEFR has attracted seems to be due to the fact that it constitutes an analytical system that is at once concrete, coherent, and transparent in its various parts. In addition, the fact that it can serve different purposes and caters to many practical needs underpins its popularity. Yet some other possible explanations for it seem to be:

- The issues that were tackled resonated well with strongly felt needs among both professionals and learners.
- Prestigious organizations stood behind the various projects launched.
- A visionary leadership and dedicated teams of experts gave generously of their time and energy to achieve the goals that were set up.
- There existed a generally positive and cooperative spirit among the many players in the field, among them policy makers, project advisers, national representatives, educational specialists, school administrators, teachers, and students.
- Very useful support was provided by producers of study materials, by test agencies, and by organisers of language programs and courses.

To sum up, this article illustrates some European language education work that aims at supporting fundamental values and goals such as enhanced communication abilities and increased international understanding. As appears to be implicit in the general theme of this Conference, language education in South-East Asia is geared towards much the same goals. Prof Dr Dede Rosyada of UIN Syarif Hidayatullah Jakarta, reminds us of this in the Conference book, when he quotes a statement by the former ASEAN Secretary General, H.E. Le Luong Minh:

“With the diversity in ASEAN reflected in our diverse histories, races, cultures and belief systems, English is an important and indispensable tool to bring our Community closer together” (Conference Book, 2018).

One might add that advances and experiences gained in our respective geographical and educational contexts, i.e. Europe and South-East Asia, are likely to be of mutual benefit.

It is no doubt the case that the European results described above have facilitated interaction between educationists working under very variable teaching circumstances. This is particularly obvious when we consider the vigorous development of the CEFR. Its reception has been tremendously positive in Europe and has in many ways changed the scene of language education there. Not least important is the fact that the model and materials have been put to good use in practice, as evidenced in, for example, Mader and Urkun (2011) and North (2014).

The projects referred to have also sparked considerable interest beyond Europe. The proficiency scales, for instance, are used as a fairly common reference scheme in some other parts of the world and this has enabled language educators to interact more effortlessly across different linguistic, cultural and educational systems. It has become easier for us to talk to international colleagues about goals and achievements, depending in large part on the existence and use of now fairly well-known criteria.

The other language education and language assessment tools referred to, DIALANG and the ELP, also contribute to improved communication between stakeholders in the field (educators and learners in the first place): DIALANG, as a model for self-managed foreign language assessment on the widely known CEFR scale, and the ELP as a likewise learner-centered assessment tool, used as a device for storing and communicating students' achievements. Both of them enjoy extensive recognition and they can both help strengthen the communicative skills of the language user.

To be sure, the latter effect must be regarded as the ultimate goal of a vast majority of language teaching professionals around the globe.

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which was given at the 1st ASEAN English Language Teaching Conference held at the Universiti Putra Malaysia, Malaysia, 15-17 March 2018. The theme of the Conference was “Maximizing the Potential in ASEAN Diversities through the English Language”.

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Multimodal CSR Disclosure in Malaysian Corporate Websites

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ABSTRACT

The article explores how Malaysian corporate websites employ multimodality, or language and image features to disclose corporate social responsibility (CSR). As previous research mostly analyzes disclosure in Malaysian CSR reports, and European or North American websites, the article studies Malaysian corporate websites. It examined the CSR webpages of the two largest Malaysian corporations: Malayan Banking and Tenaga Nasional. The article distinguishes two dimensions of reading and interacting, which explain what visitors 'do with' and 'do to' websites respectively. It inspects the language and image features in these dimensions using Systemic Functional-Multimodal Discourse Analysis (SF-MDA). While the information in the reading dimension emphasizes corporations and their CSR, the design in the interacting dimension emphasizes options to select to obtain changes in websites. The two dimensions are complementary because the design helps to navigate the information. Their language and image features constitute semantic motifs that indicate corporations as the source and stakeholders as the target of CSR. The motifs foster the ideology of corporate involvement bringing social improvement, which discloses the corporate perspective. The analysis of websites helps practitioners and academics in corporate communication to create persuasive CSR disclosure in websites, and it may encourage members of society to be critical of disclosure.

Keywords: CSR, disclosure, interacting, multimodality, reading, websites

INTRODUCTION

Corporations are the world's dominant economic institution (Bakan, 2005), and their operations consume significant human and natural resources. These operations can impact society and one prominent way to manage the impact is corporate social responsibility (CSR). Its definition is

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nebulous but CSR often means corporations improving society through voluntarily investing their resources (Crane & Matten, 2007). CSR has European and North American origins (Werther & Chandler, 2011) but it has developed in Malaysia, where the government and stock exchange are instrumental institutions for its development (Rajandran, 2016, 2018b).

The government facilitates CSR through various CSR-related tax deductions and exemptions. The stock exchange can delist corporations for not performing CSR and it launched a CSR-based index named the FTSE4Good Bursa Malaysia in 2014. The index constitutes the top 200 Malaysian corporations that fulfill specific Environmental, Social and Governance (ESG) criteria. The stock exchange also promoted the Malaysian CSR Framework in 2006, which the Sustainability Reporting Guide replaced in 2015. Besides the government and stock exchange, other stakeholders may motivate CSR. The corporate context for CSR is shaped by various parties but institutional pressure remains crucial.

Malaysian corporations are required to disclose their CSR and disclosure is provided in CSR reports (Rajandran & Fauziah, 2014a, 2014b). Yet, corporations are taking CSR online, and websites are common for disclosing initiatives and results. Websites are a typical genre for corporate communication and represent an enormous data repository. These websites are frequently multimodal and contain the auditory and visual modalities although

the visual modality predominates through language and image.

Previous research has analyzed CSR disclosure in Malaysia but it only explored CSR reports (Rajandran, 2016, 2018a). Research also analyzed websites, but it mainly explored the websites of European or North American corporations (Park et al., 2016; Park & Reber, 2008), perhaps because Asian corporations tend to sideline websites in their communication strategy (Kim & Nam, 2012). Moreover, previous research has not always emphasized discourse (Zhang & O'Halloran, 2013) although discourse can explain how language and image establish the corporate perspective.

Therefore, the article explores the multimodal CSR disclosure of Malaysian corporations in their websites. It integrates previous research about websites before it analyzes two websites. The analysis identifies language and image features that constitute semantic motifs or consistent ideas about corporations and stakeholders. The motifs can indicate the ideology of disclosure, where corporate improvement is linked to social improvement (Rajandran, 2018a, 2018b). The multimodal disclosure is argued to facilitate the social legitimacy of corporations (Christensen et al., 2008).

Disclosure in Websites

Corporate communication utilizes corporate discourse or messages that corporations choose to send to stakeholders to ensure that stakeholders continue to be interested in corporations (Breeze, 2013). Corporate discourse is reproduced in numerous

genres, such as advertisements, emails, interviews, meetings, seminars and reports. It becomes online corporate discourse if it is extended to online genres (e.g. blogs, media sharing sites, social media sites, websites, wikis). Websites are part of a corporation's official online presence and are available in national or regional varieties in one or more language. Their content shows a corporation's important aspects: its history, management, products/services, financial and CSR disclosure, latest activities and contact details. CSR disclosure in websites involves two major strands in corporate communication, which explore information or design (Robbins & Stylianou, 2003).

Research has examined the information in websites. Fortune 500 corporations place information about management, products/services, job openings and contact details in their websites (Shin et al., 2015). CSR webpages are encountered in the websites of most corporations in Canada, India, Spain, Africa, Europe and Latin America, and their webpages explain various initiatives and results (Baronet & Tremblay, 2015; Capriotti & Moreno, 2007; Jain & Winner, 2016; Kühn et al., 2018). These webpages demonstrate the prevalence of disclosure in websites although the coverage varies among countries and regions.

The information is conveyed by language, which explains a corporation's ethics (Pollach, 2005) or superiority (Capriotti & Moreno, 2007; Park et al., 2016). Corporations are designated as agents of change and their members, particularly the CEO, are incorporated to humanize their

activities (Park et al., 2016; Pollach, 2005). These activities are cited with numbers, as evidence of awards, capacity and solvency (Pollach, 2005). The information is also conveyed by image, and corporations employ pictures to exemplify their core values (Bravo et al., 2012; Jain & Winner, 2016).

These language and image features constitute semantic motifs (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014) that indicate specific identities for corporations and stakeholders (Park et al., 2016). In most research, the motifs of corporations as the source and stakeholders as the target of CSR emerge. The choice of motifs reflects the corporate context or the broad areas of history, culture, economy and politics (Rajandran, 2016). CSR is highly contextual and institutional pressure influences disclosure (Kühn et al., 2018). For example, disclosure by Canadian corporations is bound to legislation and globalization, and reflect national and international influences respectively (Baronet & Tremblay, 2015).

Other research has examined the design in websites. Prominent design features, which use language and image features, are chats, downloadable documents, emails, forums and links (Baronet & Tremblay, 2015; Bravo et al., 2012; Capriotti & Moreno, 2007). Links are often studied and the sequence of clicked links charts reading paths throughout websites (Askehave & Nielsen, 2005; Zhang & O'Halloran, 2013). Fortune 500 corporations use internal links to the rest of their website (Park & Reber, 2008) and external links to websites of

environmental protection organizations (Kim & Nam, 2012). North American and Western European corporations use more external links than Asian corporations (Kim & Nam, 2012), and the quantity of links entails the quantity of activities with partners. Spanish corporations utilize menus and search functions to give autonomy in information selection (González & Palacios, 2004). Moreover, autonomy is facilitated by lists and site maps (Pollach, 2005). A general trend for websites is to globalize design but to localize information, as noted by Robbins and Stylianou (2003) and Okazaki (2005). ‘Glocal’ websites that employ standardization and adaptation are increasingly favored.

Previous research has improved our knowledge about CSR disclosure in websites by studying information and design. Yet, it did not select Malaysian corporations and the selection can complement research on corporations in other countries and regions. Research recognizes multimodality to some extent but the study of language and image features should be enhanced. Hence, the present article poses these questions: What multimodal features articulate CSR disclosure in Malaysian corporate websites? Why are these features incorporated? Research should pursue online corporate discourse because corporations are improving their presence in online genres. The analysis of websites helps practitioners and academics in corporate communication to create persuasive CSR disclosure, and it may encourage members of society to be critical of disclosure.

METHODS

The article selected CSR webpages in the websites of Malayan Banking Berhad and Tenaga Nasional Berhad (Table 1) because these are the two largest Malaysian corporations by market capitalization in 2016. These corporations are listed in the FTSE4 Good Bursa Malaysia, which helps to validate their CSR achievements. They have also consistently produced CSR websites for several years and have considerable experience in disclosure.

Table 1
Corporate profile

Corporation	Established	Industry
Malayan Banking Berhad	1960	Banking
Tenaga Nasional Berhad	1949	Utility

The article adapts the model in Adami (2015), Askehave and Nielsen (2005) and Zhang and O’Halloran (2013) in Figure 1. It has two dimensions (reading, interacting) and three metafunctions (ideational, interpersonal, textual). Adami (2015) proposed the reading and interacting dimensions, which recognized language and image features that could or could not be acted on. While the reading dimension studies the information in websites, the interacting dimension studies the design in websites. The former is what visitors ‘do with’ websites (browse/read) and the latter is what they ‘do to’ websites (click/search/select). The metafunctions are utilized in Systemic Functional-Multimodal Discourse Analysis (SF-MDA). It provides

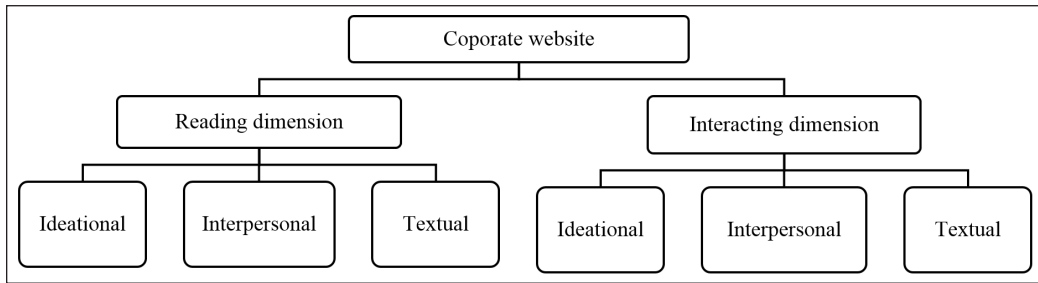


Figure 1. Dimensions and metafunctions in websites

a shared platform for analyzing language and image, and utilizes precise and technical concepts (O'Halloran, 2009). Although concepts in the textual metafunction can influence disclosure, the article selected concepts in the ideational and interpersonal metafunctions because these concepts can study how language and image portray disclosure (Rajandran & Fauziah, 2014a, 2014b).

For the reading dimension, the article examined AGENCY (ideational) and ATTITUDE (interpersonal) in language, and CATEGORIZATION (ideational) and REPRESENTATION (interpersonal) in image. These concepts were chosen because they have proven useful to understand the portrayal of content (Pollach, 2005; Rajandran & Fauziah, 2014a, 2014b; Zhang & O'Halloran, 2013). AGENCY categorizes experience as having or not having a cause. It requires a Medium (human or non-human entity as nouns) to manifest a Process (event as verbs), although an Agent (other human or non-human entity as nouns) can cause the Medium and Process to become manifested (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014). ATTITUDE categorizes evaluation as AFFECT (emotions), JUDGEMENT

(ethics) and APPRECIATION (values of things) using adverbs, nouns or verbs. It may be positive or negative, and explicit or implicit (Martin & White, 2005). CATEGORIZATION identifies if entities are active and specific, and REPRESENTATION identifies if entities engage visitors of websites through gaze and length of camera shot (van Leeuwen, 2008). For the interacting dimension, the article examined the color, links and other components of webpages (Adami, 2015; Zhang & O'Halloran, 2013).

Every instance of language and image on the CSR webpages was examined and coded for the ideational and interpersonal concepts. Their features were gathered into semantic motifs that constitute consistent ideas about corporations and stakeholders. The motifs can indicate the ideology of disclosure in websites. The disclosure is argued to confer distinction or prestige (Bourdieu, 1997), and it may improve the social legitimacy of corporations (Christensen et al., 2008).

ANALYSIS

The analysis explains the language and image features in the CSR webpages of Malayan Banking and Tenaga Nasional,

along the reading and interacting dimensions (Figure 1).

Reading Dimension

The reading dimension displays how language and image features depict corporations and their CSR. In Extract 1, the Agent is ‘financial sustainability...the communities’ (**bolded**) and the terminology ‘financial sustainability’ is taken for granted although it lacks a standard definition (Werther & Chandler, 2011). Sustainability is expected of corporations and the expectation motivates Malayan Banking to think about sustainability. The positive AFFECT ‘sincerely’ (*italicized*) humanizes the corporation (Pollach, 2005). Malayan Banking shows emotions and implies an interest in sustainability. In Extracts 2-3, the Agent is ‘We’ (Malayan Banking) and ‘TNB’ (Tenaga Nasional) (**bolded**), who respectively sponsor the ‘financial literacy programmes’ and the ‘13 schools’. The use of corporations as Agent in websites emphasizes their contribution to start and continue initiatives.

Extract 1: We at Maybank *sincerely* believe that **financial sustainability of the Group goes hand in hand with the development of the communities...**

(Malayan Banking)

Extract 2: **We** run a series of financial literacy programmes in tandem with Money Tree (M) Sdn. Bhd.

(Malayan Banking)

Extract 3: ...**TNB** adopted its second batch of 13 schools nationwide for a period of three years.

(Tenaga Nasional)

Figure 2. Extracts 1-3

Websites evaluate CSR initiatives and results, as in Extracts 4-7. The evaluation receives positive APPRECIATION but it is either explicit or implicit. The initiative from Malayan Banking receives an explicit positive APPRECIATION through ‘great’ and ‘conducive’ (**bolded**) in Extract 4, and the result from Tenaga Nasional receives an explicit positive APPRECIATION through ‘life-saving’ (**bolded**) in Extract 5. Extracts 4-5 clearly designate the benefits acquired by stakeholders. Alternatively, the initiative and result receive an implicit positive APPRECIATION in Extracts 6-7. The initiative from Malayan Banking (‘scholarship programme’) has useful traits (‘mentoring framework, opportunities for internships and development interventions for skill-building’) in Extract 6 and the result from Tenaga Nasional (‘Tree For A Tree’) specifies a substantial amount (‘419 seedlings’) in Extract 7. The traits and amount in Extracts 6-7 are valued and invoke the benefits of the initiative or result.

Extract 4: The key...starts with building and sustaining a **great** workplace...and offering an environment and climate that is **conducive**... (Malayan Banking)

Extract 5: ...imparting potentially **life-saving** knowledge on electricity safety... (Tenaga Nasional)

Extract 6: The scholarship programme also includes a mentoring framework, opportunities for internships and development interventions for skill-building. (Malayan Banking)

Extract 7: Under the Tree For A Tree programme, 419 seedlings were sown... (Tenaga Nasional)

Figure 3. Extracts 4-7

The positive evaluation in Extracts 4-7 is not only about initiatives and results but it radiates to Malayan Banking and Tenaga Nasional. These corporations sponsor the initiatives, which contribute results. Their actions and reflections are desirable because it helps stakeholders. Hence, Extracts 4-7 invoke an implicit positive JUDGEMENT of Malayan Banking and Tenaga Nasional. It reduces self-praise and does not make corporations the focus of disclosure in websites. As only positive evaluation is reported, corporations seem to have a positive impact, and the impact cements their position as helping and not harming society (Rajandran & Fauziah, 2014a, 2014b).

Pictures convey core values (Bravo et al., 2012; Jain & Winner, 2016), and Malayan Banking and Tenaga Nasional indicate their CSR dedication in Extracts 8-11. Extract 8 captures action and the employee is planting a tree. Although he is part of a group (marked by yellow shirts), he is specific because his activity is the

focus of the picture. Extract 9 does not have action and nobody is specific because the students pose as a group (marked by uniforms). Extract 8 requires action because Malayan Banking is conducting the initiative but Extract 9 does not need action because Tenaga Nasional has conducted the initiative. The state of an initiative (before, during, after) may determine the use of action, as pictures with action depict unfolding events and pictures with no action depict events to be contemplated.

Extracts 10-11 employ indirect gaze because the people pictured do not look at visitors. The people are providing a service, which visitors to websites contemplate. Extracts 10-11 also employ close camera shot because the people pictured can be seen until the waist. A friendly customer service is implied because people would not let strangers come as near as close camera shot (van Leeuwen, 2008). The depiction in image is not always explained in language. Extracts 9 and 11 have captions, but Extracts 8 and 10 do not have captions, and pictures



Figure 4. Extracts 8-9

not about CSR may be introduced and presumed to depict CSR. From Extracts 1-11, the CSR webpages of Malayan Banking and Tenaga Nasional display

similar use of language and image features, through which corporations are shown to cause positive CSR.



Figure 5. Extracts 10-11

Interacting Dimension

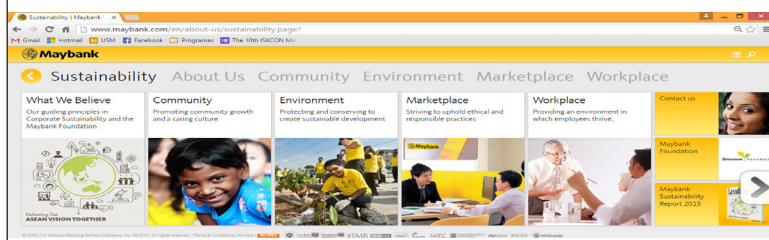
The interacting dimension displays how language and image features provide options to select to obtain changes in websites. Ideational options specify how visitors should conceive CSR. The webpages utilize a prominent color: yellow in Extract 12 and blue in Extract 13. These are the corporate colors of Malayan Banking and Tenaga Nasional, and the colors shade some of the background, language or image in Extracts 12-13. The repetition of the corporate color binds CSR webpages and the other webpages as integral to the websites. These webpages cumulatively display the various domains of Malayan Banking and Tenaga Nasional. The webpages in Extracts 12-13 contain a horizontal top bar to ease navigation. It creates a map of the websites using words and phrases, and can cue visitors to areas of interest.

Links are present and organize available information about the website and the corporation. There are links to sections named 'About Us', 'Community', 'Environment', 'Marketplace' and 'Workplace'. While 'About Us' explains CSR, the other links identify the stakeholders. Malayan Banking and Tenaga Nasional have separate webpages to report initiatives and results for different stakeholders. The two corporations serve common stakeholders to conform to the Malaysian CSR Framework, which delineates four stakeholders: community, environment, marketplace and workplace. The identification of stakeholders filters initiatives and results, and these are placed in relevant webpages. The websites may prefer identification to direct visitors easily. Visitors should decide which stakeholder matches their position (Adami, 2015) and click the relevant links.

The Malayan Banking webpage (Extract 12) has links to financial institutions, such as the Central Bank and Financial Mediation Bureau. These institutions regulate the banking industry in Malaysia and Malayan Banking implies observance of their regulations through these links. The Tenaga Nasional webpage (Extract 13) does not need similar links because the utility industry in Malaysia lacks regulatory

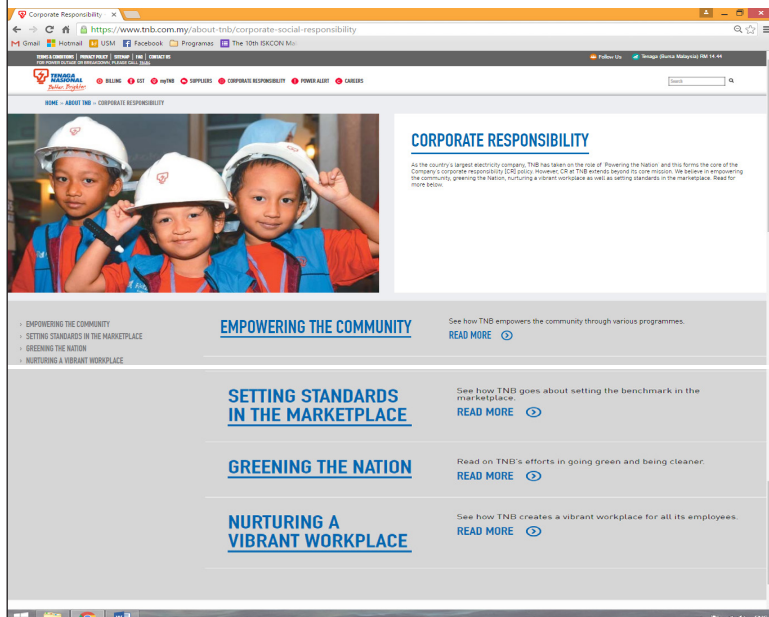
institutions and Tenaga Nasional has a near monopoly on electricity provision. The links to other institutions are external links and bring visitors to other websites. Other links are internal links and bring visitors to webpages in the Malayan Banking and Tenaga Nasional websites. The external-internal binary separates content which corporations cannot and can manage respectively.

Extract 12:



(Malayan Banking)

Extract 13:



(Tenaga Nasional)

Figure 6. Extracts 12-13

Interpersonal options convey how visitors can navigate the webpages. The words ‘Read More’ and the arrow head symbol (Extract 13) are markers to explicitly signal new information but other links in Extracts 12-13 implicitly signal new information. Markers are not utilized since links are presumed to lead to new information (Adami, 2015). These links demarcate who corporations want to relate to (Kim & Nam, 2012). The external links establish relations between corporations and other regulatory institutions, which can influence how corporations function. The internal links establish relations between various parts in corporations and indicate the mutual dependence required to manage corporations.

The links are presented through language in Extracts 12-13, where the words ‘About Us’, ‘Community’, ‘Environment’, ‘Marketplace’, ‘Workplace’ and ‘Read More’ (Extracts 12-13) are links. The pictures in Extracts 12-13 never function as links because pictures may convey other interpretations, and not the interpretation

intended by the corporations. The exception is links to social media sites, where a symbol and a name are already known to identify a specific site (Extract 14). The sites in Extract 14 enable corporations and stakeholders to maintain almost instant contact. Yet, social media sites convey any corporation-related information and can dilute information about CSR.

Other navigation options are contact details and the search function. Contact details are provided in Extracts 12-13, and state the physical (address, telephone numbers) and cyber (e-mail) presence of corporations. Through these details, corporations provide various avenues for contact and importantly, confirm their existence. The search function is indicated by a looking glass (Extract 12) or a search box (Extract 13), and visitors can input words or phrases, and search for desired information (González & Palacios, 2004). Although their decision prompts the search, the websites circumscribe the result because unavailable information cannot appear.

From Extracts 12-14, the CSR webpages of Malayan Banking and Tenaga Nasional display similar use of language and image features. These webpages facilitate user-friendly navigation and are oriented to stakeholders, as both websites contain information for major stakeholders: community, environment, marketplace and workplace. Their action-oriented features provide visitors several options, which can construct reading paths through a website. These paths can track webpages with more or less visits.

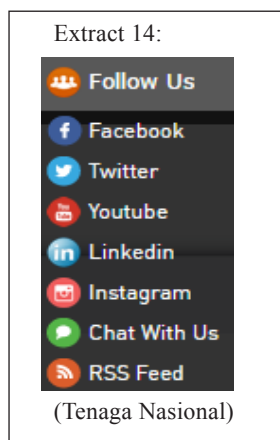


Figure 7. Extract 14

DISCUSSION

The analysis has shown how language and image features articulate multimodal CSR disclosure in the websites of Malayan Banking and Tenaga Nasional. Their industries (banking, utility) are different but their use of language and image features is similar. While the reading dimension emphasizes corporations and their CSR, the interacting dimension emphasizes options to select to obtain changes in websites. The two dimensions are complementary (Adami, 2015) because the design (e.g. color, links) helps to navigate the information (e.g. specific webpages). Visitors can explore the websites and encounter explanation about CSR initiatives and results. The disclosure in Malaysian corporate websites resembles the disclosure in the websites of corporations in other countries and regions (Baronet & Tremblay, 2015; Capriotti & Moreno, 2007; Jain & Winner, 2016; Kühn et al., 2018). Websites may display growing homogeneity and perhaps CSR is another ‘must-have’ section, where its information and design have become predictable.

The language and image features reveal the semantic motifs of CSR webpages. The motifs create specific identities for

corporations and stakeholders (Park et al., 2016). The two parties share a commercial relationship through products/services but CSR establishes their non-commercial relationship. The relationship is unidirectional because corporations are the source for CSR and stakeholders are the target for CSR, as visualized in Figure 8. CSR links corporations and stakeholders through various initiatives and results. It could imply that stakeholders need to depend on corporations to improve their lives. The semantic motifs may be present in the CSR webpages of other corporations through various language and image features. The variety minimizes the repetition of features although the underlying motifs remain constant. The semantic motifs foster the ideology of corporate involvement bringing social improvement. It discloses the corporate perspective that may shape how visitors perceive CSR, although they ultimately decide to accept or reject the perspective.

Since CSR is vital to corporate plans (Bakan, 2005), websites become part of the quest for social legitimacy, through which corporations would be considered as crucial members of society (Christensen et al., 2008). Several parties in society wield

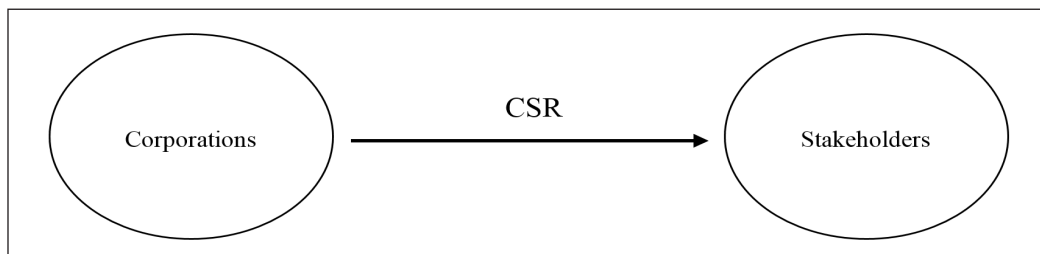


Figure 8. CSR relationship

institutional pressure for CSR (Kühn et al., 2018). The government and stock exchange establish legal and ethical foundations, and prompt CSR disclosure. These institutions empower the market-driven economy (Enoch, 2007), which promotes profit maximization. Corporations are already granted economic legitimacy to employ human and natural resources but social legitimacy is required to continue to employ these resources. Corporations invest profit for CSR engagement and disclosure, and the investment can garner distinction or prestige (Bourdieu, 1997), which improves social legitimacy. The interconvertibility of profit to distinction or prestige (Bourdieu, 1997) makes economic and social legitimacy converge, as profit furnishes the financial resources for CSR, and CSR furnishes justification for profit. Their convergence perpetuates the market-driven economy and particularly, the corporation's 'license to operate'. CSR has become a priority for corporations because it ultimately benefits their operations (Bakan, 2005).

Hence, corporations may perform CSR in enlightened self-interest (Bakan, 2005; Rajandran, 2016) and the multimodal disclosure in websites embodies the corporate perspective. It conveys corporations as responsible citizens and mitigates corporations as profit-maximizing organizations. The logical consequence of the disclosure is that corporations should continue their operations and validate it through CSR (Rajandran & Fauziah, 2014a, 2014b). CSR risks becoming a façade and it may calcify how corporations

operate, which would not stimulate systemic change for the market-driven economy (Enoch, 2007). Although other parties (e.g. government, stock exchange, NGO) may present contesting perspectives, the corporate perspective tends to saturate public knowledge. Corporations can utilize their extensive resources to publish and publicize their websites, and therefore propagate their perspective.

CONCLUSION

The present article has explored the multimodal CSR disclosure of two Malaysian corporate websites. While the reading dimension emphasizes corporations and their CSR, the interacting dimension emphasizes options to select to obtain changes in websites. Their language and image features constitute semantic motifs, and inform the ideology in CSR webpages. The CSR webpages of Malayan Banking and Tenaga Nasional indicate corporate involvement bringing social improvement. The websites become part of the quest for social legitimacy and reinforce the corporate perspective about CSR. The article acknowledges three limitations. First, it examined language and image separately although they work together to convey meanings (O'Halloran, 2009). Second, the article did not consider the technical aspects of websites although these aspects may influence how language and image features are deployed. Third, it did not inquire how people who prepare (producers) and visit (consumers) websites interpret these features.

Several proposals are pertinent for CSR webpages. Language features may reduce corporations as Agent, since corporations causing CSR is presumable. These features should continue mixing explicit and implicit evaluation to minimize self-praise of corporations. Image features can depict action during CSR but may not need action before and after CSR. These features can employ people with direct gaze and close camera shot to invite visitors to feel involved in a corporation's CSR. Websites can place legal and basic corporate information at webpage margins, where these details can be seen easily. Trending concerns (e.g. the latest CSR initiative/result) should be made prominent through font color/size/type, or pictures. These choices indicate how corporations are performing CSR presently. CSR webpages can mention who verified CSR and display links to these individuals/groups, which enhances their credibility.

The article adopted SF-MDA, and knowledge about SF-MDA may improve the digital discursive competence or systematic way to decipher language and image in online corporate discourse. Digital discursive competence encourages practitioners and academics in corporate communication to create persuasive CSR disclosure in websites. While practitioners select suitable language and image features, academics can train students, who are future practitioners, to recognize and incorporate these features. The features are an aesthetic consideration but can shape the behavioral response of visitors, such as purchasing products/services, downloading documents

or acquiring knowledge. Digital discursive competence should also be inculcated in critical thinking because it helps members of society to be critical of disclosure, as online genres saturate our modern daily lives.

Because CSR is developing in importance (Werther & Chandler, 2011), future research can examine the websites of other corporations and industries. Numerous Malaysian corporations have subsidiaries in other countries and the 'glocalization' of websites should be considered (Okazaki, 2005; Robbins & Stylianou, 2003). Corporations are taking CSR online and websites are but one genre to reach stakeholders. Other online genres (e.g. blogs, media sharing sites, social media sites, wikis) should be examined. The multimodal thrust is maintained, as it captures the information and design in websites. These ideas provide various avenues for future research to understand how the identities of corporations and stakeholders are envisioned in online corporate discourse.

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Names as Branding on Nature Tourism Destinations in Pangandaran, Jawa Barat - Indonesia: A Linguistic Perspective

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ABSTRACT

This research presents the linguistics perspective on the naming of nature tourism destinations in Pangandaran, Jawa Barat-Indonesia. Linguistic tools employed to analyze the data are morphology and metaphors. Formerly, a research was conducted by identifying the names of nature tourism destinations in Pangandaran, then they were analyzed based on the word formation studies. The meanings or messages of the destinations' names are discussed with the metaphors found in the names of the destinations. This research employs qualitative descriptive method by using data from the Jawa Barat Province Tourism Information Center about Pangandaran. The analysis aims to describe the destinations and their branding function based on their names. The results of this research show that the names of nature tourism destinations, morphologically, derived from blending, composition, and proper names, while metaphorically the names mean the physical characteristics of the nature tourism destination, location of the destination, and activity in the destination. Therefore, branding function of the destination names is in line with the metaphorical meanings.

Keywords: Branding, destination, metaphors, nature tourism, Pangandaran, word formation

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INTRODUCTION

Nowadays, tourism has become one of the most important industry not only in the developed countries but also in the developing ones. Some of them even put tourism as the main revenue source of the country. In that case, it plays an important role in the development of the countries.

Furthermore, tourism has become a global industry that involves a lot of significant elements in all aspects of life in a country. In communicating the tourism destination, for example, it is truly necessary to employ the communication science, promotion media, and the language of promotion which involve language as the basic knowledge.

As the most populated province in Indonesia, Jawa Barat has a good prospect in tourism. In addition, Jawa Barat is rich of nature destinations, which is the biggest one. As one of the examples is Pangandaran, which is known as “Bali” of Jawa Barat.

On the contrary, linguists have not yet had much concern to these phenomena. Publication on linguistics for tourism is still limited in particular topics. Jaworski and Pritchard (2005) were working on a variety of different tourism genres. They applied the tools of critical discourse analysis in order to study the different forms of intercultural communication between hosts and travelers. They focused on the way of tourism discourse related to cultural differences.

Language, in the term of tourism, has an important role not only in critical discourse analysis but also from the using of language: word, phrase, clause, and sentence forms as the names of tourism objects, tourism slogans, and even promotional texts. As a real example is the using of word as the name of tourism object that has function to give an identity of the tourism product. It is imaginable that a beautiful, exotic, and interesting tourism object is not well known

since it does not have a name or identity. Moreover, tourists are not able to access the tourism object because they do not recognize the names. The employment of language as the name of tourism destination is one of their implementations of language as the way of communication, although they are used outside their countries. This means that language is used not only as daily communication media both verbally and textually but also specifically used as the media to promote tourism object and so on. The elements of language employed in tourism object product naming are words and phrases combined not only in monolingual but also in multilingual. In relation with linguistics research applied on product naming, Pamungkas and Abdulah (2017) investigated that product naming of over the counter medicines employed blending, clipping, acronym, and coinage as the process of product word formation. They constructed the naming by taking the name of substance, the usage, and the name of company.

In the field of linguistics for tourism, Sujatna et al. (2017) presented their research finding of applied semantics namely the using of figures of speech in Bandung historical site naming. They stated that there were two types of figure of speech employed in the data namely personification and metaphor. Another research on metaphor, Krisnawati (2014) investigated metaphors in the Indonesian Soccer News found conceptual metaphors as the concept of goals was as gold and as crops and regarding

to the games of soccer, the games were conceptualized as hunting and the goals served as the hunted.

MATERIAL AND METHOD

Word Formation

It is an important analysis tool in tourism product names, word formation “is the branch of the science of language which studies the pattern on which a language forms a new lexical unit, i.e., words” (Marchand, 1992). Furthermore, McManis et al. (1987) classified the English word formation into (1) Derivation: adding the suffix either in the form of a prefix or suffix, such as *government*, *happiness*, and so on; (2) Compounding: combining two free words to produce a new meaning, for example, *girlfriend*, *lifeguard*, and so on; (3) Acronym: taking the first letter or sound next to each word and combining them into one word, for example, *NATO*, *UN*, *UNESCO*, and so on; (4) Back formation, reducing affixes in the word, eg: *television* → *televise*, (5) Blending: combining the beginning of the first word and the final part of the second word, for example, *smoke* + *fog* = *smog*, etc.; (6) Clipping: shortening the word by cutting the front (aphesis), middle (syncope), or end of a word (apocope). Examples are *van* of the *caravan*, *ne’er* than *never*, *dorm* from the *dormitory*; (7) Coinage: formed from existing ones which is usually a word that has been popular and is intended to maintain the popularity of the word or to make it more popular such as *Kodak*, *Exxon*, and so on;

(8) Functional shift: changing the word class without changing the form of the word, for example, *study*, *run* used both as a noun and a verb; (9) Morphological misanalysis: formed with familiar words but there is no obvious reason of their formation, for example, the suffix – *burger* is misanalysis from *hamburger* word formed from *ham* + *burger*. Meanwhile *hamburger* is a fragment of a *hamburger steak*. This misanalysis is seen from the wide range of products such as *cheeseburger*, *salmonburger*, *beefburger*, and so on; (10) Proper names: taking the name of a person attached to name of place, street, inventions, for example, *City of Washington D.C.* derived from the name of *George Washington*, *the District of Columbia* from *Christopher Columbus*, etc.

Product Naming Patterns

A product name is either able to describe or characterize the product (Danesi, 2004). Naming the product is often:

1. referring to the name of the company, which deals with connotations posed by popularity, superiority, or the excellence of the company issuing the products. Therefore, the consumers, knowing the name of the product, are directly affected by the popularity and quality of the company’s products, for example, *Armani*, *Benetton*, *Folger’s*, *Louis Vuitton*.
2. referring to an imaginary or made-up personality and causing a particular image associated to the name, for example, *Wendy’s* refers

to image of a young friendly girl, *Mr. Clean* poses a strong image of a worker.

3. referring to the aspects of nature and giving the product quality related to nature, for example, *Tide, Aqua, Surf*, etc.
4. emphasizing superiority and product advantages, e.g., *Maxilight, Superfresh, Ultralite*, etc.
5. expressing usability or ability conducted by the product, e.g., *Flow Quick, Easy Wipe*, etc.
6. showing what can be obtained by using the product, e.g., *Close-Up, No Sweat Deodorant*.
7. combining words that have joint meaning of product composition through the compounding: *Yogourt* → yogurt + gourmet, *mountea* → mountain + tea, etc.

From the patterns above, it could be identified the function of the destination names to build the branding of the nature tourism in Pangandaran, Jawa Barat-Indonesia.

Metaphors

Metaphors are used to substitute one word with other words with similar meaning by comparing one idea to another (Ritchie, 2013). In relation with conceptual metaphor, Lakoff and Johnson (2003) said that metaphor was defined as seeing, experiencing, or talking about something in terms of something else. Richards et al. (1989) stated “*Something is described by stating another thing with which it can be compared*”.

The word metaphor is sometimes used as a general term for figurative or nonliteral language. Schneider (2008) identified seven kinds of metaphor: analogy, translation, exchange, contradiction, synecdoche, metonymy, and metaphor. Metaphor is one of the figures of speech besides simile, personification, hyperbole, and metonymy. Metaphor is a figure of speech that says one thing as another different thing, although it is often difficult to determine whether a word or phrase should be understood metaphorically or not. Since metaphor and culture arise from what we have heard or learned, they are about experiences in thought. When something is in thought, it will relate to someone’s perception, someone’s feeling, or even someone’s emotion. The writers use metaphors to persuade or influence the readers’ thought in introducing their products, in this case the tourism destinations. By using metaphors in promoting their tourism destinations, the writer tries to offer the experience to the tourists. Since the data are in the forms of words and phrase derived from local language, the metaphor classification used to investigate is translation metaphor.

Types of Metaphors

According to Newmark (1988), metaphors are divided into six types. They are:

Dead metaphor, i.e., a metaphor where one is hardly conscious of the image, frequently relate to the universal terms of space and time, the main part of the body, general ecological features, and the main human activities.

Cliché metaphor, a metaphor that is temporarily outlived their usefulness, that are used as a substitute for clear thought, often emotively, but without corresponding to the fact of the matter. In English, the examples of cliché metaphor are the words *backwater* and *breakthrough* in the sentence, i.e., *The country school will in effect become not a backwater but a breakthrough*.

Stock metaphor, an established metaphor in an informal context that is an efficient and concise method of covering a physical and or mental situation both referentially and pragmatically – a stock metaphor has certain emotional warmth. The example of stock or standard metaphor in English is “*keep the pot boiling*”. From the example, it is described that the pot is boiling, as we know that something which is boiled is liquid not the pot.

Adapted metaphor, this metaphor is adapted from the contemporary metaphor. The example of the adapted metaphor is *the ball is a little in their court*, it is adapted from the contemporary metaphor *the ball is in their court*.

Recent metaphor/neologism, neologism since the words used are new metaphors or renew themselves in language. The examples of metaphorical metaphors are *walkman* from the word *walk* and *man*. The metaphor has a new meaning “*portable cassette player*”. The metaphor *software* is from the word *soft* and *ware*, they make a new meaning.

Original metaphor, it contains a message, attitude, or view from the writer. This metaphor is sometimes called as a

poetical metaphor. It is used by the writer to express something more specific; for instance, “*This tidal wave of generosity will help them rebuild*”. He used the *tidal wave* as metaphor since the word *tidal* used to describe a generosity.

Branding

In the world of advertising, language has an important role since most advertisements are always accompanied by utterances providing information in several forms such as words, phrases, or sentences (Pamungkas & Sujatna, 2016). Branding and advertising had close relation as described by Hansen and Christensen (2003) that advertising may work in many other contexts than for specific branding purposes.

Branding is always related to who (identity), what to do (product), and why the product is proper to choose (advantages), brand is a reputation, trademark with reputed prosperity, which make the consumer believe and choose the products (Neumeier, 2003). He mentioned the elements of branding as product name, logo (logo, logo type, monogram, flag), visual appearance (package design, product design, uniform design, building design, transportation design), product ambassador (famous person, founder, icon, artist, mascot), wording (acronym, addressing, slogan, tag line, jingle), and voices (song, thematic voice icon).

Branding research has largely focused on consumer goods markets and only recently attention has been given to business markets (Cretu & Brodie, 2007). According

to Jamaluddin et al. (2013) brand has been proven to match with human characteristics, lifestyles, and preferences. Branding is an effective marketing strategy tool that has been used with frequent success in the past (Rooney, 1995). A consumer's brand image is the mental picture, that is, what is depicted in the minds of consumers of the products or services offered by marketers (Cretu & Brodie, 2007) as cited in Herman et al. (2016).

Product name becomes an important factor in determining product branding since it cannot be identified even if the products are very useful, expensive, and are broadly promoted if they do not have product name as the identity. In nature tourism destination, there has not been such research that presents the branding studies on the names of nature tourism destination. Therefore, this linguistics research that is applied into tourism branding tries to investigate the names of the destination as the branding of the tourism products.

METHOD

Descriptive qualitative method was employed in this research. The purpose of descriptive research is to describe condition and phenomenon, then there is no right and wrong emphasis in the study, but it intends to give description of the names of nature tourism destination and their correlation with branding (Nunan, 1992). The data were taken from the Tourism and Culture Office of Jawa Barat Province and Pangandaran Regency. Pangandaran regency was selected since it is the place that

is rich of nature tourism destinations which are being promoted as the international nature tourism destination of Jawa Barat-Indonesia. Pangandaran is considered as the "Bali" of Jawa Barat-Indonesia, therefore it has become the most favorite nature tourism destination in Jawa Barat-Indonesia. Located in the southern of Jawa Barat province, Pangandaran has a unique geographic area namely combination between coastal area and hilly or mountainous lands. Hence, Pangandaran has various nature tourism destinations such as beach, cave, river, hill, rafting, and other nature destination which are potential as international nature tourism destination after Bali. The data were in the form of destination names. Then, they were analyzed based on the word formation, metaphorical meanings, and intersected with naming strategy and branding. The metaphor theory used in the analysis was Newmark's (1988) since it was relevant with the data that used local language then it should be translated to investigate the figurative meaning in the words/phrases used as the destination names.

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

Compounding

From 25 data of nature tourism destination in Pangandaran, it is identified that 10 destinations are employing compounding, i.e., by combining two or more than words into one compounding word or phrase as seen in Table 1.

Morphologically, the names of nature tourism destination above are composed from local language such as *Cukang Taneuh*

Table 1

Nature tourism destination naming using compounding

No	Destinations	Objects
1.	<i>Cukang Taneuh</i>	Rafting, Back packing, Canyon
2.	<i>Pantai Karang Nini</i>	Beach and Surfing
3.	<i>Batu Karas</i>	Beach and Surfing
4.	<i>Pantai Batu Hiu</i>	Beach and Surfing
5.	<i>Pantai Karang Tirta</i>	Beach and Surfing
6.	<i>Batu Kalde</i>	Historical site
7.	<i>Batu Lumpang Garden</i>	Park and Garden
8.	<i>Pantai Legok Jawa</i>	Beach and Surfing
9.	<i>Sinjang Lawang</i>	Cave
10.	<i>Bukit Lembah Putri</i>	Hill

“soil bridge”, *Karang Nini* “old woman-shaped rock”, *Batu Karas* “eroded stone”, *Batu Hiu* “shark stone”, *Karang Tirta* “water rock”, *Batu Kalde* “donkey stone”, *Batu Lumpang* “crusher stone”, *Legok Jawa* “Jawa basin”, *Sinjang Lawang* “door fabric”, *Lembah Putri* “young girl valley”. The local words are compounded and produced a new meaning different from their root meaning. Then, the meanings are being discussed further in metaphors and branding.

Coinage

Since the names of nature tourism destination mostly employ the local language, it is found the majority of the names are coinage, i.e., formed from existing word which is usually a word that has been popular and is intended to maintain the popularity of the word or to make it more popular, it can be seen in Table 2.

Based on word formation theories, the names of *Pananjung* “names of area which means prosperous”, *Panggung* “stage”, *Bojong Salawe* “names of district”, *Santirah* “name of river”, *Parigi* “name of district”, *Ciwayang* “name of river”, *Pariuk* “clay-made pan”, *Lanang* “male”, *Kolor* “pants”, *Pangandaran* “name of the regency which means place to look for food or life”, *Karapyak* “name of area”, and *Madasari* “eat delicious food”. Those names of nature tourism destination have been previously popular as the identity of the area where the destinations are located such as *Pananjung*, *Bojong Salawe*, *Santirah*, *Parigi*, *Ciwayang*, *Pangandaran*, and *Karapyak*. In addition, some names mean the physical forms that are identical to a particular object such as *Pariuk*, *Lanang*, and *Kolor*.

Table 2

Nature tourism destination naming using coinage

No	Destinations	Objects
1	<i>Cagar Alam Pananjung</i>	Wild reserve
2	<i>Goa Panggung</i>	Cave
3	<i>Pantai Bojong Salawe</i>	Beach and surfing
4	<i>Santirah River Tubing</i>	River tubing
5	<i>Curug Bojong Parigi</i>	Waterfall
6	<i>Ciwayang Rafting</i>	Rafting
7	<i>Bukit Pariuk</i>	Hill
8	<i>Goa Lanang</i>	Cave
9	<i>Goa Kolor</i>	Cave
10	<i>Pantai Pangandaran</i>	Beach and surfing
11	<i>Pantai Karapyak</i>	Beach and surfing
12	<i>Pantai Madasari</i>	Beach and burfing

Proper Name

As natural tourism destination always refers to nature, their names sometimes use the elements of nature such as human, plant, animal, water, land, etc. In using human or animal as their names, it tends to use popular person in the area of destination or legend related to the area. It is seen in Table 3.

Goa Bagong is a cave tourism destination. Its name “*Bagong*” means a famous puppet with a specific physical character such as fat, short, fatty stomach, and funny. Its name does not mean that visiting the cave will meet him but there is a part of the cave that has identical physical character with *Bagong*. Similarly, *Citumang* is also a name, based on legend, of a non-tailed giant crocodile living in a river. Since

the river is its “kingdom” then the river is named *Citumang*. It is in line with the proper name theory that it is taking a name of person or a thing that has been popular.

Derivation

Derivation means adding the suffix either in the form of a prefix or suffix. The name *Pepedan* is taken from Sundanese. Morphologically, its root is *peped* “narrow” added the suffix *an* that produces a new word *pepedan* means “the edge”. Therefore, this tourism destination means a hill with narrow way as seen in Table 4.

Unlike coinage and compounding that dominate the names of nature tourism in Pangandaran, derivation has the least number of names since the adding of prefix

Table 3

Nature tourism destination naming using proper name

No	Destination	Objects
1	Goa Bagong	Cave
2	Citumang	Rafting

Table 4

Nature tourism destination naming using derivation

No	Destination	Objects
1	Pepedan Hills	Hills

and suffix are rarely used in the name of nature tourism. They tend to use single words or phrases as the name rather than derivatives.

Metaphors and Branding

The names of nature tourism object in the data have unique meaning since they not only give identities of the destination but also have promotive function. Even, it is found a branding function in the destination names with figurative meaning. Metaphorically, it is investigated that there are two types of metaphors in the nature tourism destination in Pangandaran, they

are dead metaphor and recent metaphor or neologism.

Dead Metaphor

From the 25 data of nature tourism destination names, it is found that 16 data contain dead metaphor. Based on the meaning, the local language used as the destination names are frequently related to the universal terms of space and time, the main part of the body, general ecological features, and the main human activities as shown in Table 5.

In the names of the nature tourism destination above, it is found that ecological

Table 5

Dead metaphor in nature tourism destination naming

No	Destinations	Object
1.	<i>Cukang Taneuh</i>	Rafting
2.	<i>Pantai Karang Nini</i>	Beach and surfing
3.	<i>Pantai Batu Karas</i>	Beach and surfing
4.	<i>Pantai Batu Hiu</i>	Beach and surfing
5.	<i>Goa Panggung</i>	Cave
6.	<i>Pepedan Hills</i>	Hills
7.	<i>Pantai Karang Tirta</i>	Beach and surfing
8.	<i>Batu Kalde</i>	Historical site
9.	<i>Batu Lumpang Garden</i>	Park and garden
10.	<i>Bukit Lembah Putri</i>	Hill
11.	<i>Bukit Pariuk</i>	Hill
12.	<i>Goa Lanang</i>	Cave
13.	<i>Pantai Legok Jawa</i>	Beach and surfing
14.	<i>Sinjang Lawang</i>	Cave
15.	<i>Goa Kolor</i>	Cave
16.	<i>Goa Bagong</i>	Cave

features have figurative meanings as *Cukang Taneuh*, *Karang Nini*, *Batu Karas*, *Batu Hiu*, *Goa Panggung*, and all mentioned above. The using of local language shows that locality is used as a part of branding. Regarding the branding, the names of tourism destination not only become the identity but also play an important branding function that *Pantai Karang Nini* is the place for nature tourism where the tourist can see a giant rock on the beach that shapes an old woman statue, then by visiting the destination, it is seen the sitting old woman-shaped giant rock, according to the legend, waiting for an old man going home. Since it is a beach, it is not only viewing the old woman-shaped giant rock but also enjoying the beach with the sands and surfing activities. From their names, some beach tourism of Pangandaran try to brand the destinations with an imaginary or made-up personality and causing a particular image associated to the name, for example: *Batu Karas* with a view of giant rock eroded by sea waves, *Batu Hiu* with its exoticism of shark-shaped giant rock on the beach, and *Pantai Karang Tirta* with a combination between seawater and rock. Similar kind of metaphor and branding also can be found in the names of *Bukit Pariuk*, *Pantai Legok Jawa*, *Batu Kalde*, and *Batu Lumpang Garden*.

In addition, the names of nature tourism destination also appoint the main part of the body and human that becomes their ecological features, i.e., *Goa Lanang* and *Bukit Lembah Putri*. *Goa Lanang* makes a brand that it is a cave with its uniqueness in

its stalactite and stalagmite. There is a male genital-shaped stalagmite in the cave that is used as the brand for its naming. It promotes to the tourist that the cave is not as usual as others. It uses the male genital-shaped stalagmite as the brand to make the tourist interested in visiting the destination. While *Lembah Putri* is referring to the aspects of nature and giving the product quality related to nature. It is as beautiful as a young girl that makes the nature situation is interesting to view.

Recent Metaphor/Neologism

In this metaphor, nine data are investigated that the names of nature tourism destination in Pangandaran are derived from the existing words or phrases. It can be seen in Table 6.

Formerly, the words used as the names of nature tourism destination above have been popular. For example, *Pangandaran* is popular with the location that it is the place where people used to have transaction or barter to fulfill their daily needs. Then this place was called *Pangan* “food or need” and *daran* “a place to get”. *Citumang* derives from the name of non-tailed giant crocodile that became the “owner” of the river. The legend of *Si Tumang* was very popular in the area therefore the river was named *Citumang*. Then the name *Citumang* was taken as the brand of the water adventure tourism in order to ease the tourist knows the place. Similar metaphor and branding is also found in *Cagar Alam Pananjung* that employs the name of area called *Pananjung* as the name of the destination, *Pantai Bojong Salawe* located in area called *Bojong*

Table 6

Neologism in nature tourism destination naming

No	Destination	Metaphors
1.	<i>Pantai Pangandaran</i>	Beach and surfing
2.	<i>Citumang Adventure</i>	Rafting
3.	<i>Cagar Alam Pananjung</i>	Wild reserve
4.	<i>Pantai Bojong Salawe</i>	Beach and surfing
5.	<i>Santirah River Tubing</i>	Rafting
6.	<i>Curug Bojong Parigi</i>	Waterfall
7.	<i>Ciwayang Rafting</i>	Rafting
8.	<i>Pantai Karapyak</i>	Beach and surfing
9.	<i>Pantai Madasari</i>	Beach and surfing

Salawe, *Santirah River Tubing* is water adventure on *Santirah* river, *Curug Bojong Parigi* is a waterfall located in district Parigi, and *Ciwayang Rafting* is a water sport tourism on *Ciwayang* river.

CONCLUSIONS

From the data and analysis, it can be concluded that the nature tourism destination employs coinage, compounding, derivation, and proper name with the local language as the root of the names. In the meaning, the names of destination contain metaphorical expressions namely dead metaphor that is hardly conscious of the image and show the main part of the body which become general ecological features of the destination and recent metaphor or neologism since the names of the destination renew themselves in their meaning, the names of area, village, river, becomes the names of nature tourism destination.

Related to branding, this metaphor marks that the brandings of these nature tourism are the activities and the views which could be obtained by the tourists in

the places. In addition, it also brands that the destination is located in the related area used as the name of the tourism destination. In that case, names of the nature tourism destination play an important role to communicate the types and characteristics, the facility, and the location of the nature tourism objects and destinations to form the nature tourism branding.

There are some other nature tourism destinations in Jawa Barat-Indonesia that have not been touched for research and development, such as *Ciletuh* and *Pelabuhan Ratu*. Therefore, they could be potential research on culinary and ecolinguistics point of view in the following research about tourism.

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Saving the BFG: A Relevance-Theoretic Approach to Pun Translation

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ABSTRACT

Despite their ubiquity, puns are used purposefully in children's literature. To manifest the author's punning intention, puns should be rendered as puns in the target language. However, due to linguistic and cultural differences, puns are frequently lost in translation. With reference to *The BFG*, a famous children's book by Roald Dahl, this article explored the challenge of pun translation from English into Thai from the perspective of relevance theory. A case study approach was employed to provide insight into the translation strategies for puns from English into Thai. Moreover, quantitative data were used to support the results. The comparative analysis of the source language puns and their translations revealed that the translator tended to resort to literal translation, resulting in the loss of punning effects in the translations. Accordingly, the readers of the target language do not gain similar effects as the source language readers. Based on the relevance-theoretic approach, this article suggests recreating a target language pun or adjusting the target language contexts in order to achieve interpretive resemblance and save the punning effects intended by the author.

Keywords: English-Thai translation, puns, relevance theory, Roald Dahl, the BFG, translation strategy

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INTRODUCTION

Used for a humorous effect and beyond, puns can be found in all forms of communication, for instance, daily conversation, comedy and jokes, news reports, advertisements, and literature. Puns are a rhetorical device, which has long been employed by great writers, such as William Shakespeare, Charles Dickens, and Mark Twain (Wu & Pan, 2012). In the 19th century, wordplay

received great attention and became one of the attractions of children's literature after Lewis Carroll questioned the dominance of didacticism with his *Alice in Wonderland* (Tabbert, 2002). Dacheux and Lia (2010) indicated that puns had long been the hallmark of winning children's literature. Prominent modern day children's authors such as Roald Dahl, J.K. Rowling, and Daniel Handler also use puns in their stories.

Children's authors are fond of puns and wordplay, and they use them as a didactic implement to teach children the use of language, i.e., to accentuate that words have different meanings and that language has certain grammar rules and syntax (Nikolajeva, 2005). Roald Dahl himself argued that: "...a good children's book does more than entertain. It teaches children the use of words, the joy of playing with language" (West, 1990). Children benefit from pun play by learning the different meanings of the same words, and they can develop a greater command of language and vocabulary with the practice of commonly used puns (Zuzie, 2008). Crapo (2018) asserted that wordplay could be used to elicit laughs from children as it did not require a great deal of social norms or background knowledge.

Nonetheless, puns pose a great challenge to translators due to the fact that dual meanings of puns are always the combined effect of phonological and semantic features, which is hard to preserve when translating into another language (Backfish, 2018; Jing, 2010; Masakhwe, 2014; Zhang, 2017). Delabastita (2004) maintained that

typological dissimilarity and linguistic incompatibility between the source and target languages increased untranslatability of puns. Some scholars even consider puns 'untranslatable'. Catford (1965), for example, stated that untranslatability was provoked by the impossibility of finding an equivalent collocation in the target language. Linguistic untranslatability occurs when the target language has no formally corresponding feature. This type of untranslatability "occurs typically in cases where ambiguity peculiar to the SL (Source Language) text is a functionally relevant feature, e.g. in SL puns" (Catford, 1965). Mainly intralinguistic and pragmatic, puns and other forms of wordplay also pose culture-specific translation problems (Al-Rikaby et al., 2018).

Due to different language structures, when translating puns, translators are faced with a dilemma as to choose between being 'faithful' to the verbal playfulness of the original text or 'unfaithful' to vocabulary and grammar in the source text (Delabastita, 1996). Cocargeanu (2015) argued that when translating double meanings of puns, translators must decide where to strike the balance between preserving one or both meanings of the originals and possibly their humorous effects.

Lathey (2006) posited that although "critical interest in translation of children's literature has developed at an accelerating pace over the last thirty years", little had been studied on the translation of puns in children's literature. O'Sullivan proposed that the 'playful use of language' was one

of the aspects worth studying in translated children's books (Tabbert, 2002). Epstein (2012) classified puns under 'expressive language' and considered translating those in children's literature as a fascinating and difficult task. She further emphasized that translators had to find a way to approach and handle expressive language if used by the author.

Apart from Lewis Carroll's *Alice Adventures in Wonderland*, which has been extensively studied, the children's books ideal for a study of the translation of puns are those by Roald Dahl since they "abound with funny and witty puns" (Schober, 2009). Laura (2004) noted that Dahl had a prominent style of playing with language in all the three aspects of words: sound, meaning and form. In his books, he employed nonsense, puns, wordplay, alliteration, onomatopoeia and hyperbole.

Regarded as one of the greatest children's authors of the twentieth century, Dahl is renowned for extraordinary and imaginative use of language, amusingly offbeat characters, inventive plots, and tender messages (New World Encyclopedia, 2008). In numerous surveys into children's reading habits, his titles top the polls as the best-loved and most widely read stories (Faundez, 2000; Hinders, n. d.). His books have been published in 49 languages and have sold more than 100 million copies around the world (de Castella, 2011).

Dahl's extraordinary language presents quite a challenge to the translator (Koskinen, 1998). Failure to render his ingenious use of puns certainly devalues his work.

While there has been some research on the translation of puns in Dahl's children's books (e.g. Epstein, 2012; Koskinen, 1998), none has been conducted on the translation of puns in Dahl's books into Thai. A considerable number of translation studies have been conducted to propose strategies for translating puns, yet most of the strategies are product-based, not process-oriented.

Gutt (1991, 2000) proposed that the relevance theory developed by Sperber and Wilson (1986) provided translators with the best framework for understanding and practicing translation. According to relevance theory, translation is an interpretive use of language because it is restating the utterance in one language into another language (Gutt, 1998). Gutt (1991) posited that the interpretation of a translation should resemble that of the original closely enough in relevant respects. Therefore, the translator must consider the contextual implications thoroughly to make his/her translation optimally relevant to the target language readers. Smith (2000) clarified Gutt's advocacy of a relevance-theoretic approach to translation that instead of providing ready-made guidelines for handling various translation problems, Gutt had armed translators with the ability to predict the conditions for effective communication in translation. Gutt showed that translation, which was a form of secondary communication, could be accounted for within the relevance theory. The theory assists translators with the understanding of the conditions of

communicative success in different kinds of translation situations. Martínez (1998) also affirmed that the relevance-theoretic perspective on translation offered translators important keys to understanding some of the cognitive processes employed to transfer meanings, as well as intentions, from one language into another.

Previous research conducted by scholars examining the translation of puns has been concerned mostly with the translation strategies with special emphasis on the translation as the end-product (Delabastita, 1993; Khiawmaneewong, 2010; Vid, 2008). Few (e.g. Pérez, 2014; Jing, 2010; Yus, 2012) have explored what happens during the course of the translation of puns based on the relevance-theoretic framework. In addition, previous studies (e.g. Alrasheedi, 2014; Gan, 2015; Solska, 2012) have shown that relevance theory assists readers in comprehending the puns intended by the author and deriving cognitive effects.

Despite the ubiquity of puns in literature, research on the translation of puns is still scarce, and in Thailand, no attempt has been made to study pun translation within the framework of relevance theory. Hence, this article aims to present an application of relevance theory, which is a cognitive-pragmatic approach to the translation of puns in *The BFG*, one of the most popular children's books by Roald Dahl. This article helps determine how relevance theory can assist the translator in overcoming the challenge in translating puns in children's literature from English into Thai.

THEORETICAL OVERVIEW

Definition of Pun

A pun is a rhetorical device often categorized as a form of wordplay, primarily aimed for humorous effect. Dynel (2009) categorized a pun as a humorous verbalization that had two interpretations couched in purposeful ambiguity of a word or a string of words, dubbed the punning element, manifesting itself in one form or two very similar ones while conveying two different meanings.

Some scholars use the words “pun and wordplay” to mean the same phenomenon, for example Delabastita (1996), Laviosa (2005), and Epstein (2012). According to Delabastita (1996), pun or wordplay includes “various textual phenomena in which structural features of the language(s) used are exploited in order to bring about a communicatively significant confrontation of two (or more) linguistic structures with more or less similar forms and more or less different meanings.” Laviosa (2005) defined wordplay or pun as “a rhetorical device that often relies on the different meanings of a polysemic word, the literal and non-literal meaning of an idiom or on bringing two homonyms together in the same utterance to produce a witticism.” Epstein (2012) also adopted Delabastita's (1996) definition of pun. In this article, the words “pun” and “wordplay” refer to the linguistic phenomena mentioned earlier by Delabastita (1996).

Relevance Theory

Regarded as one of the most influential

pragmatic theories, relevance theory has been applied to various areas and there has been an increasing amount of research adopting relevance theory as a framework (Wałaszewska et al., 2010). Recent research adopting the relevance-theoretic framework are, for example, Mazzarella (2015), Hussein and Abdullah (2016), Clark (2016), and Sasamoto and Jackson (2016). Built on H. P. Grice's definition of relevance, relevance theory is considered a cognitive-pragmatic theory which focuses on human communication and cognition. Wilson and Sperber (2004) posited that the search for relevance was a basic feature of human cognition, depending upon neither a Co-operative Principle and maxims nor specific communicative conventions. Relevance theory claims that "the expectations of relevance raised by an utterance are precise enough, and predictable enough, to guide the hearer towards the speaker's meaning" (Wilson & Sperber, 2004).

According to relevance theory, an utterance is relevant to the hearer when it yields positive cognitive/contextual effects. As noted by Wilson and Sperber (2004), the greater the positive cognitive effects, the greater the relevance of an utterance. In other words, the greater the processing effort required to achieve the cognitive effects, the less relevant the utterance will be. A positive cognitive effect must be a true conclusion, the genuinely-relevant information, because false conclusions are not worthwhile (Sperber & Wilson, 1995).

The two basic principles of relevance are the Cognitive Principle and the

Communicative Principle. The Cognitive Principle of Relevance says that humans have a universal tendency to maximize relevance owing to the way their cognitive system has evolved. The maximization of relevance helps predict other people's cognitive processes, namely the inputs to which they pay attention and the way they process them.

In general communication, a speaker intentionally produces a stimulus to attract his audience's attention. This stimulus is called an ostensive stimulus. The Communicative Principle of Relevance states that "every ostensive stimulus conveys a presumption of its own optimal relevance" (Sperber & Wilson, 1986). In an ostensive-inferential communication, the speaker encourages the audience to presume that his ostensive stimulus is relevant enough to be worth processing, and accordingly the audience will pay attention to a relevant stimulus. Additionally, the ostensive stimulus is the most relevant one compatible with the communicator's abilities and preferences (Sperber & Wilson, 1995).

MATERIALS AND METHODS

To give in-depth analysis of the translation of puns in children's literature from English into Thai, this present research employed a case study approach. A quantitative investigation of the original texts and translations was combined with a qualitative analysis, in which translation strategies were interpreted within the framework of relevance theory. The results gained from this research, though they might not be

generalizable, can be applied to similar cases.

A corpus of puns used in this study was drawn from *The BFG* and ยักษ์ใจดี, the Thai translation. The book was selected for it contains a considerable number of puns of various categories. The collection of puns in the source text was done by reading the whole book to search for instances of puns using the criteria for identifying and processing puns based on relevance theory proposed by Solska (2012). After the identification of puns was done, it was found that the book contained 27 pun instances.

From the analysis, the English puns in the corpus (Table 1) could be classified into three categories: homonymic/polysemic puns (40.74%), paronymic puns (37.04%), and homophonic puns (22.22%).

According to Solska's (2012) relevance-based model of context, concepts encoded by words and expressions give the reader access to three types of information, stored in the three entries of each concept: (i) the information about the phonetic and grammatical properties of the word or expression realizing the concept (which is accessed via the concept's *lexical entry*), (ii) the information about the concept's logical

properties amounting to its proper definition (which is accessed via the concept's *logical entry*), and (iii) the encyclopedic knowledge about the extension and/or denotation of the concept (accessed via its *encyclopedic entry*), which also includes folk and specialist assumptions, cultural beliefs and personal experiences. The accurate processing of these entries is necessary in translating puns because puns are highly context-dependent.

A comparative analysis between the original puns and their translated version was carried out to identify the strategies which the translators employed in rendering puns. Based on the relevance-theoretic framework, the strategies employed by the Thai translator were discussed and effective strategies were suggested.

Illustrated in the following are some examples of the puns presented in the form of diagrams based on Solska's (2012) relevance-based model of context in processing puns.

Figure 1 illustrates a horizontal pun based on homonymy playing with proper names. Despite their phonetic similarity, the homonyms 'Turkey' and 'turkey' in this example bear completely different concepts:

Table 1

Distribution of pun categories in the source text

Category	Number	Percentage
Homonymic/Polysemic pun	11	40.74
Paronymic pun	10	37.04
Homophonic pun	6	22.22
Total	27	100.00

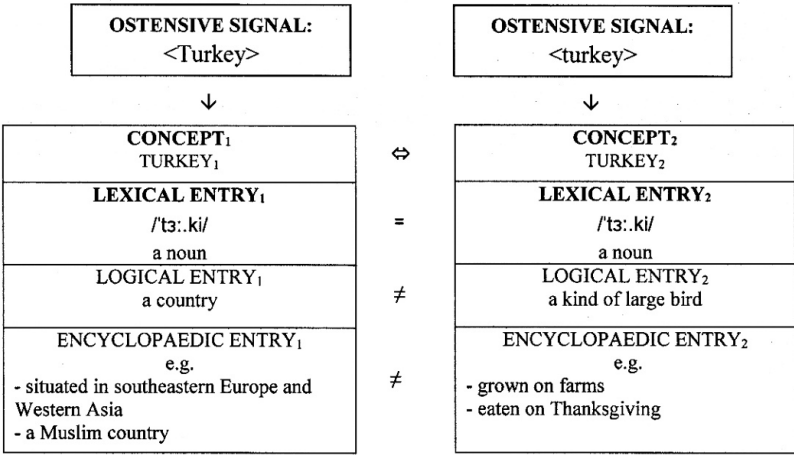


Figure 1. The pairing concepts of a horizontal homonymic pun “Turkey and turkey”

‘Turkey’ (a country) and ‘turkey’ (a kind of large bird). These types of words are also called ‘capitonyms’—words with identical spellings except for a difference in the capitalization, but with different meanings.

Figure 2 illustrates a homophonic pun. In these kinds of puns, only the phonetic forms of their linguistic counterparts are similar, whereas their spellings are different. Given that they are two different words, their logical and encyclopedic entries are also different. In a horizontal homophonic pun, the reader will see both forms of identical sound. In contrast, when the reader reads a vertical homophonic pun, she sees only one form, while its counterpart is not linguistically represented in the source text. This is also a good example of how the author was aware of the importance of encyclopedic knowledge. The addition of encyclopedic knowledge makes it easier for young readers to understand the puns. For example, “...human beans from Wales

is tasting very whooshey of fish. There is something very fishy about Wales.”

Figure 3 below illustrates a vertical paronymic pun, which has been used throughout *The BFG*. In the book, the Big Friendly Giant or the BFG uses the word ‘human beans’ to mean ‘human beings’. The pronunciations of these two words are quite similar.

RESULTS

This section presents the results of the analysis of the translation strategies employed in translating the English puns in *The BFG*, a children’s book by Roald Dahl, into Thai. The strategies were also discussed within the relevance-theoretic framework.

A comparative analysis of the 27 source language puns and their target language versions was conducted to identify the translation strategies employed by a professional Thai translator in translating the puns in *The BFG* into Thai. In the analysis,

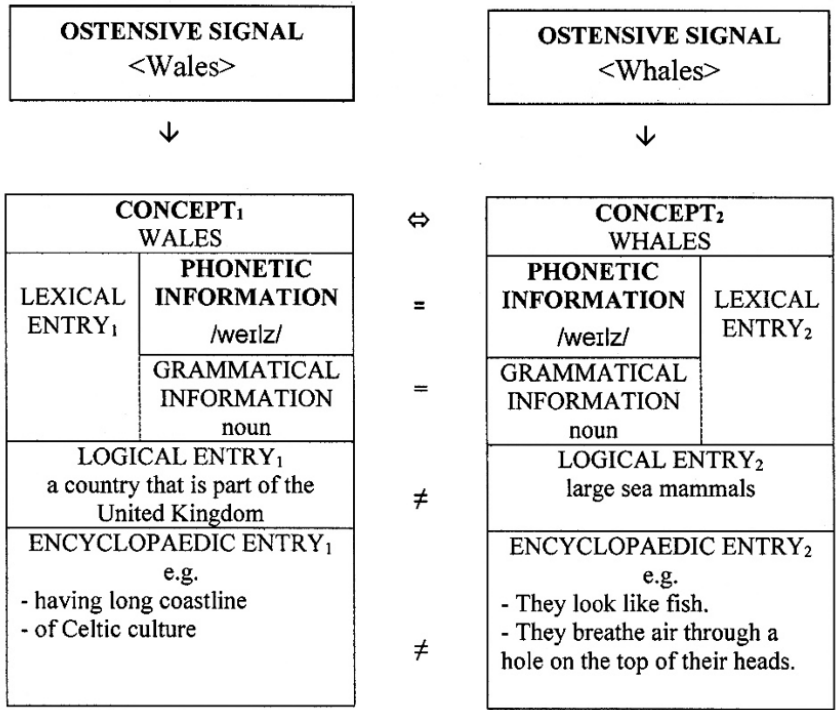


Figure 2. The pairing concepts of a horizontal homophonic pun “Wales and whales”

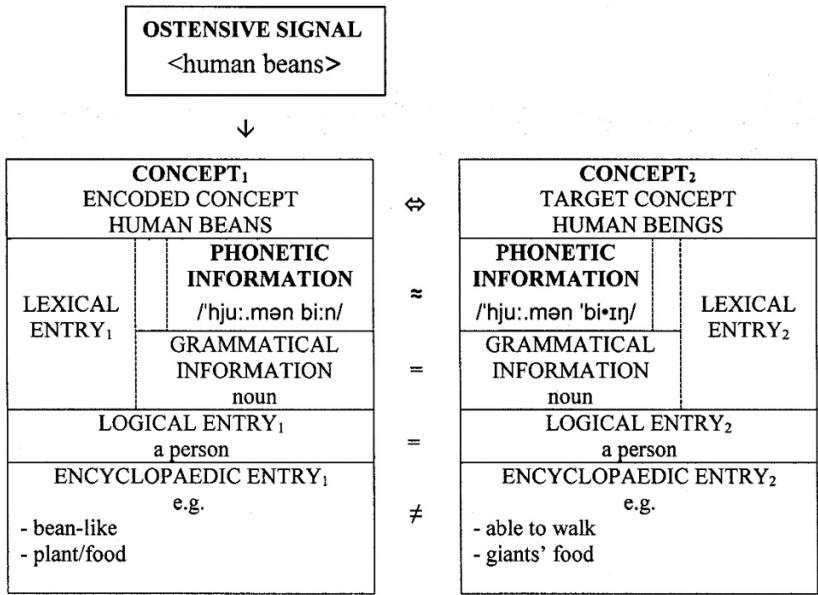


Figure 3. The pairing concepts of a vertical paronymic pun “human beans”

translations were used as “evidence of a transaction, a means of retracing the pathways of the translator’s decision-making procedures” (Hatim & Mason, 1990).

The results revealed that in translating the English puns into Thai, the translator resorted to three strategies. As shown in Table 2, the translation strategies adopted rendered the SL pun as non-pun (PUN → NON-PUN, 62.96%), reproduction of the SL pun (PUN ST = PUN TT, 25.93%), or substitution of the related rhetorical device for the SL pun (PUN → RELATED RHETORICAL DEVICE (11.11%).

The findings indicate that the translator was aware of the puns in the SL text. Where possible, she attempted to preserve them with the strategy of PUN ST = PUN TT, namely, she reproduced the SL pun through transliteration (7 instances). Occasionally, the translator compensated for the loss of puns by employing “punoids” (3 instances), which is the term coined by Delabastita (1993) referring to wordplay-related rhetorical devices used to recreate

textual effect such as repetition, assonance, alliteration, rhyme, irony and allusion. This suggests that the translator realized the importance of the SL puns, but presumably, she was ruled by the code model of translation, as she tended to preserve the equivalence at the lexico-syntactic level, which resulted in the loss of punning effect. It was found that out of 27 instances, 17 instances or over half of the corpus were translated as a non-pun text. This finding reveals that the translator failed to observe the principle of relevance. Thus, most of the translation cannot capture the distinctive use of the original puns.

Presented in the following are the illustrations of some examples of the strategies employed by the Thai translator from the perspective of relevance theory.

Pun → Non-Pun

It is important to note that ‘translation’, from the perspective of relevance theory, is a secondary communication across languages, where the ‘direct translation’ of linguistic and semantic representations do not necessarily yield the stylistic effects

Table 2

Distribution of translation strategies employed by the Thai professional translator in rendering the English puns into Thai

Strategy	Frequency	Percentage
PUN → NON-PUN	17	62.96
PUN ST = PUN TT	7	25.93
PUN → RELATED RHETORICAL DEVICE	3	11.11
TOTAL	27	100

of the original literary text. In addition, translations which are faithful to the original text in terms of form and content do not always preserve the original distinguishing features. When considering the case of *The BFG*, it is apparent that puns are employed intentionally, and they make a distinguishing element in the book. This is the relevant aspect translators should preserve in order to achieve ‘interpretive resemblance’. Nonetheless, the analysis reveals that the translator tended to opt for the strategy of PUN → NON-PUN, rendering the SL pun as non-pun text as seen by 17 out of 27 instances being translated as non-pun text.

Figure 4 shows the translations of a homonymic pun ‘Turkey’ as ‘ตุรกี’ /turakii/, a country, and ‘turkey’ as ‘ไก่งวง’ /kàynuan/. Thus, in the translated text, the play with similar sounds and spellings of two different concepts is missing. Consequently, the reader will not receive the punning effect intended by the author.

In Thai, ‘ตุรกี’ /turakii/ is not a homonym; however, in this context, the

name of the country should be preserved because throughout Chapter 5 of *The BFG*, the giant and Sophie are talking about the tastes of human beings in different parts of the world.

To keep the country name while preserving the punning effect, a translator may resort to another punning mechanism. The suggested translation shows how the punning effect can be saved by adding the onomatopoeia ‘กะเตี๊ยกกะตัก’, which creates a horizontal homophonic pun ‘เติร์ก’ /tǔók/ (Turk) and ‘เติ้ก’ /tǔók/ (onomatopoeia). The clucking sound ‘กะเตี๊ยกกะตัก’ /katǔókkatáak/ not only enhances the playful mood of the character but also suits young readers.

Pun → Related Rhetorical Device

By employing this compensatory strategy, translators may replace the source text (ST) pun with other rhetorical devices such as alliteration, assonance, onomatopoeia, etc. to reproduce the effect of the ST pun. The excerpt from *The BFG*

Source Text	(‘Bonecrunching Giant says Turks is tasting oh ever so much juicier and more scrumdiddlyumptious! Bonecruncher says Turkish human beans has a glamourly flavour.) He says Turks from Turkey is tasting of turkey .’
Target Text	“ชาวเติร์กจากตุรกีอร่อยเหมือนไก่งวง” /chaaw tǔók cà:k turakii aaròoj mǎa:n kàynuan/ (Back translation: The Turks from Turkey are as delicious as turkeys.)
Suggested Translation	“ชาวเติร์กจากตุรกีอร่อยเหมือนไก่งวงกะเตี๊ยกกะตัก” /chaaw tǔók cà:k turakii aaròoj mǎa:n kàynuankatǔókkatáak/ (Back translation: The Turks from Turkey are as delicious as clucking turkeys.)

Figure 4. the translations of a homonymic pun ‘Turkey’ as ‘ตุรกี’ /turakii/, a country, and ‘turkey’ as ‘ไก่งวง’ /kàynuan/.

(p. 38) below illustrates a homophonic pun playing with the English morphological structure.

“You is making me sad,” the BFG said, rubbing his eyes.

“Don’t be sad,” Sophie said. “No one is going to be worrying too much about me. That place you took me from was the village orphanage. We are all orphans in there.”

“You is **a norphan?**”

“Yes.”

The ostensive signal and its pair concept have the same pronunciations. Since in Thai there is no equivalence, the translator compensated for this loss by playing with the vowel sound instead. ‘เด็กกำพร้า’ /dèkkamphráa/ (an orphan) was changed to ‘เด็กกำเพรี่ย’ /dèkkamphría/ (meaningless but guessable from context as ‘an orphan’) while with the same beginning consonant sound. Here, the change is acceptable given that BFG is a giant who always uses unusual language.

Pun ST = Pun TT

From the analysis, the translator resorted to the strategy of PUN ST = PUN TT for seven instances, all by means of transliteration. This is in accordance with Delabastita’s (1996) observation that interlingual borrowings common to both the target and source languages enhance the translatability of puns. Although English and Thai are not historically related, there are numerous English loan words in the Thai language. Therefore, translators can replace the English puns when there are loan words available. In addition, in the cases of the

SL puns that are proper names e.g., Dane, Jersey, and Panama, the translator chose to transfer them into Thai via transliteration.

From the relevance-theoretic point of view, the use of this strategy to render puns in Dahl’s writing style yields a high degree of interpretive resemblance and requires less processing effort on the reader’s side. However, translators may resort to editorial means by adding necessary cultural information to decrease the effort the readers have to expend. For instance, to help the readers, especially children, comprehend foreign, usually culture-bound, concepts, the translator clarified the borrowed words by adding explanation, either a generic word or short explanation. For instance, ‘Jersey’ was rendered as “เสื้อเจอร์ซีย์” /sǔa cǎosǐi/, where a generic word “เสื้อ” /sǔa/ (top) is added, and ‘Wellington’ was explained as “เกือกบูตยางที่เรียกว่า เกือกเวลลิงตัน” /kǎakbúutyaan thîi riak waâ kǎakwenlǐntân/, that is, rubber boots called “Wellington boots”. Again, adding extraneous information must be done with care or it will increase the readers’ effort in processing new information.

DISCUSSION

From the relevance theoretic perspective, failure to observe the principle of relevance causes the loss of cognitive effects in the translation. Consequently, the reader will not obtain the expected effects. Furthermore, as the target text loses the playful flavor presented in the original text, the author’s intention and style are thus distorted. In many cases, the change in the author’s

intention possibly requires more unnecessary effort in interpretation, which is not in line with the aim for optimal relevance.

As previously illustrated, Roald Dahl's intention to use puns as language play is clearly reflected in *The BFG*. So as to make the communication between the author and target language readers successful, a translator must make the author's intention manifest to the target language readers through a careful and thoughtful translation. That is, she has to try her best to render those puns into the target text. Lefevere (1992) maintained that in the case that puns were the important stylistic feature of the source text, it was recommended that the translator kept the number of puns in the source text and translate them roughly the same.

Several studies (e.g., Huang, 2011; Korhonen, 2008; Yus, 2012; Zatlin, 2005) also suggested that puns must be rendered as puns in the target language. Considering the principle of relevance, an attempt to preserve a pun in the translation reveals that the translator is aware of the cognitive effects of the ST pun, and after cogitating that the linguistic alteration will offer satisfying effect and be worth the reader's processing effort, she expends her effort on recreating the ST pun. Because this strategy is in accordance with the principle of relevance, it is the most recommended strategy.

Translation is a form of human communication, which according to the Cognitive Principle is ruled by human cognition. As in the translation of puns, the ideal equivalence rarely exists due to

linguistic differences. Preserving both the original phonological and semantic features seems to be an impossible mission, except between the historically related languages. The translator inevitably has to decide which aspects to keep and which to discard. However, this problem can be overcome when the translator realizes that in the case of puns, it is the effect that is most important and thus cannot be lost. With this in mind, she will try to transfer the effect into the target text as intended in the source text. This is what is called 'interpretive resemblance' in the relevance-theoretic term. The strategy the translator chooses is the one that yields optimal relevance, namely, it requires the least effort from the target readers. By achieving 'interpretive resemblance', the translator has more freedom to recreate the puns in the target language and culture.

Preserving the punning effects in the target language rather than trying to decode and encode linguistic forms of the pun is encouraged. This is consistent with the suggestion of Nikolajeva (1996), an eminent children's literature translator and an expert in children's literature. She noted that a good translation should arouse in the readers of the target text the same feelings and associations experienced by the young readers of the source text. In this case, the translation is not expected to contain precise accuracy and closeness to the original. To make the translation appropriate and comprehensible for the child readers, the adjustment of language to their level of comprehension and reading ability

is encouraged (Shavit, 1981). Jakobson (1959/2004) also contended that when it came to the translation of puns, which were considered untranslatable, only creative transposition was possible. Masakhwe (2014) similarly suggested translators took advantage, where possible, to retain, maintain and compensate wordplay to avoid its loss and purpose in the original text in order to bring out the equivalence effect.

While the translation of puns can rarely be achieved with the literal translation, transformation is recommended as what to be transferred is not the words but the punning effect. Even though the original semantic meaning is lost, the punning effect can be recreated. Changes are acceptable provided the punning effects can be preserved. In some cases, recreation of a TL pun is more preferable to help the reader retrieve the punning effect with lesser effort. Srničková (2014) posited that when translating a nonsense literary text, where double meanings of a pun had its place and purpose, a translator should preserve both of these meanings, if not fully, then at least partially. The translator should not ignore the fact that there was a pun in the source text and translated literally. In this situation, alterations in the context might be necessary to preserve the pun.

Hence, in this article, I suggest that the translator choose the strategy based on interpretive resemblance by recreating or adjusting the TL contexts to preserve the cognitive effects intended by the author. Yus (2012) also advocated the recreation of a target language pun. According to

him, preservation of the cognitive effects is more important than being faithful to the SL content; therefore, alterations to the target text are acceptable. In translation, it is a common phenomenon that the codes and structures must be changed from SL to TL. The semantic content is inevitably changed accordingly.

The corpus used in this present study was taken from the work of only one author. Therefore, I recommend further studies on the translation of puns in children's literature based on the relevance-theoretic framework of a larger corpus of texts and between other languages to provide a broader picture of how pun translation is achieved in other children's literature and in different languages. Additionally, studies should be conducted on how child readers of the target language text perceive the translation and if they receive similar effects as the child readers of the source language text.

Furthermore, a review of the related literature shows that the translation of puns in Thailand has been understudied. Therefore, there are research questions that still need to be explored. For instance, more research should be conducted to examine the translation of puns in wider genres other than literary texts.

CONCLUSION

Apparently, the findings indicate that relevance theory can efficiently assist translators throughout the process of pun translation, consistent with previous studies (e.g., Pérez, 2014, 2017; Jing, 2010; Khiawmaneewong, 2010; Yus, 2012).

Again, in this present study, relevance theory has proven to be an effective approach to the translation of puns from English into Thai, as it practically guides translators through a translation process. However, it should be noted that in a communication, there is more than one party involved, and there are some uncontrollable factors influencing the translation of puns. Lathey (2016) affirmed that the translation of puns in children's literature "requires a high degree of linguistic creativity on the part of the translator." Time pressure may also affect the translator's eagerness to recreate the pun in the target language. In addition, translators working under particular publishers might be forced to follow certain translation policies.

Moreover, the target language readers' linguistic ability, encyclopedic knowledge, and familiarity with particular interpretations are also crucial factors influencing the derivation of the interpretations of the pun. Lukeš (2014) contended that recognition of puns requires a lot of effort from the reader, and "it is a matter of experience, knowledge of the given language and imagination to understand what message the author of a pun wanted to convey."

Despite all these uncontrollable factors, it can be concluded that the relevance-based approach efficiently accounts for the translation process of puns in children's literature from English to Thai. It enables translators to understand the source language pun and allows them to adjust the target language context in order to achieve interpretive resemblance. The approach

provides the translators with practical tools for dealing with pun translation.

NOTE

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Students' Perception of WhatsApp as an Effective Medium for Enhancing Listening Skill in Foreign Language Learning

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ABSTRACT

WhatsApp is a popular social network application which is used for social communication and as a learning platform. The purpose of this study is to investigate whether university students learning Mandarin as a foreign language consider WhatsApp as a useful medium that enhances and/or improves their listening skill. This is a pilot study which was carried out at the Kedah branch of Universiti Teknologi MARA (UiTM), Malaysia during the September 2017-January 2018 semester. Convenience sample was used for this study. There were only 38 undergraduate students who were learning Introductory Mandarin II during that semester. As such, all the students were invited to participate in the study. The students downloaded a series of Mandarin learning podcasts through WhatsApp throughout the study semester. At the end of the semester, a survey was administered to the students. The result shows that the students believed WhatsApp can be utilized as a useful medium for developing listening proficiency in Mandarin. The result implicates

that instructors should be encouraged to use WhatsApp as a listening tool to promote more listening exercises. It is also suggested that future research should focus on the effectiveness of WhatsApp on students' listening proficiency.

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INTRODUCTION

The rapid development of the Information Communication Technology has revolutionized the educational world. The educators today are not talking about the shift from teacher-centred to student-centred learning anymore. They are now emphasizing the idea that student-centred approach should be in tandem with a blended approach that integrates technology into the teaching and learning methodology. This recent development has resulted in a new pedagogical novelty: podcasting.

The innovations in podcasting and the advancements in mobile and portable technologies including smart phones and other media players have made possible a new way of learning which is different from the traditional forms of classroom and distance education (Song & Kidd, 2008). Podcasting has been used to assist and enhance access to learning materials since 2005 throughout the world (Oloruntoba, 2006). This includes those teaching second and foreign languages. However, all of the podcasts were delivered through designated websites.

For this study, instead of delivering podcasts through a website, the Mandarin learning podcasts were delivered through a social media messenger, WhatsApp. Responses of students especially on their views towards the delivering of podcasts through WhatsApp were obtained. Although the samples in the study involved Malay students from Malaysia, the findings can be used as a comparison to the findings of similar studies which have been done or

will be carried out in the near future and will certainly fill the research gap with some additional information which may benefit foreign language teaching.

This study was carried out at the Kedah branch of Universiti Teknologi MARA (UiTM), Malaysia during the September 2017 - January 2018 semester. The university in which this study was carried out only caters for Malaysian indigenous students. The university also requires its undergraduates to study a foreign language as an elective course for a period of three semesters. Students learn a foreign language two hours a week for a duration of 14 weeks in each semester. Mandarin is one of the most popular foreign languages among the students. As the allotted teaching and learning time is merely two hours per week, lecturers generally focus on imparting the contents in as little time as possible. This has led to the sidelining of listening and speaking skills.

In the world today, almost all students have a smart phone, or have access to one (Beger & Sinha, 2012 cited in Kumar et al., 2016; Uys et al., 2012 cited in Kumar et al., 2016) also claimed that undergraduates spent a significant amount of time on social networking sites. The university in this study allows students to bring along their handphone when attending lectures. The campus has Internet and Wifi coverage as well. Furthermore, the use of social messaging applications is very common in Malaysia's university campuses. This shows that utilizing social media application as a learning tool is not impossible.

As listening skill has been considered the receptive skill which is the most common communication activity in daily life (Prasetyo et al., 2014), instructors have continuously striven to find ways to overcome the limited teaching time in improving students' communication skills especially listening skill. Previous studies have utilized WhatsApp to improve reading, speaking and writing skills (Andújar-vaca & Cruz-Martínez, 2017; Nanan, 2017; Plana et al., 2016; Salem, 2013), but there are no known research on using the application to improve listening skill. Thus, this novel study was carried out using podcast-based learning through WhatsApp to improve listening skill. In this paper, we discuss our findings pertaining to the views of the students regarding the use of WhatsApp as a useful medium for developing listening proficiency. It is hoped that the results of this study will serve as an informative reference for further development of podcast-based learning.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Podcast is a tool that is used in Web2.0 (Taylor & Clark, 2010). It is a series of audio and/or video files that can be uploaded on designated websites, and users can access and download these podcasts onto their personal computers, mobile phones, or other portable devices. Podcasts are usually updated on a regular basis and distributed in "push and pull" mode or via audio/video files feeds - Real Simple Syndication (RSS) (Barlow, 2008).

According to Côté and Allahar (2010), podcast is a good tool that can be used to reinforce students' learning. Students can download and utilize the podcasts at anytime and anywhere. As a teaching tool, podcast allows teachers to provide the learning materials through audio/video files that students can play on their portable and mobile devices.

The use of podcast has also attracted the attention of second and foreign language instructors. Podcasts have been adopted in their language learning classrooms to promote better language skills, such as pronunciation (Ducate & Lomicka, 2009), oral and aural skills (Abdous et al., 2009; Chan et al., 2011) and listening (O'Bryan & Hegelheimer, 2007; Tan et al., 2013). Although these projects have generally met with positive reactions, the podcasts did not reach the users as quickly as possible. This happens if the students do not subscribe to RSS feeds or they did not follow the subscription instructions correctly. The users, therefore, have to access the website then download the podcast onto their devices. With the rapid development of Internet and mobile technologies, we believe that there are other mediums such as WhatsApp which are able to deliver podcasts to the users more quickly, without distribution in "push and pull" mode or via RSS feed.

WhatsApp is one of the commonly used social network applications especially for social communication. It was incorporated in 2009 (Wikipedia.com), emerging a few years later than podcast. It is a cross-

platform instant messaging application for smartphones. It enables users, both individuals and groups to send and receive location information, images, video, audio and text messages in real-time at no cost. Given the availability of WhatsApp across multiple mobile platforms, it provides educators with an excellent opportunity to adopt it for educational usage. In second/foreign language teaching and learning, WhatsApp was used to improve oral skills (Andújar-vaca & Cruz-Martínez, 2017; Nanan, 2017), reading (Plana et al., 2016), and writing (Salem, 2013). All the aforementioned studies reported significant improvement in results except Salem's study which showed contradicting result. Obviously, WhatsApp is not only used for social communication, but is also suitable as a learning platform. Since WhatsApp is a relatively new technology, further investigations to explore the effectiveness of its application in language teaching and learning should be conducted.

METHODS

Participants

Convenience sample was used for this study. There were only 38 undergraduate students who were learning Introductory Mandarin II at the Kedah branch of Universiti Teknologi MARA (UiTM) during the September 2017-January 2018 semester. As a quantitative survey study exploring students' general view of using WhatsApp to deliver podcasts was to be carried out, all the students were invited to participate in the study.

UiTM is a university which only caters for indigenous students in Malaysia. The students in this university are required to learn a foreign language as a compulsory elective to meet the university's foreign language requirement. Besides Mandarin, Arabic, French, German, Italian, Korean, and Japanese are offered to the students. The assessments of the foreign language course are the same for every language which include role play, simulation, listening and writing tests. The Mandarin course consists of three levels (Levels One, Two and Three). Each level consumes two hours per week per semester. The students learn Mandarin through "Hanyu Pinyin" (Romanised Chinese) but not Chinese characters. They learn very limited Chinese characters at each level.

During the study, only one class of 38 students were learning Introductory Mandarin II in UiTM Kedah branch. They were chosen as participants as they had experienced listening to Mandarin podcasts through a designated website (<http://uitmkedahbmd401.pbworks.com/>) while they were studying Introductory Mandarin I in the previous semester. Before studying in the university, the students had learnt English in school as a second language for twelve years. English is the medium of instruction of the university.

Instrument and Data Analysis

For this study, the researchers designed audio Mandarin podcasts with contents based on the syllabus. The podcast series included new vocabulary and phrases, short

dialogues, and listening exercises. The new vocabulary and phrases were taken from the syllabus word and phrases list, the short dialogues were taken from the text book, and the listening exercises were prepared by the researchers and the instructor who recorded all the contents into audio files as podcasts. Thus, 12 podcasts were developed and were released from time to time throughout the semester via the WhatsApp group of the students. Each podcast started with a short snippet of Chinese traditional music which was then followed by the content which lasted between five to seven minutes. The podcast concluded with a short snippet of Chinese traditional music as well. The students can listen to the podcasts through WhatsApp at any time and at any place at their convenience. Indirectly, mobile learning was promoted.

The instrument used in this survey was a questionnaire that consisted of three sections. Section A solicited demographic information of the students. The demographic information collected were gender, age and race. Section B comprised items regarding the students' view on using WhatsApp as their Mandarin podcast medium. Items in section B which used a 5-point Likert scale of "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree", had a moderate Cronbach alpha score of 0.60, and was developed by the authors based on the questionnaire on the perception of students regarding accessing Mandarin podcast through a designated website (Tan et al., 2013). There were 10 items in total whereby 4 of the items carried negative descriptions (see Appendix A).

The questionnaire had undergone expert judgement to determine the content validity of the questionnaire. The questionnaire was checked by two Mandarin lecturers from another branch campus. They were asked to carefully review the items in the questionnaire. Any ambiguity or unsuitable content was subsequently corrected. Section C consisted of three structured items (1. Do you have WhatsApp in your handphone? A: Yes, B: No; 2. How do you want to practise your listening? A: Podcast, B: CD attached in the text book; 3. Which medium do you prefer to use for listening to your podcasts? A: Website, B: WhatsApp), and an open-ended item (Did WhatsApp assist you in improving your listening in Mandarin? Why do you say so?). Section C was included to gain more explanations to the quantitative data. The questionnaire was administered to the 38 students one week after their listening test.

For the analysis of the demographic data, frequency and percentages were used; whereas for the description of items in the questionnaire, mean scores, frequency, percentages and standard deviation of descriptive statistics, and sample errors of means of inferential statistics were employed to describe the students' perception of using WhatsApp as a medium for Mandarin podcasts.

As for the structured items and open-ended item in section C, the students' answers and/or views were analysed through persistent reading and rereading of the transcripts, a method suggested by Ary et al. (2006). The answers and/or views

were categorized into emerging themes and were cited and identified by the students' respective codes. These qualitative data were used to support and give meaning to the quantitative data analysis, and for systematic analysis and presentation, each student was coded S1, S2, S3...S38, respectively.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The findings are presented in three sections. First, the demographic data are presented followed by the discussions on whether WhatsApp can function as a medium for Mandarin podcasts that facilitate listening proficiency in Mandarin. Lastly is the discussion about the findings. Three themes emerged from the qualitative data analysis: (1) acceptance of WhatsApp as the medium of Mandarin podcasts; (2) improvement in language skills; and (3) mobility of WhatsApp. These themes are discussed accordingly in the sub-sections.

Demographic Data

During the study duration, the Introductory Mandarin II course was offered to only one class. The entire class with 38 students participated in the study of which 35 (92.1%) were female and 3 were male (7.9%). The data did not represent the gender distribution in this university which was around 70% female and around 30% for male. However, it shows that Mandarin is gaining popularity mostly among female students. Most of the male students prefer other foreign languages such as Arabic. All these 38 students were Malays aged 21. Almost half of them (18, 47.3%) were students from the Faculty of

Information Management, 13 (34.2%) were from the Faculty of Administrative Science and Policy Studies, and the remaining 4 students (10.5%) were from the Faculty of Accounting.

Suitability of WhatsApp as a Podcast Medium

From the responses of the three structured items, it was found that among the 38 participants in this study, all of them (100%) had the WhatsApp messenger in their smart phone. None of them preferred practising listening using the CD attached in their textbook, but all participants opted to listen to the podcasts instead.

All participants (100%) also chose to listen to the podcasts through WhatsApp rather than from a website. These data show that WhatsApp is a popular messenger among the students: they prefer using it to listen to the podcasts compared to the CD, as "to play the CD, I need to use CD-ROM to play it, and the content is continuously playing until it ends" (S23).

Some of the reasons given by the participants who preferred listening to the podcasts through WhatsApp rather than a website are as follows:

(1) Using WhatsApp is more effective (S1, S33) as podcasts are delivered faster (S23)

(2) Using WhatsApp is easy (S14, S17) as it is unnecessary to download but just save/keep the podcasts in the phone/WhatsApp (S17, S30) and listen to them directly at anytime (S9, S30)

(3) Using WhatsApp means never missing the podcasts as I read my messages many times a day”(S2, S10, S34)

The result shows that WhatsApp not only functions as a social media, but it is also a suitable medium to deliver podcasts due to its user friendly functions.

Acceptance of WhatsApp as the Medium of Mandarin Podcasts

As shown in Table 1, items 1 and 2 are positive items; whereas items 3, 4, 9, and 10 are items with negative descriptions (see Appendix 1). Though the mean scores for items 1 and 2 did not reach 4 (3.97 and 3.95 respectively), the total percentage of students who agreed and strongly agreed exceeded 70% (71% and 73.7% respectively). The students in this study show strong acceptance for the use of WhatsApp as a medium of their Mandarin podcasts as 73.7% of the students liked listening to the podcasts through WhatsApp. It was found that 71% of the students listened to all the podcasts released by their lecturer.

In addition, all the mean scores for items 3, 4, 9 and 10 were below 2.52. The total percentage of students who agreed and strongly agreed was below 15.8% which shows that majority of the students disagreed with the negative descriptions. In other words, it reveals that majority of the students willingly listened to the podcasts through WhatsApp. They felt that it was not burdensome for them to listen to the podcasts through WhatsApp. Listening to podcasts via the application was not a waste of time, and neither was it in vain too.

Improvement in Language Skills

In terms of improving language skills, as shown in Table 2, the mean scores for all the 4 items reached 4.00 and the total percentage of students who agreed and strongly agreed exceeded 71% for all items. The students in this study expressed the view that WhatsApp was a useful podcast tool for practising listening in Mandarin. It was found that 86.8% believed that it could improve their listening skill (mean score = 4.11) while

Table 1

Students' acceptance of WhatsApp as medium for Mandarin podcast

Item	Strongly disagree		Disagree		Slightly agree		Agree		Strongly agree		M	SD	SE _x
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%			
1	-	-	1	2.6	10	26.3	16	42.1	11	28.9	3.97	0.82	0.13
2	2	5.3	8	21.1	8	21.1	18	47.4	10	26.3	3.95	0.84	0.14
3	5	13.2	16	42.1	11	28.9	4	10.5	2	5.3	2.52	1.03	0.17
4	11	28.9	20	52.6	5	13.2	1	2.6	1	2.6	1.97	0.88	0.14
9	11	28.9	16	42.1	9	23.7	2	5.3	2	5.3	2.11	1.01	0.17
10	12	31.6	18	47.4	6	15.8	1	2.6	1	2.6	1.97	0.91	0.15

Table 2

Students' view of WhatsApp as medium for Mandarin podcast in improving language skills

Item	Strongly disagree		Disagree		Slightly agree		Agree		Strongly agree		M	SD	SE _x
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%			
5	-	-	1	2.6	10	26.3	16	42.1	11	28.9	4.11	0.70	0.12
6	-	-	1	2.6	4	10.5	23	60.5	10	26.3	4.11	0.70	0.12
7	-	-	-	-	5	13.2	16	42.1	17	44.7	4.32	0.71	0.12
8	-	-	-	-	10	26.3	18	47.4	10	26.3	4.00	0.74	0.12

71% of the students agreed that listening to podcasts through WhatsApp helped them to remember the words and phrases better (mean score = 4.11). Besides improving listening skill, 73.7% of the students also attested that listening to podcasts through WhatsApp improved their speaking skill (mean score = 4.00) too. Moreover, 86.8% of the students agreed that doing so helped them to improve their pronunciation (mean score = 4.32).

From the qualitative data gathered, it was found that students liked listening to podcasts via WhatsApp as it “can increase my Mandarin skills” (S21). This view is supported by other students, S4, S20, S27 and S29, for instance, stated that “Mandarin podcast help me to learn Mandarin better”, and “to improve my Mandarin”. S19 further explained how the podcasts could improve language skills: “I listen repeatedly and pronounce repeatedly the new words, I am sure my pronunciation is quite OK with the practice”.

Besides the participants mentioned above, many other students also revealed in the open-ended item how listening to

podcasts through WhatsApp benefited them in terms of improving their language skills:

- (1) Help me a lot to practise (S8)
- (2) Help me to memorise (S24)
- (3) Help me to remember the meaning of the word (S18)
- (4) I understand better because I hear it repeatedly at any time (S22)
- (5) Help me to listen to the pronunciation clearly (S31)
- (6) Help me to improve pronunciation and do exercises (S11)
- (7) Can revise pronunciation at any time (S16)
- (8) Have more listening exercises (S6)

Mobility of WhatsApp

From the qualitative data gathered, it was found that students not only revealed how the Mandarin podcasts through WhatsApp improved their language skills, but they also reiterated in the open-ended item that the mobility of WhatsApp enabled them to practise listening at any time (S9, S25), and at any place (S19). In addition, they repeatedly practised pronunciation anywhere and anytime too (S8, 16, S22).

As S22 stated, “I understand better because I repeat it at any time”. In short, one of the reasons that students like to listen to Mandarin, and practise their listening skill is due to the mobility of WhatsApp.

As mentioned earlier, the Mandarin class is taught for only two hours per week, so specific listening practices are frequently neglected. Delivering the lesson content is always the main concern of the instructors. Generally, listening practices take place mainly during reading and speaking activities in the classroom such as listening to the instructor reading aloud, participating in reading drills, carrying out speaking practices among students and listening to the CD after class. Thus, the lack of listening practices have resulted in poor scores in the listening test of some of students.

Although podcasts can be delivered through a designated website, it is easier and more convenient to use WhatsApp for the instructor and students. The instructor does not need to look for or design a website for the purpose. The students also do not need to create a username and password to log in to the website. In addition, if the students do not subscribe to the RSS feed, or do not follow the subscription instructions correctly, they will not get the podcast immediately once it is uploaded by the instructor. Moreover, some students may also forget to enter the website to “pull” the podcasts. As a result, it may reduce the opportunity for listening practices.

On the contrary, by using WhatsApp, it can avoid all the problems. The instructor

just needs to record the podcasts directly on the phone and then uploads them to the WhatsApp group. As students will be notified automatically, they can easily practise listening with just a touch of their finger. In this way, students are encouraged to improve their listening skills via listening practices and exercises found in the podcasts.

Discussion

The findings of this study show that most of the students (73.7%) liked to use WhatsApp for listening practice, and 71% of the students listened to all the podcasts released by their lecturer. They reported that WhatsApp was a suitable, effective, fast and easy to use medium to deliver the podcasts to them. More importantly, they believed that WhatsApp offered them opportunities for listening improvement. This finding is similar to the findings of other recent studies which also aimed to gauge the perception of learners in using WhatsApp for learning second or foreign languages (e.g. Hamad, 2017; Kumar et al., 2016; Wijaya, 2018; Yavuz, 2016). Majority of the students of all these previous studies showed positive response in using WhatsApp. They believed that they would be able to improve their listening skill through WhatsApp.

However, some students did not respond positively to the use of WhatsApp. For this study, 26.3% - 29.0% of students indicated that they disagreed that they liked using WhatsApp for listening practices. The reasons why these students did not like to use WhatsApp for listening practices remain unknown as it was not the focus

of the study and the previous studies. It may be due to the reasons such as they lack motivation and enthusiasm in learning the target language. This is because they had to learn the language to fulfil their course requirement, and they did not care much whether they could listen/performance well in the language. Perhaps they viewed listening practice via WhatsApp as extra workload which burdened them. This to enhance the students' listening skill, besides employing any medium, the students' willingness, readiness, attitude and motivation are important aspects needed to be strengthened too. The lack of students' commitment to effective participation is the greatest challenge for the effective use of WhatsApp for learning purposes.

CONCLUSION

WhatsApp for listening practices helps to overcome the time constraints of the traditional classroom environment. In addition, students can listen to the podcasts as many times as they like, anywhere, anytime. Listening to drills, exercises and practices through podcasts via WhatsApp provides enrichment and remedial activities to the students. These will enhance especially those who always think that their pronunciation is poor, and their listening skill is weak. To ensure the students achieve these benefits, teachers need to carefully plan the podcasts/listening projects that utilise WhatsApp as the listening platform. They should have an outline and inform students regarding the objectives of the podcasts and the intended listening outcomes. Besides, teachers are

encouraged to create a mechanism to check whether their students actually listen to the podcasts via WhatsApp.

This study has some limitations. The first limitation is that this study focused on students from the Kedah branch of Universiti Teknologi MARA. The second is that this study only gauged the positive perception of students towards the application of WhatsApp as a listening medium.

As for the recommendations, it is suggested that future studies focus on the unwillingness of students in using WhatsApp as a listening medium, and also the correlation between using WhatsApp for listening and listening performance to show reliable proof regarding the effectiveness of using social media applications in teaching and learning.

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APPENDIX

Appendix A

Item	Description
1.	I listen to all the podcasts through our Whatsapp group.
2.	I like to listen to the podcast through our Whatsapp group.
3.	I force myself to listen to the podcast through our Whatsapp group.
4.	I feel that listening to the podcast through our Whatsapp group is burdensome.
5.	I think that listening to the podcast through our Whatsapp group helped me to remember the words and phrases better.
6.	I feel that listening to the podcast through our Whatsapp group helped improve my listening skill.
7.	I feel that listening to the podcast through our Whatsapp group helped improve my pronunciation.
8.	I feel that listening to the podcast through our Whatsapp group helped improve my speaking skill.
9.	I feel that listening to the podcast through our Whatsapp group is in vain as I still need to read the words, sentence patterns, and dialogues in the book.
10.	I feel that listening to the podcast through our Whatsapp group is wasting time as the lecturer will repeat it in class too.



The Efficacy of Spell Check Packages Specifically Designed for Second Language Learners of Spanish

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ABSTRACT

Generic spelling checkers (GSCs), such as the one included in Microsoft Word, might seem appropriate for second language (L2) learners of Spanish to correct their writing. However, previous applied linguistics researchers point out that these proof-readers are designed primarily for native writers; they automatically correct some mistakes or provide alternatives, while sometimes failing to detect L2 learners' errors. This study evaluates the efficacy of spell-check packages developed for L2 learners to overcome these limitations. Thirty compositions written by learners of Spanish as a Foreign Language (SFL) were randomly chosen from a corpus. Spelling mistakes in the compositions were analysed, categorised and inputted into three specially designed spell checkers. Their efficacy in detecting and providing appropriate feedback was compared with a GSC. The results suggest that, despite detecting more than 85% of the errors, all the platforms fail to give the appropriate alternative for one third of the spelling errors. Surprisingly, the GSC provided the right alternative more frequently (67%). Additionally, the feedback provided by the specialised spell checkers is limited to a list of potential alternatives. Future iterations of spell checkers should include an expanded database of frequent L2 spelling errors for comparison and feedback that is tailored to L2 learners of Spanish and teaches them how to avoid future mistakes.

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INTRODUCTION

Text editing software applications use grammar and spell checkers to detect and correct possible deviations from the correct usage of grammar and spelling in a written text. Spell checkers use a dictionary or a corpus as a reference to verify each word used in a given text (Mitton, 2010). They also use an algorithm to detect all possible inflections, derivations or morphological compositions of each word; such as those referring to plural, genre or verbal conjugations. If the words of the text are in the list of correct words, they are accepted. Otherwise, the software can either automatically correct errors while typing, or highlight them by proposing similar terms (Mitton, 2010; Peterson, 1980). To generate these lists of possible correct alternatives, spell checkers use what is known as “edit distance” (Damerau, 1964; Levenshtein, 1966). As explained in Navarro (2001), the edit distance is the number of deletions (**experience*), insertions (**expperience*), substitutions (**esperience*) or transpositions (**expereince*) necessary to convert the spelling of the incorrectly written word into the correct one (*experience*). These mechanisms rarely manage to detect all misspellings in a written text like in the case of homophones. They also commit false positives by pointing out errors that are neologisms, loan words, foreign words, or proper names. However, spell checkers are becoming more sophisticated by employing algorithms, which can even detect words that, although included in

the reference body, are erroneous in the context used (Golding & Roth, 1999). These algorithms are widely utilised by Generic Spell checkers (GSCs) in *Microsoft Word (MW)* or *Google*.

Generic Spell Checkers

While second language (L2) learners of Spanish could make use of GSCs to correct their written texts, there are certain disadvantages. These proof-readers are designed for native writers and therefore assume that most errors are typographical errors caused by slips and not by a lack of knowledge of spelling. Consequently, they conclude any error is due to a minor deviation from the correct spelling. When an error is detected, it is either auto-corrected or a list of alternative words that have a similar spelling or whose sequence of letters is like the word that was misspelled is suggested (Helfrich & Music, 2000). In a study where Japanese students attempt to spell the English word *library*; out of their guesses of **libelary*, **liberary*, **liburally*, **liburary*, **liveraly*, **liverary*, and **liverely*, only two cases (**liberary* and **liburary*) did the *MW* spell checker package feature the right word *library* as an alternative (Mitton & Okada, 2007).

If the correct word were among the alternatives, a native speaker would have no problem choosing the correct word from the list, but it would not be as intuitive for an L2 learner to choose the correct word (Lawley, 2015). For example, in a composition in

the CORANE corpus¹, an L2 learner of Spanish wrote **humanitaras* instead of the appropriate word in the context of his story: *humanitarias* (humanitarians). However, the first word suggested by the GSC of *Microsoft Word* was the subjunctive *humanizaras*, whereas the adjective *humanitarias* only appeared later in the list of suggestions. Heift and Rimrott (2008) demonstrated that these lists, which suggested several feasible options, often misled language learners. They found that students believed that the correct word was among the alternatives offered by the GSC even though this was not always the case. Additionally, most thought that the first word suggested from the list was always the correct one.

Another problem that language students face when using a spell checker designed for native writers is that these software tend to automatically correct some spelling mistakes. For example, if an L2 learner of Spanish writes **appropriado* - instead of *apropiado*, the word processor will remove the additional -p-, changing **appropriado* to *apropiado* automatically and so quickly that the student might not notice it. Therefore, GSCs are generally useful for those who are writing in their mother tongue, because they are not designed to teach but to facilitate and expedite the user's writing. But a Spanish language learner most likely does not write

**appropriado* because he has inadvertently double-tapped the -p- on the keyboard, as would happen to a majority of native writers (performance error), but because he really believes that it is written like this (competence error). Consequently, a correction like this, in which the incorrect spelling is replaced quickly by the correct one, could potentially eliminate any type of learning. As Lee (1997) suggested, "[a] student's major difficulty in error correction lies in their failure to detect errors rather than the lack of knowledge".

Other times, the GSC might not even detect the error. This is usually due to the possibility that the word written was not intended, but appears in the corpus or dictionary that the GSC uses to detect errors. For example, if an Arab² student of SFL writes *pilo* when he actually wanted to write *pelo* (hair), a conventional word processor would not indicate *pilo* as a misspelled word. Even though it is rarely used, *pilo* (kind of bush) is a word that exists in Spanish.

Rimrott and Heift (2005) conducted a pilot study that analysed the effectiveness of *Microsoft Word* GSC that took all potential disadvantages into consideration. They discovered that out of 374 misspellings

1 Corpus composed of materials written by SFL students in the Spanish Language and Culture Courses for Foreigners of the University of Alcalá (Mancera & Martínez, 2009). These students had different proficiency levels of Spanish ranging from A2 to C1 of the CEFR (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages).

2 Arab students of SFL often confuse sounds /e/ and /i/. In Arabic, most of the sounds are consonant. Vowels, in many cases, function as mere syllabic supports and are not pronounced the same in all situations. In Arabic, the sound /e/ exists but is an allophone of the phoneme /i/, hence its discrimination in Spanish is difficult for Arab students of Spanish as a Foreign Language (Benyaya, 2007; Reyes, 2009)

made by 34 British students of German, the *MW* spell checker was only able to correct 52% properly. In a follow up study, Rimrott and Heift (2008) confirmed their suspicion about the partial effectiveness of *MW* GSC as a correctional tool for language learners. This study expanded the sample size to 1027 errors made by 48 British students learning German and observed that the GSC of *MW* was only able to adequately correct 62% of these errors. They therefore concluded that GSCs might not be the most adequate learning tool for L2 learners and writers.

Spell checkers specifically designed for L2 learners of SFL

The studies and arguments mentioned above show the weaknesses GSCs have in detecting and correcting texts written by L2 learners. In response to these limitations, spell checkers specially designed for foreign language learners have been developed in recent years. They incorporate new tools to detect spelling errors that have their origin in misinterpretations of phonetics (**jappy / happy*), grammar (**goed / went*) or inference of the native language (**asociacion / association*). This is achieved by introducing lists of common errors and algorithms adapted to the errors that foreign language students often make (Rimrott & Heift, 2008).

Designed specifically for L2 learners of Spanish are *Spanishchecker* (<http://www.spanishchecker.com>), *Stilus* (<http://www.mystilus.com>), and *LanguageTool* (<https://www.languagetool.org>). All of them work like a GSC, but they do not

automatically correct errors. They also generate explicit feedback that might help the student understand the reason for the error so that the student may avoid it in the future.

Like GSCs, there are few studies that analyse the effectiveness of spell checkers designed specifically for second language learners. Burston in 1998 investigated the effectiveness of the *Antidote 98* spell checker specially designed for students of French. Burston (1998) found that, although this corrector was capable of correcting most of the errors in an effective way, it sometimes did not identify “some fairly obvious spelling errors”. Similarly, Holmes and Moras (1997) studied the efficacy of *-Le corrector 101-*, a spell checker designed for English L2 learners of French. They concluded that this spell checker would be more useful if “it was taught to anticipate some typical Anglophone errors” (Holmes & Moras, 1997). Based on the few studies on this subject, it seems that spell checkers designed specifically for students of a foreign language suffer from the same problems as GSCs when it comes to detecting and providing feedback. Moreover, spell checkers designed for learners of SFL are rare and their distribution in many cases is not free or universal. Consequently, most students of SFL continue to use GSCs to correct their spelling. It is therefore necessary to investigate the effectiveness of spell checkers specifically designed for SFL students and analyse their limitations to develop more precise and effective spell checkers in the future.

This Study

This study analyses the effectiveness of three different spell checkers (*SpanishChecker*, *Stilus*, and *LanguageTool*) designed specifically for SFL students and compares them with the GSC incorporated in *MW*. This study not only analyses their ability to detect spelling errors, but also the effectiveness and accuracy of the feedback the spell checkers generated in relation to the mistakes made by SFL learners. This study aims to answer the following Research Questions (RQ):

RQ1: How efficacious are the spell checkers specifically designed for SFL learners compared to a GSC in detecting spelling errors made by L2 learners of Spanish?

RQ2: How is the feedback provided by these spell checkers?

RQ2.1: Is the feedback limited to a list of potential alternatives?

RQ2.2: How accurate are the alternatives provided and in which position they appear in the list of suggestions compared with the one provided by the GSC?

MATERIALS AND METHODS

To analyse and evaluate in detail the reliability and usefulness of these spell checkers, thirty essays were chosen using blocked stratified randomisation (based on proficiency level) from the CORANE corpus (Mancera & Martinez, 2009), a corpus composed of 957 compositions written by L2 learners of Spanish (for further details see Footnote 1). Ten essays were written by L2 learners of Spanish with an A2 proficiency level according to the

CEFR and were native speakers of German, Austrian, Japanese, Korean, Portuguese, Urdu and Arabic; the next ten by students with a B1 proficiency level and were native speakers of English, German, French, Italian, Japanese and Korean; and the final ten were written by students with a B2 proficiency level and were native speakers of English, German, Swedish, Japanese, Portuguese and Italian.

These thirty essays were entered into the free versions of the following spell checkers: the GSC of *MW*, *SpanishChecker*, *Stilus*, and *LanguageTool*. The free versions were used because they are universal and, therefore, accessible to all SFL students. It was verified in a preliminary study that neither the effectiveness nor the quality of feedback improved with a subscription to the full versions.

Analysis

The compositions were analysed by highlighting and classifying the orthographic errors that were committed. As the purpose of this study was to investigate the effectiveness of spell checkers as a correctional tool for L2 learners of Spanish, a spelling error was defined based on the criteria used by spell checkers. They utilised the edit distance algorithm and then referred to a dictionary or a corpus to validate a word's spelling. Thus, a spelling error occurred if: a misspelling of any letter sequence occurred between two blank spaces, the word or sequence of letters did not appear in the dictionary of the Royal Spanish Academy (RAE, 2013), or if a word's frequency in the corpus of the Royal Spanish Academy (CREA) was very

low compared to the intended word despite its inclusion in the dictionary. Text editing software detect these errors as grammatical errors by using grammar checkers based on *n-grams*, which, unlike the tools and algorithms used in spelling filters, use the surrounding context to detect the error. For this reason, errors such as mismatch of gender and number, punctuation errors, and misspellings derived letter case were also not considered spelling errors. Common names written in the middle of a sentence with a capital letter were considered punctuation errors and, therefore, were not treated as spelling errors. However, proper names, such as names of cities or countries, written without a capital letter were considered spelling errors since they rarely appear in dictionaries or corpora not capitalised.

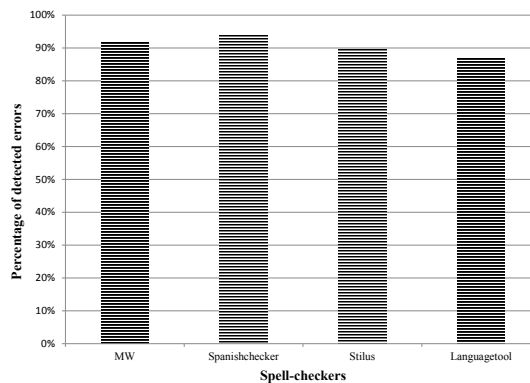
Once all the orthographic errors of the thirty selected texts were detected, the thirty essays were introduced to the different spell-check packages (*SpanishChecker*, *Stilus*, *LanguageTool* and *MW*). The percentage of errors that these spell checkers were able to detect was analysed, including false positives. If detected, the usefulness of the feedback that a corrector offered was evaluated based on these criteria:

- If the correct word was present or not in the drop-down list of possible alternatives
- If present, the position in which the word was found
- The quality of the feedback provided (if it was limited to offering a list of words or if it provided more information)

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Detection Rate of the Spell Checkers Specifically Designed for SFL Learners

The thirty compositions had a total of 4458 written words such as *supermercado* (supermarket) or *profesor* (professors), of which, 385 contained spelling errors (8.64%) like **supermerkado* or **proffesor*. As shown in Figure 1, the four spell checkers detected most of the spelling errors. *LanguageTool* detected the least errors (85% of the total) and *SpanishChecker* detected the most at 94%. However, the grammar checker of *SpanishChecker* classified many spelling errors as grammar errors and highlighted extensive sequences of words that included more words and errors. The GSC of *MW* had the second-best detection rate with 91.9%. *Stilus* and *LanguageTool* detected 89.6% and 87% of the spelling errors respectively. *Stilus* and *LanguageTool* detected fewer errors because they failed to detect errors in very frequent words. For example, the *Stilus* detection tool did not consider the lack of graphic accent in **despues* (after) as a spelling error and *LanguageTool* did not consider the word *mas* (but) to be a spelling mistake. The few words that were not detected by the spell checkers were mostly words that were very rare, but do appear in the dictionary of the RAE. For example, *pello* (thin sheepskin coat) versus the intended *pelo* (hair). Finally, most of the spell checkers did not detect problems with incorrect letter case in proper names such as **navidad* (Christmas) or **barcelona*.



Note: Quality of the feedback of the spell checkers specifically designed for SFL learners
 Figure 1. Percentage of spelling errors detected and highlighted by the spell checkers

Even though the spell checkers' error detection capacities were very high, their correction abilities were not, as the feedback given was not as effective. Unlike the GSC of *MW*, the three spell checkers specifically designed for SFL learners never auto-corrected any error and sometimes added some additional information to the list of potential alternatives. However, this information was limited to specific spelling errors and was often ambiguous.

SpanishChecker differentiates between spelling, grammatical, and punctuation errors by highlighting each differently. For each type of error, *SpanishChecker* offers different kinds of feedback. Regarding grammatical or punctuation errors, *SpanishChecker* offers explicit feedback explaining why certain *n-grams* are wrong, for instance, if words do not match gender or number. A report is displayed at the end where the user can see every written error detected with their corresponding feedback. This report includes a series of didactic resources for the SFL student to improve

their spelling, grammar or learn the rules of punctuation. However, *SpanishChecker* rarely offered an explanation for spelling errors and displayed a list of possible alternatives like the GSC of *MW*, although the list can be very broad (see Figure 2). The only case in this study in which this corrector offered some explanation in the feedback for a detected spelling error was in the case of *mas* (but). However, this feedback appeared in English, which was unhelpful for students of SFL that were not fluent (see Figure 2).

Stilus does not highlight any of the written errors while typing and but Moreover, it does not deactivate the Google proof-reader, so certain errors are auto-corrected and in other cases, it is Google's own spell checker which highlights errors and proposes alternatives. However, it displays a window with additional information in the word processor and offers a detail post-hoc report of the errors. In the report, written errors are highlighted in different colours to differentiate between spelling, grammatical

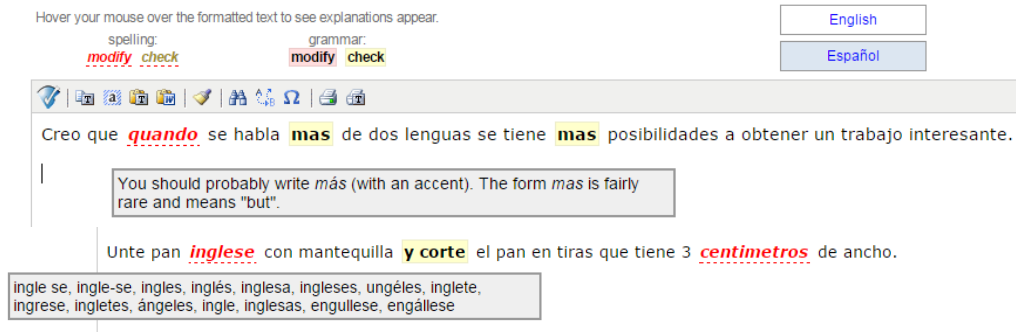


Figure 2. Example of the feedback offered by SpanishChecker

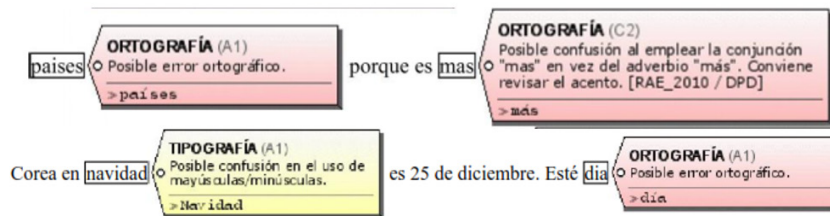


Figure 3. Example of the feedback offered by Stilus

or punctuation errors; and it generates a list of alternatives for spelling errors and explicit feedback for some grammatical and punctuation errors. The feedback in most cases for misspellings was limited to pointing out the existence of a “possible spelling error”. However, in the case of *mas* (but) and certain proper names that need the use of capital letters, these were classified as “typographical” and a more detailed explanation was offered (see Figure 3).

Finally, *LanguageTool* is an open source software that corrects spelling, grammar and style in different languages, including Spanish. When highlighting errors, it only distinguishes between spelling and grammar. In the case of spelling errors, this corrector only offers a vague “possible spelling error” message with a list of possible

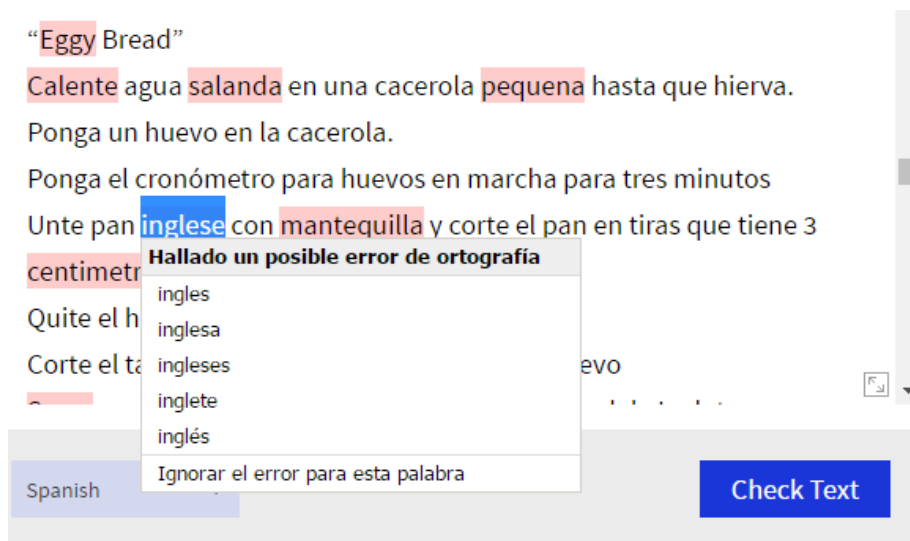
alternatives like the one offered by *MW* (see Figure 4). However, grammatical errors are always accompanied by fairly accurate and concise feedback that offers an explanation with examples of the proper use of the grammatical structure in question. In some cases, a link to the *Centro Virtual Cervantes*³ or to the *Diccionario Panhispánico de dudas* (RAE, 2005) to provide the user with more detailed information.

The accuracy of the lists of potential alternatives offered by the different spell checkers was analysed. Table 1 and Figure 5 shows the percentage of appropriate feedback that was given when the spelling error was detected, and if given, in which position does the correct version of the word appear

³Centro Virtual Cervantes: <https://cvc.cervantes.es/>

in the alternatives list. Once a spelling error was detected the GSC of *MW* failed to offer the correct alternative only 14.7% of the time and the correct word appeared in the first position in the list at a rate of 72.9%. In contrast, *Stilus* gave the incorrect feedback 24.3% of the time. This might be because *Stilus* rarely gave more than two alternatives, which resulted in low probabilities for the third position onwards. *SpanishChecker* offered the correct word more frequently than *Stilus* or *LanguageTool*, but this spell checker gave too many alternatives (usually more than ten). *SpanishChecker* had the highest percentage (7.10%) of times in which the correct word was found in the fifth or later position. Although there was a higher chance the correct word would be on the list, it is more likely that the SFL learners will become confused after being

given more alternatives, as their knowledge about the error they committed might not be so intuitive (Lawley, 2015). Findings of Rimrott and Heift (2008) indicated that most students thought that the correct alternative was always the first one. This was demonstrated when informant n° 067 made the error **inglese*. The first word that all the correctors suggested was *ingles* (groin). The correct and most common *inglés* (English), if it appeared, it only did so later in the lists. Although *LanguageTool* was better at detecting errors than *Stilus* (Figure 1), the former could cause greater confusion for SFL learners as just 66.3% of the time did the correct word appear first in the list versus 70.7% for *Stilus*. But in this respect, *SpanishChecker* turned out to be the riskiest, as only 64.6% of the time the correct word was not in the first position.



Note: Accuracy of the lists of suggestions

Figure 4. Example of the feedback offered by LanguageTool

Table 1

The Percentage that the correct word appears or not in the list of potential alternatives. And if it appears, the percentage of appearance for each position in the suggested list.

	Never	Position of the correct spelling in the list of alternatives					Σ (2 ^a , 3 ^a , 4 ^a y 5 ^a)
		1 ^a	2 ^a	3 ^a	4 ^a	5 ^a o +	
<i>MW</i>	14.7%	72.9%	5.65%	4.24%	1.69%	0.85%	12.4%
<i>Spanishchecker</i>	19.6%	64.6%	6.01%	1.64%	0.82%	7.10%	15.6%
<i>Stilus</i>	24.3%	70.7%	4.35%	0.29%	0.00%	0.29%	4.93%
<i>LanguageTool</i>	22.4%	66.3%	3.88%	2.09%	3.28%	2.09%	11.3%

Note: The percentages are estimated based on the number of errors detected by each spell checker and not by the total number of spelling errors of the 30 compositions

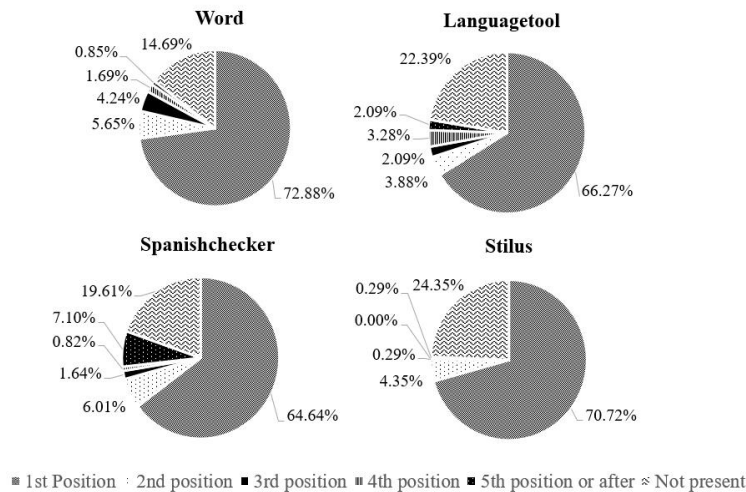


Figure 5. Performance of each spell checker-based accuracy and efficiency of feedback in terms of word position for all the spelling errors

Effectiveness of these spell checkers is defined in this study as their ability to detect spelling errors and the frequency of the correct word being present in the first position. Based on these conditions the GSC of *MW* performed the best at 67%. Among the spell checkers designed specifically for SFL students, the most effective in general terms, despite detecting the least errors, was

Stilus at 63.4% efficiency. *SpanishChecker* was 60.8% and *LanguageTool* was 57.7% effective (see Figure 6).

However, the reliability and effectiveness of all these spell checkers were compromised when faced with essays written by students of SFL with a more limited linguistic competence. For example, in a composition written by a beginner from

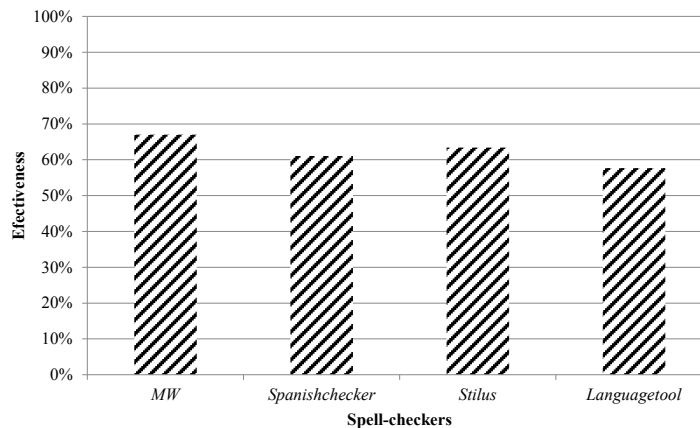


Figure 6. Overall effectiveness of the different spell checkers

Pakistan (participant 8), even though all the spell checkers (with the exception of *Stilus*) detected and highlighted all the errors committed by the student, they were unable to generate appropriate feedback for many of them: out of the 26 spelling errors found in this text, the right suggestion was only offered in first by the *MW* with nine errors (34.6%), *LanguageTool* and *Stilus* with seven errors (26.9%) and *SpanishChecker* with only five errors (19.2%).

Evaluation

This study compared the performance of the accessible and globally known GSC of *Microsoft Word* with three other spell checkers specifically designed for SFL students (*SpanishChecker*, *Stilus* and *LanguageTool*) in detecting and correcting spelling errors. It was found that they all had greater than 85% frequency of detection. The corrector that detected the most errors was *SpanishChecker* at 94%, but this high

percentage is attributed to the fact that it highlights complete sentences as the grammar-checker has priority. *MW* detected 91.9% of the total errors, which is indicative of a well-designed detection engine and corroborates the results of previous studies that suggests a detection capacity of more than 90% (Heift & Rimrott, 2005; Kukich, 1992; Rimrott & Heift, 2008). *Stilus* and *LanguageTool*, on the other hand, detected 89.6% and 87% of the errors respectively. The few spelling errors that were not detected by the four spell checkers were mostly words that, although very rare, do appear in the RAE dictionary. In addition, they sometimes did not detect misspellings related to the correct use of letter case in proper nouns of festivities, cities, and countries.

Although they detected most of the spelling errors, the ability of these spell checkers to offer the appropriate spelling was quite poor. The qualitative analysis of the feedback offered by these spell checkers

showed that the feedback was limited to a list of possible alternatives and they rarely offered an explanation as to why the mistake was made and how the student could avoid committing it in the future.

After analysing the list of alternatives, the spell checkers provided, the GSC of *MW*, contrary to expectations, turned out to be the most effective. Of all the errors it detected, it only gave incorrect feedback (the correct alternative was not among the suggested ones) 14.7% of the time. *SpanishChecker* generated incorrect feedback for 19.6% of the errors it detected, *LanguageTool* for 22.4%, and spell checker *Stilus* for 22.4%. These results, in addition to the study done by Mitton and Okada (2007), suggest that these spell checkers could mislead SFL students into thinking that the correct alternative is always among those offered (Rimrott & Heift, 2008).

Taking into account that foreign language students tend to consider the first alternative as correct and that few students spend time searching for the correct word in the list of alternatives (Rimrott & Heift, 2008), the effectiveness of all these spell checkers as a correctional tool is further compromised. If the alternative suggested in the first place on the list is incorrect, it can effortlessly mislead the student, as seen in the case of the misspelling **inglese*. Considering the spelling errors that all of these correctors did not detect, those errors for which they were not able to offer a correct alternative, and those correct alternatives that failed to appear in the first position, we can conclude that the

most efficient was the GSC of *MW* (67% overall efficiency) rather than the correctors designed specifically for learners of SFL: 63.4% (*Stilus*), 60.8% (*SpanishChecker*) and 57.7 % (*LanguageTool*). These spell checkers could misinform SFL students in one out of three misspellings they make. These results are comparable to those obtained by previous studies that also analysed the efficacy of spell checkers in other languages (Blazquez & Woore, in press; Burstson, 1998; Heift & Rimrott, 2005; Holmes & Moras, 1997; Rimrott & Heift, 2008).

Limitations

Limiting the concept of a spelling error to a definition established by the researcher could be a controversial choice, especially since this definition is not strictly based on linguistic concepts but aims to understand and explain how the spell checkers work. That is why it was considered erroneous to study and classify orthographic errors for purely linguistic reasons about the origin and category of the error; because both the spell checker and the user would be unable to discern those extremes. Instead, this study tried to understand how software works when it comes to detecting errors and offering feedback in order to improve the effectiveness of future spell checkers. That is why the non-agreement of gender or number, the verbal conjugation of certain verbs or the lack of a tilde in personal or possessive pronouns, were not considered spelling errors. Other types of filters, such as the grammatical filter based on *n-grams*,

can offer more adequate solutions in these situations. Punctuation errors were also not considered.

CONCLUSION

The spell checkers tested in this study have a high frequency of error detection, detecting more than 85% of the spelling errors present in thirty essays written by SFL students. Nonetheless, their detection capacity could be expanded and improved by enriching the database of correct words (dictionary or corpus) by conducting detailed studies of the errors that SFL students usually make.

The ability to detect would also be improved if the filters used by spell checkers (orthographic, grammatical or style) were staggered and did not appear at the same time to avoid, for example, spelling errors being marked as grammatical errors. This also might make the self-correction work less complicated for the SFL learner.

It has also been observed that once the errors are detected, between 15% and 25% of the time, the feedback offered by the different spell checkers, especially those

designed specifically for Spanish learners, is erroneous. Moreover, when they detect an error the correct word is only suggested in the first position in the list of alternatives between 64% and 73% of the time. A possible solution could be that once the “edit distance one” algorithm is applied, the words suggested by the algorithm are checked against a list of words frequently written by SFL learners to offer feedback more tailored to the SFL learners’ needs. This would allow in the case of **inglese*, a suggestion of the alternative *ingles* (English), which appears 10070 times in CREA (corpus of the RAE) as opposed to *ingles* (groin), which only appears 203 times. Another solution would be to generate feedback not based on word lists. Instead, the feedback would be based on basic rules of spelling and explain spelling patterns to help students avoid similar mistakes in the future. These rules would be accompanied by words frequently used by students of SFL that exhibited that pattern (see Figure 7) instead of by a list of words based on the similarity of their spelling.

ingles
The correct spelling is *inglés*.
Many nationalities and languages end in -és:
francés
inglés
japonés
Also exists **ingles** (plural of *ingle*): *f.* Groin

Note: The feedback would appear in Spanish. It has been translated for informative purposes.

Figure 7. Proposed feedback for future spell checkers specifically designed for SFL learners.

No study to date has evaluated the efficacy of the spell checkers specifically designed for SFL. This article has performed a preliminary analysis of the effectiveness of spell checkers designed for SFL students in comparison to the GSC of *MW*. While the GSC has performed better than the spell checkers tailored for SFL, there are many opportunities to improve the latter to support students in mastering a foreign language.

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Developing Academic Writing Materials for Learners of English Education Department Based on Accelerated Learning Approach

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ABSTRACT

The objective of this developmental study is to develop a model of academic writing materials for the English Education Department learners based on the accelerated learning approach. The data of this study consisted of quantitative and qualitative data. The data sources were learners, English instructors, and experts in the academic writing materials design. Data were collected using observations, interviews, questionnaires, documents, and focus group discussion. The materials were developed in four steps: (1) analyzing the existing materials, (2) carrying out needs analysis, (3) developing materials and (4) validating them. Data were analysed using percentages for quantitative data. Miles, Huberman and Saldana technique (2014) was used for qualitative data, namely, data condensation, data display, and verification. In order to establish the trustworthiness of the data, this study implemented the triangulation method: source, method, and theory. The result of this study was a theoretical model of academic writing materials based on accelerated learning containing: (1) the components of English writing materials, (2) communicative principle, (3) learning by integrating mind, emotion, and body, (4) activating conscious and unconscious thought, and (5) relaxation, music, and suggestion.

Keywords: Academic writing materials, accelerated learning approach

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INTRODUCTION

The objective of the academic writing subject is to enable the learners of English Education Department to write academic course works. To achieve this, the academic writing materials should: (1) expose learners to rich, meaningful and comprehensible

input, (2) engage both affectively and cognitively, (3) achieve communicative competence, (4) be mental resources, (5) give benefits from noticing salient features of the inputs and discovering, and (6) give opportunities to learners to use language for communicative purposes (Tomlinson, 2010). In addition, Uechi (2016) has added five principles to design writing materials: materials should help learners to develop their confidence, expose them to language in authentic use, be culturally relevant, stretch/challenge learners, and build their intercultural awareness.

In other words, academic writing materials should be authentic, relevant, consistent, and adequate. Authentic materials consist of content which represents real life that is used by the people around the learners. In addition, relevant materials refer to the suitability of the materials to achieve the competency standard and basic competence. Materials should also be consistent; that is, they should support the learners' needs. Finally, materials should be adequate, which mean they should be sufficiently facilitating learners' achievement of basic competence.

In reality, based on the researcher's observations, the academic writing materials currently used by the learners of the English Education Department are in some ways still not as what is expected. In fact, the materials do not seem relevant to the learners' needs. The content of the materials is not contextualized in on academic settings and does not present educational situations. These learners are teacher trainees, who need these kinds of materials in their

teacher training programme. Furthermore, the materials emphasize mastery on linguistic competence rather than discourse, sociolinguistics, and textual competence. Verbal ability is dominantly present while there is no sign of stimulating non-verbal ability.

To address the problems, an accelerated learning approach was used to develop the academic writing materials for the English Education Department learners for two reasons: First, the materials were designed not only to emphasize the mastery of the language structures and verbal ability but also to concentrate on language use, non-verbal ability, and natural, social as well as moral realities. Second, the accelerated learning was used to design materials that would be able to create three kinds of learning: learning language, learning through language and learning about language (Santoso, 2014).

Accelerated learning is an approach that can encourage learners to have high motivation, effective learning techniques, and reflection on what has been learned (University of Bradford, 2018). High motivation means learners should have specific goal motivation, social and activity oriented motivation, and learning oriented motivation. Hence, effective learning techniques should be able to develop the multiple intelligences. Those intelligences are optimally stimulated when learners engaged in seeing, hearing, saying, and doing activities, integratively. To carry out a reflection means learners can review, conclude and apply their experiences.

In foreign language instruction, accelerated learning approach is defined as creative communicative language teaching with the supplement of music, relaxation, and suggestions (Pestalozzi, 2014). This teaching approach is meant to provide positive effects on the learners' psychology which in turn can improve learning. In other words, in comparison with other methods, accelerated learning is a more economical communicative language teaching method in utilizing time. In the elaboration stage, the accelerated learning is almost the same as communicative teaching. Therefore, the learning materials based on the accelerated learning approach consist of three basic principles stating that the learning materials should: (1) create productive and joyful learning in the absence of tension, (2) stimulate conscious and unconscious learning, and (3) optimize learners' potentials through suggestions (Pestalozzi, 2014).

English writing materials should contain knowledge, skills, and ability to utilize knowledge and skills of writing (Santoso, 2016). Knowledge of writing consists of vocabulary, grammar, and spelling. In the vocabulary aspect, two elements should be identified: sounds and meanings of words. In writing, sound is represented as spelling. Learners need writing skills, which include planning, outlining, organizing, drafting, revising, and editing.

In utilizing the knowledge and skills of writing, there are two types of activities involved namely, cognitive and metacognitive activities. Cognitive activities

deal with attention, memory, producing and understanding language, learning, reasoning, problem solving, and decision making. The cognitive process could be natural, artificial, or conscious and unconscious. Cognition is used to process information, apply knowledge, and change preferences.

Metacognitive activities deal with the notion that one knows metacognitive knowledge and also knows how to use the metacognitive experience. Metacognition involves the process of observing, reflecting on, or experiencing one's own cognitive process.

Based on the background of the study, the following research questions are formulated:

1. How are the existing writing materials used today by the learners of the English Education Department?
2. What academic writing materials are needed by the learners of the English Education Department?
3. How are the academic writing materials for the English Education Department learners developed based on the accelerated learning approach?

METHODS

The objective of this study is to develop a model of the academic writing materials for the English Education Department learners based on the accelerated learning approach. In this developmental study both quantitative

and qualitative data were collected and analysed. The data sources were the learners of the English Education Department, English instructors, and experts in the area of academic writing materials design. The techniques of collecting the data were observations, interviews, questionnaires (closed and open-ended questions scores in percentages), documents, and focus group discussion. This study also followed the four steps of developing materials: (1) analyzing the existing materials, (2) carrying out the needs analysis, (3) developing, and (4) validating the materials. The data were analysed using percentages for quantitative and for qualitative data, and the Miles, Huberman, and Saldana technique (2014) was implemented namely, data condensation, data display, and data verification. In order to establish the trustworthiness of the data, this study utilized the triangulation method consisting of the source, method, and theory.

RESULTS

The Existing Writing Materials Used by the Learners of the English Education Department

The existing materials used by the learners of the English Education Department were analyzed in four aspects: authenticity, relevance, consistency, and adequacy. The authenticity aspect refers to the content to be learned in the materials, which should be based on the learners' real life experiences. However, the results of analysis showed that the materials did not represent real-life use of language such as from newspapers, magazines, and similar

sources of meaningful communication. In fact, some materials were without any example at all. For instance, in one of the writing topics, 'revising' (Dewi, 2013), the writer only described the meaning and the process of revising the article, but there was no text at all to be revised. In these materials, after describing the role of revising and what is usually revised, no texts were provided to be revised, nor was the learner instructed how to revise sentences, overall structure, paragraphs, coherence, and words. This means that the material did not prompt the learner to do some actual revision exercises. Another example for lack of authenticity occurred on page 30 of the textbook. After describing and elaborating the meaning of a paragraph, the textbook presented a model of paragraph structure. Unfortunately, the model was not commented in detail on why it was called a paragraph or the characteristics of a paragraph, which consists of the topic, the topic sentence and the concluding sentence.

Similar observation was made in another part of the textbook where the writer presented the characteristics of a good paragraph. She mentioned that there were two characteristics of a good paragraph: unity and coherence (Dewi, 2013). There were no examples of unity and coherence. Only the meaning of unity and coherence were mentioned and the competency standard of learning writing which only cover knowledge of writing rather than writing skills. The existing materials showed that most topics tend to elaborate the knowledge while the skills of

writing were not sufficiently emphasized with little focus on social and spiritual competence.

Consistency means that the content of the materials should support the learners' needs. Practically, the English Education Department learners of *Tarbiya* and Teachers Training should certainly have learned subjects related to the language elements (pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar), the language skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing), and linguistics (introduction to general linguistics, sociolinguistics, and psycholinguistics). They also learn basic education, basic social and natural sciences, and Islamic studies. The content of the writing materials dealt with the general theory of academic writing. Examples were very minimally presented and when they were, the examples did not actually represent the subjects being learned.

Adequacy deals with the sufficiency of the materials to assist the learners to achieve their basic competence. As mentioned

above, the existing materials emphasized the knowledge of writing rather than the writing skills. Each chapter was dominated by the description of theory. The materials showed mostly on learning about language rather than learning the language and learning through the language.

Finally, some lexical and grammatical errors also occurred. The word *below* was misspelled *bellow**; the phrase, *Becoming a Good Leader* was written as *Become a Good Leader* (Dewi, 2013). Such errors, of course, would have a negative effect on learner's writing habit.

Needs Analysis of the Learners' Academic Writing Materials

The results of need analysis via questionnaires indicated two kinds of needs: the learning needs and the target needs. The learning needs are described in Table 1.

Table 1 indicates that from the objective of learning writing, 21.21% of the learners need writing a *skripsi* (project paper) for

Table 1
Learning needs

Types	Learning Needs	Number of Respondents
Objective of Learning Writing	Writing a <i>skripsi</i>	21.21 %
	Teaching English	9.09 %
	Producing academic works	3.03 %
	Being a successful writer	3.03 %
Strategy of Learning Writing	Practice	47.06 %
	Instructor's guidance	44.12 %
	Taking courses	8.82 %
	Improving vocabulary	8.82 %
	Understanding theory	5.88 %
	Reading	5.88 %
	Adequate structure	5.88 %
	Participating in discussions	2.94 %

their academic writing materials and then, followed by 9.09%, which is a need for the sake of their English teaching profession. While from the strategy of learning writing, 47.06% of the learners needed practice, 44.12% of them needed guidance from the instructors. This means that the learners' learning needs were writing a project paper as one of the requirements to graduate from the university. They also expected their instructors to facilitate more practice. Besides the learning needs, the target needs of the learners were as in Table 2.

Table 2 shows that 41.67% of the learners' need writing materials suitable and related to their subjects. As learners of the English Education Department, they also

have to take English language, education, religion, Arabic, and the basic natural and social science courses.

With reference to Table 2, 36% of the learners mainly needed skills in writing the project paper, and 21% need skills in writing formal letters. This is probably because the project paper is compulsory for the learners to complete at the end of their undergraduate programme. Skills in writing formal letters are also needed by them for their daily life on campus.

The learners' needs were also mostly related to the education course (15%). This is quite true because being teacher trainees, they have to have an adequate number of educational terms for this course.

Table 2
Target needs

Types	Target Needs	Number of Respondents
Writing Materials	Suitability of the Major Subjects	41.67 %
	Dealing with English Education	37.76 %
	Daily Writing	27.24 %
	Literature and Culture	8.39 %
	Writing Technique	0.22 %
	Writing Project	0.16 %
	Private Experience	0.04 %
	Life Styles	0.03 %
	Free Writing	0.03 %
	Health	0.02 %
Writing Skills	Writing a <i>Skripsi</i>	36 %
	Formal Letters	21 %
	Other Academic Works	19 %
	Personal Letters	14 %
	Literary Works	7 %
	Free Writing	2 %
	Textbook Writing	2 %

Table 2 (*continue*)

Types	Target Needs	Number of Respondents
Writing Topics	Education	15 %
	Pronunciation	11 %
	Vocabulary	11 %
	Speaking	8 %
	Health	8 %
	Modern Life Style	6 %
	Writing Skills	5 %
	Literary Works	5 %
	Social Matters	5 %
	Learning English	5 %
	Grammar	3 %
	Daily Life	3 %
	Technology	3 %
	English Education	2 %
	Sports	2 %
	Religion	2 %
	Cleanliness	2 %
	Confidence in Speaking English	2 %
	Interest in Learning English	2 %
	Writing Articles	2%
Grammar Focus	Simple Past Tense	27 %
	Simple Present Tense	26 %
	Simple Present Continuous Tense	24 %
	Simple Perfect Tense	3 %
	Pronouns	2 %
	Nouns	2 %
	Gerund	1 %
	Punctuation	1 %
	All Kinds of Grammar	1 %
Vocabulary	Scientific Words	36 %
	General Words	36 %
	Words about Education	0.14 %
	Vocabulary Unknown before	9 %
	Literary Words	2 %
	Culture	2 %
Task	Writing a <i>Skripsi</i>	23 %
	Producing Scientific Works	19 %
	Writing Formal Letters	9 %
	Daily Activities	9 %
	English Education	6 %

Table 2 (*continue*)

Types	Target Needs	Number of Respondents
Task	Writing Paragraph	6 %
	Personal Writing	3. %
	Structure	3. %
	Attractive Writing	3. %
	How to Write Fluently and Adequately	3 %
	Free Composition	3 %
	Direct Practice	3 %

Furthermore, they also needed tenses in their writing (27%), which are not found in *Bahasa Indonesia* (Indonesian language), which is their national language. Any lack of knowledge of tenses will cause problems when they are writing in English. In addition, in English, the learners have to differentiate the past, present, and future events and tenses. For Indonesian learners, grammar is the most difficult to learn and this skill is needed in their writing assignments.

Table 2 also indicates that most learners needed scientific vocabulary (36%). As university learners, these words are always found in writing their project paper and other academic writing assignments or activities. These words existing in language education, English language, and research are some examples of the scientific vocabulary that they have to know. General words were also still needed (36%) because most learners lack this kind of words.

Theoretical Model of Writing Materials Based on Accelerated Learning

On the basis of the analysis of the existing materials, needs analysis and the learning

theory of the accelerated learning, the model of the English writing materials should contain: (1) the components of English writing materials, (2) the communicative principle, (3) learning by integrating the mind, emotion, and body, (4) activating conscious and unconscious thoughts, and (5) relaxation, music, and suggestions.

English Writing Materials

In this current model which is based on the accelerated learning approach, English writing materials contain learning objectives, language focus, skills, contents, and tasks. As regards the learning objective of writing, the course is expected to enable the learners to write academic texts. One of the common academic tasks is writing a project paper. Besides the learning objective, writing materials should also have language focus. The focus may be on vocabulary, grammar, and/or functions. The vocabulary mastered by the learners may deal with general words and scientific words. The grammar needed by them is specifically on tenses and supported by other elements of grammar such as articles, gerunds, and punctuations, to name a few.

The skills in writing needed by the learners are the skills of writing a project paper, writing formal letters, writing other academic works, writing private letters, writing literary works, free writing, and writing textbooks. The contents that are needed by the learners are about education, pronunciation, vocabulary, speaking, health, modern life styles, writing skills, literary works, social matters, learning English, grammar, daily life, technology, English education, sports, religion, cleanliness, confidence in speaking English, interest in learning English, and writing articles. The tasks of the writing materials are how to write paragraphs, project papers, scientific works, formal letters, personal letters, daily activities, and free compositions in an engaging, fluent, and adequate way.

Communicative Principles in Writing

Academic writing materials should follow communicative principles. Based on these principles, learners have to: attain the forms of the English writing, obtain communicative functions, develop skills and strategies of using the language to communicate meaning in the written form, and become aware of the social meaning of the language (Nunan, 1989). On the other hand, learners should have adequate knowledge of the language such as mechanics of letter formation, spelling, punctuations, vocabulary, and grammar.

Writing materials should also emphasize communicative functions to enable the learners to use suitable functions to

communicate ideas and feelings such as introducing people in writing, greeting people, stating agreements or disagreements, expressing likes or dislikes, and so forth. The learner should also be able to state a topic, to formulate a thesis, to create a paragraph, to elaborate by using supporting points, providing details and concluding paragraphs. The strategies of using the English language include ways on how to write the title, to develop paragraphs, and to conclude essays.

Becoming aware of the social meaning means that the learners should not only realize the literal meaning, but also the meaning that is socially given by the people around them. In short, these are all related to the contextual meaning.

Learning Writing by Integrating the Mind, Emotion, and Body

When learning writing, the learner should be encouraged to integrate functions of the mind, emotions and body because writing activities involve these three elements. The brain monitors the body. The center of emotion is linked to the mind, so the information that is processed in the mind is transferred to the limbic system as the center of the long-term memory. In this location, the information is stored. Therefore, the mind, emotion, and body could not be isolated from one another when learners learn to write or perform writing tasks.

Activating Conscious and Unconscious thoughts in Learning Writing

While writing, learners are involved in three activities; they follow: (1) general directions of writing, (2) automatized steps involved in creating the numerous letter forms as in the hand gliding across the page, and (3) the overall pattern and the placement of such matters as diacritics (Seifer, 2014). Thus, the general direction of writing goes consciously, creating the numerous letter forms that continues preconsciously and the overall pattern and the placement are processed unconsciously.

Therefore, to accelerate the learning of writing, we need to activate the conscious and the unconscious thoughts. To activate the conscious thought, direct and indirect verbal interventions should be optimized, while the unconscious thought could be activated through direct and indirect non-verbal intervention.

Relaxation, Music, and Suggestions

In order to accelerate learning in writing, relaxation, music, and suggestions should be provided to the learners. Relaxation is used to motivate the learners to learn easily with the absence of tension. Music is used to create positive learning situations and joyful learning. When the learning environment is positive and the learners are learning joyfully, the area of limbic system will be open. If this area is open, the learners find it easy to remember what they learn and the information given to them is stored in

the long-term memory. A suggestion is an intervention given to the learners when learning writing. The intervention could be a direct verbal, indirect verbal, direct non-verbal, and indirect non-verbal. The direct verbal is a kind of intervention in writing in which the learners express their feelings and thoughts through writing. The letters are consciously expressed by the learners, and this mostly involves the left brain.

In indirect verbal intervention the ideas are developed by organizing what the learners are writing about. This also occurs consciously before moving the hand to write. Before writing, the learners usually plan what they are going to express in writing. This is always done by using an outline.

In direct non-verbal intervention learners use pictures, diagrams, or other kinds of media which may assist them in expressing letters into the page. This intervention allows learners to organize their ideas of writing through media before executing through the letters.

Indirect non-verbal intervention provides a positive situation to support the learner while writing. All kinds of peripherals belong to this part. One example of the peripherals found here is the place where the learners are writing is clean, with the appropriate temperature which is neither hot nor cold. In addition, motivation to write is another example that also belongs to this. The model of the academic writing materials can be seen in Figure 1.

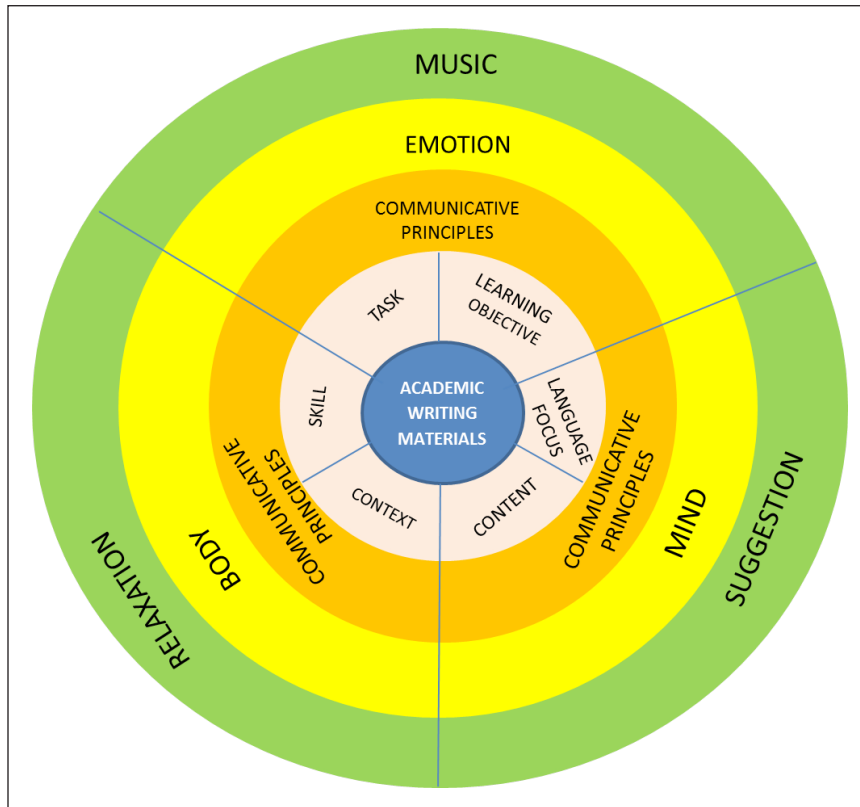


Figure 1. A model of academic writing materials (Modified from: Santoso, 2014)

DISCUSSION

On the basis of the research findings, there are five components of English writing materials model based on accelerated learning approach: (1) the components of English writing materials, (2) communicative principle, (3) learning by integrating the mind, emotion, and body, (4) activating conscious and unconscious thought, and (5) relaxation, music, and suggestion.

The model shows that English writing materials should contain inputs, language focus, contents, and task. These components should be presented through

the communicative principles, which are delivered by integrating mind, emotion, and body.

When integrating the mind, emotion, and body, conscious and unconscious thoughts would be activated because the center of language in the left brain is present consciously when the body moves and the learners' emotion is involved when learning takes place. The right brain, however, is unconsciously stimulated if the instructor uses peripherals or pictures.

The learners' English writing materials also contain relaxation, music, and suggestions. Relaxation opens up the limbic

system as the center of emotion and long term memory. In a relaxed condition, they easily remember all the information to be learned and they do not feel the burden to learn because of the absence of tension when using the materials.

Music is also used to help the learners to write at ease. It contains rhythms that will optimize the mid-brain where the long-term memory is located. When the long-term memory is opened widely, the learner finds it easier to write.

Suggestion is used to stimulate the learners consciously or unconsciously in order to produce the letters optimally. Through suggestions, learners easily express their ideas in writing.

CONCLUSION

Based on the research results, it can be concluded that: (1) The existing materials do not show authenticity, relevance, consistency, and adequacy. (2) The results of the learners' needs analysis are categorized into: the objective of learning writing, the strategy of learning writing, the writing materials needed, the writing skills, the grammar focus, the writing topics, the vocabulary, and the tasks. (3) The theoretical model of writing materials based on accelerated learning contains: (a) the components of English writing materials, (b) the communicative principles, (c) approaches integrating the mind, emotion, and body, (d) approaches activating conscious and unconscious thought, and (e) inclusion of relaxation techniques, music and suggestion.

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The Effectiveness of Public School Fund Distribution – A Study of Poor Student Trust Fund

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to examine the effectiveness of the distribution procedure of the Poor Student Trust Fund to schools in Malaysia. This study will also identify the weaknesses in the fund distribution process and associate it with the internal control activities currently applied in that procedure. A mixed method of data collection via analysis of semi structured interviews and document analysis was employed to gain understanding on the current distribution procedures at the state, district, and school levels, while at the same time highlight the strengths and weaknesses in the current processes. This study found that over-dependence on the manual systems, task redundancies, duplication of resources, poor usage of information and communication technologies, and incompetence of human capital are the factors that contributed to the inefficiency of funds distributed from the state to the beneficiaries at the schools. The results provide further confirmation of the poor accountability of the public sector management in Malaysia, particularly in managing public finance in the education sectors. This study provides an indicator to government and stakeholders that various efforts and change are needed to be taken in order to improve the current fund distribution process, at least in the context of poor student trust funds. The

internal controls have too many weaknesses that consequently lead to the late acceptance of government financial assistance. This will be worse off if it does not reach the right beneficiaries and is susceptible to fraud.

Keywords: Accountability, fraud, internal control, Malaysia, public finance management, public sector accounting

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INTRODUCTION

The Malaysian education policy aims to develop the basic fundamentals, directions, and inspirations of all activities and programs in Malaysian education. As a developing country, the development of Malaysian human capital has been given the highest priority. One of the elements in education philosophy is to ensure continuous improvement in education, which focuses on the importance of early education for children.

In line with the objective of the philosophy, the government established a trust fund (the Poor Student Trust Fund) in 2003. The objective of the fund is to provide financial assistance to students who are poor, with parents who are unable to provide the basic necessities for their children to continue their studies. With the establishment of the trust fund, the government hopes that the level of school dropouts, as a result of poverty, will decrease and finally be eliminated. In addition, the government hopes that all students in Malaysia, regardless of their economy background, will be given an opportunity for continuous education and excel in learning and self-improvement.

However, according to the Auditor General Report 2009, there are several issues regarding the distribution procedures of this trust fund. These include the failure to maintain proper records and distribution delays of the funds to eligible students. It is feared that these problems will deteriorated and lead to fraud, malpractice, and misappropriation of public monies.

In light of these problems, it is interesting to examine the issues relating to the trust fund at the lowest operational level and understand the situation. In short, the purposes of this study are to examine the effectiveness of the current distribution procedure of the trust fund to schools in Malaysia and identify the weaknesses in the process of the fund distribution and associate them with the internal control activities currently applied in that system. Specifically, this paper attempts to answer these research question

Q1: How effective are current distribution procedures of the schools' trust fund in Malaysia?

Q2: What are the weaknesses in those practices and procedures of the distribution?

This study makes several contributions. First, it provides a significant understanding to the trust fund stakeholders such as parents and the public on the financial aid distribution processes in the current education system in Malaysia. Second, this study will assist policymakers in identifying the loopholes in the fund distribution that may lead to misappropriation of the fund. At the end of this paper, the study highlights the weaknesses in the current distribution process and provides recommendations to overcome and reduce the problems. Finally, this study will add to the body of literature about the practices of public sector governance generally and financial management practices, particularly that are scarce in the literature, especially

because the study focuses on the financial distribution of government agencies in developing countries. Prior studies in the public sector were mostly dominated from Australasia, Canada, United States and United Kingdom (Albalade et al., 2017; Broadbent & Guthrie, 2008; Burgess et al., 2017; Ferlie, 2017; Jones et al., 2017; Ferry & Murphy, 2017; Moullin, 2017; Nuhu et al., 2017; Pollanen et al., 2017).

This paper is organized as follows. Next is the literature review followed with research methodology. Section four includes findings and discussion on the current weaknesses of the aid distribution systems. Section five provides the suggestions to improve the weaknesses in section four, followed with conclusion and implications of the research. Last section is limitation and suggestion for the future research.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Accountability in Public Sector

In regard to strained relationships among money providers, taxpayers, and money users, the government makes accountability a particularly important issue in the public sector (Pallot, 1992). Samkin and Schneider (2010), McGregor (1999), Wynne (2004), Parker and Gould (1999), and Sinclair (1995) posited that the accountability relationship for public sector organizations was broader and more complex than the traditional principal-agent relationship in the private sector. Those responsible need to provide information and explanations for their actions and decisions to the stakeholders above and beyond what would

normally be included in a private firm's financial statements (Nelson et al., 2003; Normanton, 1971; Rashid, 2017; Zaheer & Nor et al., 2017).

As compared with a listed company that owes a responsibility to mainly shareholders (Asmuni et al., 2015), government officers who manage government funds need to exercise integrity at the highest levels because they need to serve various important stakeholders and ensure government agencies able to deliver positive results to society who use the services (Moullin, 2017; Kwong, 2013; Yunus et al., 2016). In addition, their behaviour and leadership style will influence subordinates' integrity and trust (Mohamad et al., 2016). Inability to fulfil the need of society will invite harsh public perception of government officers as lazy, doing little work themselves, lacking in integrity (Derus & Abdul-Aziz, 2016) and abuse public office to commit corruption (Asiedu & Deffor, 2017).

As part of the government, the civil servants are accountable to properly serve the beneficiaries of government money, such as poor citizens, in order to satisfy the taxpayers who are willing to sacrifice part of their income to develop the nation and to sufficiently performed their task so that watchdog entities such as regulators, auditor generals, and the opposition do not query their work and practices such as in regards to weaknesses in the internal control exercises. This is because poor internal control coupled with moral misconducts among the employees always has been associated with malpractices such as fraud

and misappropriation of assets and funds (Khadijah et al., 2015; Manan et al., 2013; Salin et al., 2017). In short, various multiple stakeholders in public entities are keen to understand how public money is used to achieve public benefit rather than for making profit-oriented decisions (Ferry & Murphy, 2017; Samkin & Schneider, 2010).

Due to this, a public officer needs to improve internal control effectiveness and governance mechanisms in order to prevent fraud and misappropriation of public funds. Poor internal control leads to opportunities for a perpetrator to commit fraud (Omar et al., 2016; Rahim et al., 2017; Zakaria et al., 2016), while a weak governance structure leads to poor organizational performance (Ahmad et al., 2016; Jaafar et al., 2014), less transparent and reliability of financial reporting (Hashim et al., 2014; Husnin et al., 2016), management entrenchment (Hamid et al., 2011), and ineffective corporate monitoring (Husnin et al., 2013). In contrast, strong internal control such as periodic and surprise inspections can ensure a government organization maintains adequate and complete records to prevent opportunities for wrongdoing. According to KPMG, fraud and misappropriation happens when there is a weakness in the internal control system in the organization. Poor and inadequate internal control leads to fraud, and misappropriation fails to be detected and prevented (KPMG, 2009). Based on Association of Certified Fraud Examiners 2008 Report, 23 per cent of frauds were detected through set internal controls. Puah et al. (2009) suggested that poor internal

control such as inadequate cash security practices, inadequate supervision of staff, and internal auditing failures were factors that contributed to corporate fraud and misappropriation in Malaysia.

This is evidenced by the continuity of the mismanagement and malpractices revealed by the Malaysian auditor general in its auditor general's report year by year, irrespective of whether it occurred at the level of federal government, state government, and statutory bodies. While many warnings and recommendations called for improvements, poor accountability may still be demonstrated by public civil servants. All of the cases show how poor the public fund was managed by the government officers in the various ministries and department. It worsens when less stringent actions were taken to bring and convict the responsible person in the court of justice.

Financial Aid in the Malaysian Education System

The main concern of the government is to narrow the country's education gap. In line with the government mission to provide opportunities and fair education for every Malaysian child, the government has established the Poor Student Trust Fund under Section 10 of The Financial Procedure Act 1957. The main aim of the financial aid trust fund is to give financial assistance to students whose family is poor and unable to provide basic needs for a child's education. Another objective of the fund is to reduce student dropouts when the high cost of education becomes an unbearable burden.

From the year 2003 until June 2008, the distribution process of the financial aid fund was handled by the scholarship division of the Ministry of Education. From July 2008 until today, the function has been transferred to the finance division of Ministry of Education. The finance division, with the help of the state education department and the district education office, distributed financial assistance to the qualified students who come from the lower income families to continue their studies. Because the finance division is responsible to manage and coordinate the distribution of the Poor Student Trust Fund, any instruction, circular, and guideline regarding management of the trust fund must be issued by the finance division.

The financial aid was distributed to eligible students from Standard 1 to Standard 6 from the primary school. The distribution of the financial assistance is extended to Form 1 students from all secondary schools. Eligibility of the applicants to receive financial aid is dependent on household income and income per capita. The household income is different within Peninsular Malaysia and Sabah and Sarawak, where the rate of the household

income in Sabah and Sarawak is higher compared with Peninsular Malaysia. Table 1 refers to poverty category, which has been prescribed in the national poverty line 2009.

The classification of “poor” status is important because the amount of the financial aid will be paid based on the poor status level. For example, Student A who lives in the Sabah rural area comes from a low-income family. His family’s monthly household income is RM 900 per month. Student A is qualified to receive financial aid funds because his family’s household income is below the national poverty income (national poverty line for Sabah: RM 1,050), and he will be paid under the “poor” category.

Income per capita measures will be used when the monthly household income exceeds the national poverty line, but the family faces a financial burden due to the number of family members in the household. Income per capita can be measured by dividing total household income with the number of members of the household. The members of the household only consist of the basic family, including applicant parents. It excludes those who are working, married, and are above 21 years old unless disabled

Table 1
National poverty line 2009

Poverty Category	Poor		Hardcore poor	
	Monthly household income	Income per capita	Monthly household income	Income per capita
	(RM)	(RM)	(RM)	(RM)
Peninsular	760	190	460	110
Sabah	1,050	230	630	130
Sarawak	910	210	590	130

children and undergraduate children. For example, Student B lives in Sarawak. He has seven (7) siblings aged from 2 to 14 years old. His parent's monthly income is RM 1,000. Student B is eligible to receive financial aid funds because he is categorized under hard-core poor because the income per capita for his family is RM112.00 (RM1,000 divided by nine [9]).

METHOD

This research adopts a case study approach to take advantage of rich information and analysis by focusing the research effort and energy to only one subject, i.e., one of the states in Malaysia as a case or sample to study the research problems. This kind of approach is more realistic, practical, and offers more accurate real-world results. Smith (2015) suggested that the case study was the most appropriate method to be applied if there was an opportunity to examine actual practices. In this context, the permission to conduct interviews and verify certain non-publicly available documents are captured and utilised to produce the best outcomes. In addition, as this research intends to evaluate a process of aid distribution, case study is a best approach because it traditionally has been associated with process evaluations (Yin, 2012). Thus, it is able to derive data and provide in-depth understanding of events in real world contexts (Bromley, 1986).

As part of the case study research, this study employed a mixed method of data collection and analysis by combining primary and secondary sources

of information. This will provide the benefits of cross-checking the results from multiple sources of information. Thus, the reliability and validity of the research can be enhanced (Smith, 2015) because it benefits from multiple sources of evidence (Yin, 2011). Prior studies in the public sector governance such as Mir and Rahaman (2007) also used multiple research methods such as interviews, archival material, and observation.

Primary Sources

For the primary data, interviews were conducted with four persons (two personnel from the finance division of the state, one personnel from the national audit department and one school officer). The interview with personnel from the finance division covered general views on the distribution process of the financial aid at the ministerial level, rules and regulation of the distribution of the financial aid process, financial aid application process at the school level, verification process at the district and state level, payment process and time frame required to accomplish the process at all levels. The effectiveness and drawbacks of the adoption of the online application system and the function of school aid management committee were also discussed.

An interview with the auditor from the national audit department aimed to obtain an overview of the issues from the auditor perspective. The interviewee discussed complaints from the public, weaknesses in the current distribution process, the reliability of the information provided in

the financial aid application forms, and the level of knowledge and understanding of the school officers such as headmaster and the school finance assistant regarding rules and procedures. Finally, disciplinary actions were proposed for school officers who failed to perform the job according to the rules and procedures.

The interview with the school officer was focused on the person involved directly in handling the application and payment at the school level. The purpose of the interview is to gain an understanding on the current distribution procedures at the school level and to highlight the strengths and weaknesses in the current processes. The interview method was used to gather information on how schools determine eligible students to receive financial aid, establishment and duties of the school aid management committee, awareness level regarding money credited to school bank accounts, distribution of financial aid fund to students, and examination of the internal control system in schools to avoid the risk of misappropriation and fraud.

Secondary Sources

For the secondary data, this study reviewed the content of the auditor general report, the process flowchart, and other related documents. Every year, the National Audit Department will perform an audit in management of various level and departments of education. In one particular year, the auditor general report highlighted the weaknesses of management

in distribution of financial aid funds that led to delay and misappropriation. The report highlights issues on the application process, selection process, and payment process of the financial aid fund.

The purpose of reviewing the process flowchart is to gain a better understanding on the work processes of the financial aid distribution. The process flow will indicate the communication flow between parties involves in distribution of financial aid. Two types of flowcharts are reviewed in this study: the financial aid application process flowchart and the payment process flowchart. This study will examine the weaknesses in the current processes and verify whether proper internal control has been in place in the process.

Other than that, the study also reviewed other documents such as previous payment reports, invoices, payment vouchers, notification letters sent to schools, and list of cheques received by the finance division. The purpose of examining the document is to determine the types of document involved in distribution of financial aid.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Below are the findings of this study. Due to confidentiality, the findings from the interview will be presented in general without specifying the sources from any interviewee. Some documents, circulars, and forms are not publicly available and only limited to those involved in the tasks and processes.

Late Payment by Finance Division to Schools

According to the circular, fund payments must be credited to the school's bank account before the new school session begins. For example, the financial aid for the year 2015 must be received by the schools before 1 January 2015. However, based on the review of the reports and documentations, the payment process shows a weakness in regard to delay in payment.

Table 2 shows the dates of payment made to the schools' bank accounts from year 2007 until year 2009. In 2007 and 2009, the delay period reached more than a month, while in 2008 the delay was about 1½ weeks. This study found that disbursement of payment was late due to the late submission of the summary lists to the finance division by the state education department. According to the circular, the state education department must submit a list of qualified applicants before 15 October every year. Late submission of the list causes delay in payment of the financial aid. This is because, after receiving the lists, the finance division needs time for information verification. This is to ensure all information is accurate and complete before payment can be prepared.

The study also found that a long time was required to process payment to the school bank account because the payment voucher needed to be prepared using the online system. One set payment voucher can only consist of 15 school bank accounts. In this state, 40 payment vouchers need to be prepared. After preparing the payment voucher, the payment must be authorized by two higher officers.

This finding shows one of the weaknesses of the current distribution of financial aid is the lateness of the finance division to distribute the payment to the school bank accounts. It indicates the inefficiency in handling government funds. The department failed to achieve the target where payment of the financial aid must be credited to schools' bank accounts before the new school session begins.

Long Processing Cycle of Application

The current financial aid distribution involved a long process cycle before payment can be made to eligible students. It was found that the application process must go through four stages of verification—school aid management committee (Stage 1), district education office (Stage 2), state education department (Stage 3), and finance division (Stage 4)—before payment can be made to eligible students.

Table 2
Date of the payment credited by the finance division to school bank account

Years	Date of payment credited to the school bank account	Date of payment that supposed to be credited	Delay period
2007	16.02.2007	31.12.2006	35 days
2008	15.01.2008	31.12.2007	11 days
2009	19.02.2009	31.12.2008	36 days

In the first stage, the application form must go through the selection and verification process at the school level. At this stage, the school aid management committee must examine application forms and be responsible to perform random checking on students' background before reaching the approval stage. At this stage, the committee takes four weeks to process the application and prepare the summary form that contains the name of the eligible student before submitting it to the district education office.

At the second stage, the district education office has to collect and verify the application summaries from all schools under its authority. At this stage, the district education office takes three weeks to verify information in the summary form from the schools before the summary of application can be submitted to the state education department.

At the third stage, the state education department needs to collect and compile applications of all the districts before submitting to the finance department to proceed with the payment. At this stage, the state education department will screen the applications to analyze whether the applicants had received other financial assistance from other sources such as federal scholarship. Usually the state education office requires two weeks to verify applications for all districts.

The final stage involves another screening process at the finance division. Before the list of applications were submitted

to the payment unit, the data processing unit must do a final screening to ensure complete information in the summary application list. This process will take one week before approval.

After reviewing the flowchart process, it was found that the current application process that uses the manual procedure involved a long application process that can cause late payment of the financial aid to qualified students. It is also prone to human error and unnecessary mistakes that can be avoided if the computerised system is used.

Besides, application of the financial aid must go through four stages of the checking and verification process before final payment can be made to qualified students. There is redundancy in the screening process because the district education office conducts almost a similar function with the state education office. This also contributes to the waste of time, money, energy, and effort as the resources were duplicated to perform identical tasks.

Delay in Distributing Financial Aid to Eligible Students

Table 3
Number of schools late to distribute financial aid to eligible students in 2007

No of days	No of schools
14-20 days	3
21-40 days	8
41-60 days	5
61-80 days	5
80 days and above	1
Total	22

According to the circular, payment of the financial aid must be disbursed to students within 14 days after money has been credited in the schools' bank accounts. Schools were advised to make payment without having any special ceremony that involves politicians in their respective area to deliver the financial aid. Based on the review of the reports and documents, 22 schools that received the financial aid in 2007 were late to distribute the financial aid (Table 3). Eight schools took 21 to 40 days to distribute payment to students, while five schools took 41 to 60 days, and another five schools took 61 to 80 days to disburse payment to eligible students. One school took more than 80 days to pay out the financial aid.

The study found that one reason for the late disbursement of money to students was because schools were late to receive the monthly bank statement. The respondent claimed that the school only received previous month's bank statement on the second week and the third week of the current month. The delay in receiving the school bank statements can cause delay in the payment of the financial aid to eligible students. Again, the issues and problems of manual processing arise here. All financial transaction in schools use the manual system and are paper based, where present schools do not implement Internet banking in the latest banking transaction.

The finance division had sent a notification letter to provide information regarding qualified students who are eligible

to receive the financial aid fund and the estimated date for money to be transferred to the schools' bank accounts. However, sometimes the notification letter failed to reach certain schools due to technical reasons. The absence of the monthly bank statement and notification letter caused schools to have a lack of information regarding the financial aid that should be received by eligible students and failed to disburse the money within the specific time.

Delays in the distribution of the financial aid funds to eligible students lead to opportunities for the misappropriation of money and fraud. The ignorance of the school officers regarding money that have been credited to schools' bank accounts caused the money to be kept too long in school bank accounts. Furthermore, schools do receive other sources of money from various government authorities, and the balance of the money in the school bank account increases from time to time. This will cause the school officer to be unable to identify the purpose of the money being credited to the schools' bank accounts and give opportunities for perpetrators to misuse part of the money for personal use without being realized by others.

Poor Management by the School Aid Management Committee

All schools that received financial aid must establish a school aid management committee. The committee consists of the school headmaster as a chairperson, teachers, and representative from a parent-teacher

association. The committee functions as an internal auditor where the committee has to verify all applications at the school level.

The study found that issues arose when schools did not set up the school aid management committee and failed to maintain proper records on meeting minutes. Complete meeting minutes must show the name of all students who applied for the financial aid fund, and name of successful applicants, name of unsuccessful applicants, and the committee must provide reasonable reasons for the rejected applications.

The verification process at the school level is important because the committee needs to conduct a background check to confirm the “poor” status claimed by the parents. A field visit to the students’ home is one of the committee’s responsibilities to ascertain the student’s real-life situation.

Failure of the schools to establish a committee will lead to questions in regards to the qualification of applicants who receive financial aid, which may lead to financial aid being handed to unqualified applicants. Based on the reports and documents, three schools failed to provide completed meeting minutes regarding selection of qualified applicants in the year 2007, 2008, and 2009.

Poor management of the school aid management committee shows that a school is inefficient in distributing financial aid to poor students. This action will lead to fraud and dishonesty where parents can submit false information about household income and other important information without being tracked by the school because the committee fails to perform its function.

Poor internal control gives an opportunity to ineligible students to apply for financial aid because every application will be accepted without proper checking by the committee.

Inaccurate Source of Online Database System

It has been decided that all government agencies must use data information from the *e-Care* system as a main source of data for distribution of funds to poor citizens. *e-Care* is a database that stores various information on poverty profiles such as family background, sources of income, financial assistance received, and many others. The study found weaknesses in using the *e-Care* system as a source of data to determine eligibility of students to receive financial aid. The information provided by the system is inaccurate and constantly changing according to current financial situation of student’s family. Various ministries and departments use the system to distribute financial assistance to poor households throughout Malaysia. All ministries have direct access to the *e-Care* system for all financial assistance given by each ministry to a household; the information must be updated in the system. However, there is no specific time frame to update the information on financial assistance that caused data in the *e-Care* system to be unstable and constantly changing throughout the year.

Inaccurate data provided by the *e-Care* system caused the school to return the financial aid back to the finance division. The finance division needed to trace where

the eligible students were studying before a new payment could be made to the eligible students at the new school. The long process caused eligible students late to receive financial aid.

Table 4
Financial aid returned back to finance department

Year	Fund return back to the Finance Department in the state	Fund return back to Finance Department from all states
2010	RM 494, 445	RM 12,330,240
2011	RM 577,211	RM 13,994,636
2012	RM 316,600	RM 8,562,788
Total	RM1,388,256	RM 34,887,664

Table 4 shows the amount of payment of the financial aid that was returned back from schools in the state to the finance division and also by schools from all states in Malaysia. Based on the table, a huge amount of money was returned by the schools in the state in the year 2011, amounting to RM577,211, while the total payment returned back from all schools throughout Malaysia amounted to RM13,994,636.

It was found that the money was returned to the finance division because eligible students do not exist in the schools based on the data provided by the *e-Care* system. This problem was only realized when schools claimed that the payment of the financial aid at the school level cannot proceed because the names of students provided by the finance division do not exist in the schools. Thus, the problem of inaccurate data from the *e-Care* system can lead to misappropriation of public monies because payment can be made to non-

existing students at school. If the schools do not return the money to the finance division, irresponsible personnel may manipulate the money for personal benefit.

Inconsistent Information in the Application Form and the Summary Form

Based on the standard application of the financial aid procedure, applicants need to disclose information on parents' income and number of household members. This procedure is to determine the eligibility of the student to receive the financial aid. The school aid management committee needs to analyse the application form and prepare the summary form that contains a list of the eligible students to be submitted to the district education office. However, based on the verifications of reports and documents, it was revealed that there is inconsistent information in application forms of eligible students and information in the summary form that schools had submitted to the district education office.

Table 5 shows the inconsistency of information in the financial aid application form for six students from School 123 with information in the summary form prepared by the school aid management committee and submitted to the district education office. There is a difference of the amounts of parents' monthly income recorded in the financial aid application form and the summary form. Parents' monthly income recorded in the summary form is much lower compared with the information stated in the application form.

Table 5

Difference of information on parents' monthly income in the application form and the summary form

No	Name of school	Name of applicants	Information on parents monthly income in application form (RM)	Information on parents monthly income in summary Form (RM)	Differences (RM)
1	School 123*	Student A	713.00	420.00	293.00
2		Student B	800.00	700.00	100.00
3		Student C	1,050.00	450.00	650.00
4		Student D	1350.00	500.00	850.00
5		Student E	1080.00	500.00	580.00
6		Student F	950.00	600.00	350.00

Note: *Not a real name

The study found that inconsistency of information provided in both the application form and the summary form resulted from an alteration of information made in the summary form by school officers before submitting the form to the district education office. The amount of parents' monthly income in the summary form was recorded lower than the actual amount in the application form. Based on the figures in Table 5, we can see that all amounts disclosed in the summary form are below RM1,000, and there are huge differences in the amounts recorded in the application form and the summary form. The amount was altered below the income of RM1,000 to show that parents' monthly income was below the national poverty line; therefore, it would qualify students to receive financial aid.

The actions of the school officers that do not disclose the actual amount of the parents' monthly income in the summary form and altering the amount contradicts the requirement financial aid guidelines. The action is considered fraud because

the school officer was trying to hide actual information to qualify students in the school to receive financial aid. This action may lead to unequal distribution of the financial aid because those students were not qualified to receive the money. This action is not parallel with the objectives of the financial aid distribution where the money should be disbursed to a qualified poor student.

This study found that inconsistency of information in the financial aid application form and the summary form was a red flag in that there were fraudulent activities occurring in the school where the school officers falsified information in the summary form. This action would encourage dishonesty and fraud in the process of obtaining financial assistance from the government.

No Proper Payment Schedule to the Schools

Based on the process flow of the distribution of the financial aid, it was found that there is no proper payment schedule distributed from the finance division to schools. Even though the procedure of the distribution of

the financial aid was governed by circulars, there was no proper payment schedule distributed by the finance division to inform when payment of the financial aid would be disbursed to the schools. The payment schedule served as a planning tool throughout the year for the finance department where it should highlight when payment would be paid to schools according to the states. By having proper planning, the finance division would have guidelines on payment schedule.

On the other hand, no proper payment schedule also leads to problems for school officers because they do not know when money will be credited to school bank accounts. Currently, schools only depend on the notification letter sent by the finance department shortly before money is credited to schools' bank accounts. The school officer faces many problems when parents keep on asking when payment of the financial aid will be disbursed to their children.

Lack of Adequate Training Given to the School Officers

According to the circular, every government servant must attend seminars and training for at least seven days or 40 hours per year. The main objective of the circular is to ensure that all government servants must complete themselves with attitude, knowledge, and skills in performing their work. Continuous training will give benefits to a government servant, where it will improve his or her quality of work as well as obtaining more knowledge and skills on financial procedures and record keeping as

well as obtaining more knowledge on good values, integrity, and ethics.

However, it was found that there was lack of adequate training given to the school officers to handle the financial record keeping. The problem arises when there is a high turnover of staff, especially teachers and school finance assistants who maintain the financial record keeping. There are situations where schools have a shortage of staff caused by high turnover, especially for the school finance assistant position. Hence, the headmaster needs to borrow staff from the district education office to assist schools in record keeping.

Inadequate training given to staff and lack of skills and experiences to handle financial records led to lack of proper documentation at schools. This study found that inadequate training also affects the performance and productivity of staff because it may have a lack of understanding on the needs of the circulars and is unable to perform the job according to the prescribed procedure. Hence, schools typically receive unfavorable audit comments from the auditor general.

CONCLUSIONS

Late payment of financial aid by the finance division to schools is a weakness in the current distribution process of the financial aid where the money will only be credited to school bank accounts after the new session begins. The delay in payment caused the government to fail in achieving the objective of the financial aid trust fund to support poor students to buy basic school necessities at

the beginning of the new session and also to decrease school dropout cases. Delay in receiving financial aid causes low self-esteem among poor students, and they may refuse to go to school because their parents cannot afford to pay the education fees and costs at the beginning of the new school session.

Among the reasons for this delay is the manual financial aid application process involves long process cycles, where the application needs to go through four stages of verification before payment can be made. The redundancy of the verification process at certain stages caused a long waiting time for processing the application before payment can be made to eligible students.

The delay in disbursement of the financial aid by schools to eligible students also happens when schools do not receive notification letters from the finance division regarding money that has been credited to the school's bank account. Moreover, the monthly bank statements can only be obtained from the respective bank after 14 days of the current month. School officers do not exercise proactive action to call the respective bank to obtain new updates on money credited to school bank accounts and only wait for monthly bank statements to distribute the money.

Another loophole in the current distribution process is poor internal control at the school level where schools do not establish a school aid management committee. Another loophole is the failure to maintain proper meeting minutes regarding the selection of eligible students. The

eligibility of students to receive financial aid is questionable due to the selection of eligible students, who do not go through the proper verification process in which the school aid management committee needs to examine the application form submitted by students to ensure that the parents disclose truthful information.

Inaccurate sources of data provided by the *e-Care* system is one of the reasons for inefficient distribution of the financial aid. The data in the *e-Care* system do not provide accurate information on the eligibility of students to receive financial aid because the information constantly changes according to the current financial situation of the student's family. Furthermore, the ministry of education faced many problems when using the *e-Care* system when the system did not provide the correct school information, which caused payment disbursement to the wrong schools.

The absence of payment schedules provided by the finance division shows that inefficiency of the division to maintain strategic planning throughout the year. The payment schedule serves as a guideline that informed types of payment that will be paid, date of the disbursement of payment, and which states will be paid first. The absence of the payment schedule causes schools to be unaware that money has been credited to schools' bank accounts.

The learning process and the development of employees are important in ensuring employees have full knowledge to effectively perform the job. Inadequate training and courses given to school

officers caused lack of understanding on the requirement of the procedures and guidelines in distributing the financial aid. The frequency of staff moving in and out from the schools especially for the school finance assistant position caused improper documentation because the new staff has limited knowledge and experience in handling school financial transactions and record keeping.

IMPLICATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

Establishment of the Working Group to Monitor Information in the *e-Care* System

Application through the *e-Care* system expedites the selection process of eligible students where the applications do not have to go through the application process. Accurate sources of data from the system are important to ensure that payment is made to eligible students and made through the right schools. The study recommended that one working group is established to monitor information in *e-Care*. By having the working group, all information regarding financial assistance that has been awarded by other ministries must go through the working group. The working group will set the specific date when the information will be updated in the system, i.e., quarterly or monthly.

The working group also has to limit the authority of other ministries to obtain access to the system. It would be better for one working group to monitor and

update information rather than various ministries having access to the system, thus causing frequent changes to the system information. The working group must ensure all information in the *e-Care* system is accurate and adequate, especially information on school of the eligible students. To ensure effectiveness of the establishment of working group, there must be good collaboration between the working group and the ministry of education. From time to time, the working group must check with the ministry of education regarding the student's school information. Any change of schools must be updated in the *e-Care* system so that payment of financial aid can be channelled to the right school of the eligible students.

Implementation of Internet Banking System

One reason for delay in payment from schools to eligible students is due to late monthly bank statements. The study recommends that schools should use Internet banking services. The advancement of information and communication technologies changes not only people's lives but also improves the way businesses and organization operates (Suhaimi et al., 2016) as technologies able to enhance organisation controls and performance (Suhaimi et al., 2017). In this context, internet banking services allow the schools to view daily financial transactions and easily notice any receipt or payment that is made through the school bank account without waiting for the monthly bank

statement. The schools can simply detect if the finance division has credited money for the financial aid distribution and can distribute financial aid to students within 14 days after money has been credited to the school bank account. However, for safety purposes, the study suggests that the implementation of Internet banking is restricted to view daily transactions only. For withdrawal of money, the schools need to follow the current procedures, which have been described in the school financial management and accounting procedures, to avoid unauthorized payment made through Internet banking services.

Adoption of the Electronic Notification

The current practice uses the notification letter sent by the finance division to schools. To ensure schools receive the information within a specific time, the study suggests that the ministry use an electronic medium such as emails and short message services to inform that payment has been made by the finance department. To ensure schools receive the names of eligible students approved by the finance division, the division can send the list of names through email. This method is more effective and faster than sending notification letters to schools where there is a tendency that letters might fail to reach the recipients.

Change in the Mode of Payment

To overcome problem of delay in payment of the financial aid fund to eligible students, the study suggests that the payment of the

financial aid is made directly from the finance division to students' bank account. The proposed suggestion will speed up the payment process where it will eliminate the role of schools as intermediaries to distribute money to eligible students.

Strengthening the Function of the School Aid Management Committee

The school aid management committee plays an important role in selecting and endorsing eligible students to receive financial aid. Problems arise when schools have lack of understanding regarding the role and function of the committee and do not establish the committee in their schools. To solve this problem, the government needs to take effective action to communicate with schools regarding the role and function of the school aid management committee. During yearly audit work, the department must examine whether schools have established the school aid management committee. The committee will perform as an internal audit committee at the school level where the committee must do random investigation on the students' welfare and status. Furthermore, proper meeting minutes must be prepared as evidence that the committee has to perform its job. The committee must ensure that the financial aid is given to eligible students and must reject the application if there is an irregularity or false information given in the application forms. By understanding the role of the committee, the school officers can avoid dishonesty in the application process.

Continuous Training and Courses Given to School Officers

The ministry must from time to time give adequate training to school officers who are directly involved in handling the distribution of the financial aid at the school level. The school management leader must have adequate knowledge regarding financial procedures and understand the circular's requirements. The hands-on training approach is an efficient method in which to conduct training for headmasters, teachers, and the school finance assistant, i.e., those who are directly involved in managing the funds. The training will provide benefits to schools, where schools can receive prompt feedback regarding unclear matters about their job scope. The ministry also must provide continuous and scheduled training from time to time because staff frequently changes from time to time, especially for the position of a school finance assistant.

LIMITATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

This study has several limitations. First, it selects only one state as a sample. Future research should include additional states, so more conclusive findings can be derived, and comparisons can be made among the states. Second, this study limits its scope only to the distribution process in the surface that involved selection, verification, payment, and record keeping in many departments under the ministry of education. Future study should include more in-depth study of every process involved in the distribution.

Third, this study only interviews a few people to obtain insight into the current practices. Future research should employ other methods such as through surveys, which can reach more people, so that findings can be more generalized into wider perspectives.

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Math-Related Critical Thinking Theory in Civil Engineering Design

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ABSTRACT

Design is the fundamental soul to all branches of engineering. It is a prime context for understanding how civil engineers use critical thinking and mathematical thinking in engineering problem-solving. However, information about the interrelation between these two types of thinking in real-world engineering practice is found lacking in the literature. This paper presents the first-hand experience of developing a substantive theory which relates both critical thinking and mathematical thinking used by practicing engineers in the civil engineering design process. The qualitative research using modified grounded theory method was employed in this study. Data were generated from semi-structured interviews with practicing engineers from two engineering consultancy firms. Six essential processes of justifying decisions reasonably in engineering design process were identified, namely complying requirements, forming conjectures, drawing reasonable conclusions, defending claims with good reasons, giving alternative ways and selecting and pursuing the right approach. Findings of this study may advise prospective civil engineers of the applicability and indispensability of critical thinking and mathematical thinking in making and justifying

decisions during the engineering design process. The study also contributes useful information to engineering education on fulfilling the expectations of engineering program outcomes set by the Engineering Accreditation Council.

Keywords: Civil engineering, critical thinking, decision making, design process, mathematical thinking, problem-solving

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INTRODUCTION

Engineering is a people-oriented profession. Engineers are hired for their abilities and expertise to solve workplace problems. The essential learning outcomes for any engineering program are to equip engineers with abilities to apply, identify, design, and solve engineering problems (EAC-BEM, 2012; Engineering Accreditation Commission [ABET], 2014). Engineering fields are characterized into four main branches: chemical engineering, civil engineering, electrical engineering, and mechanical engineering. This study focuses on civil engineering as the domain of the study. Several criteria have been considered in choosing civil engineering as the focus area of this research.

Civil engineering is regarded as the oldest engineering field. Civil engineering has contributed to cultivating civilization by providing a higher standard of living with its designs, buildings, and facilities invented. Since 2980 B.C., civil engineers have started building things when the famous and amazing Egyptian Pyramids were being built, to a more recent modern marvel of the Golden Gate Bridge, the longest single span bridge (4200 feet) in the world in 1937 (Department of Civil & Environmental Engineering, 2012). Civil engineering has a strong connection with and contributed to community service, development, and improvement. It designs, constructs and maintains society's infrastructure and major construction projects such as the highways, buildings, tunnel, bridges and water systems. Civil engineers must often

manage very complex projects and are also considered as problem solvers; facing the challenges of pollution, traffic congestion, drinking water and energy needs, urban redevelopment, and community planning (Department of Civil & Environmental Engineering, 2012; Dorward, 2013).

Science and mathematics are closely related to the civil engineering profession (BOK2 ASCE, 2008; Nelson, 2012). It is crucial for civil engineers to have abilities to think clearly and to express their ideas with clarity and logic in executing their engineering tasks. Application of science and mathematics as an attachment to their profession is deemed indispensable, especially in designing projects that solve real-world problems (Dorward, 2013). Employment of civil engineers is expected to grow and increase faster than average for at least a decade since 2010 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor, 2012; Department of Civil & Environmental Engineering, 2012). It is due to the growing population that requires civil engineers to design and build more things, as well as to meet the needs to replace and/or fix infrastructure that already beyond its life span.

Since civil engineering has a wide scope of application, this study concentrates on the civil engineering design process. Design is the fundamental soul to all branches of engineering. It is a decision-making process where the content knowledge of mathematics, science and engineering courses is integrated and applied (Cardella & Atman, 2007) to convert resources

optimally to meet desired needs. Design is a form of problem-solving that is open-ended and complex (Jonassen, 2000). Therefore, design is a process reliant and the solution is subjected to unforeseen complications and changes as it develops (Khandani, 2005). A deep understanding of the complex dynamics of design processes, teams, contexts, and systems is needed to support successful strategies in design education and practice (Daly et al., 2013). This understanding requires research methodologies that can capture the nature of the design process from a diversity of aspects, i.e., cognitive, creative, social, organizational, and experiential (Daly et al., 2013). For that reason, a deep insight into the interrelation and interaction between critical thinking and mathematical thinking in civil engineering practice, particularly during the engineering design process, is considered crucial and required in preparing the future engineers.

A review into the American Society for Civil Engineering in the body of knowledge reveals that the cognitive level of achievement has been generically described based on the Bloom's taxonomy and the associated descriptors for the civil engineering courses (BOK2 ASCE, 2008). However, there are no extensive descriptions delineating critical thinking elements for the engineering mathematics courses. Stated in the National Academy of Engineering (National Academy of Engineering, 2005), engineering education must be realigned, refocused and reshaped to promote attainment of the characteristics

desired in practicing engineers. This must be executed in the context of an increased emphasis on the research base underlying conduct of engineering practice and engineering education. Furthermore, as a profession, engineering is undergoing transformative evolution where the fundamental engineering processes remain the same but the domains of application are rapidly expanding (National Academy of Engineering, 2005). Thus, there is a need to develop an enhanced understanding of models of engineering practice in this evolving environment. Equally important, ability to think independently is essential to succeed in today's globally connected and rapidly evolving engineering workplace (National Academy of Engineering, 2012). Besides the existing excellent technical education, infusing real engineering problems and experiences into engineering education to give engineering students exposure to real engineering is timely and crucial (Felder, 2012). Moreover, to have insights into the interrelation and interaction among pertinent elements of critical thinking and mathematical thinking in the engineering practice is thought to be helpful to lubricate and accelerate the process of understanding, applying and transferring mathematical knowledge into engineering education. Therefore, this study aims to have insight into the interrelation and interaction among pertinent elements of critical thinking and mathematical thinking, as perceived by civil engineers during engineering design process.

METHOD

This study used a systematic set of procedures of the modified grounded theory method to analyse data for identifying themes within engineering experiences shared by practicing engineers. Data were generated from semi-structured interviews with practicing engineers from civil engineering consultancy firms. The informants were chosen from civil engineering consultancy firms, focusing on the civil engineering design process. The selected engineers must have a minimum of five years' experience in this field of civil engineering design. In this study, through a theoretical sampling process, a total of eight practicing civil engineers were selected with various years of experience ranging from five to twenty years. The phenomenon of various years of working experience was taken as an advantage for offering multiple stages of design experience and covering a wider scope of past and present design experience.

As a methodological framework, this study employed qualitative research using inductive, deductive and abductive approaches in Strauss and Corbin's version of a modified grounded theory method. In this analytic induction approach, data from interviews built the basis for further description and interpretation. In the grounded theory method, data acquisition and data analysis are interrelated and carried out simultaneously. Findings from the interview data determine the orientation of the subsequent interviews in theoretical sampling. This iterative process is continuing until it reaches the theoretical

saturation. Multiple stages of analytic process involved, namely open coding, axial coding and selective coding (Corbin & Strauss, 1990; Osman et al., 2015c; Strauss & Corbin, 1990, 1998). Two analytic tools were used in the analysis namely Conditional Relationship Guide (CRG) and Reflective Coding Matrix (RCM) (Scott & Howell, 2008).

The Straussian grounded theory approach is chosen due to its more inclusive attitude to the extant literature and systematic approach to data analysis that involves inductive, deductive and abductive approaches. The inductive approach is a data-driven strategy which develops themes emergently based on patterns in the data (Daly et al., 2013). Codes/categories/themes are emergently developed during open coding process of raw data. The deductive approach is a concept-driven strategy to base categories on previous knowledge, which is defined as determining a coding scheme prior to looking at the data (Daly et al., 2013). In this study, this strategy was applied during data analysis process and throughout the constant comparative method that used two main sources: categories emerged during open coding process from the previous interview transcript analysis and pertaining literature relating to critical thinking and mathematical thinking. Abductive approach is an analytic induction for generating new ideas from a combination of the fundamental approaches of inductive and deductive (Suddaby, 2006). It allows researchers to modify or elaborate extant concepts when there is a need to do so, as to achieve a

better fit and workability of generated theory (Thornberg, 2012). This approach is applied mostly in open coding during data analysis process and throughout the constant comparative method. To conclude, this study adopts the abductive approach as an analytic induction for generating new ideas from a combination of the fundamental inductive and deductive approaches.

The process of selecting pertinent elements of critical thinking and mathematical thinking was carried out at the initial stage of the analysis. Pertinent elements were identified from the emergent codes during open coding (Osman et al., 2016), from the lens of Facione (Facione, 1990, 2007, 2013; Facione et al., 2000) for the core skills and dispositions of critical thinking and Schoenfeld (1985, 1992) for the five aspects of cognition of mathematical thinking. Subsequently, the interrelation among the pertinent elements was empirically established through axial coding, using the CRG (Osman et al., 2015b). Ultimately, all the pertinent elements were integrated and systematically related to the core category during the selective coding process. The interaction among the pertinent elements in relation to the core category was depicted through the RCM used in the selective coding process (Osman et al., 2015a). However, the emergent categories were reviewed and verified by the experts in those particular fields to ensure trustworthiness. Microsoft Word 2010 and Microsoft Excel 2010 were used to assist the organization and management of data.

The fully developed RCM shows the refined Core Category, *justifying decisions reasonably in dominating orientation*, with the six related processes: *complying requirements, forming conjectures, drawing reasonable conclusions, defending claims with good reason, giving alternative ways and selecting and pursuing the right approach*. Through the CRG and RCM, the interrelation and interaction among pertinent elements of critical thinking and mathematical thinking in developing the emerging theory are established.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The emerging theory of Math-related Critical Thinking comprises pertinent elements of critical thinking and mathematical thinking used by civil engineers in real-world engineering design practice. In particular, this emerging theory is a process theory explaining the interrelation and interaction among pertinent elements of critical thinking and mathematical thinking in real-world civil engineering design practice. Apparently, in order to solve engineering problems, engineers need to make decisions and justify the decisions reasonably. From the CRG and RCM, the explanation below explicitly describes the story line of the process theory, referring to the six essential processes: complying requirements, forming conjectures, drawing reasonable conclusions, defending claims with good reasons, giving alternative ways and selecting and pursuing the right approach. This explanation answers the aim of this study that to have insight into

the interrelation and interaction among pertinent elements of critical thinking and mathematical thinking, as perceived by civil engineers during the engineering design process. The explanation provides verbatim quotations from informants as support, and all quotations and codes are italicized.

Complying Requirements

Along the process, at all stages of design, to be *complying* with the standard requirements is crucial and need to be taken into account. Ensuring all steps and measurements *conforming* to the specification like following the basic design process and adhering to code of practice is one's *self-consciousness* in putting in place his or her *self-regulation*.

Likewise, *confirming* a status prior to making any decision is a part of *self-reflection* in addressing compliance. It needs to be done with *careful and prudent*.

"There was a case, where, after the building was built, they found some cracks. We rechecking our design, running into software, and it was confirmed our mistake. We had this misconception at the beginning, so, when it was wrong, obviously could see all the cracks." (Engineer 7)

In the same way, several aspects are in the main focus of compliance such as authorities' requirements, clients' needs and code of practice, especially the safety factors.

"Safety factor cannot be ignored, and the cost as well, so, by having

an engineer can diversify the design with minimal cost but safety is always prioritized. To me, this is the role of an engineer....again, the safety factor is our priority."

(Engineer 7)

Equally important, to pursue the right approach in adhering the requirements involves some considerations like to do *self-correction*, having *mathematical consciousness* or *consciousness in assessing materials*.

"After calculating the water demand, we do design, and after that, if realized that we have over designed it, we can reduce the size from the result obtained using software." (Engineer 2)

"Sometimes we do not aware of the new knowledge or materials at the factory or market, but the fact is they, and many other things out there, can help us and can be discussed." (Engineer 5)

In doing so, *gathering relevant information* is deemed necessary to have clear pictures and correct perspectives regarding the requirements. All the information is used for the purpose of *revising and amending* the design according to the specified requirements.

"If we got comments from the authorities, such as, have to widen the drain or insufficient pond, then, we gather all the comments and forward to the planner." (Engineer 8)

Obviously, doing design tasks requires good time management. All comments, views, and changes have to be handled in time. Therefore, the usage of design software is indispensable in keeping pace with the needs and urgency, either from the authorities or clients.

"We must have design software, nowadays people do not design manually unless if want to be left behind. If clients ask us to do it today, they expect to get the result by tomorrow, so, for sure cannot finish if do it manually."

(Engineer 1)

Undeniable, using software facilitates design works. Nevertheless, compliance with the requirement has never been neglected. Whatever the output produced by the software, it is always being monitored and *counter-checked*, especially for its compliance with the code of practice.

Hence, *complying the requirements*, as one of the processes in justifying a decision, is a fundamental process that not only to be considered at the beginning but also during and after the design process. In other words, it occurs along the way of the design process, mainly when a decision is to be made, to be justified and to be dominating the orientation.

Forming Conjectures/Assumptions

Beginning at the preliminary stage of design, the process of *forming conjectures/assumptions* has already been introduced for speculating what is going on and what will

be happening. The assumptions are based on the preliminary information gathered during this initial design stage.

"Preliminary stage is for preliminary info, and from this stage we could make assumptions on what is going on."

(Engineer 5)

Certainly, this process is not intuitive but an *adeptness* that needs to be gained and acquired. It is not only needed during the preliminary stage but at all stages of design, especially when justifications are to be seeking out. *Adeptness at forming conjectures/assumptions* is one of the *mathematical proficiencies* applied in solving a problem. It is apparent that having *mathematical views and sense-making*, gives sound justification.

"All stages involve mathematics, not so much at the input data, but, other than that, all involves mathematics."

(Engineer 4)

In the same way, using *analytical reasoning skills* could support the process of *making conjectures* with more reasonable justification for a decision to be made. More importantly, this analytical reasoning gives a good prediction for *simulating real life experience in forming conjectures*.

"...and for this, the experience is helpful because we have to think of how will they execute it later, especially the contractor, if we do like this, how well can they do it?"

(Engineer 3)

It can be seen that the ability to *forming conjectures* is not solely depending on theoretical knowledge, it is mostly gained through experience and *informal knowledge* acquired with it as well. Thus, a lot of thinking is involved in forming conjectures mainly during the design stage. This is not a random *imagination* but to facilitate a design, by imagining something that must be workable, adhering to the required specifications and able to be functioning.

“We do thinking that needs imagination, not like artistic thinking that freely to think of anything, but we imagine something workable that considering all the required specification, we still have to imagine it so that it can be functioning.” (Engineer 8)

Forming conjectures is a part of the iterative design process that considering all possible views in making decision. For this, the engineers involved have always to be *tolerant of divergent views* and understanding others' opinions in order to make more comprehensive reasoning and justification for drawing a reasonable conclusion.

“So far, I have never seen exactly the same approach been applied to different work, different clients have different ways and needs, so, we have to act accordingly, as long as it does not against our work ethic as an engineer.” (Engineer 1)

Drawing Reasonable Conclusions

In designing a project, several decisions need to be made along the way of the process. Thus, having well attentive start as initial scrutiny is deemed the first and foremost process in detecting, examining and having correct interpretation of a problem or situation. It is important *to comprehend* and *to clarify meaning* correctly when *examining ideas* or situations, to enable the engineers to really understand the problem.

In the same way, correctly *examining ideas* and *assessing the credibility of statements* for making a decision and justification is important because it shows the degree of meticulousness and attentive effort to the decision process. This thoroughness is important in order to have a practically sound decision with *reasonable justification*.

“Usually, from the architecture drawing, we could see where the beam, column and slab are placed, and if the columns having too big gap, we will ask permission from the architect to add some more columns, or otherwise the beam will be bigger.” (Engineer 3)

Subsequently, design process is done as team-working and no isolated silo mind-set. The engineers execute tasks based on specializations through frequent communications among team members along the process, and then, *having a discussion* for coordination prior to making any decision.

“Definitely, we have a team in doing a project, consists of architects, engineers of civil, mechanical and electrical, quantity surveyor, and so on. We have to communicate very often, especially if there are any changes.” (Engineer 7)

In addition, to anticipate any reasonable conclusion or decision, *using evidence to solve problem* reflects a better view of the real-world situation. It is due to every project is unique in terms of its needs, challenges and problems. Furthermore, ability to make inference or to anticipate any reasonable conclusion, using creativity besides technical thinking, as well as common sense is also crucial in design process.

“We had this misconception at the beginning, so, when it was wrong, obviously could see all the cracks. We panicked, at that time we had no professional engineer but only a supervisor, so, we sat down and discussed what had happened and how to rectify it.” (Engineer 7)

Therefore, for design engineers, gaining experiences along the way of executing their engineering practices is priceless. It also includes having good rapport with other people in the field such as the authorities. This is to ensure smoothness of the work flow in the process of design.

“Having good rapport and experience is priceless, they can be adapted in other projects, but

for layout, definitely different as it cannot be reused, except for schools that following JKR standards.”
(Engineer 7)

Moreover, it is apparent that using software facilitates design works, and at the same time also accelerates design process to make it fast and reliable. Nevertheless, this comfort facility should not be a reason for being negligent to the miniscule detailing of the design, as it might affect the credibility of *drawing reasonable conclusions*.

“It is undoubtedly that using software is very helpful.....but then again, when the thing becomes easier, we always tend to be negligent, and our negligence makes us forget to see all the miniscule detailing, and this is really alarming and we need to focus on it.” (Engineer 7)

Defending Claims with Good Reasons

Basically, to prioritize safety and minimize cost are the main factors being considered in design projects, in fact, as the role and nature of practice of all design engineers. They should not compromise on safety to save cost. For having a strong fundamental to their decision, they must *defend their claims with good reasons*. All this comes with ethics and experience as experience matures the engineers with time. It helps them to *consider the relevant correct info* and to form sensible conjectures in design projects.

"...for gaining experience, it takes some time, it is there but we have to find the data, and the data must be correct, our assumption also must be correct, then only our design will be correct, and even later if it fails, it is not our faults but might be because of something else."

(Engineer 1)

Another way in doing so is to *defend their claims mathematically* to let the decision sounds more practical and reasonable.

"We cannot compromise on safety to save cost, we have our permissible limit, if the size of the beam really cannot be reduced, we have to defend it, and as an engineer, we indeed have to defend it."

(Engineer 8)

As mentioned previously, software facilitates design works. Therefore, most of the design tasks rely on the software. Having correct input data is important as it determines the product. Thus, *working backward in detecting failure* and in ensuring the correctness of input data is a very important process in design. Again, experience adds some value in this case. When this part is verified, they can defend their claim with good reasons and justification.

Subsequently, it is important to *defend claims with good reasons* during *solving open ended questions*. They have to make fast and accurate decisions in suggesting solutions to the problem. In this case, having

strong *engineering sense* is indispensable and deemed necessary as design needs creativity.

"When we investigated the soil, all was fine and we determined the place to do piling. But then, when they were doing the piling, the piling was broken, again and again, so, since we were facing the problem during that time, we had to make fast decision on what to do now, how to do...." (Engineer 8)

Therefore, adhering to the required specifications and complying with the design needs enable the engineers to defend claims with good reasons and justify decisions reasonably with confidence. This ethical professionalism also boosts confidence that their design is practical and workable.

Giving Alternative Ways/Solutions

As mentioned earlier, forming conjectures is one of the processes in justifying decisions reasonably. This process inevitably affects the way they believe and see problems in design. Additionally, when designing a project, their perception of the real situation usually steers their decisions. Nevertheless, what they designed sometimes does not totally fit the real situation at site or maybe having difficulties to execute. As a result, *giving alternative ways or solutions* is a necessity in design process. They have to be *flexible in considering alternatives* as a *truth-seeking* practice, complementing their belief in the design project.

"Sometimes what we designed does not totally fit the real situation at site, or maybe difficult to execute, so, we have to think of other alternatives." (Engineer 3)

In view of that, *thoroughness in checking* on the design from scratch to the final output is going on from time to time, depending on the level of confidence of the engineers and their *beliefs*. This is to ensure the concept of design is correct and fulfilling the needs of requirement. Having the right concept from the beginning is important so that any perception made will be more reliable and practical. Therefore, they are able to think of how to solve problems in a better way, to *grip with uncertainties*, as well as *giving alternative ways or solutions* to the problems.

Equally important, they have to know and understand clearly the client needs, as well as the requirements of authorities, in order to have the right concept of design from the beginning. Having *intellectual curiosity* helps the engineers to be *diligent in seeking relevant info* with much intense concentration and focus. It *affects* their perception and interpretation of the design concept to be more transparent. It enables them to propose more relevant alternative ways or solutions to problems in design process.

"We have to know their needs, let say we build a road, how much depth is required, what is the purpose of building this road, or maybe we have to collect some data that is called traffic impact

assessment to determine how many lanes are appropriate for the road." (Engineer 7)

Selecting/Pursuing the Right Approach

Undoubtedly, theoretical knowledge and experience are equally important aspects of design that always interwoven and concurrently present. Those aspects are indispensable in dominating orientation for justifying a decision to be made.

As each design project is unique in terms of its needs, problems and challenges, they have to *select and pursue the right approach* to ensure the design is fulfilling all the requirements and can be completed within the stipulated time.

"If we want to get info in structure, we use the right formula and it is being well followed, but, how we approach our clients, it depends on individual skills to accelerate the process." (Engineer 7)

Obviously, the usage of software is dominating and indispensable in design, to facilitates and accelerates the design process. Moreover, most of the calculations are done by software, but it never denies the importance and *the application of the theoretical knowledge* in the design projects. The theoretical knowledge, like *using standard equations*, may not be overtly applied but it is all embedded in the formula they use for doing calculation. However, when having a problem to trace or a need to review or amend the design, the theoretical knowledge is apparently

used and directly applied. Also, some *manipulation* sometimes needs to be done on *the formula* to suits the requirement in getting the desired info.

“Actually, indirectly, we use what we learnt, like calculus, and even though it is not directly applied, it is embedded in the formulae that we use for doing calculation.”

(Engineer 8)

It can be seen that the design process is not rigid but more flexible. The *ability to adapt experience or trying new or different approach* to meet the design requirement is deemed essential to the process. Even though each design project is unique, something invaluable from the experience is worth to be adapted to the next project. It includes techniques acquired in dealing with authority, like presenting theory and technical report, as well as building a relationship. Another thing is approaching techniques or having contact with expertise in the design field like expert in material defect. Equally important is having a good rapport with others like authorities, team members, experts, and so on.

“The longer he involves in a field, the more experience he gains, which can be adapted to the next projects.”

(Engineer 7)

Considering the above, it can be said that experience and knowledge add values to the engineers. Nature of work of engineering is to create and solve problems. Professional-wise, the engineers like to solve problems promptly and never left the

problems with unattended. Therefore, they equip themselves with relevant knowledge and experience to sound more practical and reasonable in justifying a decision. Thus, it is *selecting and pursuing the right approach* leads the decision to be *dominating the orientation* with the *application and adaptation of the relevant knowledge and experience*.

“In engineering, we create problems, and solve problems. We are the one who created the problem yet we solved it. Sometimes they do not know how to find the problem even the knowledge is there. For example, like designing a bridge, when we know the ground is not solid, so, what to do? We do SI test, from it, we know its foundation should be at this depth. So, we design it. Then, we found that the length is not sufficient, so, we extend some more, still not enough. Finally, the solution is, to add piling, then, have to calculate back. So, to get that experience needs someone to work longer....”

(Engineer 1)

CONCLUSIONS

This paper presents an explicit description of the process theory emerged from this study regarding the decision making process in engineering design pertaining to critical thinking and mathematical thinking. The study has identified six essential processes of justifying decisions reasonably in engineering design process,

namely complying requirements, forming conjectures, drawing reasonable conclusions, defending claims with good reasons, giving alternative ways and selecting and pursuing the right approach. These six processes were developed from the pertinent elements of critical thinking and mathematical thinking through the multiple stages of analytic process using the analytic tools, namely Conditional Relationship Guide and Reflective Coding Matrix. This study may inform not only engineering education and practicing engineers, but also future researchers who are interested to further investigate the application and interaction of critical thinking and mathematical thinking in engineering practice. This study provides evidence on the usage of both types of thinking in real-world civil engineering practice. This information helps engineering community towards better balance engineering curriculum with the skills required and applied in real engineering practice, to suit the engineering program outcomes. The emerging theory is useful for engineering practice, which is currently still lacking in relation to the engineering design. By recognizing the role of Math-Related Critical Thinking theory in the real engineering practice may help prospective engineers to be better guided on how to engage in these two types of thinking in engineering problem solving and transfer the knowledge material they have learned across the engineering disciplines.

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Developing Democratic Culture through Civic Education

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ABSTRACT

Since the era of reformation, people's understanding, knowledge and realization of real democracy in Indonesia have not been made evident by the socio-political realities of life within Indonesia's frame of democracy. An important agenda would be to build school as *a research site or laboratory of democracy* and *the microcosmos of democracy*. A qualitative approach through case study was employed for this research and data collection was done through observation, interviews and document analysis. The results from the study show that (1) in the comprehension of rights and efforts towards enhancing student discipline, democracy education plays a significant role; (2) systematic democratic learning is referred by the planning mechanism and the use of civic learning; and (3) the experience of democracy and socio-cultural values is made possible by the Student Council and extra-curricular activities. In conclusion, the research indicates that the pattern of disciplinary education adopted by the Integrated High School of Krida Nusantara Bandung, West Java, corresponds with the military discipline, religious education, boarding care as well as the National Education System.

Keywords: Civic education , culture, democratic, dicipline, school-based

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INTRODUCTION

The expectations that come with a renewed democracy in terms of understanding and awareness of nationhood is however not evident in the socio-political life of Indonesia since the era of reformation and in a democratic framework. Forms of deviant behavior have been expressed through protests and unruly behavior at election

events in various regions and these erode the foundations of the democratic lifestyle. Referred to as “undemocratic democracy,” by Sumantri (1998), this describes a national and state structure where only the framework of democracy exists, without the true spirit and manifestation of its ideals.

Because of all this, the imminent agenda of the government includes the plan to develop a constitutional democracy parallel to religion and as mandated by the 1945 Constitution and Law No.20 of 2003 is classified as intellectual superiority in Indonesia. Due to the belief that democracy neither teaches itself nor is inherited and is a process that requires a life-time of learning (Gandal & Finn, 1992), it is therefore of many dimensions and needs professional supervision. The idea that democracy is not a machine that would self-generate, but must be consciously reproduced has also been suggested by Alexis de Toqueville (Branson, 1998). To nurture the nation of Indonesia by creating the principles, values and culture of citizens and developing a participatory and civilized society, democracy education needs to be ordered in an organized way instead of being randomly facilitated.

Two reasons were suggested by Azra (2001) for the pivotal role that the teaching of democracy plays in building democratic culture. The first relates to “political illiteracy”. This refers to people’s ignorance of how democracy and its institutions work. The lack and reluctance of citizens to be involved in political processes connects to the second reason of increasing political apathism. It thus follows that laying the

foundations for the concept, principles and values within democratic cultural behavior would require systemic efforts of civic education.

At its core, democracy education is a fundamental part of civic education at school. As civic education is an essential modality towards the formation of a civilized society, Winataputra (2005) argues that a major role in the development of a democratic civic culture is played by civic education.

The curriculum and learning process therefore need to be redirected and aligned with the development goals of the nation’s character to realize that goal. Civic knowledge transformation and civic disposition will translate and make this evident. Emphasis also needs to be placed on civic skills to support the development of civic culture.

Following the same line of argument, Gandal and Finn (1992) further suggest that two major settings showcase the development of democracy education. The first model is the school-based democracy education model. This is basically a model of school-based democracy education which exists within the context of formal education. The primary focus of this model was to create a direct link and to bridge the gap between the learning material and the actual goal of why social phenomena is studied (Suhartono, 2008).

Both intra- and extracurricular learning activities with democratic nuances are related to the development of this model. The society-based democracy education is

the secondary model and it is here that the context of community life. Becomes the arena for democracy education.

The systematic designing and holistic integration of both these models of teaching democracy into the national education system should hopefully create functional-pedagogical interactions both within and outside the school's socio-cultural atmosphere. The environment of the school is a "micro cosmos of democracy", and the larger community an "open global democracy" (Winataputra, 2001). Students will thus be involved directly as subjects as well as objects for the goals of democracy. Winataputra and Budimansyah (2007) refer to this as "learning democracy, throughout; in democracy and for democracy".

The setting of this case study was Krida Nusantara Bandung's Integrated High School. The choice of this school was based on its implementation of the four disciplinary approaches of the education system. These are authoritarian (military) and dormitory discipline following a Religious and National Education System (UUSPN).

The research objective is to investigate the scholastic-based democracy education at the Integrated of Krida Nusantara Integrated High School in Bandung. The following are the Research Questions:

1. What perceptions do the principal and teachers have about the idea of democracy education and the school community which is democratic?
2. To what extent is the implementation of Civic Education in schools

effective for the learning of democracy?

3. What constraints, if any, are there in democracy education in School Student Organizations within the school, extracurricular activities and boarding school programs?

METHOD

A qualitative approach was adopted for this study which as described by Creswell (1998) refers to is a discovery based holistic approach. By immersion and deep involvement in real experiences, qualitative research describes itself as a model that slowly uncovers layers and takes place in settings that are natural. This allows the researcher the opportunity to develop. Rather than being deductive, the premises of qualitative research are built on inductive reasoning. Here the researcher will try to make descriptions and give explanations based on these elements of observation.

A case study, as defined by Creswell (1998), ought to be structured along the problem, and issues and subsequently the reasons should be derived. There is extensive data collection for a case study and the sources may be multiple. Examples include interviews and observations. Other sources may include physical artifacts, archival records or documents, and audiovisual materials. Time needs to be spent by the researcher in engagement with the cases under study and on-site interaction may also be needed. Patterns that relate to theories and lessons learned will then be reported.

In this study, both information and data were collected from interviews and participant and non-participant observation. Data also came from library research and document analysis. Two categories were created from the data for the purpose of analysis. The first category comprised the printed material (bibliography). The second category was from human resources or informants. The informants for the interview were identified through purposive sampling. For data analysis, Miles and Huberman's (2007) techniques were used. These consist of three processes that are interactive. The processes are data reduction, data presentation, and conclusion/verification. Table 1 shows the data collection procedure:

Participants

Through the process of purposive sampling, the principal teachers and students of the Integrated High School of Krida Nusantara Bandung were interviewed. This sampling method was used as it permits the selected sample to be of choice based on the criteria of the research (Koerber & McMichael, 2008). The number of subjects was determined according to the requirements of purposive sampling, namely, one principal, three civic education teachers in the three classes X, XI and XII; one vice principal (for curriculum), one vice principal (for student affairs and facilities), extracurricular coaches for dormitories, and one student from each of the three classes, X, XI and XII.

Table 1

Data collection

No.	Research Questions	Interview
1	What perceptions do the principal and teachers have about the idea of democracy education and the school community which is democratic?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • principal • teachers • students
2	How effective is the use of Civic Education in schools for the learning of democracy?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • principal • vice principal for curriculum • teachers of Civic Education
3	What constraints if any, are there in democracy education in School Student Organizations within the school , extra-curricular activities and boarding school programs?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • vice principal of the student affairs • boarding school counselors • Students

Research Setting

Situated in West Java, Indonesia, The Integrated High School of Krida Nusantara is a well-known boarding school in Bandung. It has three pillars of education. These are comprehensively and holistically based on religion, academics, and skills. Three subject groups are drawn from these pillars which begin with general subjects (referring to content based on the national curriculum). The other two are based on religious skills (referring to the local content curriculum).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

The following section reports the findings of this research in the order of the Research Questions.

Perceptions About a Democratic School Community and Democracy Education

The interview and the library research indicated that the principal, teachers, and students perceive democracy in education as the provision of an arena for students to further develop themselves in areas they are interested. High regard is placed upon democracy in education, according to the Principal of the school, and building a community of life among the citizens of the school is also deemed important. In this way, students are better able to have a deeper understanding of their obligations and entitlements within the school's discipline framework.

Within Indonesia's formal education context, The *UUSPN* No. 20, 2003, chapter II article 3, reflects the urgency of democracy in education. Here it states that

the chief objective of national education is for the people to "become democratic and responsible citizens." The implications of this make it necessary for schools to construct conducive environments, implement social order-pedagogies and facilitate a conducive place where personal democratic values and principles which are varied can develop. Schools, in other words, need to become democracy laboratories.

Interview data (elicited from the management and teachers) also reflects people's belief that other channels are necessary to promote democratic values apart from subjects like civic education. Democratic principles need to be perceived with a unified vision as the underpinning spirit driving all learning activity. Civic education should be attributed to student-learning both within and outside of the school and not perceived as an isolated subject taught in the school schedule.

To establish the democratic school community, the Principal outlined two strategic aspects that need to be proposed. The first aspect refers to school management whose policies often require the active involvement of many parties. Innovative learning practices are promoted by the second. Here it is seen as an instrument that could improve social awareness. Apart from that, it could also advance intellectual curiosity, and life skills of the school's learner community. Seen from implementation perspectives, a spirit of democracy is essential for schools in many aspects. These include the management, planning, administration, and evaluation

of education. Apple and James (1995) have proposed that two aspects are involved in ensuring democratic patterns in school management. These usually refer to work procedures, an open and flexible design of the curriculum which allows varied student experiences and organizational structure.

The Principal and teachers believed that human rights in school should be a major focus of democracy in education. There should therefore be no unfair treatment of students. Apple and James (1995) in this context, explain that to develop a school that is democratic, one of the criteria that needs development is for the school to ensure that an open channel is provided for ideas so that information will be received in the best possible way by everyone. Apart from this, individuals and groups should be entrusted in their own capacity to deal with school problems. The school should also be able to convey criticism based on analysis. Aspects that need to be evaluated are school ideas, policies, social and public concern. Additionally, the school should also display concern for self-esteem, and the rights of the individual and the minority groups. The message that developed democracy has not reflected an idealized democracy also needs to be projected. Thus, it is imperative that democracy continues to be developed to guide humanity and to become an institution that continues to advance and implement democratic ways of life.

Effectiveness of Using Civic Education in Schools for Learning Democracy

The idea that development of materials,

methods, media, and assessment is included in civic education was conveyed through interviews and observations by the researcher. Competency standards formulated in the Content Standards (Permendiknas RI No 22 of 2006) directed the material development. Methods and strategies together with media and evaluation whose goal was directed at development of civic skills, disposition and knowledge, civic skills and that of civic disposition were also included.

When assessing civic education of democracy, all competency areas of citizenship need to be included. This avoids a product or result oriented approach of assessment. Instead, assessment is carried out at all stages of learning. Permendiknas RI No 20 Year 2007 with regards to the Assessment Standard, indicates that assessment based on this model can be carried out in four ways: (1) Oral or written tests focusing on practice and performance, (2) attitude scale observation of behavior (3) homework or project assignments (homework and project duties), and (4) portfolio assessment of a compilation of student work.

The analysis of documents and interviews was based on Joyce, Weil and Calhoun's (2009) model of democracy. This was applied in civic education at the Integrated High School Krida Nusantara Bandung. This model refers to (1) systematic initial conditioning and formation of concept as well as multicultural groups. It also includes group work and discussion groups, reflection and reinforcement. (2) In the social system, there needs to be mutual

student-teacher respect. Relationships must be good. Good communication, cultural sensitivity and respect for religious, and ethnic differences result in learning. (3) The teacher as a competent facilitator, apart from being a mediator, critic, and counselor, demonstrates the principles of management. (4) A well-equipped support system for the 'mobile class' including audio, LCD, computer, and libraries is essential. (5) Finally, the focus should be on instructional impact, the learning outcomes as opposed to the minimum achievement criteria, where learners are able to answer oral questions, take ownership of learning, explain concepts, and independently question the concepts learned. There is impact accompaniment which includes empathy, acceptance of differences, politeness, cooperation, consideration and respect of others' opinions, and collaboration.

This democratic learning process is significant in enabling the class to become a miniature model of democracy. Through effective cooperation, this can then help to instill in learners the social problem solving skills and knowledge. Winataputra and Budimansyah (2007) refer to this need for democratic teaching strategies and approaches as an effort towards the creation of the school as the center of democracy through democratic processes in learning. Structured in an atmosphere that is open, and intimate, with mutual respect, this democratic learning is significantly different from the stress and tension-filled rigid learning environment, burdened by instructions and prescriptive teaching that

churn out passive learners. According to Tacman (2006) "the democratic attitudes of the classrooms are important for improving people's democratic behaviors."

An important contribution related to the ideals of democratic stated above with each continuum showcasing different characteristics is Kerr's (1999) study on the conception of continuum civic education (Citizenship Education Continuum). The characteristics of the Minimum are exclusive, elitist, civic education with content that is thin, formally-led and knowledge-based, taught through didactic communication, and which is more easily achievable and measurable in practice. The characteristics of the Maximum on the other hand are deeper content, inclusive, activist-based and including citizenship education. Lessons are based on values and participative, with interpretation that is interactive and not so easily achieved or measured.

Democracy Education's Constraints

The interviews and the observations pertaining to the research question above indicated that the activities of the School's Student Organization at the Integrated High school of Krida Nusantara were not unlike those in other regular schools being similar in student organization activities. It is the students who facilitate the entire process of election.

The diverseness of student religion, ethnicity, language, and cultural backgrounds in the School's Student Organization has provided a more authentic experience in democracy therefore making

it distinct from other schools. It became more crucial to build mutual respect and tolerance among students. The plurality of students who formed the Intra-School Student Organization proved to be one of the challenges towards the process of assimilation. This however could also be seen as an opportunity for communication and integration among students from different cultural backgrounds.

Gandal and Finn (1992) further argued that schools could allow an arena and plan for a forum for democratic activities and learning outside the classroom. Schools could also facilitate events where students could learn and be engaged outside the classroom in democratic activities which could be organized and run by school's Student Organization apart from extracurricular activities. School's Student Organization and activities during extra-curriculum organizations have been created primarily by students and for students, and as such can be utilized as vehicles for developing democratic values in real life. Gandal and Finn (1992) consider these activities as opportunities for students to put into practice in school the norms of democracy where they need to cooperate and collaborate towards achieving common goals, choosing those who will be in leadership positions and also in making personal decisions concerning their own interests, and other co-curricular activities.

At the Integrated High School of Krida Nusantara, the development of democratic culture happens in an atmosphere of familial harmony. This is particularly evident in

the socio-cultural environment of the dormitory. The school teachers perceive the dormitory setting in fact as a symbiotic-mutualism ecosystem, where sense of kinship is evident. This has been fostered through the pattern of communal living. Thus, it potentially resembles nationalism and fosters a sense belonging. It is the responsibility of the head of the dormitory to ensure the harmony in the dormitory. The consistent senior-junior pattern of communications (juniors need to show respect to seniors) which has existed through generations and is considered "hereditary" is more obvious in the activities surrounding life in the dormitory.

Due to existing school sanctions and the possibility of dismissal, seniors are very unlikely to resort to physical contact. The teachers in charge of the dormitories were in agreement that it was the nature of atmosphere (unique due to students' multi-ethnic, multi religious backgrounds) that presented the chief challenge – that of preserving and maintaining harmony. However, this was achieved very satisfactorily by all the students in the dormitories.

Three distinguishing features, religious, nationalist-religious, and nationalist are proposed by Muslimin (2008) in referring to the boarding school atmosphere in Indonesia. The first of these features is religious which is further sub-divided into three patterns, namely, fundamentalist, moderate, and liberal which are reflections of Indonesia's religious patterns. Influences of the military (the symbol of nationalist leanings) are

apparent in this boarding school, with the aim of highlighting the seriousness of the teaching of discipline within democracy. Semi-military education combines with religious nuances in nationalist-religious style guidance in school. According to the teachers, no complications and problems were experienced and throughout it all harmony was maintained.

CONCLUSION

The development of a democratic culture through civic education from the perspective of the school-based democracy education in the Integrated High School of Krida Nusantara Bandung is seen to assume a form of disciplinary education. This is, in turn, closely associated to the National Education System (UUSPN). Aspects that are encompassed are religious education, military discipline, and boarding.

The conclusions of this study are as follows: (1) The perception of democracy education is as education that teaches the understanding of rights and obligations which come with a set of discipline-led sanctions for students. (2) The Standard of Content and the Standard of Process, and within certain limits refers to the norms of democratic learning (Joyce et al., 2009) and is adhered to during the planning and the implementation of civic learning. (3) Within the existing constraints of differences of culture religion, ethnicity, and the dorm, a real experience of democracy is provided by Student Council and extra-curricular activities. Intercultural, interethnic, and interreligious communication is facilitated

by the dorm's unique and conducive environment. This further encourages symbiotic-mutualism harmony. Dormitory tradition is still maintained and seniority and the privileges that come with it are maintained.

Through civic education, democratic culture is developed. "School-based democracy education" at the high school adopts the pattern of education with the application of discipline. This pattern is referred by the National Education System (UUSPN) and includes religious education and a form of authoritarian discipline (military). It also includes the parenting pattern. One of the recommendations of this study is for high school stakeholders to preserve, and continue to support and improve the efforts towards learning that is democratic. The development of a school culture that is democratic should continue to progress and thus transform into a model school for Indonesia.

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The Relationship Between Self-Adjustment, Social Support from Peers, and Self-Regulation with Learning Outcomes Among High School Students in Biology

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ABSTRACT

It is pertinent for students to be aware of their learning achievements. Previous research shows that many factors are related to achieving learning outcomes such as self-adjustment, social support from peers, and self-regulation. Whilst these factors may be enough to produce students who will be able to understand biology, they may not be sufficient to produce high achieving students who are motivated to learn biology. This study aims to determine the relationship between self-adjustment, social support from peers, and self-regulation and the outcomes of biology learning through motivation in learning in high school students. Data was collected through a questionnaire and documentation. The findings show that self-adjustment, social support, and self-regulation have a direct relationship with motivation and biology learning outcomes. Self-adjustment has an indirect relationship with learning outcomes through motivation in learning biology with a path coefficient of 0.14; social support from peers has an indirect relationship with the

learning outcomes through student learning biology motivation with a path coefficient of 0.20; and self-regulation has an indirect relationship with learning outcomes through student learning motivation with a path coefficient of 0.26. The conclusion of this study shows that it is important to foster the factors that determine student learning outcomes.

Keywords: Learning outcomes, motivation, self-adjustment, self-regulation, social support

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INTRODUCTION

Education in Indonesia is high priority for which improvement is continuously pursued (Sumintono & Mislana, 2011). However, the number of underachieving students in schools continues to increase alongside learning difficulties, and the motivation to learn decreases over time. To make matters worse, students present negative feelings such as boredom, anxiety, frustration, and tension, with low self-adjustment in learning (Bandura, 1993, 1994; Bandura & Locke, 2003).

The problem of self-adjustment in the school context occurs when students enter a new school environment. They are expected to adapt to this new environment which, in itself, can be considered a stressful situation. Good adaptation and social support from peers will affect students' learning motivation. Learning motivation has a significant effect on learning outcomes because good friends tend to have similar academic attitudes and achievements (Springer, 2008).

Teachers and friends are important aspects of adaptation within the school environment. Good self-adjustment can be seen in the acceptance of the teacher's authority, interest and participation in school activities, willingness to accept responsibility and demonstration of a close relationship with friends, teachers, and the school environment in general. Individuals as social beings need the help of others to adapt to their environment (Frey et al., 2009).

Students who receive good social support from their peers will feel that they are loved and cared for, which enhances their sense of self-worth. Peer support is needed in building closer social relationships in schools. According to Vollmeyer and Rheinberg (2006), the proximity of social relations serves as an exercise for future relationships, is mutually supportive and motivating, and which in turn, will provide positive value to the development of student learning outcomes.

Self-regulation is the ability to organize and direct what is thought and perceived, which is then implemented into a behavior plan to achieve both physical and mental success. Good self-regulation tends to make students more confident and encourages maximum performance and actions that lead to the achievement of desired goals. Despite failing in exams, students with good self-regulation are able to evaluate their mistakes and then improve them with better efforts and motivation (Ablard & Lipschultz, 1998).

Learning outcome is important in order to gauge students' knowledge of a subject at the end of the learning period. Although factors such as self-adjustment and social support are needed in these learning outcomes, these students may not be able to achieve good results in their subject without incorporating self-motivation into their learning routine. Every process in learning influences behavior changes in certain aspects of students. The changes in question must be in accordance with the learning objectives (Bahri & Corebima, 2015).

According to Muzlia et al. (2012) intrinsic motivation is important for students to achieve learning goals. However, extrinsic motivation such as social support can maximize the function of intrinsic motivation to achieve learning goals.

Learning motivation is the overall driving force that leads students towards continuous learning activities (Mustami & Safitri, 2018). Therefore, it is important to understand and know the position of motivation in relation to other factors related to learning outcomes. According to Mezei (2008), motivation explains what makes people do something, keep it up, and accomplish their tasks.

METHOD

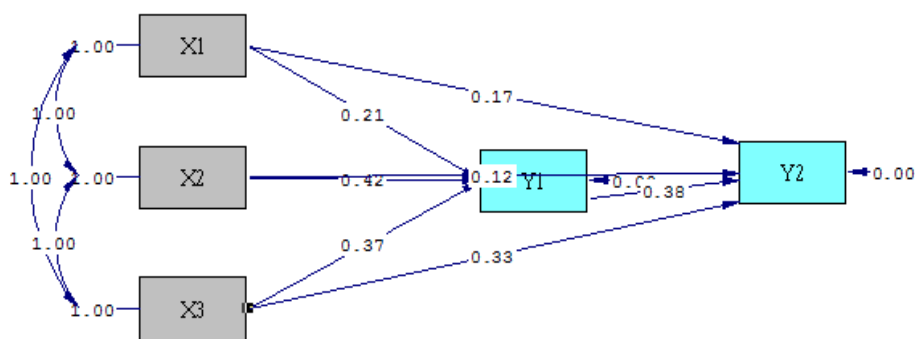
This research used an *ex-postfacto* correlation design to determine the relationship among the self-adjustment variable (X_1), social support from peers (X_2), self-regulation (X_3),

students' motivation in learning biology (Y_1), and biology learning outcomes (Y_2). The research sample comprised 176 students with an average age of 17 from class XI in Makassar high school who studied biology. A cluster random sampling technique was used in the research. The data was collected through a questionnaire and documentation. To determine the relationship between the variables, path analysis with the structural equation modeling (SEM) technique was used from the LISREL 8.70 program.

RESULTS

The results of data analysis of the relationship between the variables in this research can be seen as follows:

Based on Figure 1, it can be argued that the values of the relationship in the form of path coefficients among the variables are as follows: self-adjustment (X_1) with motivation in learning biology (Y_1) has



Information:

X_1 = Self-adjustment

X_2 = Social support from peers

X_3 = Self-regulation

Y_1 = Motivation to learn biology

Y_2 = Biology learning outcomes

Figure 1. Results of path analysis on the research variables

a path coefficient of 0.21; social support from peers (X_2) with motivation in learning biology (Y_1) has a path coefficient of 0.42; self-regulation (X_3) with motivation in learning biology (Y_1) has a path coefficient of 0.37; self-adjustment (X_1) with biology learning outcomes (Y_2) has a path coefficient of 0.17; social support from peers (Y_2) has a path coefficient of 0.12; self-regulation (X_3) with biology learning outcomes (Y_2) has a path coefficient of 0.33; and the relationship between biology learning motivation (Y_1) and biology learning outcomes (Y_2) has a path coefficient of 0.38.

The significance of the path coefficient of the relationship between the variables is based on the value of t-arithmetic among the variables and is as follows:

Based on Figure 2, the values of t-arithmetic among the variables are evident. The conditions of the significance of the

relationship among the variables follow the provision that if the value of t-arithmetic > 1.96 , then the relationship among the variables expressed is significant. Based on this, it can be argued that there is a significant relationship between X_1 and Y_1 (t-arithmetic $2.67 > 1.96$), X_2 and Y_1 (t-arithmetic $4.23 > 1.96$), X_3 and Y_1 (t-arithmetic $3.91 > 1.96$), X_2 and Y_2 (t-arithmetic $2.37 > 1.96$), X_3 and Y_2 (t-arithmetic $6.81 > 1.96$), and Y_1 and Y_2 (t-arithmetic $7.36 > 1.96$). The results of the analysis also show that since X_1 with Y_1 and Y_1 with Y_2 show a significant relationship, then the result of X_1 with Y_2 through Y_1 also shows a significant relationship. The significance of the relationship is also shown by X_2 with Y_1 and Y_1 with Y_2 ; consequently, X_2 with Y_2 through Y_1 indicates a significant relationship as well. Similarly, the significance of the relationship of X_3 with Y_1 and Y_1 with Y_2 indicates the

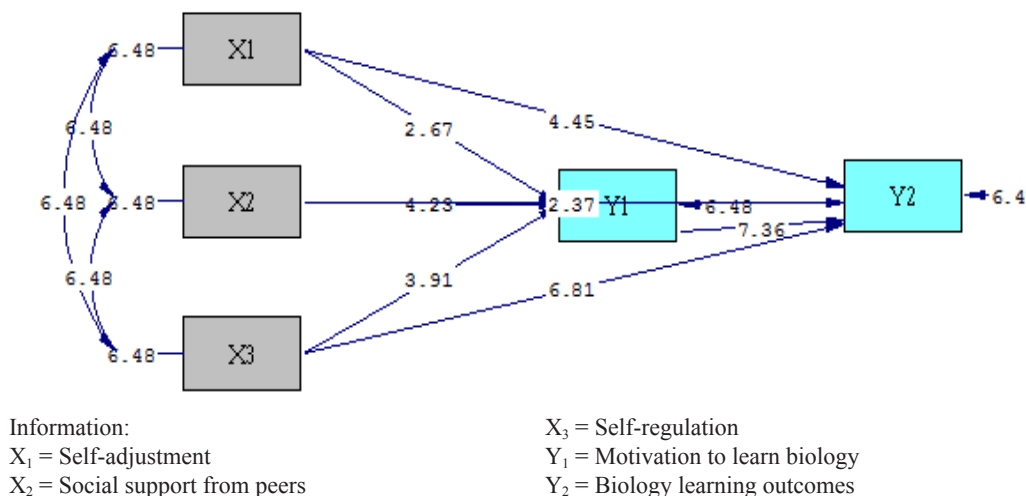


Figure 2. The value of t-arithmetic among the research variables

same thing; consequently, the result of X_3 with Y_2 through Y_1 shows a significant relationship.

DISCUSSION

The discussion is intended to place the results of the research in tandem with the theories and previous research results. The results of the data analysis show that there is a significant correlation between self-adjustment and motivation in learning in high school students, with a path coefficient of $2.67 > 1.96$. The opinion of Tallent (1978) that self-adjustment would increase learning motivation is therefore true. If students can adapt well to the stage of development according to their ages, they tend to be more sociable, open to face others, and more tolerable of the weaknesses of others, so their motivation to learn will be better (Wang et al., 2008).

The results of the data analysis also show that there is a relationship between social support from peers and motivation to learn biology in high school students with a t-arithmetic of $4.23 > 1.96$. These findings are in line with the opinion that students who are accepted by their peers and have good social skills are often better at school, and have positive academic motivation (Waiten et al., 2009).

Santrock (2011) described the effectiveness of a classmate's tutorial programme in the larger reading field shown by students involved in classroom tutorials, as compared with those who did not receive tutoring. Thus, it can be argued that social support from peers and/or other students

is helpful in accelerating the increase in student learning motivation. Santrock (2015) explained that peer support can be both positive and negative. Students usually maintain friendships with those who share common learning motivations. Papalia et al. (2006) suggested that teenagers' involvement with peers could be a source of emotional support.

Bambacas and Patrickson (2008) suggested that individuals with strong social support would have better life experiences, higher self-esteem, and a more positive outlook on life than individuals with lower social support. Research conducted by Izzo et al. (2008) showed that the function of social support was also very influential towards improving an individual's self-esteem. Additionally, with the support gained by the individual, he or she would be able to increase his or her self-confidence and became self-motivated to improve, because individuals who have strong social support tend to have a positive mindset, confidence, and optimism about life compared to individuals with low social support. It is similar to learning. Students with high social support tend to have more motivational value than students who do not receive social support from their peers.

The results of the data analysis show a positive relationship between self-regulation and motivation in learning biology in high school students, with a t-arithmetic of $3.91 > 1.96$. This is in accordance with the research of Vollmeyer and Rheinberg (2006) which testified that students who had high learning motivation and interest in the subject

matter used more self-regulated learning strategies. Good regulation tends to make students more confident and motivated to achieve maximum performance, and strive to take actions that lead to the achievement of desired goals. Despite failing in exams, students with good self-regulation are able to evaluate their mistakes and fix them. Research conducted by Mok et al. (2008) in China found that students who have self-regulation in learning will become more active and confident in seeking help when there are problems that need to be solved. This is possible because self-regulation in learning functions as a controller of learning activities, independently monitors motivation and academic goals, manages human resources and objects, and becomes a behavior in the process of decision making and implementation in the learning process (Mezei, 2008).

The results of the data analysis show that there is a significant correlation between self-adjustment and motivation in learning biology in high school students, with a t-arithmetic of $4.45 > 1.96$. This result supports the opinion of Banyard et al. (2015) that self-adjustment is an important factor in human life. In a human's lifetime, adjustments are necessary in order to survive. In the context of learning, students are expected to make adjustments so that the learning process can be achieved steadily. Hurlock (2002) argued that well-adjusted students knew when to learn and when to play, and how to effectively solve problems.

The results of the data analysis show that there is a significant correlation between

social support from peers and biology learning outcomes in high school students with a t-arithmetic of $2.37 > 1.96$. This means that social support from peers has a positive relationship with learning outcomes. Many students who experience increased learning outcomes do so because of the influence of peers who are able to provide motivation for them to learn (Fleisher, 2009).

In line with this, Santrock (2015) found that, in general, social support from peers would open up opportunities for students to evaluate and improved their understanding as they interacted with others and participated directly in arriving at a mutual understanding. Furthermore, Santrock (2015) says that peers played a role in more important developments during high school rather than in elementary school. This is because teenagers reveal more information to their friends. Teenagers also say that they are more dependent on their friends than their parents to satisfy their need for a sense of togetherness, certainty, and closeness. Therefore, learning outcomes relate to social support from good peers. With social support from peers, students feel appreciated and loved by their friends, and this helps to boost their confidence.

Peers are an important part of the social support network. This enhances their quality of life and self-esteem. Emotional support and social approval in the form of confirmation from others are an important part of the relationship with students' self-confidence (Santrock, 2015). Qualified personal relationships provide the stability of trust and attention that can provide a

positive atmosphere for student learning. Positive interpersonal support from peers, environmental influences, and a good learning process can minimize the factors that can cause student performance failure (Santrock, 2011).

The results of the data analysis show that there is a significant correlation between self-regulation and biology learning outcomes in high school students with a t-arithmetic of $6.81 > 1.96$. This finding is in accordance with research done by Zimmerman (1989) and Carneiro et al. (2007) that with the ability of self-regulation, one would be able to develop and manage a plan so that the desired goal will be achieved. Students who have better self-regulation also have high academic achievement (Zimmerman & Cleary, 2009). In line with this Gholami and Alinasab (2016) suggested that self-regulation was significantly correlated with students' decisions to carry out their tasks.

According to Ormrod (1999), good self-regulation tends to make students believe in their ability, and feel motivated for maximum achievement. Despite failing in exams, it was found that students with good self-regulation are able to evaluate their mistakes and then correct them with better effort. A person who has good self-regulation can motivate him/herself towards achieving the desired goals, including the results of learning. In contrast, Damon (1998) argued that self-regulation was likely to make students less consistent and less motivated towards achieving their goals and giving their best performance.

The results of the data analysis show that there is a significant correlation between learning motivation and biology learning outcomes in high school students with a t-arithmetic of $7.36 > 1.96$. This result is in accordance with the opinion of Cecco and Margaret (2008) that motivation to learn is a non-intellectual psychological factor, a role in the growth of passion, feelings of pleasure, and the spirit to learn. Students with strong motivation are more energised by learning activities (Mustami & Safitri, 2018). This means that motivation relates to learning because motivation is crucial in learning. Learning outcomes will be optimal if accompanied by strong motivation. The stronger and more appropriate the motivation, the more successful one will be in learning.

Based on the results of the LISREL 8.70 analysis, there is an indirect relationship between self-adjustment and learning outcomes through learning motivation in high school students with a path coefficient of 0.14. This means that the relationship between self-adjustment and learning outcomes is very close to the learning outcomes. Students who have good self-adjustment indirectly have high learning motivation, so the learning outcomes would be higher. Conversely, students who do not have good self-adjustment indirectly have low learning motivation, so the learning outcomes are also low. According to Schneiders (1964) self-adjustment is a process that includes individual mental and behavioral responses. In relation to learning, Hurlock (2002) and Santrock (2005) argued

that well-adjusted students know when to learn and when to play, and were resolute in addressing and finding solutions to pressing issues.

Based on the results of the LISREL 8.70 analysis, there is an indirect relationship between social support from peers and learning outcomes through motivation to learn biology in high school students with a path coefficient of 0.20. This means that the relationship between self-adjustment and learning motivation is very close to the learning outcomes. Students who have good social support from peers indirectly have high learning motivation, so the learning outcomes are higher. Conversely, students who do not have good social support from peers indirectly have low learning motivation, so the learning outcomes are also low. These findings are consistent with research conducted by Carter et al. (2008) that showed a significant relationship between social support and achievement motivation, where the higher the social support, the higher the achievement motivation. Conversely, the lower the social support, the lower the achievement motivation.

Theoretically, in accordance with the opinion of Rubin et al. (2006) peer support can veer teenagers towards the same circle of friends who share the same interests, carry out creative activities, feel comfortable, and mutually reinforce and grow, which is positive. In the context of learning, Cutrona et al. (1994) state that social support is very influential in learning achievement because when someone receives comfort

and support psychologically/socially, it increases the spirit and confidence of a person in learning or performing tasks, so the learning achievement improves.

Based on the results of the LISREL 8.70 analysis, there is an indirect relationship between self-regulation and biology learning outcomes through learning motivation in high school students with a coefficient value of 0.26. This finding is in line with Fleisher's (2009) research that self-regulatory aspects contributed effectively to learning achievement. Thus, it can be concluded that self-regulation of students is closely related to learning motivation, and further affects the value of student learning outcomes. According to Zimmerman (1989), students who have problems with learning motivation can improve on the condition that they apply self-regulation mechanisms. Students with the ability to monitor the progress of their learning process will increase their level of satisfaction and confidence in the ability to display high-level expertise (Collins, 2016).

CONCLUSION

Based on the results of the analysis and discussion of the research, it can be concluded that (1) self-adjustment, peer social support, and self-regulation have a direct correlation with motivation and biology learning outcomes in high school students with varying path coefficient values; (2) learning motivation has a direct correlation with biology learning outcomes in high school students; and (3) self-adjustment, peer social support, and self-regulation have an indirect relationship

with learning outcomes through motivation in learning biology in high school students with varying coefficient path values. It can also be deduced that in the learning process, students should be motivated by their teachers in order for these students to show their willingness to absorb biology lessons. Teachers should facilitate and encourage these students to like this subject. This will create a conducive environment in the classroom where students and teachers help each other to ensure that these classroom lessons do not become mundane, as biology can be a challenging subject. If these factors are taken into consideration well enough, they can create the right learning atmosphere and lead teachers in gearing students to become high achievers.

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The *Asah Potential Fithrah* Method in Encountering Radicalism in Lampung

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ABSTRACT

This study investigates the role of Islamic education in encountering the threat of radicalism that is increasing in this era of globalization. This problem needs to be solved in order to overcome the radicalism that exists, especially in education. The students as the future generation of Indonesia have been influenced by too much of radical thinking. Currently, radical thinking has sprung up in educational institutions as well. This research studies the use of the *Asah Potential Fithrah* (APF) method in Islamic education to counter radicalism. Data was collected through interviews with principals from Islamic education institutions in Lampung. Islamic education has implemented democratic learning with the so-called APF method. The APF method is applied in the learning process based on the human identity which is born in a state of *fithrah*. This research shows that the application of APF in Islamic education among graduates can result in tolerant attitude, enhance their ability in the mastery of science, make them possess higher skills, and cultivate noble character. This research implies that radicalism can be overcome by applying the APF method which is in harmony with human nature. The deviation of human behavior in the form of violence is against humanity and Islam.

Keywords: Democratic, *fithrah*, graduates, Islamic education, learning, methods, radicalism

INTRODUCTION

Based on the Annual Report on Religions in Indonesia, there have been about 54 cases of violence in the name of religion in Indonesia from 2009-2010 (Arifin, 2017). These cases of violence, caused by the false understanding of Islam, religiously motivated attacks. Many big cases that came

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to the world's attention are linked to Islamic education. The Bali bombing in 2002 which claimed the lives of more than 200 people has led to suspicions of *madrasas*' involvement as agents of radicalism (Azra et al., 2007). The WTC attack on 11 September 2001 that led to the Afghanistan war against terrorism was also linked to Islamic education. The Taliban movement in Afghanistan was allegedly the result of Islamic education. Graduates of Islamic schools who were close to the refugee sites on the Pakistan-Afghanistan border triggered hate that ignited radicalism (Alam, 2003; Azra et al., 2007; Warnk, 2009). In South Asia, especially India and Pakistan, many accuse graduates who received Islamic education as potential candidates for radical movements (Warnk, 2009). In Malaysia and Indonesia Islamic educated graduates are feared to have engaged with radical movements in the Middle East (Alam, 2003; Malik, 2007). In Malaysia, there is legislation to counter terrorism (Dhanapal & Sabaruddin, 2017).

According to Lukens-Bull (2010) radicalism is related to traditional Islamic education. Traditional Islamic education is often contrasted with modern Islamic education which is supposedly more accommodating of other religions. Typically, traditional Islamic education focuses on Islamic knowledge such as fiqh, hadith, and Quran. This type of education is unique and till today has been implemented in all traditional Islamic schools. Learning material in traditional Islamic education tends to produce rigid attitudes in followers when comprehending the diversity of people behavior. The mixing of traditions, customs,

interaction between people from different religions and communal cultures usually occur without borders these days.

Warnk (2009) in "Alternative education or teaching radicalism?" questioned the condition of Islamic education, whether *madrasa* was a form of alternative education or it preaches radicalism. Malik (2007) in *Madrasas in South Asia: Teaching Terror?* questions if the *madrasas* in South Asia are preaching terrorism. Evans (2008) questioned whether the *madrasa* education as a rational choice by parents or it happened to be forced onto the young due to circumstances, where Muslims felt their faith was under severe threat.

Islamic education is flourishing rapidly in Pakistan. There have been hundreds of Islamic educational institutions developed since the 1980s, which means that there has been a growth in the number of Islamic educated graduates (Azra et al., 2007; Norton, 2002; Warnk, 2009). Likewise in Malaysia, many students have enrolled and graduated from Islamic higher education institutions (Noor, 2004). From the early 1990s, the Indonesian government had programmed a nine-year compulsory education system in public schools. However, in reality, the enrollment of learners from the lower and middle class families into Islamic institutions increased continuously (Azra et al., 2007). Indonesia has a population of more than 225 million whereby most of them are Muslims. There are more than 37,000 students who are involved in Islamic education and about 13% of them are learning in *madrasas* (Azra et al., 2007).

The significant growth and development in Indonesia's Islamic education needs a system that guarantees the quality of graduates. The learning process becomes important in increasing the quality of Islamic education in the national education system in Indonesia (Makbuloh, 2017a). Islamic education can facilitate students into visualizing a harmonious life, avoiding conflict and violence. Radicalism is a serious threat to the integrity of the Republic of Indonesia, also referred to as NKRI. The history of the nation's struggle has been damaged through radicalism even though in Indonesia the NKRI does not tolerate this.

This study illustrates Islamic education in Lampung, Indonesia which has been professionally managed according to the objectives of national education. There are several Islamic education institutions that have shown their graduates to exceed national education standards. Researchers argue that Indonesian Islamic education based on the al-Qur'an and Hadith can actually counter radicalism. Islamic teachings have never taught radicalism. On this basis, the Indonesian Islamic education institutions have found the right way to produce graduates who reject radicalism.

METHOD

This is a qualitative research as data were collected through interviews. Twelve (12) principals of Islamic Schools from the Lampung Province who played main roles in overcoming radicalism through the application of APF method and related

learning processes to produce graduates that fulfill the national requirements contributed to data collected. The schools where this research was carried out were Ar-Raihan, Permata Bunda, Miftahul Jannah, Baitul Jannah, Insan Kamil, Daarul Ilmi, Fithrah Insani, Global Madani, Al-Zahra, Alkautsar, Insantama, and Muhammadiyah. They are Islamic education institutions that have succeeded in producing quality graduates who will be considered model graduates.

This research was carried out in Lampung as it is in a strategic area on the Island of Sumatera, which borders Java Island. Furthermore, Lampung has various ethnic groups with different religions and cultures. This heterogeneous community's peace will be at risk if effort is not taken to harmonize the community.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The population of Lampung is multicultural. Each ethnic group lives in a particular sub-district and establishes inter-ethnic cooperation relationships (Basyar, 2014). Since it is a multicultural community, it positively encourages the growth of Islamic education institutions, the *madrasas* and Islamic schools. As Table 1 shows, Islamic education comes in various categories:

Based on Table 1, most Islamic education institutes are private ones. Private Islamic education focuses on the aspirations and needs of the local community. In the social context, education is a medium to create harmonious relationships that can complement each other (Makbuloh, 2016).

Table 1
Number of Islamic education institutions in Lampung

No.	Type and level	Amount	Number of classes	Number of students	Number of teachers
1	State Elementary School	52	464	18,109	1,090
2	Private Elementary School	708	2,460	87,343	8,004
3	State Secondary School	24	432	14,663	1,031
4	Private Secondary School	655	2,684	90,697	11,030
5	State Senior High School	17	274	9,360	781
6	Private Senior High School	274	825	28,782	4,880
	Total	2,343	7,139	277,016	29,709

Source: Ministry of Religious Affairs (2017)

The number of admissions to Islamic education institutions is approximately 25,000 each year. This shows that Islamic education in Lampung is growing rapidly. Based on the data, the enrollment each year in Lampung reaches almost 75,000 people while the number of students opting for Islamic education each year is 20,000.

Islamic education in Lampung has implemented various new methods in the learning process to produce graduates who adhere to the ideals of the nation and goals of national education. In a multicultural society, the interaction between native people and other communities can create a complex relationship that paves way for conflicts. Therefore, it needs to be anticipated by building a shared life in harmony, based on mutual understanding (Raihani, 2015). In a pluralistic society, there are lots of differences in the context of the economic, social and political divisions but often the source of crisis is in the name of religion (Juhannis, 2012).

The Interpretation of Data from the Interviews

The 12 principals of Islamic Schools from the Lampung Province who volunteered to participate in this study were interviewed by the researcher. The selection of these schools was on the basis that they had implemented the APF Approach or Method in their school curriculums. As mentioned before, the schools where this research was carried out were Ar-Raihan, Permata Bunda, Miftahul Jannah, Baitul Jannah, Insan Kamil, Daarul Ilmi, Fithrah Insani, Global Madani, Al-Zahra, Alkautsar, Insantama, and Muhammadiyah.

The interviews were carried out for one month. The researcher held at least two hours of interview a week. By the end of the fourth week the researcher realized that data saturation had set in.

The Perspectives of the Principals on the APF Method in the Learning Process

The 12 principals agreed that their schools have improved after changes were implemented. A new method called *Asah Potential Fithrah* (APF) was used

in learning. This method is connected to religious education. The implementation of the APF method is based on individual abilities and there is no coercion nor force. Students are motivated to maintain the spirit of looking at a competitive future. Challenges in the modern era have given people the freedom to actualize their potential in real life (Alam, 2016).

The 12 principals agreed that through the implementation of the APF method, students are happy as this method encourages the love for science and the memorization of Quranic verses as well. The reason for this is that many experts believe that diversion into radicalism could be due to boring learning methods, where only rigid religious education was emphasized.

In Islamic education, all the basic concepts are sourced from God. Therefore, students are taught that Allah has created man complete with his potential of *fithrah*. On that basis, the APF method is used to find the talents of each student. The principals believed that the education system is rooted in the needs of human beings, as life becomes a wasteland if they do not find their *fithrah* needs. Personal values are related to the personal moral which consists of idealism, relativism and religious faith (Ismail & Omar, 2017). Mastering Qur'an makes an individual realize the truthfulness of life, understand the ultimate goal of humanity, perseverance, tranquility, and function as a role model (Salehi, 2016).

The principals believed that good thinking and activities that give benefits are taught in the Islamic education curriculum

which has at the core, influences of the APF. Islam teaches us to behave well to both parents (Al-Ahqaf: 15). Likewise, parents are forbidden to kill their children due to fear of poverty or distress (Al-Isra': 31). According to Islamic values, the act of human killing is a great sin. This clarifies that Islamic education which is based on al-Quran and hadith instills high inspirational values in the homes, schools, society and the nation.

Islam clearly defines the relationship between family members and to their responsibility which is to maintain each other's morals. All family members have roles to play and contribute to each other to create a safe and honest lifestyle. This will be realized if all humans understand and respect their differences.

Islamic education not only teaches us on how to play roles in the family but also teaches us on how to embrace community life. Islam teaches us that a person cannot enter another's home before obtaining permission and salutations from its inhabitants (Al-Nur: 27-28). The values of this Islamic teaching are the teachings of how to lead a noble life by doing activities that is approved by everyone. Possessing good ethical behavior at all times depends on the depth of religious understanding (Ismail & Omar, 2017). Acquiring religious knowledge in the correct method instills good behavior and promotes the understanding of different religions and cultures. The APF method ensures that learners are taught these basic concepts from the very beginning.

The principals stressed that Islamic education teaches us how to interact with nature and the environment. The APF emphasizes this. A Muslim must have good interaction with the environment and other living creatures and elements, including water, air, land, plants, and animals. Man is forbidden to do any damage to this earth (al-Baqarah: 11-12). This is emphasized in the APF-inspired Islamic education in order to teach students to love and preserve nature.

In this era of globalization, Islamic education in Lampung has emerged as a modern phenomenon that provides integrative knowledge at each level (Shaleh, 2006). The emergence of an integrated Islamic education system is the best strategy that delivers humans into civilized life. Islamic education does not only teach religious sciences, but also teaches the science of technology and skills (Makbuloh & Velina, 2017). Religious sciences also complement the reading and writing of the Qur'an, hadith, fiqh and worship. According to Nasr (1987), both Islam and science are related in the most intimate manner to the principles of the spirit of the Qur'an. Islamic education that is contained in the Government's decree, 2003, is not limited to counseling, teaching and training, but also includes personality, intellectuality and social development (Saerozi, 2014). This merger of the teaching of Science and the Quran is what the APF strives for.

The source of Islamic education, the principals stressed, is based on the character of Prophet Muhammad SAW who is seen as

a role model. Even before performing his duties as Prophet, he had noble character (Al-Qalam: 4; Al-Ahzab: 21). This is because it is impossible for someone to improve the morals of others unless he himself is good mannered. The source of noble character is the Qur'an. Khatam al-Qur'an is included in the Islamic education curriculum (Hasan & Zailani, 2013). The correct understanding of Islam is presented in the teaching of religion and the perception of Islamic education which is not separated from the interpretation of the verses, the understanding of it and the ijtihad to carry it out (Kusmana, 2015). Therefore, the Qur'an becomes a subject matter that is memorized, read, understood, and practiced in Islamic education, inspired by the APF.

The Perspectives of the Principals on the Democratic Learning Process

Radicalism can be avoided with the use of democratic learning processes, whereby the teachers will have to carry out their duties with full responsibility. The main duty of a teacher in the education process is teaching, educating, training, guiding, fostering, facilitating, motivating, and evaluating (Makbuloh, 2016). They play a big role in their students' success. The principals believed that if teachers take their duty lightly, the whole education process will be compromised. The APF Method stresses a lot on teachers' responsibility in learner welfare. When learners are happy, they abstain from non-productive activity.

Islamic education faces challenges when it comes to contributing to the growth of humanity, both nationally and internationally. Islamic education does not only produce graduates who master religion, but also in the mastery of science and other skills. Islamic education institutions need to build quality culture to produce quality graduates. Therefore, the learning process is directed at extracting human potential according to *fithrah* as stipulated in the APF. According to Bondareva et al. (2017), the intellectual and creative potential of students need to be nurtured by teachers so as to enable them to function in all aspects in society. The learning process involves the active participation of all academicians in a synergistic method. Interpersonal interactions within Islamic education institutions contribute to the graduate's quality. The principals believed that a good climate in the learning process can lead to a sense of togetherness and this collective responsibility then leads to quality culture (Makbuloh, 2017b).

Creating a climate of togetherness and responsibility is integrated in Islamic education starting from the division of learning classes. The division of learning classes is in accordance to the interests of the students. This is the first stage to ensure conducive learning processes. According to Azra (2018) radicalism can be prevented by improving the content of the teaching material and the learning processes (learners learn what they like), and this determines the outcome of education. The democratic learning process produces democratic

graduates. The informal learning process takes place after the formal learning process.

The Principals' Perspectives on How the APF Islamic Education Method Produces Graduates who are against Radicalism

The number of graduates of Islamic education in Lampung for all levels of schooling in the last three years has increased. This shows that the number of students who choose Islamic education institutions in Lampung as a place for their future education continues to increase. This is because the Muslims here are open minded. All the Islamic educational institutions have a very specific vision and mission that determine their role in society; in the aspects of culture, social, politics and the economy.

Table 2 shows that there is a gradual increase in the number of graduates from Islamic Education schools in Lampung in the past three years. In 2015, there were 63,765 graduates and the number increased in 2016 to 64,013. Year 2017 recorded 68,247 graduates. This according to the 12 principals shows that the community in Lampung have confidence in the system of education which has APF as its basis.

The principals believed that Islamic Education in Lampung has succeeded in producing graduates who oppose radicalism. This can be seen with the development of Islamic education institutions with the name of integrated Islamic schools which are increasing public interest. Nationally, traditional Islamic education, including Islamic boarding schools have produced many achievements (Ismah, 2012). Islamic

Table 2
Number of graduates of Islamic education in Lampung

No.	Type and level	2015	2016	2017	Amount
1	State Elementary School	2,102	2,130	2,704	6,936
2	Private Elementary School	13,240	13,452	14,349	41,041
3	State Secondary School	4,476	4,858	5,034	14,368
4	Private Secondary School	30,387	30,834	31,317	92,538
5	State Senior High School	2,912	2,983	3,199	9,094
6	Private Senior High School	8,638	8,744	9,630	27,012
	Total	63,765	64,013	68,247	190,989

Source: Ministry of Religious Affairs (2017)

education is categorized as being able to facilitate students in developing harmony, suppressing conflict and avoiding violence (Nuryanto, 2011).

According to Daradjat (1995), Islamic education has a definite and clear goal, which is to make religion a part of every aspect of life, which includes behavior, thoughts and feelings. Islamic education covers all dimensions of humanity regulated in Islam. The purpose of Islamic education includes educating all human components; that of physic, spirit and mind, (Daulay, 2014). The principals believed that Islamic education based on al-Qur'an and hadith has a valuable contribution within the spirit of humanity, that which is promoted as the identity of human life in the context of space and time (Muzakki, 2007).

Graduates of Islamic education are spiritual, sociable, knowledgeable and skilled with the technology needed by humanity. The Islamic community is open to learning various kinds of knowledge. The interaction of science from various sources has carved out the history of the progress of human civilization. In the early centuries

when Islamic civilization was at its peak, Muslim scholars approached questions related to knowledge with this vision of Islamic science.

The principals believed that in Islamic education, having science alone is not enough. According to Al-Abrasyi (1969), moral education is the soul of Islamic education. The maximum effort to achieve a perfect character is the true goal of the process of Islamic education. Therefore, moral education occupies a very important position in Islamic education; every aspect of the process of Islamic education is always associated with noble moral guidance. The 12 principals believed that Islamic education in Lampung succeeded in contributing to the life of the nation by producing graduates with noble character. Noble character here refers to abstaining from practices that involve radicalism.

CONCLUSION

Islamic education in Lampung has played an active role in overcoming radicalism through the application of the APF method which emphasizes the need for peace among

human beings in the learning process. A harmonious relationship that is maintained avoids various conflicts. Students are encouraged to recognize their potential and learn the differences of others. This results in the construction of wise and good attitude. The 12 principals believed that radicalism in the era of globalization can be overcome by applying APF learning methods in the learning process, which eventually promotes unity in the society.

The democratic learning process within the APF is not only limited to school time, but it also fosters continuous relationships which opens room for communication between teachers and students outside the classroom. In the context of this research, it can be concluded that the target has been achieved, that the APF has helped nurture students in these 12 institutions to become spiritually upright Muslims.

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Review article

Toward Sustainable Development of a Landfill: Landfill to Landscape or Landscape along with Landfill? A Review

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ABSTRACT

Among prevalent methods of disposal for municipal solid waste, landfilling is the most common one. A landfill requires a piece of land and receive a huge amount of wastes for a certain period of time. Many landfills all around the world are located into or nearby urban areas where the land is scarce and highly demanded. Therefore, an important question arises on how to re-use this piece of threatening land. The aim of this study is to highlight the benefits of landscape work with the roles of landscape architects or equivalent disciplines to succeed a sustainable development of a landfill site not only after the landfill being closed but also from the beginning of it. To achieve this, a comprehensive investigation has been done among related literature to address these issues and prove that landscape work is one of the key factors that can lead a landfill project to a more successful and beneficial one which eventually makes the project sustainable. The findings of the study are useful for those who are engaging in landfill industries both practitioners and academicians and will contribute knowledge about sustainable development of landfill from a different perspective.

Keywords: Landscape architecture, landfill development, landscape work, sustainable development

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INTRODUCTION

Three common methods of municipal solid waste (MSW) disposal are landfilling, incineration, and recycling. Between these, the landfill is still the most common methods of waste disposal all around the world and it is likely to remain the most used method at least in the near future (Laner et al., 2012). There are several types of landfill for MSW,

but one of the most recent ones is sanitary landfill that can control the landfill hazards such as gas and leachate in a better way. In this study for the term of “sanitary landfill,” we simply use “landfill”.

Due to receiving a huge amount of rubbish for a long period of time, the landfill has a specific condition that requires taking proper cares. The concerns about the landfill, in general, can be categorized in terms of engineering, environmental, social, economic, and last but not least planning and designing issues (Misgav et al., 2001).

In our rapidly growing urban areas having a piece of land for the benefits of community is usually highly demanded. On the other hand, landfill creates a harmful and eyesore environment. It has a negative impact on the public, especially on adjacent communities. Therefore it is significantly important to develop landfill site in a manner of sustainability (Ayalon et al., 2006).

The development process should be sustainable to achieve a high level of success (Lélé, 1991). This requires proper attention of environmental, economic and social issues (Ribic, 2008). Following the principle of sustainability, landscape work is one of the significant and useful factors that lead the project to approach this goal. In addition, each stage of landfill lifecycle requires given landscaping as one of the appropriate solutions (Misgav et al., 2001). Thus the aim of this study was to highlight the most essential and auxiliary landscape work that landfill owners/managers should take into account. The study also found

that landscape architectures or equivalent disciplines can perform a major role in the landfill development project and help to make it sustainable. Before explaining the landscape work and tasks of landscape architects it is needed to know about the life of landfill as well as the principle of sustainability.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The methodology used in this study contained two main parts. The first part was a comprehensive critical literature review among related valid resources. In addition, this study as a review paper relied on existing information about landfill development to represent a conceptual paper in this field. The second part was site observation and analysis for the subsection titled “Landscape Work on Design Stage” only. It should be noted that the paper did not intend to collect its entire data from site observation, rather for only abovementioned subsection the site observation and analysis carried out. Since the study had a novel subject, a profound cycling discussion and revision were done by the authors’ team (as professional landscape architects) for both findings of the literature review and analysis of site observation. The objective of this discussion and revision was to ensure that the suggestion and proposition of the papers were correct and could be applied in landfill and landscape profession. Figure 1 illustrates the methodology in a graphical manner.

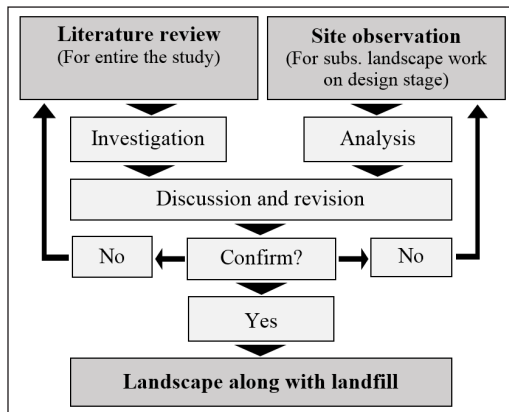


Figure 1. The study methodology

LIFE OF LANDFILL

A landfill is a complex project. It needs both knowledge and experience such as engineering, environment and other fields of expertise. From the early stage of a landfill project, many disciplines should come together to build up a successful project (Jaramillo, 2003).

The stages of landfill life can be generally categorized as explained in following sub-section.

Landfill Siting and Planning Stage

To minimize the impacts of a landfill on the surrounding environment the selection of a new landfill site is critical. Proper selection will also decrease the design and operational challenges (Al-Jarrah & Abu-Qdais, 2006). Thus the influence of landfill harmfulness on the environment could be reduced by meticulous site selection (Sasao, 2004).

Design Stage

Proper design of a landfill site earlier to construction can lessen environmental

impacts throughout its operating lifespan and will decrease the requirement for expensive technologies later. (Komilis et al., 1999).

Construction Stage

This stage talks about the construction of the provisions and facilities both essential and auxiliary for developing and closure of a landfill. These facilities normally contain general site work, ground and surface water controls, side and bottom liners, gas capturing and controls, leachate collection and treatment systems and final cover work (capping) (Tasmanian Department of Primary Industries, 2004).

It should be noted that the development of a landfill, in general, takes place in some cells/units/phases/sections/zones over the entire landfill's life (Jaramillo, 2003). Development starts in the primary construction phase and carries on as the landfill operation occupies the prepared phase. The following phase is excavated for regular cover and finally becomes the next construction phase. This progression will be repeated through the landfill cells/units/phases/sections/zones operation and construction complete (see Figure 2). Due to this cycling construction, the development of a landfill could be considered a long-standing construction procedure (Yuan, 2013).

Operation Stage

This stage refers to the actual waste disposal practices and other landfilling actions plus the operation and maintaining the services

and facilities (Tasmanian Department of Primary Industries, 2004). Although in real life the construction and operation stages go hand-in-hand, landfill construction refers to the construction of the facilities both essential and non-essential to the development and closure of a solid waste landfill. These facilities normally comprise site work, groundwater controls, surface water controls, side and bottom liners, treatment systems and leachate collection, gas controls, and final cover systems. However, operation refers to the actual landfilling activities and waste disposal practices as well as the operation and maintenance of the facilities mentioned in

the construction stage. Figure 2 illustrated this. The figure reveals that the construction and operation stages have many overlapping works (Avery & Marc, 1987).

Closure and Post-Closure Care Stage

This stage begins when any landfill units/section/phases/zones being closed. In other words, the closure and post-closure program impairment for each landfill units/phases/sections/zones as well as landfill site as a whole when it reaches to its final capacity (Environmental Protection Agency, 1999). Some important terms of use in this topic include restoration/rehabilitation, after-care, and after-use/end-use.

A landfill will impact on surrounding environment many years even after the accomplishment of filling wastes and engineering activities. Thus it is important that the closed landfill site being restored and the after-care program applies upon closure (Laner et al., 2012). This will allow to reduce potential environmental hazard and help the land to be ready for compatible after-use choices (Saberi, et al., 2018; Stegmann et al., 2003). Continuing restoration should be run right after landfill units/phases/sections/zones are completed. Final restoration should start after a short while upon the final covering of each phase/zone.

SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT PROCESS

The development process of a landfill includes technical/engineering area, administrative area, and financial area. In

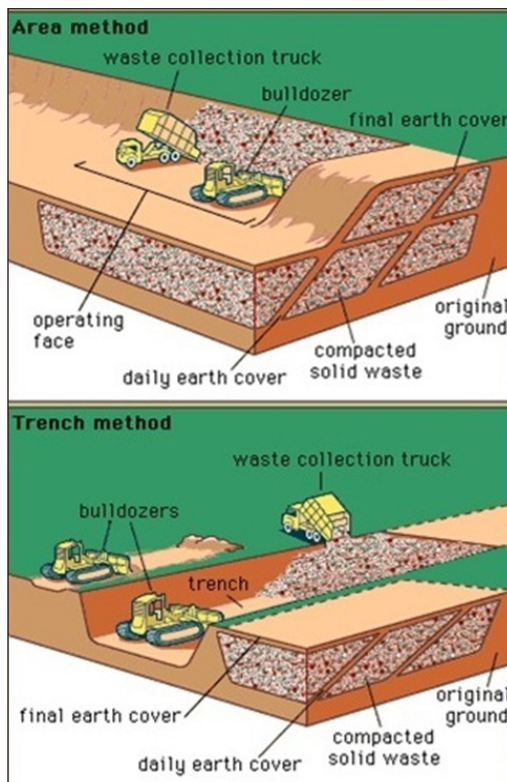


Figure 2. Landfill operation stage: The area and trench method (Wroblewski et al., 2009)

terms of sustainable development, each aforementioned area can respectively be equivalent to environmental, social and economic aspects (Nochian et al., 2016). Like other projects, landfill development considers sustainable when all three areas are in an optimized status (Kalantari, et al., 2018; Thornton et al., 2007).

In order to understand how landscaping can help to have a sustainable development process, the study explains the importance of it based on each landfill life stage explained before. But prior to that, a general explanation regarding the role of landscape work provided.

ROLES OF LANDSCAPE WORK IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF A LANDFILL

As already mentioned, landfill life can be categorized in several stages. To start the understanding of roles of landscape work we need to be cleared about some crucial questions. The very first question is why landscaping and what is the importance of it in the development of a landfill. The second one is in what stage we should think of having vegetation and landscape areas; how and why. The third one would be to what extent the landscape work should be taken into account. And last but not least is what criteria and technical guidelines, in general, are useful for having proper and beneficial landscape areas. At the next, the study is going to answer the questions by elaborating some of the most highlighted landscape significance in each landfill life stage.

THE IMPORTANCE OF LANDSCAPE WORK FOR SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT OF A LANDFILL

In this part of the paper, landscape work as a beneficial component and significantly useful means for sustainable development of landfill is explained. Landscape work is commonly used in the closure and post-closure stage to stabilize landfill's topsoil (capping), control run-off, integrate the rehabilitated site into its surrounded environment, and eventually build a green space for the benefits of communities. In other words, in landfill industries landscape mainly bring into consideration in the final stage which called closure and post-closure (Laner et al., 2012; Tasmanian Department of Primary Industries, 2004). However, this study found out that the landscape can play a significant role along with landfill from a very early stage to the last to create a real sustainable project.

For a better understanding and answering the questions mentioning in the previous section, we explain the importance of having landscape along with landfill and some of its outstanding functions on the basis of each stage of landfill life.

Landscape Work on Siting and Planning Stage

In this stage, a proper site selection for landfill development is a critical point to ensure minimizing of environmental impacts of the landfill on adjacent areas (Al-Jarrah & Abu-Qdais, 2006). Moreover, selecting the site in regard to the choice of landfill after-use (end-use) is also vital to reduce

post-closure care efforts. On the subject of landscape work for the new landfill site selection, three out of several factors are most important to know to let the landfill be under less threatening for adjacent areas. These three factors are as follow.

- After-use consideration,
- Buffer distance, and
- Flora and fauna analysis.

These three factors are respectively explained below.

As mentioned earlier, a landfill will be closed when it reaches to its final capacity and usually turns into a new beneficial land-use (e.g. park) for the benefits of community as well as the elimination of its environmental impacts (Thornton et al., 2007). That is why it is recommended to consider the final choice of after-care in the early stage. In general, the choices of after-care are open space, agricultural purpose, woodland and hard uses (Environmental Protection Agency, 1999). Among these major choices, the open space which has absolutely a landscape functionality recommends by scholar and experts and enforced by law in many countries (Nochian et al., 2016). Therefore, the selection of a new landfill site should take this into account in the siting and planning stage to make the transformation process cost-effectively. For instance, cut and fill techniques or maintenance program would be less by an appropriate selected site. Some important factors that need to be studied regarding this matter are neighborhood areas, landform, accessibility to the site in future, the distance of the site to existing

and future housing areas, and community preferences toward the type of open space (Nochian et al., 2015).

An appropriate landfills siting requires to be located with adequate distance between neighboring land-uses and the border of the landfill site because the landfill has the potential to impact on adjacent areas (Ding et al., 2019). Sufficient distance prevents surrounding land-uses to be less affected by unpleasant odors, vermin, dust, noise, contamination and sediment carried by surface water, and also litter (Young, 2010).

To locate a landfill at the best possibilities a comprehensive inventory and analysis to obtain existing data on current flora and fauna of the place need to carried out. This is important to control spreading and introducing diseases, weeds, and invasive species into nature. In addition, a good analysis also minimizes the impact of the landfill hazards on endangered flora and fauna.

Landscape Work on Design Stage

As already mentioned landfill has several off-site impacts on the environment at the time of operation and long-term after being closed. Some of the landfill operational impacts are odor, dust, noise, and litter. Therefore, the landfill has to be designed to guarantee that operational off-site impacts will be minimized as much as possible (Komilis et al., 1999). Three most usefulness of landscaping in the design stage are:

- Enforcement of buffer zone (shelterbelt),
- Blocking eyesore view, and

- Design criteria association with restoration and after-use plan.

To enforce the buffer zone, a shelterbelt (also defined as a windbreak as in some resources) is a privilege option. Dust, noise, and litter can be reduced by shelterbelt (Tyndall & Colletti, 2000). There are few choices of shelterbelt; but one of the best choices for it can be a green shelterbelt using vegetation both existing and planted ones (Cornelis & Gabriels, 2005). The buffer zones do not necessarily be located only around the boundary of the site rather, depending on the landfill design, it can also be inside the site and around each phase development. Figure 3 below illustrates this.

In this figure, a conceptual green shelterbelt for Air Hitam Sanitary Landfill in Malaysia proposed. As you see the

landfill has several phases and also some infrastructures such as leachate treatment lagoons (Hatfield, 2009). So, the green shelterbelt proposed for the site in order to create a buffer zone for the site boundary as well as around trash burying phases and infrastructures (inside the landfill site). For the matter of an efficient shelterbelt, proper landscape design is very significant. For example, besides the site-specific analysis, some of the most general important factors that need to carefully look at, include height, density, species selection, orientation, width, length, composition, shape, and spacing. In addition to the mentioned factors, regional privilege wind is important too (Cornelis & Gabriels, 2005).

Regarding, blocking eyesore view the shelterbelt, as already mentioned, is a proper choice; but there are other choices that may be proposed by landscape architects. These are the physical characteristics of the landfill site, natural and/or man-made site features, and natural and/or manipulated site landform. In addition to the aforementioned propositions, individual consideration should also be concentrated on special and attractive areas, view direction and visitor routes, conservation areas, residential areas/main buildings, and so on.

For the third landscaping role, it can be indicated that the preliminary design of the landfill should be based on final restoration of the landfill site. It means that the conceptual plan of the after-use option should be taken into account in this stage. Different land-use has its own landscape characteristics that involve in the design

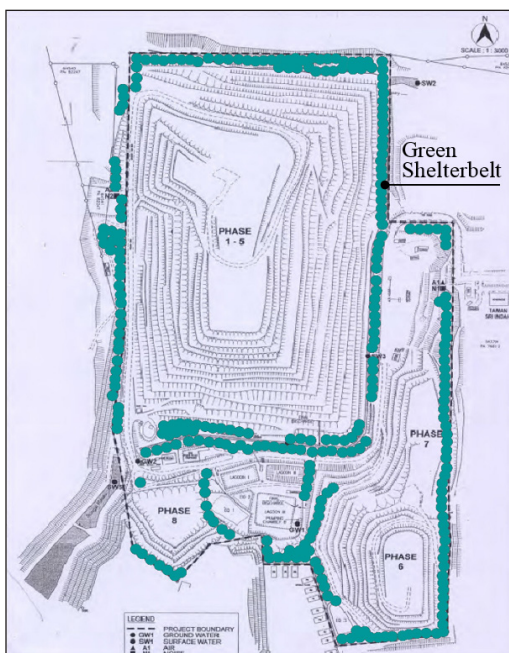


Figure 3. Conceptual green shelterbelt for Air Hitam Sanitary Landfill in Malaysia as a demonstration (Hatfield, 2009)

process. To achieve this goal, designers should suit the needs of the premeditated after-use in terms of contours, adjoining habitats, slopes, soil properties and depth, site run-off and drainage, accessibility, routes circulation, and planting design in advance (Laner et al., 2012). As already mentioned in the sitting and planning stage, one of the most recommended after-use choices is open space as a subset of landscaping. If so, it had better to purposely provide the needs for this matter in the design stage.

Landscape Work on Construction Stage

Some of the most beneficial landscape work in this stage that can be of uses are as follows.

- To build any amenities in accordance with the post-closure plan,
- To implement the buffer zone (shelterbelt),
- To preserve in situ natural vegetation, and
- To transplant existing plants.

In landfill construction stage also needs to pay attention to the after-use and post-closure care program to minimize costs of landfill restoration. For instance, the amenities and facilities suitable for future uses should be built according to the post-closure plan.

To reduce the concerns of the community over the construction stage, the landfill operator/contractor need to decrease dust, noise, litter, and traffic. Implementing a buffer zone is a useful means prior to commencing landfill construction to solve these issues.

Removing of existing vegetation is quite often to happen in construction stage because of lack of consultation. Therefore, it would be the tasks of landscape architects to check and control the landfill site in order to preserve natural vegetation to use them for buffers and/or erosion control (Tasmanian Department of Primary Industries, 2004).

Landscape Architects also can advise how to relocate any specimen plants that cannot be kept in their original locations to a new location where they are needed by transplanting techniques.

Landscape Work on Operation Stage

The issues of this stage in regard to the landscape work can generally be in two categories. The first are those issues that solely belong to this stage including:

- Landscape maintenance program and separation, and
- Storage of useful stuff to be reused later on.

The second category is those tasks that are in conjunction with previous (construction) and next (closure and post-closure) stages such as

- The initial establishment of landfill cover greening,
- Usage of groundwater and/or leachate, and
- Weed and vermin control.

The maintenance of planted vegetation in the construction stage is vital and it is an ongoing work. The landfill gas and leachate are hazardous elements for plants. So, a proper landscape maintenance/management program is a very helpful tool to avoid

vegetation dying off and ensure that they are in a healthy condition.

With regards to the waste separation and storage that suggested to be part of landfill operation, reusing some materials is a practical option. Reusing is a good solution for the stuff that can still be used in their current shape and are feasible to be salvaged. For instance, household goods might be suitable for building some furniture. Based on the after-use choice of the landfill, Landscape Architects can give consultation to landfill operators to separate and store some of the materials to use for the future design of landfill after closure (Lamey, 2004). These materials with proper design can reduce the cost of construction while it is a very good method of education for the public as well as salvaging materials.

The reused materials can also help to keep the history of the site long after restoration. Example of application of this technique applied in the Vall d'en Joan landfill site, Spain are shown in Figure 4 below (Batlle & Joan Roig, 2011).

Any landfill units/phases/sections/zones that reach to its final capacity will basically be covered and vegetated as mentioned before. Initial landscaping and establishment of vegetation on top of completed landfill units/phases/sections/zones as a part of restoration (rehabilitation) program is a significant landscape work in operation stage (Do et al., 2014). This helps for soil erosion control and slope stability and avoids penetrating surface the water into the waste portion (Loch, 2000).



Figure 4. Landscape features made by waste materials to keep the history of the site and educational purposes in the Vall d'en Joan landfill site, Spain (Batlle & Joan Roig, 2011)

One of the most important factors for landscape maintenance is the irrigation of plants. As the source of water is a problematic issue in many parts of the world, using surface water for irrigating plants is recommended. Surface water needs to be precluded from mixing with trash (therewith producing leachate). Thus a proper design can help to store the surface water and use it as irrigation water. Research also indicated that it would be possible to use leachate for plants watering purpose (Cureton et al., 1991). To do this a careful consideration of compatible species with chemical properties of leachate is necessary. Another concern of using leachate is to carry contamination by it into the environment. Therefore it may require certain treatment first then to be applied as a source of watering for the in-site vegetation (Rawlinson et al., 2004).

Another issue that should be part of the landscape maintenance plan is weed and vermin nuisance. Weeds species and nuisance animals have to actively be controlled to prevent the environment and public health from the negative impact of them.

Landscape Works on Closure and Post-Closure Stage

The most body of landscape work is in this stage because it is the time that a landfill does not further receive wastes and the final maintenance and restoration process is commenced. As already mentioned some of the closure work is done in the operation stage when any units/phases/sections/zones of a landfill reach its final capacity and

sealed. When all the landfill sections filled or the landfill owner decides to stop receiving wastes, the closure (in fact final closure) begins and followed by post-closure care. In this part of the paper, some of the common landscape work is briefly explained. In short, they are:

- Completing of vegetation's establishment,
- Association to final after-use, and
- Surveillance and maintenance of existing soft and hard landscaping.

Completing the establishment of vegetation on top of capping. Besides the consideration that already noted for selecting of vegetation, the particular deliberations for species selection in this stage are the capability to prevent erosion, suitability with the design of landfill cap, minor maintenance requirement, and association with final after-use. Vegetation can be established through planting sapling and direct seeding depends on conditions and requirement of the site (Tasmanian Department of Primary Industries, 2004). To avoid of failure of planting procedure and also damaging landfill cap by vegetation roots, it is better that a stepwise approach uses for planting plants. It means that initially the grasses and shrubs which are leachate tolerant should be planted and then as the generation of leachate reduce over time, plants with deeper root can be planted (Rawlinson et al., 2004).

Landscape work on this stage should also consider final after-use of the landfill site and integrate any requirements of such usages into the design and implementation of

the land-use. In other words, any landscape elements in term of planning, design, and construction should meet the criteria that the final land-use planned for as different after-uses have specific landscape characteristics.

Another important factor for landscaping is managing, monitoring, and maintenance of existing and constructed landscape. Landfill requires an average of 30 years of an after-care program once it is closed. Therefore, vegetation and other landscape elements need to be inspected regularly. A management/maintenance landscape plan that is incorporated with the restoration/after-care plan, as well as the intended after-use of the restored site, should be prepared as early as possible. Vegetation should be appropriately maintained to ensure that they get enough nutrients and moisture to prevent dying off. Irrigation has a major role in the failure or success of plant species. As mentioned in the operation stage surface

water and leachate (under certain conditions) should be collected and used for irrigation purpose. It is also advised that a proper gas and heat surveillance be part of the routine site inspection. To enhance the chance of success it is strongly recommended to select the plants that are most compatible with these issues (Laner et al., 2012).

DISCUSSION

The study has elaborated the importance of landscape to achieve sustainability in landfill development. It revealed that landscape can play significant roles in this regard from a very beginning of landfill life cycle to the end. Therefore, the presence of Landscape Architectures or any equivalent disciplines in consultation and/or implementation team would contribute essential assistance to accomplish the project. The significant landscape work based on each landfill life cycle is summarized in Table 1.

Table 1
Significant landscape work based on each landfill life cycle

Significant landscape work					
Sitting and planning stage	After-use consideration	Buffer distance	Flora and fauna analysis		
Designing stage	Enforcement of buffer zone (shelterbelt)	Blocking eyesore view	Design criteria association with after-use plan		
Construction stage	Building any amenities in accordance with after-use plan	Implementing buffer zone (shelterbelt)	Preserving in-situ natural vegetation	Transplanting existing plants	Weed and vermin control
Operation stage	Landscape maintenance/management program	Separation and storage of useful stuff to be reusing	Initial establishment of landfill cover greening	Transplanting existing plants	
Closure and post-closure stage	Completing of vegetation's establishment	Association to final after-use	Surveillance on existing soft and hard landscaping		

Referring back to the crucial questions mentioned in section “roles of landscape work in the development of a landfill” the paper has briefly addressed them. The importance of landscape work in each stage as a very beneficial approach to achieve sustainability was highlighted to address the first question. It is defined that the landscaping can play its major role from the early stage (sitting and planning) to the end (closure and post-closure). This answered the second question. For question three, it should be noted that due to the limited scope of the paper, the study only highlighted some of the landscape work in landfill development just to light up its importance and necessity. However, the power of landscaping in this matter can go in a much greater extent than what has been mentioned in this paper. The last question has been responded by giving some criteria and guidelines for each stage as an introduction to this subject.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, it can be stated that turning a landfill site to a landscape area after the site being closed (which is common practice in many parts of the world) does not guarantee the achievement of sustainability, rather landscape has to be along with landfill from beginning stage to the end.

The findings and recommendations of this research are beneficial for landfill stakeholders, managers and those who engage in landfill and landscape industries -both practitioners and academicians- to

open this subject up and apply it for the benefits of our endangered world. However, further research on this topic needs to be carried on to investigate other aspects of it. The recommendation of this study for other scholars is to profoundly work on the importance of landscaping in each stage of landfill life and drawn up more criteria and guidelines based on each stage and/or different type of landfills.

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Evaluating Revitalized Public Markets as Economic and Socio-cultural Places in Indonesia

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ABSTRACT

The public market is a phenomenon that shows how socio-cultural relationships are constructed through economic activities. The modern development of Indonesia has marginalized the public market; lack of proper management caused public markets to turn into slums and dirty places that were unable to compete with modern retail businesses. In the 2000s, however, the Indonesian government started a public market revitalization program, recognizing its important role as 'a house of economy and culture' for Indonesian society. This paper evaluates two successfully revitalized public markets and their role as economic and socio-cultural places. Two cities, Surakarta and Bandung, were chosen as cases studies because they use different approaches of revitalization: the one a socio-cultural approach and the other an economic approach. It was found that the role of the public market as an economic place is determined by an intensive and/or extensive increase of its economic activities. Meanwhile, the public market as a socio-cultural place was evaluated by its role as a gathering place and symbolic representation of society. It was found that the role of the public market as an economic place is constituted mutually with its role as a socio-cultural place. The public market is an inclusive economic place because it provides affordable space and goods and is developed by social relationships among traders and

consumers. This evaluation can contribute to guiding public market revitalization policy and develop further studies about the mutual relation between built environment and society.

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INTRODUCTION

The public market is an important product of human civilization. It reflects the history and development of a city. In early times, public markets took place in neutral territory, where different social groups could encounter each other peacefully. Several physical signifiers were constructed such as posts, pillars and landmarks. When market activities expanded, the market place developed into a district and even became the central space of the city, such as the *agora* in Ancient Greece and the *forum* in the Roman era (Tangires, 2008).

In Indonesia, public market activities already took place in ancient times and are noted in several historical manuscripts and inscriptions. They describe the public market as part of an integrated agricultural production system among villages. Besides as a trading place, the public market was also utilized as a social place where people gathered to watch performances. Many activities shaped public markets in various forms, such as temporary, street and sheltered markets with expansion of their service scope into larger districts with various exchanged commodities (Nastiti, 2003; Wiryomartono, 1995). The social system of the public market still exists until today – even though survival has been difficult for traders at times – because of its essential role as a place of livelihood through informal networks (Prihandana, 2002).

The modern development of Indonesia has marginalized the public market because of a lack of government concern

to improve its competitiveness, especially with modern retail facilities. Until the end of the 1990s, the public market was perceived as a slum and a dirty place without proper management. In the 2000s, however, the Indonesian government started a public market revitalization program, while giving more authority to local governments to manage public markets. As a result, some public markets were revitalized successfully but there were also failures.

This paper is intentioned to draw knowledge from two successfully revitalized public markets by evaluating their role as economic and socio-cultural places. Market vitality is determined by the trading activities that take place in these places, but their survival and sustainability depend on the socio-cultural vigor of the community. Urban places are constructed by two kinds of capital: economic and non-economic (cultural, social and symbolic) (Dovey, 2010). The economic activities of a society are certainly not limited to profit-oriented transactional mechanisms but also include the accumulation of cultural and social capital along history (Bourdieu, 1986). This paper evaluates how successfully revitalized public markets produce vital economic places that are supported by society and represent socio-cultural forces within it.

METHODS

This research was conducted in two cities in Indonesia, Surakarta and Bandung, which represent two approaches of public market revitalization policy. The Surakarta government revitalizes its public markets

through a public service, managed by an official agency, Dinas Pengelolaan Pasar. Meanwhile, the Bandung government has formed a municipality-owned enterprise, PD Pasar Bermartabat, on the assumption that public markets can create profit in many ways, for example by entering into partnerships with the private sector. Two successfully revitalized markets, Pasar Gede in Surakarta and Pasar Balubur in Bandung, were evaluated to draw lessons from their role as economic and socio-cultural places that represent the respective city's development, policy and society. This research is organized in three levels: preliminary, mapping, and confirming. Preliminary research uses information from literature, observation, and informal interviews to get description about economic and socio-cultural roles of both observed public markets. These descriptive findings is mapped by asking the traders and consumers through questionnaire, to gain their perception about economic and socio-cultural roles of the markets. The findings are reconfirmed by in-depth interview with the market management decision makers and representative traders.

Public Market Revitalization in Indonesia: An Overview

The existence of a public market is often related to the growth and development of a city. Early cities mostly expanded by virtue of their role as economic node and the city center became a place for intensive economic activities as well as social activity, originating from human personal needs

which were transformed into social needs (Golia et al., 2013). The public market was constructed as an institutional place for economic and social activities located in the center of the city. Through these places, the socio-economic network of a city and its surrounding districts can be traced and mapped (Prihandana, 2002).

In Indonesia, public markets are known under the name of 'traditional markets'. This term is often used contrast them with 'modern markets', which refers to supermarkets and another modern retail facilities. Essentially, 'tradition' is understood as something that is handed down in an actual transmission from one generation to the next (AlSayyad, 2004). Therefore, 'traditional' in relation to public markets also refers to the handing down of trading businesses from generation to generation.

In actual fact, the main difference between a 'traditional' and a 'modern' market is their price mechanism. There are no fixed prices in a traditional market, so the consumers must bargain with the traders to agree on the appropriate price. Through this bargaining mechanism, a social relationship between traders and buyers is constructed to establish trust. Trading activities construct value-based relationship marketing – not only transactional marketing – to create mutual benefits between traders and consumers (Hidayat et al., 2016). This social relationship involves not only the exchange of goods and services but also of information, knowledge and values (Ekomadyo, 2014).

The emergence of modern retail business in Indonesia since the 1960s has left the traditional market with inadequate competitiveness. Initially, supermarkets were built to take middle-up consumers, so the traditional market could still serve middle-low consumers. But in the course of time, the supermarkets also started to attract middle-low consumers, even in neighborhood areas, and the traditional markets began to be abandoned by their customers who preferred to shop in a more comfortable place (Firmanzah & Halim, 2010). Traditional markets deteriorated and could not attract people anymore, so their role as a social place was feared to become extinct (Cahyono, 2006; Ekomadyo & Hidayatsyah, 2012). However, the main cause of this decline was the decreasing concern from local governments for the traditional market's role as a socio-economic facility (Prihandana, 2002). Public markets were managed on a 'business-as-usual' basis without innovation (Kasali, 2007; Poesoro, 2007).

Responding to the vital role of the traditional market, the Indonesian government decided to start a revitalization program in the 2000s. Experts suggested several interventions to improve traditional markets, such as government involvement, marketing strategy, market management, physical qualities, consumer behavior and demand, locational attributes, the products on offer, the prices of the products, vendor behavior, and other categories of influence (Rahadi et al., 2015). The revitalization program was aimed at increasing local

economic competitiveness faced with global challenges. The traditional market was identified as 'a house of economy and culture' for Indonesian society to create an equal relationship between the global and the local economy and preserve socio-cultural contents of the local economy (Basri, 2010).

Hence, this program should not only develop physical facilities but also the public market as a socio-economic institution. In some Indonesian traditional communities, the public market is recognized as a place to learn to trade, a place where the entrepreneurial spirit in the community is developed (Hidayatsyah, 2013). Community entrepreneurship is important to create social values to develop community self-dependence and to create optimum benefits of local resources and local potential (Amornpinyo, 2016). The government has the role to empower community entrepreneurship, especially to develop human resources who are capable of organizing, managing and assuming the risks of a business (Mani, 2013; Saleh et al., 2016). Furthermore, community-based economic development plays role in establishing social capital as the prerequisite of the nation's welfare as indicated by economic growth in harmony (Raja, 2016; Zal, 2012). Therefore, the public market revitalization program is part of community entrepreneurship for national social capital development.

Through *Trade Act 2014*, Section 7 the term 'public market' is legally stated and the national and local government are

obligated to develop, empower and improve the quality of public market management in order to increase its competitiveness. Before this act was passed, some local governments had already started revitalizing public markets. In 1999, the Indonesian government started implementing a national decentralization policy through which larger authority was given to local governments in managing their budgets, including those designated for revitalizing local public markets. However, many revitalized public markets were unsuccessful. The buildings had too many empty trading spaces, which in the end created new slum market places.

In other cases, however, public markets were successfully revitalized. These markets created new activities and generated economic increase. Public market vitality also attracts people and stimulates cultural events to be organized in these places. A method to evaluate revitalized public markets is needed to guide policy for further public market development as an economic and socio-cultural place.

RESULT

Public Market Revitalization in Surakarta

Surakarta has been an important Javanese trading city since ancient times. It is a node of traditional clothes trading in Java, connecting production clusters to harbor cities. In the past, traders utilized the great river of Bengawan Solo that passes through the city as their trading route. Surakarta traders were also part of Indonesian modern history because they founded the Islamic

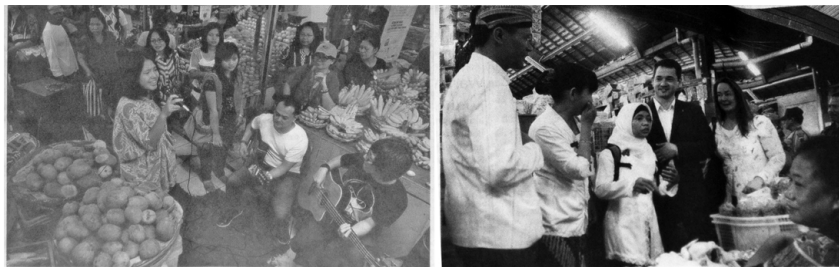
Trade Alliance at the beginning of the 20th century (Ekomadyo, 2014).

In Surakarta, public market revitalization started in the 2000s, when Pasar Gede, a central city market, was planned to be rebuilt after having been burnt down. At the time, the city government wanted to establish a new type of market by involving private enterprises to relieve the government budget and increased economic value. However, the existing market trader community preferred to reconstruct the market in its original form, financed solely by the government. After a legal battle, the public of Surakarta through the City Council agreed with the aspiration of the existing trader community and it was decided to reconstruct Pasar Gede in its original form to be managed by a public sector agency (Saputra & Wiharto, 2010). This restoration was important for the local members of society, who believe that Pasar Gede is a cosmologically important element of Surakarta city (Aliyah et al., 2016).

When Joko Widodo (now president of the Republic of Indonesia) was elected as mayor of Surakarta in 2005, the decision was implemented. Pasar Gede was rebuilt and the existing traders got their trading space back. The mayor used an emphatic approach, called *ngewongake* in Javanese, meaning 'to respect the personal' (Widodo, 2010). This generated a sense of belonging to the traders and also to the consumers. Economic activities in Pasar Gede increased, indicated by an increase of the traders' turnovers and trading activities going on longer in the evening. After Pasar Gede, several other public markets in

Surakarta were also revitalized with the same approach, yielding an increase of the total retribution income from 7,8 billion Rp in 2007 to 9.9 billion Rp in 2008, 11.7 billion Rp in 2009, and 12.5 billion Rp in 2010 (Department of Public Market Management, 2012). Now, Pasar Gede is well-known as an economic place for Surakarta citizens and as a cultural place for Indonesian people. Its

socio-cultural contents are able to attract tourism and stimulate various cultural events with a national scope and even gain global attention (Figure 1(a) and 1(b)). Because many cultural values can be learnt through daily economic activities, Pasar Gede is an example of a cultural market place (Ekomadyo, 2014).



I(a)

I(b)

Figure 1. (a) A cultural event in Pasar Gede (Kusuma, 2012); (b) Foreign visitors in Pasar Gede (Department of Public Market Management, 2012)

Public Market Revitalization in Bandung

In the first half of the 20th century, Bandung was well-known as a colonial city in the Dutch Indies (the colonial name of Indonesia before Independence), even though the majority of the inhabitants were ethnic Sundanese. The Dutch Indies government built the city as a place for leisure, designed in the grand manner of European cities, so Bandung even got the nickname ‘Paris of Java’. Leisure places in Bandung contribute significantly to tourism up until today, stimulated by closeness to the Indonesian capital Jakarta.

When decentralization was introduced in Indonesia, the municipal government of Bandung initiated the revitalization of its public markets by involving private enterprises. A municipality-owned enterprise (PD Pasar Bermartabat) was founded to manage the public markets in Bandung, which has the authority to create partnerships with the private sector. Since the 2000s, nine public markets were revitalized through public private partnerships. Revitalization of Pasar Balubur resulted in a good performance. It managed to raise the district’s economic value significantly and created new brands in response to new demands of local consumers (Ekomadyo, 2013).

Until the end of the 1990s, Pasar Balubur was just a row of one-story street shops and several alley kiosks with a size of less than approximately 500 m². These shops mostly traded stationeries for students from several universities located not far from the market. The kiosks were used by traders to sell daily goods such as vegetables, fruits, rice and kitchen tools, serving the surrounding neighborhood. The revitalization of Pasar Balubur was triggered by the construction of a highway fly-over at the location of the market. The city government demolished the existing market and surrounding houses and then constructed a modern market adjacent to the highway with private-sector investment. The private-sector partner is a local development enterprise with a good reputation and a close relationship to the mayor of that time. The investment to rebuild the public market was compensated by maximizing the buildable area for profitable purposes and managing all the trading spaces for an agreed timeframe.

Pasar Balubur was transformed into a modern shopping center facility by inserting fashion and culinary commodities. The existing traders got their trading space back in the new building, located on the ground floor and in the semi-basement with better physical conditions and accessibility. Before revitalization, vegetable and daily goods traders only traded in the morning and served local neighborhood consumers, but now they trade until late afternoon and get consumers from other districts of the city. In early operation, there was a low occupancy rate (on average 30%) but by continuing intensive investment and strong marketing efforts, the occupancy rate has increased to 80% in recent time. If in the past this market only sold stationeries and daily goods, now Pasar Balubur has become a well-known place to find life-style commodities and fashion goods at affordable prices. Some global/national branded goods are also sold in the market (Figure 2). The character of Bandung as a leisure city is once more confirmed here (Ekomadyo, 2013).



Figure 2. Lifestyle commodities in Pasar Balubur (Ekomadyo, 2014)

DISCUSSION

This evaluation was conducted to understand how revitalized public markets work as economic and socio-cultural places in practice. Here, the term 'place' is used to underline that the public market is not seen as a physical building only but also as an artifact that provides space for meaningful activities. This evaluation is hoped to mutually connect government policy and the real practice of public market revitalization.

Economic Place Evaluation

Evaluation of the public markets as economic places was done on the basis of the increase in economic activities and economic meaning for traders and consumers. Economic increase can be intensive, when economic activities increase without trading space extension, or can be extensive, when trading space is extended. Economic increase in Pasar Gede was intensive, while in Pasar Balubur it was intensive as well as extensive. Although there was no space extension, the intensive increase of economic activities in Pasar Gede is indicated by its contribution to government income and the increase in daily trading duration after revitalization. Trading space extension in Pasar Balubur was significant, from an average of 500 to 17,300 m² with an impact on economic activities, including from existing traders. New traders attracted new consumers, who indirectly became consumers for existing traders. The economic growth of Pasar Balubur is indicated by its occupancy rate.

From traders and consumers perspective, the most significant economic role of public markets is to provide space to sell and buy commodities at affordable prices. Almost all traders of Pasar Gede and Pasar Balubur mention the affordable space rent as the reason to sell at these markets. Meanwhile, almost all consumers of both markets mention the low price of commodities as buying motive (Figure 3). Affordable prices are related to local government mission in managing public market as public service especially to provide accessibility for societies to get their daily goods. This spirit generates common people to come and shop in public markets, that is why public markets are stated as inclusive economic places.

The social aspect of trading activities determines the economic role of both revitalized public markets. Pasar Gede has a stronger social function as can be seen from the fact that all traders have a social relationship with their regular customers. In Pasar Balubur, only existing traders have a strong relationship with their costumers (Figure 3). The social relationship between traders and consumers still remains a main economic strength of the public markets. It is affected by the history of market development.

This evaluation shows that both markets increased their role as an economic place. An economic approach of revitalization is able to increase the economic activities of the public market extensively and intensively, as happened at Pasar Balubur, while a socio-cultural approach can increase it intensively, as happened at Pasar Gede. The strength

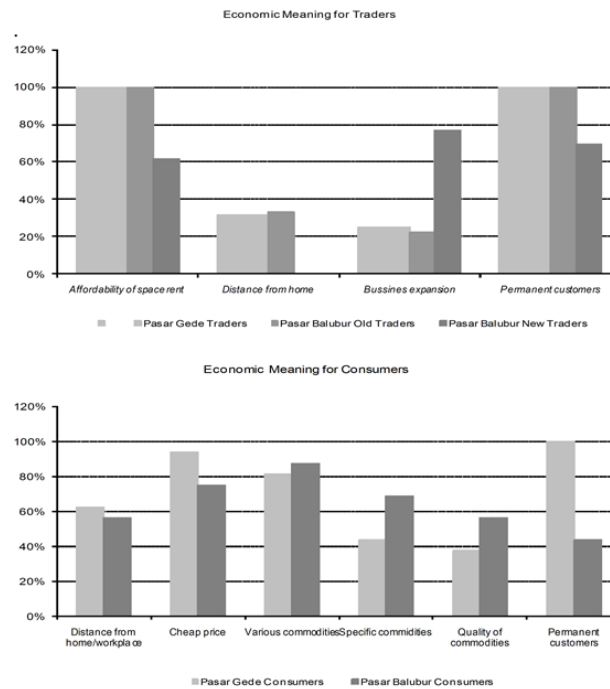


Figure 3. The public market as an economic place for traders (above) and consumers (below).

of the public market as an economic place is especially determined by its ability to provide space against affordable prices for inclusive economic activities that involve common people. The social relationships between traders and consumers, which develop over time, also plays a significant role. It is concluded that both revitalized public markets were able to persist as economic places, influenced by their inclusiveness and the social relationships they supported.

Socio-cultural Place Evaluation

The revitalized public market as a socio-cultural place was evaluated by tracing its role as a place for social gathering and a symbolic representation of the community.

Through social gathering, the public market is a place where information and knowledge are exchanged and community values are constructed. Its role as a symbolic representation is related to the culture of the city.

As gathering places, Pasar Gede and Pasar Balubur are of different types. Pasar Gede is recognized as a place to gather for any kind of cultural event. In this aspect it represents the ancient role of the public market as a place for performances. Meanwhile, the gathering activities in Pasar Balubur take place in the food court and cafes inside the market, which are used by some communities to organize their meetings.

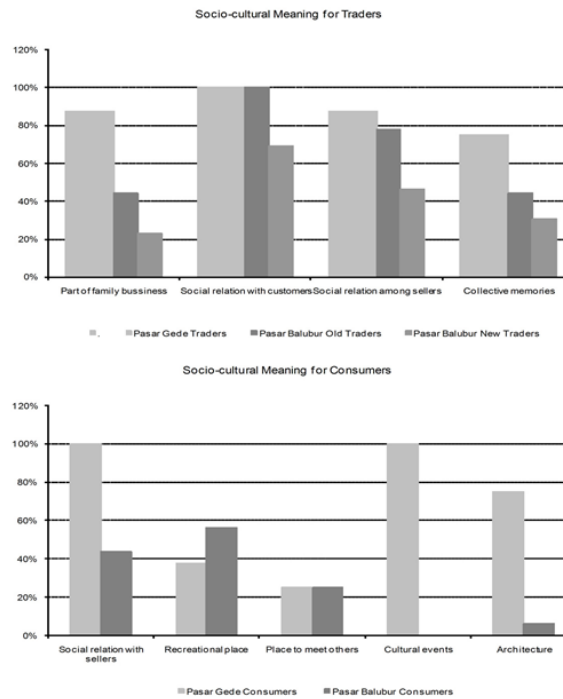


Figure 4. The public market as a socio-cultural place for traders (above) and consumers (below)

Symbolically, both markets also represent different cultural characters. Pasar Gede strongly represents Javanese culture, while Pasar Balubur presents the image of a modern shopping facility. The difference in cultural character is caused by the difference in approach of the revitalization policies implemented by both cities, which are related to the different modes of city growth and development.

Traders and consumers also recognize different socio-cultural meanings. Pasar Gede traders and consumers have more socio-cultural attachment, represented by its collective memory, cultural events and architecture. Pasar Balubur is used partly by consumers as resting area or recreational place, but this aspect is not so significant

because there are many more attractive recreational spaces in Bandung city (Figure 4). Again, the socio-cultural meaning of the public market is related to the revitalization policy chosen by the city government

Both markets are recognized as a social space by the traders. All Pasar Gede traders and Pasar Balubur existing traders utilize the market to build social relationships with their customers. Both markets are also utilized by many traders to build social relationships among themselves (Figure 4). All existing traders have been provided with a proper space after revitalization and the solidarity between traders since the development process has been maintained up until now.

As socio-cultural places, Pasar Gede and Pasar Balubur have different roles. Pasar Gede provides more socio-cultural attachment to local society, because this market is revitalized with a strongly socio-cultural approach, meanwhile Pasar Balubur adopts urban lifestyle culture as marketing strategy. However, both markets have a significant role as a social space, especially for the traders. The revitalization policy to preserve existing traders in the new buildings has created solidarity among the traders in decision-making about development of the markets by the local government. The existing traders play important role of successful revitalized public markets, because they are the 'guardian of value' of the markets. By knowledge from tradition, the existing traders are able to maintain relation to the consumers as permanent customers (Figure 3). These personal relationship is the significant factor how mutual relation between economic and socio-cultural constructed the public market vitality.

CONCLUSION

Learning from Pasar Gede Surakarta and Pasar Balubur Bandung, the success of revitalization of public markets was identified on the basis of the increase of their economic activities. This increase can be extensive, by expansion of active trading spaces, or intensive, by traders' business growth. Pasar Gede revitalization was done with a socio-cultural approach based on Javanese cultural identity and was successful in enhancing economic vitality

as indicated by the emergence of new consumers from tourism, leading to traders' business growth. Pasar Balubur Bandung revitalization was done with an economic approach and was successful in becoming a part of the leisure and lifestyle culture of Bandung society.

The public market is truly an urban social space. As any other social space, it is a place where actors have control over resources by transforming economic and non-economic capital (cultural, social and symbolic) into strategic action (Bourdieu, 1986; Dovey, 2010). The success of public market revitalization is determined by the capability to govern these economic and non-economic capitals. Although addressed with different approaches, good governance has managed to enhance both public markets as vital economic places and cultural representations for citizens and social groups in both cities.

By evaluating these successfully revitalized markets, the determinant aspects to be implemented can largely be traced. The lack of stakeholder involvement has previously been indicated as the cause of public market revitalization failure (Prastyawan et al., 2016), but it has also been argued that stakeholder involvement can be chosen in various ways depending on the local society's character and the political choices of each municipality. Surakarta and Bandung have different social characters, so they used different approaches of stakeholder involvement in their public market revitalization. Surakarta by building a sense of belonging to the traders and

Bandung by providing a better space for the traders supported by continuing investment. From a more general perspective, economic parameters can be developed as criteria to assess a public market's role as an economic place. However, the key to success of public market revitalization is good governance in managing its economic and socio-cultural capital, whatever approach is chosen. Public markets grow and develop in line with a city's history, so their economic vitality and sustainability are constituted mutually with the city's cultural representation.

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Town Planners' Involvement in the Planning and Design Process of Green Building Projects in Malaysia

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ABSTRACT

Green building is a holistic project that requires integrated planning and design approaches through the involvement of multidisciplinary professions. Green building projects in Malaysia usually involve developers, architects, engineers and energy consultants to make decisions in planning and design. The role of town planners in the project is limited especially when it comes to getting the approval for planning from the local authorities. This study aimed to identify the level of town planners' involvement in the planning and design process of green building projects in Malaysia. It also offered recommendations on how the green building projects could be supported by the town planners. The data were collected in two tiers of interviews. A first series of interviews was conducted among 22 town planners who represented town planning organizations from the private and public sectors in Malaysia. The data were analyzed qualitatively using the content analysis technique. Then, a second series of interviews were conducted among the town planners who had been involved with the planning and design process of three selected green building projects in Malaysia. The data obtained from this in-depth case study interviews were analyzed using the cross-case analysis. Findings indicate that the involvement of town planners and the input given to the green building projects were very limited which had led to disagreement throughout the planning and design process. The early contribution of town planners to the projects in the planning and design process will enhance the opportunity of the project to become 'green' in the true sense of the word.

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INTRODUCTION

Buildings contribute up to 30% of greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions and use up to 40% of energy each year (Isa et al., 2019; United Nations Environment Programme [UNEP], 2009). UNEP (2009) reported that if this condition prolonged, the GHG emissions would increase by double in 2029. Green Buildings are referred to as buildings that exhibit energy and resource efficiency and are capable of reducing the negative effects of the development on the environment and human health with the aim of promoting sustainable life (Isa et al., 2014, 2019). Studies have revealed that enhanced green building demand and supply could contribute up to 35% reduction of carbon dioxide (CO₂) emissions; 30-50% reduction of total energy use; 70% savings on waste generation; and 40% reduction of water usage (CBRE, 2010). Malaysia has set a target to become an advanced economy by 2020, achievable through a resilient, low-carbon, resource-efficient, and socially-inclusive manner. The Ministry of Energy, Green Technology, and Water (MEGTW) (currently known as the Ministry of Energy, Science, Technology, Environment and Climate Change) through their 'Low Carbon City Framework and Assessment System' (LCCF) reported that the development of a city is the main contributor to the CO₂ emissions, where it releases up to 50% (MEGTW, 2011). Thus, sustainability achievement in the development, specifically the building construction sector is the biggest chance for a city to reduce carbon emission.

Malaysia has developed its own Green Building Assessment Systems (GBAS) known as Green Building Index (GBI Malaysia) to evaluate the green design and performance of Malaysian buildings. Thus far, as of October 2016, the GBI had certified over 170 millions square feet of green buildings. On annual average, this translates to a total of CO₂ emission reduction of 758,000 tons (GBI, 2016). In 2012, the government had established a GBAS called Green Performance Assessment System in Construction (Green PASS) which aimed to encourage a sustainable construction by focusing on the construction and operation stages through the reduction of CO₂. *Penilaian Penarafan Hijau, Jabatan Kerja Raya* (PH JKR) was established in the same year, followed by Green Real Estate (GreenRe) in 2013.

Urban planning and the green building construction sectors are mutually necessary and complementary which need to be addressed in an integrated manner. This is because green buildings are not just independent individuals, but the scope extends to the community in which residents' social and humanistic needs should be met in a better manner under rational planning and construction (Li et al., 2014). Based on their research in China, Li et al (2014) had compiled a list of social and humanistic needs for green buildings' planning and design such as to achieve the integration of regional features and historic culture, the style of buildings that reflected geographical features and concerns with house layout and functions. The findings show that the

involvement of town planners in green building projects is very significant as most of those needs are very much relevant to the roles and responsibilities of town planners.

Local planning departments are best suited to implement policies that promote green buildings because they have the mandate and the organizational capacity to create and adopt development plans and regulations, and they are familiar with local conditions, politics, and community and planning goals. They also serve an important integrating role among the government agencies and the communities. Town planners constitute a unique group of professionals, who is responsible for preparing and executing a beneficial plan for the community (Isa, 2015; Safee et al., 2015). With the help of a planner throughout the project planning and design process of a green building, it will lead to a more integrated outcome and make ease the approval process of the project (Retzlaff, 2008). Singapore is a good example of an Asian country that promotes green building development. The success of the certification program and the Green Building Master plan of the country are achieved through the collaborative work of various stakeholders and institutions ranging from government agencies, non-profit organizations, to corporate industry players and educational institutions including the local authorities and planners (Building and Construction Authority, n.d). In a short span of 8 years, the number of green buildings in Singapore had increased a hundred times from 17 buildings in 2005 to almost 1700 in 2013.

Green building development has been suggested to provide multiple benefits to achieve sustainability through urban planning (Bohne & Solli, 2011; Høyer & Næss, 2008). Yet, in the rapid development of the green building initiatives in Malaysia, the green building developments often involve developers, architects, engineers and energy consultants to make decisions in both the planning and design (Isa, 2015). Meanwhile, the role of town planners seems ambiguous and isolated (Isa, 2015). Consequently, land use planning and development regulation often fail to consider many of the impacts of buildings. The current urban planning process, policies and guidelines in Malaysia are not fully engaged with the green building development of the country (Isa, 2015).

Construction and development projects involve the co-ordinated actions of many different professionals to achieve defined objectives. Projects begin with the inception stage which starts with business decisions made by the client and the feasibility stage in which various professionals and specialists are required to give inputs to a broad ranging evaluation of feasibility. The next stage is the strategy stage followed by the pre-construction stage after the completion of the strategy stage and then, the onsite construction will begin. During the pre-construction stage, the design is determined, also the planning and the principal decisions are made concerning time, quality and cost management. This stage also includes statutory approvals and consents, considering utility provisions such as water and electricity, monitoring

the environmental performance targets and bringing manufacturers, contractors and their supply chains into the project team working in a creative and highly interactive way (The Chartered Institute of Building [CIOB], 2010). The involvement of town planners during this stage is very crucial especially in a green development context as it will provide multiple benefits to achieve the green targets through urban planning (Bohne & Solli, 2011; Høyer & Næss, 2008; Li et al., 2014).

Unfortunately, the traditional planning and design process in Malaysia do not provide a very easy path towards the development of the green building projects. Land use planning, layout plan preparation and the building regulations that are being implemented do not include the techniques, the design and the materials used in developing a building. Due to the limitation of knowledge and a norm to the conventional system, town planners are usually required for the purpose of preparing the layout plan and qualifying the relevant planning requirements (Isa, 2015). Bearing this in mind, this article discusses the level of town planners' involvement in the planning and design process of green building projects in Malaysia and suggests how the green building projects can be supported by the town planners through the project planning and design process towards green growth.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

This study applied the qualitative method in two stages. In the first stage, interviews

were conducted among 10 professional town planners who had at least one town planning consulting firm. In addition, 11 town planners of the Department of Town Planning at the local authority level were also selected to contribute in the interview sessions.

They were selected on the basis that they were established in the profession, that they had the knowledge or experiences on the green building project, they were well known and recognized by the industry to represent the profession of town planners in the public and private sectors as a whole. The data obtained from this stage were analyzed using the content analysis method. The findings were then brought to the second stage, which were case study qualitative approaches for the in depth study. At the second stage, interviews were conducted among the town planners who were responsible for three selected green building projects. The buildings had been selected as the case studies for this research, considering the literal replication logic on the grounds that the buildings were recognized as the recipient of ASEAN Energy Award, certified by GBI Malaysia and which were already fully occupied. The involvement of planners in the planning and design process of the projects was measured by using the theory developed by Neumann in 2000, known as 'Neumann's Continuum of Degrees or Range of Participation in Decision Making'. The content analysis and cross case analysis techniques were used to analyze the qualitative data obtained from the case studies.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Town Planners' Involvement in the Planning and Design Process of Green Building Projects

The result as depicted in Table 1 reveals that the majority of the town planners, whether from the consulting firms or local authorities, which are a total of 15 out of 21 interviewees, had never been involved in the planning and design process of green building projects in Malaysia. Interviewees had the knowledge of the green project and even underwent training regarding the project development, but they did not have the opportunity to get involved in the project. Meanwhile, 5 out of 21 interviewees were involved in 1 to 5 green building projects and only one interviewee, which was from the local authority, was involved in the planning and design process of 11 to 15 green buildings. However, all those 6 interviewees stated that they had only been involved in the process of seeking for the planning approval from the local authority. Unfortunately, the submission made for local planners' approval at this stage was not clarified properly in terms of the details of the design and the green technologies proposed for the development. Town planners at local level have to ensure that the applications for planning permission followed the requirements of the development plans, guidelines, and other related needs. Interviewees also revealed that there were certain local authorities who ruled out that the report for the planning permission application of a green building project should be submitted together with

the compliance reports of GBI Malaysia. However, the GBI report submission was only a condition of the application and it did not require planners' involvement to give input throughout the project planning and design process directly.

The green building development requires integrated planning and design process, which involve the key stakeholders from various professions including planners (Isa, et al., 2014; Li et al., 2014). However, based on interviews, taking into consideration the input of various key professions starting from the early planning and design process of a building was very rare or never happens in Malaysia. At local level, preliminary discussion normally takes place between the town planning consultants and the planning department during the layout plan, building plan or planning permission submission process. A registered town planner is engaged by the developer or land owner to prepare the layout plan and will act as the principal submitting party for the planning approval process at the planning permission stage. Architects responsible for overseeing the entire projects development will influence the issuance of quality building through the Certificate of Completion and Compliance. Meanwhile, contractors will only get involved during the construction process at the project site. Input from building operators and other outside stakeholders is given very little consideration during the planning and design process of the buildings in Malaysia. These findings on what is happening within the pre-construction stage

of green building development in Malaysia contradict to the idea of the green building development that requires the professions involved since the early planning and design stage generates a holistic building construction and minimizes conflicts in a green building project as suggested by Isa (2015) and Isa et al. (2014).

Based on the interviews at the second stage conducted among the town planners who were responsible for the certified green buildings (see Table 2), it was found that the level of involvement of the town planners in all those three projects was little. They were only involved with the process of preparing the documents and related

Table 1

Involvement of town planners in the planning and design process of green building project

Type of organization		Involvement in the planning and design process of the green building project				Total
		None	1-5 project	6-10 project	11-15 project	
Town planning firms	Involved in the green building project	None	8	-	-	8
		1-5	-	2	-	2
	Sub Total		8	2	-	10
Local Authority	Involved in the green building project	None	7	-	-	7
		1-5	-	3	-	3
		11-15	-	-	1	1
	Sub Total		7	3	1	11
Total involvement in green building project			15	5	-	21

materials to obtain the planning permission from the local authorities. Town planners had not been working together to exchange ideas and provide input during the detailed design process of the green buildings in every building plot. Neglected input from the perspective of the town planners in the planning and design process of the green projects was more obvious when they were not actively involved during the detailed design of the building. This process had only involved developers, owners, architects, engineers and energy consultants. In terms of the degree of involvement of the town planners, it was revealed that they were

just informed about every decision made by others instead of actively being involved to generate ideas throughout the planning and design process.

Result shows that all those green building projects are still practicing some amount of conventional planning and design process. Apart from not being involved in the town planners actively in the early planning and design process, contractors were not appointed at the time of preparing the building design in Project A and B. Project B had carried out the traditional procurement system, which was the design-bid-build that prevented them from appointing a

contractor earlier. However, the owner of building B clarified that they always made the effort to get input and feedback from the contractors throughout the planning and design process. In terms of the planning and design, project C seems to be much more exclusive compared to Project A and B. Project C learnt and utilized all the lessons and experiences obtained from the delivery of Project A and B. Considering that the main contractor of all those projects was from the same organization and was elected as the project manager for Project C, the outcome of Project C was more integrated and structured. Inputs from contractors were obtained since the earliest planning stage of this project. The involvement of the contractor since the early planning process, gave an opportunity to the contractor to share their experiences and ideas with the design team to smoothen the design process and prevent major changes during construction.

However, inputs from town planners in those three projects were still vague. Although Project C carried out a much more

integrated process compared to Project A and B, the involvement of town planners in this project remained unchanged. Town planning consultants concentrated on preparing the layout plan, while their involvement in the designing process was very minor. In other words, the town planners' input did not seem to be appreciated throughout the planning and design process of all those three projects. Based on the interviews, the town planners measured the performance of those three green buildings to be at 'fair' level of achievement especially on the planning aspects as a whole, as their input was not considered.

Supporting the Development of Green Building through the Planning and Design Process

The role of town planners in supporting the construction of green building needs to be more active and efficient. Urban planning and green building construction sectors are something that should not be separated. Looking at LCCF, there are four elements that have to be taken into account by the key professions including the town planners

Table 2
Town planners' involvement in the planning and design process of the green building project

Stakeholders	Projects	Involvement	Planning and Design Process		
			Conceptual Planning	Preliminary Design	Detail Design and Development
Town Planners	PROJECT A, B and C	Extents of involvement	Little	Little	Little
		Degree of involvement	Being informed	Being informed	Being informed

Note: Based on the Neumann's continuum of degrees or range of participation in decision making (Neumann, 2000, p. 267)

to create a low-carbon city, namely the urban environment, urban transport, urban infrastructure and buildings. Environment, transport and urban infrastructure are aspects regarded as synonymous with urban planners in the planning process and preparation of layout plans. However, in terms of the building, town planners sometimes overlook the importance of their input in its design, as the aspects of building construction have long been placed under the jurisdiction and the responsibility of the architects, engineers or designers. Among those mentioned in LCCF is planning the ideal orientation of buildings in its plot to reduce heat. In that case, town planners should take into account these requirements during the process of preparing the layout plans. A layout plan that does not consider the building's orientation will result in the difficulty of preparing the buildings; for instance, buildings that are placed in the plot are rather difficult to be prepared according to the criteria of green building. There is also compliance with a number of other green building principles, which requires input and sharing from the town planners such as site planning including facilities and infrastructures provision for the community, accessibility, green spaces and so on. This indicates that their involvement in providing input regarding the compliance with the green principles throughout the planning and design process of a green building is indispensable.

CONCLUSION

Urban planners are a profession that is very important to support the development of green buildings in Malaysia. This is because this profession caters to the welfare needs of the community as a whole. Unfortunately, the involvement of town planners of the country to the green projects was very limited which led to the weaknesses of several design aspects of the development. With the planner's active involvement in the early planning and design process of a green building, there are a lot of design inputs that can be given, such as the aspects of accessibility, and layout planning that meet the requirements of the green building development and so on. Town planners and other professionals need to be more open where they can sit down together to share the expertise in planning and designing a green building. As early as the planning and design process, with good cooperation, major changes throughout the development process of the projects could be reduced. This will indirectly decrease the overall cost of the project and encourage the completion of the project within the stipulated time frame. There are many green building projects abroad that have been proven successful in terms of practicing the integrated planning process. Malaysia, as a young country in the green development should be open minded to learn from the experience of foreign countries in order to achieve a low carbon, sustainable and green growth.

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The Relationship Between KLCC Park Characteristics and Users Feeling

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ABSTRACT

This study focuses on understanding the effect of the KLCC Park on its visitors' attitudes. Questionnaires were distributed to 90 respondents and their reactions were recorded. In addition, respondent demographics such as gender, ethnic group, occupation, education level and others were also recorded. It was found that an overwhelming majority of the respondents were satisfied with the circulation, safety, recreational, environmental and visual values of the park. Additionally, a majority of participant agreed to a series of statements which suggested that the park impacted their behaviour positively. The respondents were mostly men. Married people outnumbered the other categories, and those within the 30-40 years of age group formed the majority. Most respondents were Muslims who were mainly locals working in the private sector. It was found that the visitors preferred to visit the park in the evening for leisure purposes. A large percentage of them held a tertiary education. The authors conclude that the KLCC Park is a good model to study as it impacts the attitudes of visitors in a positive and healthy manner.

Keywords: Genius loci, KLCC Park, sense of place, visitor attitude

INTRODUCTION

Urban landscapes are critical and play an important role in reflecting the civic and social status of any community. By looking at the landscape of a certain city or town, people are able to determine or make an educated guess on how wealthy or poor that town or city is, as well as to see whether its inhabitants prioritise the environment and the preservation of nature, or vice versa.

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Urban landscapes are an important indication as to which political, social or economic factors dominate the governance and values of that particular urban community. It is a reflection of how the society sees itself and portrays the public facade or image that they are willing to let on to the world. Urban landscapes also represent a city's cultural background, history, subcultures and worldview; elements which are significant to show how the community practices its social contracts and respects social life arrangements. More importantly, it is how the community sees itself too.

Landscapes have often been acknowledged as having significant effects on health, both mental and physical, as well as behaviours and societal dynamics. In general, landscaping involves manipulating the visible features of an area including the organic and living elements like flora and fauna, land elements like hills and water bodies, as well as more abstract elements like lighting and the weather. Most often, landscaping is highly dependent on the surrounding factors, varies from one area to another, and from one geographical location to another. It is common knowledge or an accepted practice that landscaping does not introduce foreign elements to a certain place, but retains its natural factors that have been found there since before the landscaping process began. Sometimes, landscaping also tries to accentuate certain aspects of the environment in order to make the place more appealing; a creation of certain ideas to represent the main essence of the community based on its history,

tradition, ideals and aspirations. Although the physical aspect is the main focus of the effort, the soft approach also forms one of the often understated goals of landscaping.

The human model in the behaviour and environmental field involves four types of models; the Human Machine Model; Cognitive, Perception and Motivation Model; Behavioural Model; and Ecological Model. In the risk-oriented approach, any design by architects or landscape designers can directly influence a person's behaviour. The possibility approach states that a person's behaviour is affected only when several factors are correct. Factors like the economy, social and cultural conditions are examples of elements that provide the impetus for certain behaviour changes or adjustments to occur (Ahmadi & Khajeh, 2015).

It has been found that landscapes are perceived by human beings at two distinct levels; the first being what is visually seen in the real world, while the second is that perceived by the mind. Meinig (1979) conducted a study whereby a group of people were brought to different cities and districts and were then evaluated on their perceptions of these places by asking whether they recognized certain elements, compositions and the meanings of these elements. The respondents' answers were evaluated. As a result, 10 types of recognition factors were established as shown in Figure 1.

Jacobs (2011) postulated that the interpretation of physical landscapes was not influenced by physical landscape attributes, but by a complex process in which

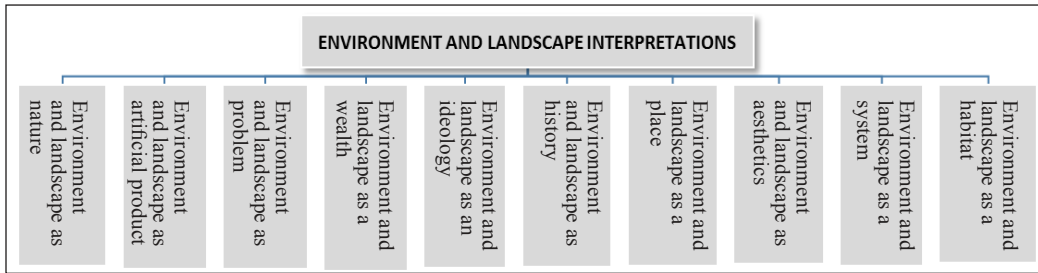


Figure 1. Factors of environmental and landscape interpretation (Meinig, 1979)

information was received and processed in the mind, resulting in a mental landscape. Multiple factors influence this information processing including biological, cultural and individual factors. The study found that families who lived in greener landscapes were more open to socialize with one another in the environment and allowed their children to exercise outdoors compared to families who lived in drier and more desert-like landscapes (Larson et al., 2009). As such, landscapes have been proven to directly affect people's behaviour, especially when it comes to making decisions about lifestyle choices (Larsen & Harlan, 2006). In addition, a study comparing Julfa and Zeinabiyeh, two cities in the Isfahan district found that the city of Julfa with its better town planning was able to retain its residents, whereas Zeinabiyeh and general messiness in town planning (Ahmadi & Khajeh, 2015) lost its residents to migration due to poor structure, overcrowding. In ancient Rome, the term *Genius Loci* was used to refer to the guardian spirit of a certain place. However, over many centuries, this term has undergone several evolutions and in modern times, has been defined in the field of architecture and landscaping as the

atmosphere or character of a certain place. In the 18th century, this term was first used to describe the aesthetic feel of a garden, and had also been used by romantic era poets and writers to describe the abstract inspirations or feelings that helped to shape the design of a garden. This external visual interpretation of a town's façade actually allows people to create an abstract emotional reaction towards it, almost to the point of interacting with the aesthetic aspect of that location of city. Over the course of time, these emotional reactions of the local community will form the perception of the city's past, whether true or perceived, and in the current times will mesh together to form a sort of collective communal culture of a place which is also called the 'sense' of the place. This 'sense', in essence, is what the concept of a '*Genius Loci*' is (Jiven & Larkham, 2003).

METHODS

The research area of this study is the KLCC Park which is a landscaped garden area in between the Suria Shopping Mall and the Kuala Lumpur Convention Centre both located within the KLCC complex. It encompasses many features including a

mosque, a children's playground, a splash pond, bicycle paths, jogging tracks and walking paths.

It is an open space that provides opportunities for leisure and social activities, as well as showcases the Malaysian flora and fauna to the visitors. The KLCC Park is also a space that focuses on the preservation of natural elements and serves as a poignant portrayal of local culture, art and practices (Ayeghi & Ujang, 2014). The KLCC Park actually covers over 50% of the entire KLCC complex, and was designed so that there would be a green lung visible in the area for the benefit of the community and businesses in the surrounding areas.

Most respondents were in the age range of 20 to 40. Additionally, most of them possessed tertiary education. It is noted that a majority of them are locals who are pretty stable in life, as seen by the large percentage of married people. Also, the fact that most of these people work in the public sector gives the impression that they are involved with the commercial businesses around the KLCC Park.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

A majority of respondents preferred to visit the park in the evening due to the fact that it is one of the cooler times, and thus they are not exposed to the direct intense heat of the sun. Many also mentioned that they come for leisure activities as opposed to resting after shopping and work. This fact points to the pull or attraction of the park itself which does not rely on the shopping aspect;

instead, this indicates that they visit for the sole purpose of recreation.

The questionnaire asked on their general level of satisfaction towards the park's accessibility which was recorded to be positive. Only a handful of them had expressed dissatisfaction towards accessibility to the park by car and by the disabled. A high majority expressed confidence about the safety of the park, even at night. In terms of environmental value, a small amount of respondents was not satisfied with the amount of vegetation and climate at the park.

However, some people polled in this study either agreed or strongly agreed that some improvements were needed in the park, for example the provision of public transportation and pedestrian walkways. A small number of respondents either disagreed or strongly disagreed that the air was fresh and that the park was an escape from city noises. This indicates that there are still those who believe that the park does not provide adequate shelter from the stress and pollution of city life. To further the discussion, Table 1 lists some ideas that point to a general direction of the study.

In summary, an overwhelming majority of visitors to the KLCC Park were positively influenced by it, and they felt encouraged to make it a place of relaxation away from the rest of Kuala Lumpur that was busier and noisier. They also enjoyed and were satisfied with the amenities and features of the park, regardless if they were locals or tourists.

Table 1
Satisfaction levels of visitors to KLCC Park

	Very dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Moderately satisfied	Satisfied	Very satisfied
Circulation Value					
Accessibility to the site (by vehicle)	0	6	27	42	30
Accessibility to the site (by walking)	0	0	33	39	18
Accessibility for the disabled	0	3	12	54	21
Comfort level of the pedestrian Walkway	0	0	15	51	24
Safety Value					
People safety in relation to crime	0	0	3	45	42
Recreational Value					
Recreational facilities available at the area	0	0	3	33	54
Attractive Features available at the (symphony fountain, weeding pool and so on)	0	0	9	33	48
Environmental Value					
Environmental quality of this area	0	3	21	39	27
Climatic comfort of this area	0	6	21	42	21
Plants quantity of this area		3	21	39	27
Plants quality of this area	0	0	27	36	27
Water elements quantity at this area	0	0	12	42	36
Water elements quality at this area	0	0	9	42	39
Visual Value					
The condition of amenities in this area (children's playground, jogging track shelters and surrounding buildings and so on)	0	0	0	12	78

CONCLUSION

The KLCC Park therefore, is an interesting model to prove how park design can influence visitors' attitudes in a positive and healthy manner. This study also provides an idea of how visitors to the KLCC Park actually think and feel about the

place generally. This provides the park maintenance crew and designers a glimpse on how visitors perceive their product's end result and how they can improve on it in the future.

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Review article

The Portrait of the Value and Management of Family Time

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ABSTRACT

Due to socio-economic changes and development in information technology, Indonesian families demand more dynamic and capability to manage their resources of time to achieve family goals. This study aims to elaborate the family time and routines, as well as family time management by family characteristics. This is a desk study using secondary data from several studies related to family time according to the diversity of family economic aspects (poor and non-poor), the type of wife's employment (formal/informal, stable/unstable, normal/longer working-hours) and geography (rural/urban, marginal regions), which was carried out between the years 2008-2014 in the Department of Family and Consumer Sciences, Faculty of Human Ecology, Bogor Agricultural University. The results showed that the ability of the family to manage time was still low, especially in families with a wife who had informal and unstable work. The ability of the family in evaluating the use of time and the limited use of a household appliance that could accelerate domestic job was also low. Similarly, other findings indicated that family time and routines were relatively low, especially in poor families, rural families, and families with unstable work. Only about a third families could see the importance of self-care routines and family recreation. Based on the finding, the Indonesian family development stakeholders need to make efforts to increase the family's ability to manage their time, provide social support for families who need help, and develop family friendly jobs.

Keywords: Family diversity, Indonesian family development, social support, time management, valuing family time and routine

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INTRODUCTION

Time is one of the family commodities that can be used to reach the family goals. Socio-economic changes in urban areas have become more dynamic so that the

families are demanded to be able to manage their own resources, one of which is time. Nevertheless, it is assumed that there are still many families who are not aware and have no capability to manage time, especially those who live in rural areas. The result of researcher's observation showed that urban families faced limitations and problems in managing time and face work-related family conflicts over time. Hypothetical analysis indicates three factors that are related to time management effectiveness; namely, the one that is related to knowledge and awareness of the importance of time, skills in managing time, and situational context or environment related to time management itself. Time is a unique commodity, because it cannot be kept and added. For a different individual, spending the same unit of time can lead to various outputs. In line with the increased percentage of families in urban areas in Indonesia (the number is now equal to that in rural areas), with a more dynamic life, it is assumed that there is a decrease in time for families to carry out their roles, functions, and duties, while, in fact, these are implementation of family strength (Sunarti, 2015). These are also applies to family interaction and togetherness due to each family member's activity.

The literature revealed that attention to time management had been documented since the 1950s. The study of time management as a major component of work-family conflict was conducted by various researchers, among others, by Adams and Jex (1999) who found that time management affected health and job

satisfaction. Similarly, the study by Adam et al. (1996) and Goudarzi et al. (2012) showed a negative relationship between work-life conflict and time management. A review of various time-related studies was also done by Claessens and Berg (2004), and Laurie-Ann (2012). Claessens et al. (2005) reviewed 32 empirical studies on time management conducted between 1982 and 2004. The finding of review demonstrated that time management behaviours related positively to perceived control of time, job satisfaction, and health, and negatively to stress, meanwhile the relationship with work and academic performance was not clear. There is a need for more rigorous research into the mechanisms of time management and the factors that contribute to its effectiveness.

Azar (2013) stated that time management was a concept deeply rooted with self management, meanwhile claiming that the aim of using time management strategies was to improve performance and reduce stress. Other time management references related to more practical time management strategies (Cuny, 1999), as well as developing a detailed guidance on how to get control of time and life (Lakein, 1973). Kaufman-Scarborough and Lindquist (1999) conducted study to identify behaviors and attitudes to predict individual's polychronic or monochronic time use. Macan et al. (1990) found that perceived control of time was the most predictive of time management. Further, Macan (1994) proposed and tested a process model of time management and examined

the model suggested that engaging in some time management behaviors might have beneficial effects on tensions and job satisfaction but not on job performance. Time management training has a positive effect on time management behavior and this enhanced one's perceived control of time. The combined effect was an increase in outcomes such as job satisfaction. Two later studies (Macan, 1994, 1996) which utilised the Time Management Behavior scale developed by Macan et al. (1990) found that time management training was only minimally related to subsequent use of time management behaviors. Numerous studies have been conducted in this regard but with mixed results.

In Indonesia, research on the family is still very rare, especially on family time management. Yet there have been increasingly perceived issues related to work-family conflicts and their impact on the quality of marriage, parenting, and family welfare. Based on the background, it is important to elaborate how families manage time and to understand the family routines. One of the ways to understand this is by carrying out a desk-study on the existing research, which sometimes does not focus on studying family time management, but it contains related information. This desk study, therefore, is aimed to obtain a description of the family time management based on various studies that have been done in the Department of Family and Consumer Science, Faculty of Human Ecology, Bogor Agricultural University. The results of this study are expected to give contribution

to the development of family science in Indonesia, especially the needs of research development on family time management.

METHOD AND DATA

The research's design is a desk-study uses secondary data of 17 studies on family which contain family time management data. Those studies were conducted by the researchers themselves, together with undergraduate and graduate students, between year 2008 and 2014. The 17 studies were grouped into five discussion areas of family time management (FTM) according to: 1) the stage of family development, 2) poor and non-poor families, 3) the formalities and length of work to dual earner families who have small children, 4) the pattern of living and specific area of residence, and 5) family time and routine (FTR) and valuing family time and routine (VFTR) by area of residence typology and job stability. Data Sources, study location, number and characteristic of samples, and method of data analysis are presented in Table 1.

Besides qualitative data, quantitative data were chosen using probability sampling technique either simple or stratified random sampling. Time management instruments were developed through three management components namely planning, implementation, and evaluation. The instruments used in some studies were different in the number of questions, tailored to the needs and family characteristics. The instrument for family time and routine evaluation and the instrument for valuing the family time and routines were modified from

Table 1

Data Sources, study location, number and characteristic of samples, and method of data analysis

Discussion area of FTM	Data sources, study location, number and characteristic of samples, and method of data analysis
1. FTM according to family development stage	Analysing secondary data descriptively from research: 1) Vidiastuti (2013); and 2) Sunarti et al. (2013). Research included 68 elderly family in Bogor City, West Java Province, which retrospectively recall time management at seven previous family developmental stage.
2. FTM by poor and non poor family	Analysing secondary data descriptively and paired simple different T test from research of: 1) Rusydi (2011); a research involving 70 samples (31 non poor and 31 poor families) at Bogor District, west Java Province; 2) Sunarti (2009); a research involving 160 samples (80 wives who work and do not work respectively).
3. FTM by formalities and length of work hours of dual earner family with small kids	Analysing paired simple different T test of secondary data of 120 dual earner families that have children under-five-years of age in Bogor City, West Java Province. Samples consisted of 60 families whose wives work formally and informally respectively and consisted 60 families whose wives work longer than 8 hours a day and less than 8 hours a day respectively (Hakim, 2013; Damayanti, 2013; Muktiyah, 2013; Zakiya, 2013; Sunarti et al., 2014a, 2014b).
4. FTM by pattern of living and specific area of family residence	Analysing qualitative data from several sources 1) Sunarti (2013a); families according to diversity of earning (farmers, fishermen, livestock farmers, traders, miners, tourism services, and household industries) conducted at several province in Indonesia: West Java, Central Java, East Java, Bali, Central Kalimantan, West Nusa Tenggara); 2) Sunarti (2013b); families in special areas (under-developed areas, border areas, small and remote islands, slum areas, and hazardous areas) conducted at several provinces in Indonesia: West Papua, North Kalimantan, DKI Jakarta, East Nusa Tenggara, Yogyakarta and West Java); 3) Sunarti (2008): A research which include 500 families at PTPN in South of Bandung District (Pangalengan Sub District), West Java Province; 4) Kusumo et al. (2010). A research which include 100 farmer families (50 horticulture and 50 paddy) at Bandung District (Lembang and Dayeuh Kolot), West Java Province.
5. FTR and VFTR according areal typology of residence and work stability	Analysing descriptive and paired simple different T test of secondary data of research: 1) Sunarti (2012) and Sunarti (2013c); A research including 240 families (120 families for rural and urban respectively; 120 for stable and unstable job respectively) in Bogor District and Bogor City; 2) Kharisma (2012); 60 families (30 for urban and rural respectively) at Bogor City; 3) Ginanjarsari and Sunarti (2013); including 60 families (30 for poor and non poor) at Sub District Ciomas, Bogor District.

the instruments designed by McCubbin and Thomson (1987). The research instrument reliability ranged between 0.63 and 0.87 for family time allotment, and between 0.8 and 0.855 for family time and routine.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Time Management According to the Family Development Stages

The research evaluated the elderly family strength in which one of the influence

factors was family resource management in the seven previous stages of family development (as referred to Duvall, 1970). Since it was retrospective to older people, the time management was measured using four indicators as can be seen in Table 2. The data showed that in seven stage development of family (prior to elderly stage), only less than 30 percent families carried out planning

of daily time utility and planned activities punctually, even less than 15 percent family held more than one job in a single unit of time. Research confirmed the low family time management, especially in using tools that could save time for working. This data captured a phenomenon in which time had not become a valuable resource to be well managed.

Table 2
Family distribution (%) according to time management indicator and family developmental stages

No	Time management indicator	Family developmental stages:						
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	Planning of daily time utility	26.5	26.5	29.4	29.4	29.4	29.4	23.5
2	Doing planned activities punctually	20.6	20.6	23.5	26.5	26.5	20.6	17.7
3	Using electronic instruments to facilitate housework	5.9	5.9	8.8	8.8	8.8	8.8	38.2
4	Doing more than one job in a single unit of time (polychronic)	11.8	14.7	14.7	14.7	14.7	14.7	14.7

Note: *stage 1: newly married couple; 2 : family with infant; 3 : family with pre-school kids; 4 : family with school kids; 5: family with teenagers; 6: launching center family; 7: middle-aged family*

Time Management in Poor And Non-Poor Families

Families of poor category had lower income per capita per month than the standard poverty determined by the government. The research results showed that non-poor families had better time management (significantly different) compared to poor families in the six indicators presented in Table 3. In the meantime there was no difference in time management in poor families and non-poor families in terms of the following: carrying out planning of time utilization for a certain period of time, discussing time utilization with family members (especially the spouse), considering economic condition in planning

activities and time utilization, and carrying out evaluation, facilities to change time utilization due to unexpected things. Most samples (86.8%) had low category time management. This can be seen from the low category of planning and evaluation stages. In the poor families, in fact, all samples had a low category of time resource.

The research elaborated time allotment according to five groups: productive time (for working), time for personal activities, interval time (on the way to work), spare time, and time for housework (domestic). Time allotment for productive activities in the poor families and non-poor families is almost similar. Non-poor families allocated more time for productive activities, eight

Table 3
Poor and non poor family distribution (%) according to time management indicators

No	Time management indicators	Poor		Non-Poor		Significant level
		n	%	n	%	
1	Making agenda for daily activities	4	13.5	19	48.4	0.002**
2	Flexibilities in planning time utilization penggunaan waktu	2	6.4	26	66.7	0.000**
3	Discussion on determining family prioritized activities	10	32.3	36	92.3	0.000**
4	Carrying out weekly evaluation	1	3.2	10	25.6	0.010*
5	Carrying out monthly evaluation	1	3.2	7	17.9	0.036*
6	Making use the evaluation results in planning of family time management	1	3.2	19	48.4	0.00**
Number of samples		31		39		

times bigger than time to go to work (since generally the workplace was farther), so that non-poor families had less time for personal affairs and leisure compared to poor families. Due to the limited time allotment, the non-poor families became accustomed to having discussion with the spouse about family time utilization.

Other data showed that there was no difference between poor and non-poor families about time allocation distribution when the wives did not work. Mothers spent 4.9 hours on housework, 4.7 hours on taking care of children, and 1.39 hours on social activities, and 2.3 hours on personal activities (Sunarti, 2009). Time allocation for taking care of children was quite big, but its quality, especially in giving meals, was far from optimum.

Time Management of Dual Earner Family with Small Children

Time management in dual earner families that had small children was measured through three major aspects; namely,

planning, implementation, and evaluation of time utilization and implemented by 10 indicators as seen in Table 4.

The different test result of time management in the dual earner families that have small children showed interesting finding:

- There was no difference in total and all indicators of time management between families whose wives worked maximum 8 hours/day and those working more than 8 hours/day. Similarly, the result test of difference of time management did not show any difference in planning, implementing and evaluating family time.
- Wives with formal works got higher point in total and seven indicator of time management (except indicator no 3, 4, and 9 in Table 4) compared to families whose wives have informal works.

Table 4

Samples distribution (%) and difference test result of Indicators of family time management according to work formalities and allocation of working time of samples

No	Family time management indicators	Work formalities		P-Value	Working time		P-Value
		Formal	Informal		≤8 hr	>8hr	
1	Weekly activity planning	61.25	41.25	0.000	47.95	55.28	0.083
2	Activity planning for personal and family need	64.25	55.00	0.031	58.41	61.11	0.534
3	Fleksibility in time utilization planning	74.00	75.00	0.746	72.73	76.67	0.203
4	Time utilitization planning based on economic condition	81.50	81.00	0.870	80.23	82.50	0.459
5	Carrying out activities as planned	65.00	58.00	0.040	61.14	61.94	0.815
6	Recording weekly usage time	37.00	28.50	0.007	32.50	33.06	0.862
7	Handling homework routines	71.75	90.00	0.000	82.50	78.89	0.306
8	Spending more time for child	73.50	82.00	0.002	79.77	75.28	0.115
9	Completing the job on time	85.00	82.75	0.448	85.68	81.67	0.177
10	Evaluating the usage time for family activity monthly	56.50	46.50	0.008	49.77	53.61	0.314
Total family time management		66.98	64.00	0.093	65.07	66.00	0.602

The results of the analysis can be explained in relation to formal education data. Wives with formal employment generally have a higher formal education and higher ability in time management.

Family Time Management According to Earning Patterns and Areal Specifications

This section elaborated qualitative data of family time management according to the pattern of living and to the specificity of the family residence area. Results from observations and interviews showed that time often became a consideration or constraint in carrying out and reaching the work target that had been routinely conducted. Families conducted activities slowly, as if it had no relation to time, which was, in fact, one of the productivity components.

In the farmer families, time management was allocated for five major activities; namely, domestic activities, productive activities, social activities, personal activities, and leisure activities. Comparison of the time allocation of husbands and wives in farmer families showed that husbands spent twice as much time as the wives (8 hours/day) for productive activities; however, the husbands' time allocation for domestic activities was only half of the wives' (2 hours). The time allocated for personal activities, by both the husbands and the wives, was relatively the same, but the husband allocated less time for social activities than the wives. A different picture was shown by tea picker families in various tea plantations in South Bandung where husbands and wives as tea pickers spent full day at the plantation, and sometimes also

on weekends. So, they only had time in the dawn and at night to do various housework and took care of the children.

Qualitative research on family strength in some special areas in Indonesia (under-developed areas, border areas, secluded small islands, dirty and poor areas, and hazardous areas) showed that families in those areas did not consider time as something that needed to be managed well. In the border areas, under-developed areas, and secluded areas, families carried out various activities in a loose time span due to uncertainty and limited infrastructure, transportation, and communication. The families in the dirty and poor areas were generally located in urban areas or outskirts of towns so that they followed the lifestyle of town people that was dynamic. The families in those areas could adapt themselves with urban life rhythm, in which the families could get access and the chance to various jobs that could improve the family's income and its consequences to the less time allocated for social activities. This condition indicated the time allocated by the head of the family

for social activities in the urban marginal areas was low.

Family Time Management According to Areal Typology and Work Stability

Another instrument for elaborating family time is through family time and routine (FTR) and family valuing time and routine (FVTR) assessments. FTR and VFTR analysis results according to work stability and typology of residence areas are presented in Table 5. Research found several important things, including:

- Families with stable work had a higher custom (compared to those who had unstable work) to do exercise, carry out prayer together, and have a recreation together.
- Urban families had a higher custom (compared to those in rural areas) to have meals together, shop together, and have a recreation together.
- Compared to the families who lived in rural areas, those who lived in urban areas had high understanding

Table 5

The results of differential test of family time and routine and family valuing time & routine according to areal typology and the wives' work stability (n=240 families)

	Areal of typology		Significant level
	Villages	Towns	
Family time & routine	5.29	6.06	0.006**
Family valuing time & routine	17.66	19.50	0.000**
	Work stability		Significant level
	Stable	Unstable	
Family time & routine	6.23	5.13	0.000**
Family valuing time & routine	19.33	17.83	0.001**

Notes: * Significant on $p < 0.05$; ** Significant on $p < 0.01$

to make communication among family members, a custom to have meals together, do routines before going to bed, do co-exercises, visit extended family members, and co-selfcare.

- Compared to families with unstable-work, those having stable work had more understanding about communication among family members, did routines before going to bed, did exercises, shopping, and co-recreation.
- The families who lived in urban areas, with stable work, and got easy access to dual earning had higher understanding about doing routine exercises together compared to the other group (in villages, with unstable-work, and could hardly get access to dual earning).

Table 5 showed that FTR and FVTR in urban areas were higher than those in rural families. Similarly, families whose wives

had stable job had higher FTR and FVTR compared to the ones whose wives had unstable work.

The result of sub-samples (n=60 families in rural and urban) showing FTR and FVTR assessment on family according to the typology of residence (rural vs urban) was presented at Table 6.

Table 6 showed that in general, more urban families carried out family routines. The lowest routines carried out by families were co-exercises and co-selfcares. Visiting families was mostly carried out by urban families since rural families were mostly extended families, and urban families tended to be nuclear families in structure. In general, more families considered family routines as important compared to the actualization. The correlative results confirmed that the higher the valuing family, the higher the family time and routines ($r = 0.422^{**}$).

FTR and FVTR produced four family typologies, namely unpatterned family (low FTR and FVTR), intentional family (low

Table 6
Distribution of families (%) according to family routines in rural (30 families) and urban areas (30 families)

No	Carrying out family routines in:	Rural Perdesaan	Urban rkotaan	Total
1	Chatting among family members	90	86.7	88.3
2	Having meals together	33.3	60	61.7
3	Cleaning the house together	46.7	53.3	50
4	Having togetherness before going to bed	40	50	50
5	Doing co-exercises	10	16.7	13.3
6	Praying together	60	56.7	58.3
7	Visiting extended family	63.3	80	71.7
8	Shopping together	20	36.7	28.3
9	Doing recreation together	30	46.7	38.3
10	Doing co-selfcare	3.3	23.3	13.3

Notes: Modified instrument of McCubbin and Thompson (1987)

FTR & high FVTR), structuralized family (high FTR & low FVTR), and rhythmic family (high FTR & FVTR) (McCubbin & Thompson, 1987). Research results of rhythmic family typology showed that urban families that belonged to the rhythmic families had higher percentage compared to

the ones of rural families. On the other hand, rural families that had unpatterned family typology had much higher percentage compared to those in urban families. Family distribution according to family typologies in rhythmic family dimension is presented in Figure 1.

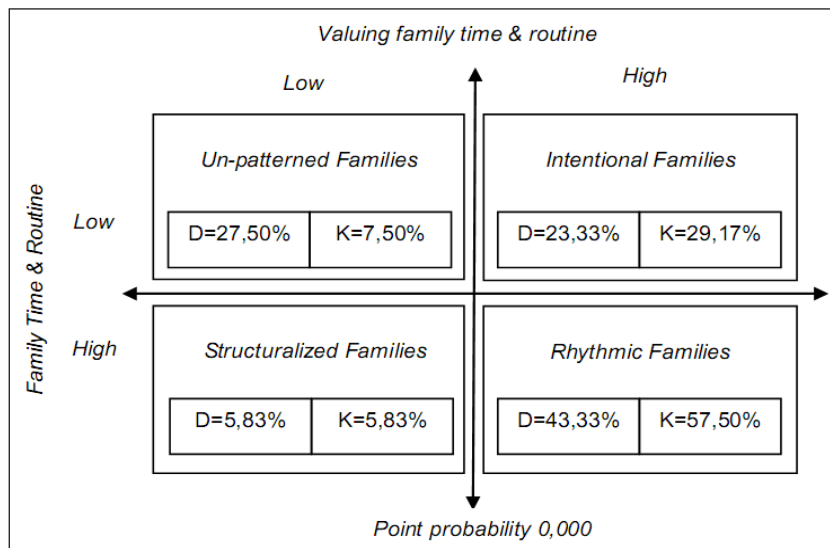


Figure 1. "Rhythmic" family typology in rural families (R) and urban families (U)

Table 7

Main Finding of five topics on family time management

No	Topic of research result	Main finding
1	FTM according to family developmental stage	Family time management was categorized to be low, especially in using tools that could save time for working. Time has not become a valuable resource to be well managed
2	FTM by poor and non-poor family	Most samples (86.8%) had low category of time management, but generally, non-poor family had better time management
3	FTM by formalities and length of work hours of dual earner family with small kids	Wives with formal work had higher score of time management, but there was no difference score of time management between families whose wives worked maximum 8 hours a day and the ones who worked more than that.
4	FTM by pattern of living and specific area of family residence	For Indonesian families in rural, remote areas, small islands, remote areas, and border areas, time has not yet felt as a resource that needs to be managed. Families let time be wasted, and life activities run slowly.
5	FTM according areal typology of residence and work stability	Families in urban areas had higher score of both family time and routine and family valuing time and routines. Family with stable job/work had higher score of both family time and routine and family valuing time and routine.

Result of research also mapped the rhythmic family typology according to family poverty, showing that non-poor families carried out FTR and had higher VFTR compared to poor families ($p=0.056^{**}$). The percentage of non-poor families belonging to the Rhythmic family had higher VFTR and high FTR as well (53.3%) compared to poor families that had only 23.3%.

Based on a discussion of five topics on family time management, the following table (Table 7) summarizes the main findings of this research.

CONCLUSIONS

This study aimed to obtain a description of the family time management of various studies, carried out between year 2008-2014 by researcher in the Department of Family and Consumer Science, Faculty of Human Ecology, Bogor Agricultural University. This desk study seeks patterns of family time management from result of several studies that contain time management as part of research area. This desk study found the following interesting results:

1. The study of secondary data of 17 family studies whose study area contained time management variables, generally indicates that samples of research with various characteristics (by family developmental stage, poor and not-poor, dual earner, work formalities, long hours of work, job stability, earning pattern, specific residence area) did not manage time optimally.

Even some of the research samples still did not make time as a valuable resource that needed to be managed properly.

2. The results of analysis show that time management was better for non-poor families (compared to poor families), in stable-work families (compared to unstable work), in urban families (compared to rural families), and families whose wives worked in formal sectors (rather than in the informal sector). However, there was no difference in time management between families whose wives worked more than 8 hours / day with those who worked less than 8 hours per day.

Study Implication and Recommendation

Based on the results of study, the researchers suggest other researchers to carry out a wider and more advanced research concerning family time management. Research on family time management is still rare in Indonesia while it is still needed to develop a standard of family time management instrument with high validity and reliability. Considering the diversity of Indonesian families, meta-analysis research needs to be done to find the determinant factor of family time management according to the variety of socio-economic characteristics and its agro-ecological zone. The stakeholders of family development in Indonesia are advised to improve family skills in managing time

and to provide support needed by some families that face constraints in managing time for various roles, functions and duties. Family empowerment experts in Indonesia need to develop empowerment modules for improving family time management skills according to the stage of family development, occupation type, regional development, and agroecological zones where families live.

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The Identity Fragmentation of Youths as Fans of Global Popular Culture

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ABSTRACT

In the age of the digital society, online fandom communities are becoming popular groups of young urban cultural enthusiasts in cyberspace. The aim of this study is to examine the cultural identity of these groups from the perspective of Cultural Studies. It used virtual ethnography as a methodology to examine the online fandom community “*The Mortal Instruments Indonesia*”. In addition to the analysis of conversational texts, it also employed offline interviews of 43 participants and two focus group discussions. The study found that the identity constructed by urban youths as part of digital fandoms was fragmented into two subculture groups. The first was a group of fans consuming the popular culture in which they were interested with a deep emotional attachment, and developing fiction comprised of settings, storylines, and imaginary characters from it; the second was a group of fans categorized as the critics of the texts of popular culture who had an adequate level of media literacy for this purpose. Additionally, they were multi fandoms who were also fans of other popular cultures. This study proves that the youths’ interest in global popular culture is not only due to the purpose of pleasure, but also because of their role as active prosumers, producers who create both cultural texts and paratexts which descend from their creativity.

Keywords: Cultural identity, multi fandom, popular culture, prosumer, subculture, youth

INTRODUCTION

This study investigated the cultural identity of groups developed by urban youths who became fans of popular culture in the cyberspace community from the perspective of Cultural Studies. Up to now, many studies on the identity of youth subcultures and fandoms have been completed, but

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they have merely focused on one type of popular culture, such as musical or cultural icons (celebrities), have just examined the behaviour and social lives of fans in the real world, and have often used the perspective of deviant behaviours (Haenfler, 2013).

From the literature review, there have been only a few studies on cultural identity conducted by experts. Firstly, most of the existing studies tend to understand the subculture of young people in a negative sense (Barone, 2016; Bobakova et al., 2015; Howe et al., 2015). Studies conducted by Bobakova et al. (2015), for example, found that the youth subcultures in Rome (a group of fans of Hip Hop, Skinhead, Punk, and Metal) tended to affect lifestyle and led to negative behaviours, such as drug abuse, skipping school, fighting, getting drunk, low academic achievement, and early sexual contact.

Secondly, studies on fandoms in the context of the development of social media and the internet merely see the impact of the internet's development on fan behaviours; they do not really study the fans' production activities. In other words, although there have been studies centralizing on online fandom, they have tended to focus on the impact of the Internet on fans, and addiction behaviours, art activities, literacy, and online interactions. They have not focused on the participatory culture of online fandom (Denison, 2011; Guschwan, 2016; Lee, 2011; Perkins, 2012; Williams & Ho, 2016).

This article is different from the previous studies because it is related to two things. Firstly, it specifically examined fandoms

among young people who belonged to a group of 'digital natives', i.e. those who were accustomed to using information technology and the internet to search for information and interact with fellow members of the cyberspace community. Secondly, the study did not analyse the youth subculture from the perspective of deviant behaviours that had been the focus of many researchers. Instead, it specifically sought to understand the reality of subcultures and interactivity of young people who became fans of popular culture from the perspective of Cultural Studies.

From the beginning, researchers recognized that in order to understand subcultures and their preoccupation with information technology and the Internet, it would not be adequate to delve into them from a positivistic approach, or simply to examine them from the perspective of deviant behaviours. Rather, it would undoubtedly be more appropriate to study the subject from theories and concepts drawn from the latest Cultural Studies approach - an interdisciplinary project of science, combining the British cultural approach, the Frankfurt School, Postmodern Theory, and other critical approaches (Bassett, 2006; Hall, 2005).

The use of the Cultural Studies perspective for investigating the phenomenon of digital natives is more relevant to post-industrial conditions because, as Ritzer and Smart (2001) stated, we now live in a culture of images which is getting more prolific, a place where multimedia technology changes every dimension of life, ranging from

economics to personal identity. Therefore, to understand all these changes, fresh, critical strategies are highly necessary. They are needed to read the narration and to interpret the combination of sights and sounds, and words and images that produce the space, forms and experiences of new cultures. The purpose of this study is to examine the development and formation of urban youth subculture identities in popular digital fandom culture. Moreover, this is on platforms facilitated by the advancement of social media networking and the growth in media convergence. This investigation focuses on fandom subcultures in virtual communities that have the ease of accessing some converged popular culture products, and thus have refined their cultural activities. Studies on fans who are members of online communities have grown in the last fifteen years (Bennett, 2004; Bury, 2003; Chamberlin, 2007; Crowe & Bradford, 2007; Duffett, 2013; Linden & Linden, 2017). However, the focus of this study is to examine interactivity, identity fragmentation and activity cultural youth who are members of the popular online community of global culture enthusiasts.

METHODS

The problem of the study is what kind of cultural identity has been developed by urban youths in virtual communities. The method used during the data collection process was virtual ethnography, a new instrument in the study of social science. This is an adaptation and development of customized ethnographic studies to examine

virtual societies or cyberspace communities (Frömming et al., 2017; Garcia et al., 2009; Hine, 2000, 2015; Kozinets, 2010).

In this study, the site used by the researchers was <http://www.mortalinstrumentsindo.com>. It is a virtual space for fans of a novel by Cassandra Clare, who has issued a total of six titles; one of which is *The City of Bones*, a famous, award-winning novel and New York Times Best Seller with a film adaptation. The group of youth fandoms at *The Mortal Instruments* was deliberately chosen because this online community still existed and was dynamic; additionally, it was because the interactions that had been developed were not only amongst the fellow members of fandom, but also with the author, Cassandra Clare. The results of an early assessment showed that the members of the online fandom of *The Mortal Instruments* were always active in developing online interactions on social media (twitter, Facebook, and blogs). These were activities such as, holding a contest to guess the location of paragraphs of certain passages in Clare's novel, and making imaginary objects about its characters. The most important aspect was that this site was part of a media convergence that allowed fans to access a variety of popular culture texts simultaneously. During an offline interview, the researchers questioned a number of eligible key informants. These were urban youths who were members of *The Mortal Instruments*. The interviews were carried out through appointments or when conventions were held. At conventions, fans of popular culture meet

each other in the offline world to conduct activities together, such as discussions, book reviews, attending the latest exhibitions of popular culture products, carnivals, and so forth. Each convention is routinely held every year. However, even in one year, there could be several events held in various cities, such as Jakarta, Surabaya, Bandung, Bali and others.

Throughout the data collection process, the researcher was assisted by an assistant, one of her students, who is also a devoted enthusiast of popular culture. The assistant was selected because she was one of the young fans of *The Mortal Instruments* and other global popular cultures. The assistant's knowledge was taken into consideration as she could develop her understanding and consolidate herself in online activities with other fellow fans. Any comments, criticisms, suggestions, and posts could be obtained and analysed using virtual ethnography.

As a research methodology, virtual ethnography emphasizes the importance of the data exploration process which is completed by ethnographers in an online habitat through developing online social interaction (Hallett & Barber, 2014). Participant observation in virtual worlds must take place to obtain natural data in the form of digital texts (chatlogs, screenshots, video, and audio) about cultural practices in virtual communities (Boellstorff et al., 2012). In this study, the primary data were collected from conversations among *The Mortal Instruments* fans who joined the online fandom group called *TMIndo*. The conversation texts were collected from 2013

to 2016. The materials selected and analysed were those related to the expression of youth cultural identity, as part of the digital fandom of global popular culture.

For the offline interviews (Boellstorff et al., 2012), this study consulted 43 informants as follows: 10 sources were interviewed at the gathering event in Jakarta, 12 were consulted during the Cozplay convention in Jakarta, as well as 6 at the Indonesian Reader Festival in Jakarta, and 15 at the Goodreads Indonesia meeting in Surabaya. As well as this data was collected from in-depth interviews and further consultations with 7 participants, and finally there was an FGD (Focus Group Discussion) involving a number of young people that fell into the category of popular culture fandoms. In this study, the FGD was conducted twice; each of which was attended by 5 and 6 urban youths who were all fans of *The Mortal Instruments*.

Data analysis was performed through an analysis of dialogues and texts produced by fans of *The Mortal Instruments* in Indonesia while also comparing findings obtained from a variety of previous studies on youth subculture and fandom.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Identity is associated with similarities and differences both personally and socially, as well as in other forms of representation (Barker, 2012). Fine and Kleinman (1979) stated that subculture was bound to the identity of individuals that composed it, which was not a radical idea. The identification of subculture always includes

assigning a person to a specific position in the community, and where people can see themselves as members of the subculture (Gelder, 2005). Therefore, in this context, the identification should be understood as a dialectical process; each of which has an implication for the construction and reconstruction (Harris & Alexander, 1998).

Identity is the essence that can be signified by tastes, beliefs, and lifestyle that are developed in daily life (Barker, 2012). The Cultural identity developed by urban youths is not a single and homogeneous one. In the era of postmodern society, the cultural identity that develops and is developed by urban youths continues to proceed, involved in continuous negotiations and spinning identity formation that is not always singular. Cultural identity is not something that is given, and, then, settles down, but it tends to be fragmented in various forms (Hall, 1990).

Even though the subjects of this study were both fans of global popular culture products of *The Mortal Instruments*, subcultures and social identities between the one group of fans and another one develops differently. Stevenson (2002) suggested that cultural texts that were open to be consumed and whose meanings were open to be produced would usually attract a lot of fans that had an attachment and also different interpretations. The cultural texts, according to Stevenson, are generally polysemic in that they produce different meanings and forms of representation and identity. In other words, even though urban youths belong to a group or are fans of the

same popular culture product, the way they interpret cultural texts and how identity is constructed are not always the same. Cultural backgrounds, levels of media literacy, and the subjectivity of each fan will determine how they develop their cultural identity. Fans, in the perspective of cultural studies, are members of an interpretive community that are able to define themselves and their roles differently than members of other groups (Harris & Alexander, 1998).

In daily life, the key characteristic that often marks a fan is the development of addictive behaviour to want to continue consuming the global popular culture in which he/she is interested as if it were social opium. During leisure time, fans open their laptops or computers to view the sites of their favourite popular culture products, simply digesting conversations and other information arising among the groups of fans of *The Mortal Instruments*. Enjoying leisure time, feeling emotions, and developing concern about not missing the latest information, causes urban youths to become addicted to global popular culture. Some informants said that as long as they had sufficient spare time, they would generally spend it opening their favourite site, enjoying it, and, producing other cultural texts, then circulating them to other fans.

For fans of *The Mortal Instruments*, Cassandra Clare's novel is the original text that has become the cultural resource from which many new texts can be generated. It means that a fan who is not satisfied with just being a consumer can develop

a reinterpretation, to represent, and, then reproduce what she or he enjoys doing in the form of companion or alternative texts which she or he shares with other members.

Besides sharing pictures or posters, the fans' productive activities include uploading movie clips, creating attractive cover designs, mixing and matching a variety of images they obtained from a number of sources, and then making an interesting compilation or collage to attract other fans' attention. At this point, the fans are not only passive consumers who spend their spare time enjoying their favourite popular culture, but also producers of their own cultural texts.

Before the release of *The Mortal Instruments: City of Bones* movie, for example, a number of fans enthusiastically discussed who acted in the film and whether the cast deserved the roles or not. Some of them often made posters to be distributed to other members of the fandom. The posters were made to fulfil the fans' wishes and this was shown in the way they understood the cultural texts that they consumed, reproduced, and recirculated to other fans.

Besides images or posters, other forms of paratext often uploaded to *The Mortal Instruments* fan forum were movie trailers or other information that could attract the attention of fans. According to a variety of sources active fans and enthusiasts are not only passive consumers but they are also producers, or what is sometimes known as prosumers (Fuchs, 2014; Ritzer, 2015; Ritzer & Jurgenson, 2010; Sugihartati, 2017). Amongst fans, trailers often attracted attention because they had the opportunity to

watch some scenes from the movie or other things from their favourite global popular culture.

The study found that among the fans of *The Mortal Instruments*, reading the novel completely, being carried away by the atmosphere created by the author, trying to understand every character in the story, and then discussing it with other members of the digital fandom in cyberspace was part of their way to enjoy and consume the products of cultural industries (Rutherford, 1990). Yet, as the study found, not only did the fans consume the novels, films, or industrial products of global popular culture, the digital fandom also created cultural texts, produced meanings of cultural texts that had been consumed, and then generated paratexts to share with other fans (Gray, 2010).

Among the digital fandoms, according to Fiske (2010), fans' productivity often moves faster in producing texts than completing, expanding, and reproducing the originals. However, whatever paratexts forms are created by a fan, what is produced actually does not show a significant difference from the original text. The productivity of paratexts by fans is generally a combination and reuse of the products of capitalist culture in the "shape of the way it is" –as if it were a bricolage whose types are not really different from the original texts.

For the fans of *The Mortal Instruments*, the study found that there were at least two groups of fandoms that built and developed their cultural identity differently. The first group were members of fans of *The Mortal Instruments* that consumed popular

culture in which they were interested with a deep emotional attachment, and then which led up to entering into the world of fiction, empathy, and unconscious simulacra in setting, storyline, and the imaginary characters offered by Cassandra Clare. Instead of being critical of the popular culture, young people who were drawn towards a simulated version of reality, were often affected by the narcotic impacts of popular culture that they love. Consequently, those young people tend to eliminate their critical attitude and resistance towards the effect of capitalism forces behind the spread of global popular culture (Turner, 1991).

The texts of popular culture which replicated themselves in the form of paratexts often made fans more and more interested in the fictional world created by Cassandra Clare. Through chatting, a number of informants who were being studied, showed how they were engaged in the story and characters who they idolized. For example, a fan who liked a character that was experiencing bad luck later in the story, would feel sadness, or otherwise, get upset because they felt dissatisfied with the storyline where this occurred. One fan, GR, expressed how she felt confused between sad and happy with the ending of the story of *Clockwork Princess*, one of the novels by Cassandra Clare.

GR: *I feel so upset with the ending of Clockwork Princess but because the story is awesome, sooo, I think Will, Tessa, and Jem deserved the ending. But it's weird that Tessa had*

equally strong feelings for Will and Jem. Little bit disappointed with the ending. Well, Jem had waited way too long, and he deserved his happiness. Sweet moment, because Tessa had already been so faithful to Will until the end. Will, love u so much. Jem, you make me tremble!

The posting above illustrates that after the fans of *The Mortal Instruments* finished reading *the Clockwork Princess*, they generally felt overwhelmed and sad. The content of the story that was able to move the readers and the unhappy fate of one of the characters were often the main reasons for fans to grieve. RF and DP, for example, stated that the figure of Tessa did not deserve to be hated.

DP: *I can't and don't hate Tessa either ... I just hope she did not end up with Jem ... but love conquers all.*

DB: *I cried my eyes out while translating it. #weepy*

Being carried away by the story and imagining that they were the fictional characters of Cassandra Clare's work were the traits that gave fans the simulacra. They believed that when they read a novel, they did not do it merely to use their free time, or because there was no other work to do. Reading, getting drowned in the hyper reality, and having empathy with the fate of the characters of the book, is the first uncritical characteristic of a fan of popular culture.

For urban youths, who had been the victims of the hegemony of capitalist power or the culture industry that produced popular culture, the cultural texts that they consumed were often viewed as a symbol felt as being able to fill their soul that was empty of dreams, or produced a simulacra world. In this context, a popular culture like *The Mortal Instruments* may have been part of a hyper reality where facts and images are not easily distinguished anymore. Popular culture today in everyday life is embedded in film, television programs, novels, fast food restaurants, style, music, and so forth, which blurs the boundary between the truly meaningful and sheer entertainment (Storey, 1999). The presence of popular culture usually generates the following symptoms; firstly, the emergence of neomania, namely an unstoppable thirst for new consumption objects and new forms of entertainment that is implanted to the modern soul (psyche) through images, messages, and all types of media; secondly, juvenilisation, namely a human's common tendency to always feel young and attractive, both physically and socially, like the actors and characters they see on television, in advertising, and in films at the cinema (Danesi, 2002).

The second group found in this study were classified as critical fans. They had a background knowledge of media and critical digital literacy, but they were also part of multi fandoms. Fans who are critical of the content of cultural texts are usually identified by their ability to maintain a distance from the story and their favourite characters. At certain moments, they could post comments

and be carried away by the story of *The Mortal Instruments*, but for certain things, they were usually critical of the content of cultural texts and did not take the storyline or its logic for granted. In other words, within certain limits, they are fans of *The Mortal Instruments*, but they are also fond of other types of popular culture. Therefore, they are actually considered multi fandoms. It means that these types of fans are not fully powerless and controlled by the capitalists. On the contrary, they have their own voice and control over what they want and desire, which makes them multimembership, being involved in numerous online communities (Hills, 2015).

Generally, fans who are critical of the story content have adequate media and critical digital literacy to access, produce, and circulate paratexts. The definition of media literacy here in general is the ability to access, analyse, evaluate, and create messages in various forms. The four components - namely access, analysis, evaluation, and content creation - together form the basis of media literacy skills. Each component supports the others as part of a nonlinear activity, a dynamic learning process. This includes: the creation of content that leads to the analysis of what is produced by others and analysing and evaluating the content to provide the opportunity for extending access to internet use (Livingstone, 2004). Meanwhile, critical digital literacy is an ability where fans access information in the virtual world and simultaneously create distance from their favourite popular culture.

A critical fan of a popular cultural text does not usually take what is written by authors for granted. Also, a fan who is used to accessing a multimodal text will undoubtedly be critical of the content of cultural texts that are consumed solely for pleasure and not take them for granted. When certain parts of a story told by an author, are considered less fit, they usually did not hesitate to ask questions and occasionally gave criticism. The study found that there were a number of informants who tried to interpret their favourite narrative story's relationship with the real world and then questioned the possibilities of the story.

AD: ... *by the way, how could Cassie say that Magnus's age is 800 years old, that he was born in Batavia, and that his the father is Dutch if the Europeans began to come to OostIndische around the 1500s (Portuguese and Spanish) and the VOC was formed in early 1600s ? If indeed Magnus is 800 years old, and the year of the warlock is equal to one in humans, then, Magnus was born during the period of the Majapahit Kingdom, or even the Singasari Kingdom ...*

Trying to put a fictitious background into the story is away fans think realistically. Another fan then tried to answer AD's criticism and questions.

MV: *Cassie probably forgets something since there are too many things to remember from those thick books.*

InstrumenMortal store: *Cassie had once said that Magnus was kidding. Actually Magnus was born in 1640. Check the interview with Magnus.*

HS: *In the City of Glass, it is clearly mentioned that Magnus is about 800 years old, and when Clary first created the portal for Idris, he just fell in the Linn Lake. Clary was dying in a hallucination, and, at that moment, he saw a tombstone in which his name was written and the year was 2007.*

AD: *There may be a different way of calculating the Warlock's age from the way human's ages are calculated. If you use the way you calculate the human's age, Magnus is 800 years old and was born in the period of the Singasari/Majapahit kingdom, and there were no Dutch people in Indonesia.*

On the contrary to fandom which is more fanatical towards one popular culture product (Brennan, & Large, 2014; Rahman et al., 2012), and even tends to oppose other fandoms (Harman, & Jones, 2013; Godwin, 2015; Lachney, 2015), this study found that fandom was often not confined to one vessel and a single penchant. Young people who are members of the online fandom of The Mortal Instruments are not a homogeneous group. They are essentially heterogeneous, sometimes even particularistic, with different levels of fondness, and passions united by the very

loosely bonded ties through which popular culture is drawn together in a fluid group.

One of the traits of critical fans of *The Mortal Instruments* is that they generally do not take the story and characters for granted; they also discuss the content and some even try to criticize parts that are considered improper.

The uncritical fans of popular culture often construct their interest and social identity through imitating appearance and creating simulacra. What they consume, how the mode of identity is developed, and how they enjoy popular culture often cannot avoid the process of commodification. However, in the era of postmodern society, where the tastes and flavours of fans become more critical, social identity can be understood if it becomes very fluid (Sarup, 1996; Serafini, 2014, 2015).

In the postmodern era, identity seems to be dependent on the difference between consuming activities on one side, and other activities that are often contradictory: for example, to share with others, to oppose to the tendency to blend or merge, to be hostile, to reconcile, and to be an ever-changing combination. Identifying and mapping the problem of fans' identity (*The Mortal Instruments*) in a postmodern society, therefore, according to Dunn (1998) will require a linkage analysis that shows the tension between power and pleasure of consumption, as well as the search for social connectedness. In the commodified society, consumption and social relationality constantly compete with each other as a source of personality and personal meaning;

each of which in turn reinforces and damages the other. The dilemma is often experienced by groups of digital fandoms of *The Mortal Instruments* when they respond to and develop their social identity.

When answering the question of how the cultural identity of a group of fans in the postmodern era is constructed, Hall (1990, 1992) asserted that the self that was not centered or a postmodern subject was a subject with identities that continued to shift, split, and even have a plural identity. In the postmodern era, people do not only have a single identity, but several identities that are sometimes contradictory, dragged into various directions so that the process of cultural identification of a person or group always shifts (Hall, 1996). The fans of *The Mortal Instruments*, though not all, are often very fluid, with an avocation made up of various popular cultures that are fragmented. For example, even though FA claimed to be a fan of *The Mortal Instruments*, she was also a fan of *Harry Potter* by JK Rowling. FA is an example of a multi fandoms.

It is different from Fiske's findings which indicate that fans are always characterized by discrimination and draw clear boundaries from other groups of fans of popular culture (Fiske, 2010). The study found that the fans were an entity that was heterogeneous, and that some fans were not always fans of a single popular culture (Kress, 2010). The study found that there were some fans of *The Mortal Instruments* who also became fans of other popular cultural products (multi fandoms).

The study found that the majority of the critical fans were multi fandoms, i.e. they became fans of a number of popular cultures. This was in contrast to fans who had the simulacra and were often fanatical about a single popular culture. Some of the FGD participants and critical fans, during the offline interview, expressed how they spent time, saved money, and enthusiastically attended the events to watch things together, or events to meet other fans in Jakarta, Bandung, or other cities to celebrate their admiration for popular culture products. Although the events did not merely expose the popular culture that they admired (in this case *The Mortal Instruments*), the most important thing was the multi fandom fans could meet other fans, such as fans of films about Marvel's heroes, and so forth. In the real world, multi fandom fans are usually not shy about expressing their status as fans of various products of global popular culture, because they face and meet fans who mostly are also multi fandoms at various events. It is different if they meet online fans on the website of *The Mortal Instruments*, who are fanatical about a single culture industry product.

From the interview, it was revealed that watching the show together in Jakarta or Bandung was usually initiated by fellow fans of a popular culture. According to some informants, this kind of event was never held overseas, and was claimed to be a typical activity for fans in Indonesia. Events in the offline world, such as watching together, according to some informants, are usually very fun, exciting, and have been a chance for other fans of the popular culture for

catching up with old friends, and meeting new ones, as well as getting updates and information about various popular cultures produced by cultural industries.

One thing that distinguishes how virtual and real identities are developed, by both critical fans and the ones having simulacra, is the level of gradation. When developing interactivity in the digital community fandom, they generally tend to be more expressive due to the open space in the virtual world, as a medium for fans to release all their emotions without having to be limited by time and place. Fans having simulacra can express their emotion and passion for their popular culture in the conversation forum. Meanwhile, the critical fans can also express their dissatisfaction and creativity through cultural texts that they produce and share on online fan sites. Thomas (2006, 2007) argued that online communities were sites for enthusiasts' cultural production activities. A fan's body in the virtual world is the self that is produced and passed through words and pictures in the practice of membership of a virtual community. Through cultural texts, as well as other things, the fans will be able to represent their real world identity associated with the body, including their gender, race, age, ethnicity, and even personality. They can also produce an identity called the semiotics of identity, an online identity that is constructed from the elements of semiotics. This means that how a fan constructs his virtual identity will largely depend on his ability to manage digital texts and adequate digital literacy skills.

CONCLUSION

The urban enthusiasts of global popular culture are generally prosumers, who not only become passive consumers merely enjoying cultural texts as part of their pleasure, they also become part of a group of fans that are active as producers, who create both cultural texts and paratexts as the result of their creativity, as part of the net generation.

The main characteristic that marks the mode of giving meaning that is developed by the fans towards the texts of popular culture, such as *The Mortal Instruments*, besides attracting the consumed cultural texts that are closer to the fans' realm of life experience, is understanding cultural texts in relation to other cultural texts. This is a process of understanding the relationship between the texts or intertextualities. Fans of global popular culture generally also enjoy a cultural text not as a solitary process. The fans often create and circulate or recirculate meanings as materials for developing conversations with members of other digital fandoms, and simultaneously extending the experienced moments of consuming and producing cultural texts.

The identity developed by the urban youths as digital fandoms is divided in two subculture groups. (1) A group of fans that consume popular culture that they like with a deep emotional attachment. This is under the illusion platform built by the economic power of global entertainment, which often pushes them into the world of fiction, empathy, and unconscious simulacra in setting, storyline, and imaginary characters

offered by products of popular culture. (2) A group of fans that is categorized as critical of the text content of popular culture. They have an adequate level of media literacy, and are actually multi fandoms who are also fans of cultural industrial products or other popular cultures.

Implication and Suggestion

In the middle of an increasingly globalized mass culture, what is currently occurring is the emergence of unexpected fluidity, mobility and identity (Dunn, 1998). Whatever the social identity is that develops and grows among fans, including the most demanding fans of all, it in fact cannot be separated from the role of capitalism that constantly rebuilds, reshapes, re-innovates and re-constructs itself in order to harvest more profit. In regards to future studies, some of the issues that need to be looked at further are: (1) the dialectic process between the cultural identity of fans and the influence of popular culture offered by the cultural industry's strength, and (2) the comparison of cultural identity developed by online fandom against other global popular cultures, such as movies, novels, music, and many more.

Limitations

Studying young people of global online fandom members in the age of Web 2.0 media convergence, is not always straightforward and requires effort. There are some obstacles that are often encountered. Firstly, because this study investigated a digital fandom community, the difficulties

often encountered by researchers who try to collect data in a participatory way are how to balance out the role as a researcher and one as a participant in the community. When acting as one of the active fans in the *Mortal Instruments* fan community, researchers often have to resist the urge to ask a lot of questions that might compromise the neutrality aspect of data collection process.

Secondly, since the main data analysed in this study are conversational texts in the cyberspace community, the researcher's chance to engage in a process of extracting data that is both dialogical and in-depth becomes very limited. This is due to the fact that the development of data found in the rolling fields is wholly dependent on the purpose, and the construction of digital fandom members themselves - which are not necessarily related to the research objectives that have been formulated.

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Hijab and Social Anxiety: Perceptions of University Students from Pakistan

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ABSTRACT

This study aims at exploring the general trends of social anxiety in female university students observing the hijab in the Islamic Republic of Pakistan. A survey approach was chosen to collect the data from private and public tertiary institutions from all over the country. The Social Anxiety Scale was sent to faculty working in various universities, who facilitated the data collection. The scale was distributed to 3000 female students wearing hijab out of which 1601 forms were returned. The tool deployed for the study had three sections: perceptions of participants regarding hijab, demographics and the actual tool. This tool had 15 items falling under three factors: (a) perceived self, (b) perceived social image, and (c) perceived peer response to self-image. Descriptive data analysis was carried out using SPSS version 17. The findings showed that a majority of the participants had a very low and almost non-significant level of social anxiety, thus rejecting the hypotheses developed for the study. The results are a sounding board for those who consider this Islamic attire as one of the important factors in building up the anxiety level in university students.

Keywords: Female university students, hijab, immigrant Muslims, self-image, social anxiety, veil

INTRODUCTION

The symbolic practice of observing the hijab or veil is increasing in prominence in the East as well as the West; however, the hijab is often portrayed negatively, especially in

the Western society and the myths attached to it are at times extorted to suit the personal agenda. The hijab, veil, head scarf, voile (French) refer to a piece of cloth that is used to cover the head so that one's hair is not visible; while some wear along with it a long coat referred as *abayah* or *jilbab* to cover the whole body. The word hijab is derived from the Arabic word *hajaba* that means to conceal or hide from the view and refers to a piece of cloth that covers the

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upper part of the body and is considered as an Islamic dress. Zahedi (2008) claimed that in spite of the common belief, the idea of the veil did not originate in Islam and a brief glance at the history of veiling shows that the first mention of veil was believed to be in an Assyrian legal text of the thirteenth century b.c.e (Keddie & Baron, 1991), much before the advent of Islam. Leila (2011) put forth similar views and argued that hijab should not be made obligatory in Islam as this attire was used way before the advent of Islam. The upper-class women of those times veiled themselves to reflect their power, superior class distinction and a status symbol. Later, the trend seeped into other dominant Mesopotamian and Mediterranean cultures and was also introduced by the Jews and Christians for religious purposes and conveying status. With the passage of time, Muslim women began to wear the veil and it very soon became a norm among those living in the Middle East and later in other Muslim dominated countries in South and Far East Asia.

The Holy Quran clearly mentions in three specific places that the women should protect themselves from the gaze of men and cover their head and bosom. This command of Allah was reiterated by Prophet Muhammad as well. Keeping in mind that Islam is a *deen* or a way of life, and the Quran a complete code of conduct, *haya* or modesty plays a pivotal role in the lives of all believing men and women and as such, faith and *haya* either exist simultaneously or both die. To dress decently by not showing body curves and private parts of the body as

defined by the Quran and hadith (sayings of the Prophet), is to exhibit *haya* and following the Islamic dress code to control the gaze of men and the intrusion of *Shaytan* (Satan) from their lives. Contrary to the fact, hijab clad females are under constant stereotype threats and are portrayed negatively not only in the West, but people in Muslim countries also have differing views. Culture, values, religious requirements, individual and family perceptions and politics play a dominant role in imposing the trend of observing the hijab.

The concern that lingers in the minds of many researchers is what makes Muslim females observe the hijab in the 21st century that gives rise to complex political, social and religious questions. Is hijab a symbol of empowerment or suppression? Does the society accept females who wear hijab? Are such women accepted in the society, academia or workplace at large? Are such females' high achievers? Do such females develop social anxiety? For this article, hijab has been used as a generic term to include any fabric that covers the head, bosom and the body, which may include a veil, scarf, dupatta, *chaddar*, burqa, *niqab*, *abayah* or *jilbab* (long coat). Although the objective of this material is to conceal one's body, Ruby (2006) and Yusuf (2014) advocated that the term hijab embraced a woman's behavior and attitude as well, although what was to be covered and how it was covered was highly controversial.

One of the main reasons for the reemergence of hijab in the Muslim countries after World War II was to get

freedom from the claws of the colonial era (Cinar, 2005). Later, the resurgence of the Islamic awakening movement in the Middle East in the 1970s changed not only the society and politics, but also the symbolic nature of hijab. Carvalho (2010) claimed that the reappearance of hijab was due to the broader rise among Muslims regarding religious commitment, termed as the Islamic revival. Extensive research in this area has been carried out in the Middle East, Turkey and on immigrant communities in the US, UK, Europe and Australia (Bhimji, 2009). Females in Muslim dominant countries like Turkey (Gokariksel, 2011; Rheault, 2008), Indonesia (Hefner, 2007), and Malaysia (Hochel, 2013) strongly propagated the concept of donning the hijab to nullify the imposed western trends of society that were bent on bringing about an artificial and unnatural equality between men and women (Mohammad, 2010), thus demoralizing and demotivating the fairer sex. Some preferred to cover themselves up to protect from the vying eyes of male, some found solace and inner comfort, many found it convenient to involve in immoral and illegal acts under the cover of the veil and many more wanted to follow the command of God. Along similar lines, Haque (2010) gave a broader perspective and argued that the revival of the hijab could be religious, psychological, Islamization of the society, economics and status symbol.

A battery of research studies conducted in the West has tried to find out the reasons for donning hijab, but the majority of the research studies have concentrated on the

theoretical aspects of Islam, women and hijab based on the perceptions of female working professionals, housewives and students. Limited researches have tried to find out if this extra garb builds up the anxiety level academically.

The purpose of the researcher was to explore the situation in Pakistani universities pertaining to: (a) the anxiety caused by donning the hijab, and (b) how such females participate academically. Many Muslim women wear it voluntarily and their decree is respected as this is their individual and conscious decision, not a forced one and they prefer to be considered hijabis. This is proven by Ali (2005), who used three sets of data to find out why second-generation Muslim immigrants wore the hijab in North America. The results showed that the participants had chosen to wear the hijab to make them comfortable in co-education universities and they considered the dress to be Islamic. All unanimously said that they were not pressurized by their family and the attire was a symbol of Muslim female identity and sobriety.

According to Abdullah et al. (2013), researchers to date have not identified dominant factors that influence social anxiety to occur among university students in Muslim countries. Family, academics, peer pressure and social issues may fan anxiety levels in university students, but the exact reason is unknown. In the same stance, limited studies have been conducted in Pakistan to measure the anxiety levels of female university students who wear the hijab, in spite of the country having

approximately 96% Muslim population as per official statistics with the second highest Muslim population, thus restricting the literature review to a certain extent. This paper therefore, sets out to explore if hijab plays a lead role in building social anxiety in female students studying in Pakistan at higher level institutes. The hypothesis that emerged for this study is:

Hypothesis 1: There will be a low social anxiety in female students who wear hijab in higher learning institutions in Pakistan.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The hijab in the recent years has become controversial in the US and Europe among second and third generation Muslims (Ali, 2005, Alvi et al., 2003) due to anti-Islamization fervor and terrorism at the forefront of much exaggerated electronic media. Racism towards South Asians, especially women who prefer to wear Islamic clothes in Britain is on the increase and is exploited by the media (Bhimji, 2009)⁰. Substantial evidence illustrates that male and female Muslims are hurt and harassed by the negative image of hijab and Islam (Bullock, 2002), which causes disruption in their routine life. France banned the head scarf in schools (Bigger, 2006; Carvalho, 2010; Scott 2007); Belgium and some German regional states projected banning the hijab as it would scare the children (Sharp, 2012). Further, restrictions have been imposed on Muslim women who observe the veil in Denmark, Netherland, Switzerland and Italy (Bremner 2010, as

cited in Carvalho, 2010). In the UK, Muslim women have lost legal battles to wear hijab and burqa to schools and in the US, hijab clad Muslim females have fallen victim to the post 9/11 attack discrimination, which has aggravated ever since. Aziz (2012) called attention to the sparse consideration that had been paid to the impact of the post 9/11 national security era on Muslim women and specifically for those who wore the headscarf. Although anxiety was not a criterion for the researchers to measure, any disturbance in the lives of human beings caused behavioral changes and one of them could be anxiety.

Since Muslim females in the western countries wear the hijab to carve an identity for themselves, they have to face resistance and exclusion academically and socially, which leads to social anxiety and depression. Crozier and Alden (2005) posited that generally the presence of anxiety assisted in the learning process; however, the impact of it was not realized much. McGrath (2006) contradicted this belief and reiterated that such students displayed a passive attitude in education, demonstrated lack of interest in learning, got low grades and failed to produce good quality assignments. Moreover, social anxiety in academic situations such as seminars, conferences, group discussions and presentations can restrain student participation and affect the quality of their academic life. The students are usually stressed and worried how others perceive them and are thus pressurized to follow the norms set by their peers or they are shunned from the social circle

thus building up their anxiety level. Turner (1988) argued that anxiety undermined the motivation to communicate with other individuals and as such highly anxious people were more likely to avoid social interactions.

Theoretical Underpinning of the Study

The aim of this study was to explore if female students who wore the hijab in higher learning institutions in Pakistan had low social anxiety level. From the reviewed literature there is an indication that generally 85% of the research work on hijab has been done in the West on Muslim immigrants, whereas research studies in similar area in Muslim populated countries is minimal. Moreover, all research work has not been directly related to hijab and anxiety, but this factor has affected the status of females in Pakistan.

This research coincides with the theory developed by Cooley (Looking-Glass-Self) in 1902 (as cited in McIntyre, 2006). Cooley (1998) defined self as “that which is designated in common speech by the pronouns ‘I’, ‘me’, ‘mine’ and ‘myself’.” The self-feeling is the ‘I’ and

since this is known to our feelings and perceptions, we cannot move ahead without suggesting that feeling. Cooley theorized that social communication was the core of socialization practices as they were part of the whole. Self-image is formed largely by the messages people get from others and how those messages are interpreted by them. He argued that people self-grew due to their actions with others, forcing them to see themselves as intelligent, average or dull, attractive or ugly and many other ideas of the self as others deem to see them in this process of recognizing one-self from manifold signals given by others. This has been termed as the looking-glass-self; figuratively others are a mirror. Cooley’s (1902) three components in the process of formation of looking-glass-self are universal to individuals (Shaffer, 2005) and for the present study, could contribute towards social anxiety in hijab wearing females. Table 1 gives an overview of the relationship between Cooley’s framework and the present research factors:

The hijabis don the attire in good faith, but usually get perplexed by the way they are perceived and treated by the society, which includes their family, friends and

Table 1
Looking-glass-self factors

Looking-Glass-Self Factors		
	Looking-Glass-Self Elements	Research Factors
1	Imagination of our appearances to the other person; actions, body language, words directed towards the person by others.	Perceived self
2	Imagination of self and how we think others judge us and forming subjective interpretation.	Perceived social image
3	Feeling gratified or embarrassed and humiliated on the judgements of other people based on self-evaluation and self-interpretation.	Perceived peer response of self-image

peers (primary group) in particular and other social elements, such as media (generalized group). Eventually, one's self image and perception of self is overpowered by the thoughts of the others. Thus, the hijabis see themselves from the other's perspective as others do and others become the looking glass. Mead (1964) noted that in this way, the person learnt to see oneself as if through the eyes of others; first through the eyes of significant others, that was, parents and friends and then generalized others that included the community. The constant shift of signals creates anxiety, which is an unpleasant emotional state or condition characterized by feelings of tension, apprehension and worry (Beuke et al., 2003). Excessive or inappropriate anxiety negatively affects social life as he perceptions formed by others have been engraved in our minds. Individuals with such disorders experience obsession, fear and worry which compel them to avoid situations that aggravate anxiety or to think of alternatives that might lessen the anxiety level. In these situations, they either avoid embarrassing encounters or face them with reluctance and discomfort (Stein & Stein, 2008). Many studies have indicated that socially anxious people are likely to misjudge their skills in social situations (Alden & Wallace, 1995; Rapee & Hayman, 1996; Stopa & Clark, 1993), thereby aggravating anxiety level before and after any performance. On the other hand, support from the same environment enhances motivation and words of indulgence and more likely to overvalue the importance of public view.

Researches have proved that hijab is worn for self-satisfaction or due to the pressure from primary and generalized groups. Seggie and Sanford (2010) carried out a case study at one of the four-year research universities in the US to understand the perceptions and experiences regarding campus climate among undergraduate female students wearing the hijab. Findings indicated that the students were not forced to wear the hijab and started donning the Islamic dress at different points of time and it injected and increased comfort level as they progressed from high school to higher learning institutes.

Javed (2014) conducted a study in Pakistan to find the meanings, patterns and social functions of hijab. Five females wearing the hijab and five who did not wear the hijab were selected from one university through purposive sampling and the data were drawn using in depth interviews. The findings were almost similar to Awan et al.'s (2011) study; however, the study sample for the latter research was larger (60 participants) from three universities of the Punjab, Pakistan. Interview data culled from both research studies were indicative of the fact that the reasons for observing the hijab were based on religious, personal and family preferences and social value. The findings also exhibited that hijab in no way restricted their movement. On the contrary, it gave them space and respect academically and in the society. The participants also believed that the hijab helped to preserve their modesty and protected them from male gaze and their untoward behavior

and allowed them to become self-ruling subjects. This notion is parallel with the views of Bigger (2006), Roald (2001), and Siraj (2011) and supports the Holy Quran that clearly advises (Surah An Noor 24:30-31) "Believing men lower your gaze and guard your modesty and believing women lower your gaze and guard your modesty by wrapping your heads and covering your chests." This Surah indicates that the gaze between men and women should be avoided to guard their modesty or *haya* and believing women should follow the Islamic dress code by covering their heads and chest to maintain proper decorum of dressing, thus the gaze serving as hijab for both.

A study was carried out on 30 Muslim females (15 veiled and 15 unveiled), who were living in Scotland using in depth structured interviews by Siraj (2011). The aim of the study was to explore the understanding of the meaning of hijab and how society, religion and family usually influence this decision. The results clearly indicated that the hijab gave them respect and status in the society and protected them from the male gaze, while the ones who did not wear the hijab were of the opinion that it made them submissive and lowered their status socially; however, both groups believed that females should be dressed modestly to create a space between male and female. Both groups stated categorically that their dressing was influenced by family and religion.

Hochel (2013) used a descriptive ethnographic method of study and interviewed 30 veiled, unveiled and

sometimes veiled professional females teaching in the universities of Malaysia to appreciate and comprehend women's awareness and the motives for wearing the hijab. The findings revealed that all but one believed that hijab was mandatory based on the verses given in the Quran and as per their responses, the hijab was socially acceptable and assisted male to focus on women's intelligence and aptitude instead of their physical appearance.

A research study was conducted by Atasoy (2006) on 13 undergraduates, two graduates, and three highly qualified women observing the hijab in Winnipeg, Canada to find out their personal reasons for wearing the hijab through face-to-face interviews and document analysis. The findings indicated that the students started using the hijab on joining high school or after joining the university to help them gained dignity, self-respect and cultural recognition. They were interested in remaining close to their community and maintaining peer group relation with other Muslim students in the institute so as to maintain a distance from the Canadian youth culture. The participants also realized that wearing the hijab was part of Muslim women's struggle to carve a distinct identity different from others and to be happier and more fulfilled and satisfied. Similarly, Darnell and Shafiq (2003) found in their study that females in a Canadian college adopted the hijab as they wanted to be good Muslims and they considered it a modest form of dressing. On the other hand, few participants stopped covering because people around them did not understand the norms of Islam and they were isolated

from their friends and teachers. This is in accordance to Cooley's looking-glass theory.

The research studies are indicative of the fact that those who wore the hijab formed their own self-perceptions of how the primary and generalized groups viewed them and they either glued to their decisions or made adjustments to mold themselves in the environment for acceptance.

METHODS

The study engaged a survey research method to investigate the prevalence of social anxiety in female university students from all over Pakistan who wore the hijab. Radhakrishna (2007) argued that in a survey method, self-administered questionnaire was one of the most common and efficient method of collecting data systematically in social sciences. It provides opportunities for the researchers to explore the information in breadth by using statistics and producing numeric trends, which are easily accessible to the researcher in a short time. This was a nation-wide study for which data were collected from 32-degree awarding colleges and universities.

This was a cross-sectional survey study in which data were collected from 1601 female participants coming from universities all over Pakistan. The primary means of data collection was a self-developed tool using a self-administered paper survey. The questionnaire comprised mainly Likert type questions and the data were analyzed using Statistical Packaging for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 17.

Participants

The participants were chosen using non-random selective sampling with the objective to include only female students who wore the hijab, as defined in the research, were currently studying in public, private universities or degree awarding colleges and had experienced the phenomenon of the present study. Table 2 provides statistical frequencies of their demographics.

Table 2
Demographic details of the participants

Variables	Descriptions	F
Province	Sindh	375
	Baluchistan	470
	KPK	139
	GB / Kashmir	326
	Punjab	291
Working status	Employed	332
	Unemployed	1269
Marital status	Married	93
	Single	1508
Level of study	Bachelors	1035
	Masters	566

Out of the total sample of 1601 participants spread country-wide, female students from the universities in Sindh was 375; from Baluchistan 470; from Khyber Pakhtunkhwa (KPK) 139; from Gilgit-Baltistan (GB) and Kashmir 326; and from Punjab 291. Out of this, 332 women were employed and studying in universities, whereas 1269 were unemployed while studying in various universities; 93 were married and 1508 were unmarried; and 1035 were enrolled in a Bachelor's degree program, while 566 were doing their Master's degree program.

Research Tool

Since the words veil and hijab denote different attire in Muslim and non-Muslim countries, the research tool provided definition of hijab for better understanding of the terms for the given context: (a) a piece of cloth that covers the head and upper part of the body (hijab); (b) a piece of cloth that covers the head/face and a coat or an 'Abayah' that covers full body; (c) a 'Chaddar' that covers from head to toe.

The first section on demographics had eight items, the second section included four Likert type questions on perceptions of hijab by the participants and the third section included the actual Social Anxiety Scale (SAS) developed by Bhamani and Hussain (2012), consisting of 15 items on a four point Likert scale distributed under three factors: a) perceived self-image, b) perceived social image, and c) perceived peer response of self-image. This scale has been used internationally in education contexts and has a Cronbach Alpha score of 0.742 indicating strong reliability, consistency and trustworthiness of the questionnaire. The data were calculated using the scoring guide provided by the authors of the scale.

Data Collection

The data were collected by secondary data collectors because the scope of the study was country-wide and the researcher could not practically go to each region for data collection. The survey tool was distributed to 3000 participants studying in 32 degree awarding colleges and universities and 1601 duly completed forms were received

from five different regions of Pakistan; the return rate being 53.37%. The questionnaire could not be disseminated through the internet or institutional email as the public universities do not provide official email ID to its students and IDs for students in private institutions was not accessible. A simple structural procedure was followed and each secondary data collector, who was a faculty at an educational institution, was given a written debriefing followed by telephonic updates on the process of data collection. Letters of request with the details of the study along with the sample of the tool were mailed to few University Vice-Chancellors at their request for approval to collect the data, while few faculty members of the concerned universities volunteered to collect the data by using their personal contacts. Soft and hard copies were sent to suit the convenience of the data collectors, who were free to gather the data via the internet or by paper pencil. The researcher ensured that no questionable research practice was included throughout the data collection process and the participants were asked to provide their written informed consent as an agreement to collect and disseminate the data. Moreover, they carried the right of refusal and could withdraw their participation at any point of time during the data collection phase. Confidentiality was maintained throughout the data collection and analysis phases. The data collection procedure took almost six months to get an acceptable response rate due to the closure of educational institutions because of country-wide strikes. Simple descriptive

frequency analysis was done to explore the trends by using the Statistical Packaging for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 17.

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

In order to explore the trends of social anxiety in female students who wore the hijab at large, descriptive analysis was used, and the frequencies were taken out to explore the level of anxiety in the overall sample. Table 3 reflects the perceptions of the participants on hijab.

It is evident that 58.1% wear the veil based on their self-satisfaction, 46.6% feel that veil gives them a sense of being safe, 61.9% state that hijab should be made compulsory at tertiary level and 9.3% are of opinion that they make friends with all irrespective of their dress. Table 4 indicates the level of anxiety in the overall sample. Out of 1601 females, 21 were rated in high social anxiety category, 257 moderate, 621 average, and 702 with no social anxiety. This indicated that the majority of the sample

Table 3
Perceptions of the participants on hijab

Questions	Percentage Response
Why do you wear the hijab?	
Family requirement	9.1%
Self-decision	58.7%
Religious requirement	31.2%
Fashion	0.9%
Hijab keeps women:	
Covered	20.7%
Respectful	30.9%
Safe	46.4%
Hijab should be in universities	
Compulsory attire	61.9%
Prohibited	32.4%
Optional	5.4%
I make friends with.....	
Ones who wear a veil	9.7%
Any female regardless of their dress	90.3%

Table 4
Frequencies of level of social anxiety

Variables	F
High social anxiety	21
Moderate social anxiety	257
Average social anxiety	621
No social anxiety	702

of female students who wore the hijab did not show a significant level of anxiety in general.

To explore the trends of the level of anxiety, region-wise descriptive cross tabulation analysis was used to extract the frequencies and percentages for the same. The details are shown in Table 5.

Table 5
Region-wise social anxiety level of veiled female students

Variables	Sindh	Baluchistan	KPK	GB/Kashmir	Punjab
High Social Anxiety	0.8%	2.3%	0%	0%	2.4%
Moderate Social Anxiety	9.3%	19.1%	8.6%	26%	18.9%
Low Social Anxiety	39.7%	40.8%	25.8%	39.8%	39.1%
No Social Anxiety	50.1%	37.6%	65.4%	40.1%	39.5

The data showed that in Sindh, 0.8% female students with hijab showed high social anxiety out of 100% sample count, 9.3% moderate social anxiety, 39.7% low social anxiety and 50.1% no social anxiety. In Baluchistan, 2.3% female students wearing the hijab appeared to have high social anxiety, 19.1% moderate social anxiety, 40.8% low social anxiety and 37.6% no social anxiety. In the case of KPK, no evidence of high social anxiety was found in female students, 8.6% showed moderate social anxiety, 25.8% low social anxiety and 65.4% no social anxiety. With respect to GB/ Kashmir region, there was no high social anxiety, whereas 26% showed moderate social anxiety, 39.8% low social anxiety and 40.1% with no social anxiety. In the region of the Punjab, 2.4% had high social anxiety, 18.9% moderate social anxiety, 39.1% low social anxiety and 39.5% showed no social anxiety related to wearing the hijab.

DISCUSSION

This study was an attempt to address the issue of anxiety level of students who wore the hijab in universities. The findings exhibited no significant level of social anxiety in university going female students who preferred to use the hijab, which is consistent with the hypothesis formulated

for the exploratory research in hand. In all regions, more than 70% of the sample did not show any significant anxiety level, whereas in the provinces of Baluchistan and the Punjab, there were a few evidences of high or moderate social anxiety in the sample. Almost similar results were found in studies carried out to explore the relationship of self-anxiety and donning the hijab (Awan et al., 2011; Cole & Ahmadi, 2003; McIntosh, 2010; Mule & Barthel, 1992; Seggie & Sanford, 2010).

It is important to note the theoretical underpinning of the Islamic Republic of Pakistan (Abbott, 1968), when Islamization policies promulgated under the military rule from 1977 to 1988 made the wearing of hijab compulsory for all females working and studying in public institutions. However, the trend has mellowed down and the country as a multicultural nation is now making its way towards a rather rapid modernization (Haqqani, 2004). At the same time, the country is progressing and adapting an open-minded approach towards the society, yet it holds firm to its moral, cultural and religious values (Nasr, 2001). The present research findings project that the hijab as an attire is a natural phenomenon and is in no way imposed by the family and society at large and hence the female students do not

get anxious. Malik (1999) put forward that Pakistan had struggled to become a country where women were encouraged to maintain *haya* as well as followed the culture of covering themselves while working side by side with men. Even though the hijab is considered a symbol of oppression towards women of the Muslim world, it is rather a symbol of purity, self-respect and confidence in Pakistan. The wearing of hijab is not just a religious practice, but it is also a strong entity of Pakistani culture and the women since independence have covered their heads and bodies as a way of paying respect to themselves in a male dominated society (Ahmed & Donnan, 1994), a tradition that is passed on to the up-coming generation. The country is a melting pot of several cultures following similar traditions and cultural aspects (Critelli, 2010), where covering one's body is highly appreciated and practiced in families from all levels of socio economics status. This reflects the findings of the research that even in cosmopolitan cities of Pakistan, hijab is considered as a routine dress for the university students. All female politicians and many women at high positions wear the hijab, which has influenced young girls to follow suit; thus, putting forward an image that Islamic attire enhances a woman's personality, rather than the other way around (Ahmed & Donnan, 1994). The women in Pakistan have a positive role to play in a society in transition, which is negotiating a compromise between the old tradition of hijab and the modern way of life (Haque, 2010).

For women and young girls in Pakistan who go to colleges and universities, wearing the hijab is a natural phenomenon and is in no way imposed on them by the primary and secondary groups as shown in the present research, thus minimizing social pressure and anxiety. Ahmed and Donnan (1994), Ali (2005), Haqqani (2004), Seggie and Sanford (2010), and Shaheed (2002) supported the finding and reiterate that many incidents had been found where the students put on the hijab voluntarily and had no social anxiety. Hijab for university students forms a safety enclosure, generates confidence in them (McIntosh, 2010; Sharlach, 2008), and they are received with added respect. Further, it generates a sense of equality in them, which makes them see every individual as human being and not products of different fashion fusion and creativity (Critelli, 2010; Seggie & Sanford, 2010). When fellow male students see girls with their heads covered, they keep themselves away from mindlessly flirting with them (Seggie & Sanford, 2010; Shaheed, 2002), thereby giving birth to several role models and examples in the society because of which women in Pakistan have identified their own place and platform to voice their thoughts and feelings (Ahmed & Donnan, 1994).

The findings of this study also indicate that the hijab gives the female students the right to decide what to wear without any compulsion and they would prefer the Islamic dress code to be made compulsory in higher learning institutes. This supports Hefner's (2007) three research studies carried out in 1999, 2001 and 2002 in

Indonesia where she found that the use of veil had increased by 60%. Itani's (2016) study at the American university revealed that there was a drastic increase of veiled students on the campus over the years.

CONCLUSION

The issue under scrutiny was to explore the perceptions of female students studying at tertiary level who wear the hijab and the anxiety factor involved in it. The results of this study may add to the body of researches done in Asia and the findings could be termed definitive due to the scope of the study, but probably not in the western countries owing to social and cultural differences. Nevertheless, based on the currently available evidence of previous researches, the common trends that emerged from the present study were that inter alia, Muslim female university students wear the hijab to be safe in an alien environment, to increase comfort level, to carve an identity for themselves for empowerment, and above all to stay within the parameters of *haya* as prescribed by the Quran. The most important reason that surfaced was that these students don the graceful attire of their own free will. Studies in the West have been carried out on second and third generation immigrant Muslims who are struggling to sculpt an image and a place for themselves in a foreign society while maintaining their religious, social and cultural values. This gives rise to social anxiety and they have to learn the hard way how their actions and words are mistranslated through the lens of

religion, leading to the much-coveted hijab controversy. The Muslim females globally have to prove through actions and words that the hijab does not degrade them but empowers them to be part of the society. This is akin with Cooley's three Looking-Glass-Self factors. A woman with a positive image of her character, not only ends up being more confident than others, but develops a staunch faith to follow the right path of Islam and please God as well. This notion is true for university students as well where they have to study with male students and come in contact with male teachers too. It should not be forgotten that Islam is a holistic religion concerned with physical, spiritual and emotional health of men and women. The Quran has recommended dress code for both genders and instructs them to lower their gaze and protect their modesty to create a healthy social environment.

In a nutshell, the study findings of this research concur with the outcomes of other researches that wearing the hijab is more beneficial religiously, morally and socially for women in an academic or industry environment than being a reason of oppression, especially in learning institutions. It also serves as a sounding board for those who consider the Islamic attire as one of the important factors in building up the anxiety level in university students. The current study highlights the need for more future studies, which could be extended to the universities in Muslim countries and the west where females wear the hijab by using the same instrument. Mixed method could also be used by

including interviews to cull thick descriptive data through the opinion and perceptions of the female students at tertiary level.

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Contradictory Outcomes of Development Technologies on Women Weavers' Livelihoods in Eastern Indonesia

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ABSTRACT

In Central Manggarai region of Flores, Indonesia, a policy of spatial clustering was introduced with the goal of enhancing productivity of the traditional weaving sector. This involved the installation of new weaving loom technology and skills training for weavers. This study of the subjectivities of women weavers and their perceptions of technological upgrading processes examines how policies designed without the participation of the people they aim to support can prompt adverse, contradictory outcomes.

Keywords: Development, Indonesia, livelihoods, participation, technology

INTRODUCTION

This paper examines the notion of improving the well-being of people and communities through green technology and state development policies. A common term in the development lexicon, green technology is often associated with sustainable development, or any development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own

needs (Brundtland et al., 1987). As Rist (2007) had asserted, it was oxymoronic to suggest that societies could conserve environments and traditional social relations and at once pursue the kind of aggressive economic growth presumed to be vital for a happy society. In Indonesia, sustainable development has meant greening around the edges while maintaining core business as usual.

To scrutinise how sustainable development has affected Indonesia, this study concentrates on society in Central Manggarai, Flores, an Indonesian region undergoing a process of profound change as it becomes increasingly interconnected with trans-island migration flows and the global marketplace. Such a transformation

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has created a fluid interchange of people, ideas, goods, and ethical and political value systems, amid which global ideas of development have entered the local consciousness. The island of Flores is situated in Nusa Tenggara Timur, a region labelled by the Indonesian government as *daerah tertinggal*, meaning ‘left behind’ or ‘underdeveloped’. A study by SMERU Research Institute found that people living in rural areas in Indonesia have lower outcomes in terms of education and health than in the nation’s cities (Suryadarma, et al., 2006). Between urban and rural populations, inequality of income, consumption, and political representation also persists (Suryadarma et al, 2006).

In rural central Manggarai, most women rely on subsistence agriculture and supplement their income by making handicrafts. Using traditional handlooms, many weave a category of vibrant textiles called *tenun ikat*, one type of which is *tenun Todo*, a simple, double-sided weave with

red checkers on a black base made in the village of Todo, as shown in Figure 1. A modern innovation of the textile has been the addition of small motifs in coloured thread, typically golden. From the region of Cibal, another type is *tenun songket*, in which colourful motifs are woven into the front of the cloth whereas the back has loose threads, as showed in Figure 2. Both men and women wear *tenun ikat* as sarongs, yet with subtly different ways of folding and rolling the cloth.

Tenun ikat is not only presented as a gift to kin at milestones of life, but also a commodity sold at market, to a consumer base that is approximately 75% local to Manggarai. The other 25% of buyers are domestic and international tourists, as well as buyers for shops in Labuan Bajo, Denpasar, and Jakarta (Livens, personal communication, May 23, 2015). In recent years, *tenun ikat* has faced competition from both weaving produced on mechanical looms and cheaper fashions made in factories.



Figure 1. Traditional handloom with *tenun Todo*



Figure 2. Two different types of motifs of *tenun songket*

Unlike those products, however, *tenun ikat* displays a connection to place in distinct designs for each village and region. As such, it represents how, despite academia's sustained focus on the homogenising nature of globalisation, 'places continue to be irreducible to each other or to any single global logic ... The fact of having a body and living in place – embodiment and emplacement are fundamental human features' (Harcourt & Escobar, 2009). In that case, however, how does having a female body in a place at the geographical margins of the market determine experiences of development?

During Indonesia's New Order period (1966–1998), culture became a resource for unifying political and economic aims. One of President Suharto's policies was to create a national culture with which all Indonesians could identify. According to Erb (2005), however, specific local identities and customs could be tolerated only at the

level of display, thereby building the idea of culture as decorative and consisting of visual items that could be consumed and showcased to tourists. In response, Todo was developed as a site where tourists could visit traditional houses and purchase *tenun ikat*. In the post-Suharto era, decision-making and planning have become decentralised, however, which, along with a renewed emphasis on local participation, has triggered a rethinking of configurations of place, identity, and local culture (Erb, 2005). In such rethinking, the role of women needs to be considered.

During the reform period, policymakers have paid Manggarai increased attention as a site of local development. Based on neoliberal principles of growth, the dominant development framework in Indonesia stresses the need for places and communities to integrate into the global economy and has promoted an agenda to increase the number of employed women and women entrepreneurs. One

of the Indonesian government's strategies for socioeconomic development is to promote 'creative economies', including women's production of traditional textiles. As such, policymakers have intervened in women's work practices and social lives by introducing new technologies in the name of development. This paper examines the impact of introducing technologies into the life-worlds of weavers and considers the extent to which it constitutes green policymaking.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

This study was built upon primary research that was conducted while the author lived with community in Central Manggarai during July and August 2015. Given the need to understand women's contextual experiences and subjectivities, a qualitative methodology as well as a multisite ethnographic orientation was adopted, in exploring connections among Todo, Cibal,

and Ruteng, the administrative capital of Manggarai Regency. All three sites are home to weaving communities and markets for *tenun ikat* products.

The research involved both participant observation and qualitative interviews. 18 semi-structured interviews were conducted, with women and men weavers, market vendors, local charities, the parish priest, and government representatives. Inspired by a grounded theory approach, in which data collection and analysis occur simultaneously and cyclically, targeted data collection was carried out to inform emerging analysis (Charmaz, 2006). After transcribing interviews and making memos about observations, the material was categorised into open codes generated from the material and academic concepts. The thematic analysis and coded networks which were formed during analysis constituted the basis of this paper's conclusions as illustrated in Figure 3 below.

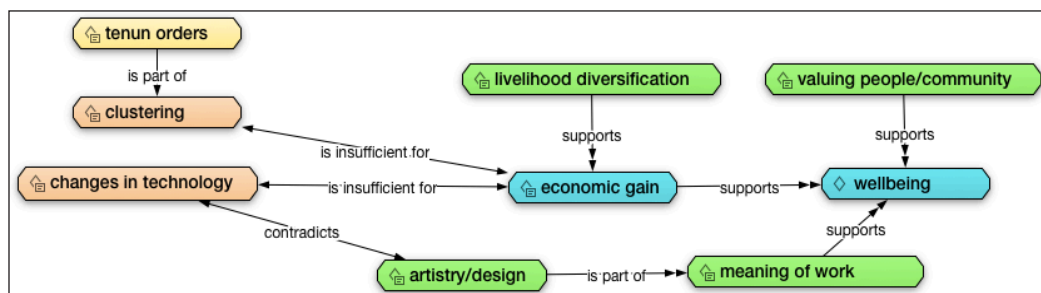


Figure 3. Networked codes about contradictory outcomes of development technologies on livelihoods

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

During the last decade, the Dinas Koperasi, Industri dan Perdagangan (Disperindag) [National Department of Industry, Trade and Cooperatives] in Manggarai has initiated

a policy promoting the spatial clustering of weaving producers. Briefly, clusters are geographic concentrations of specialised skills and knowledge and interconnected firms that compete, but also cooperate,

in both small and large economies, rural and urban areas, and at the overlapping geographic levels of cities, industrial regions, and nations (Porter, 2000). While the global value chain approach focuses on transnational interactions, clustering theory is oriented toward the competitive advantage of the location in which business units are based (Porter, 2000). According to Porter (2000), location is critical to the level of competition in relation to the proximity of linkages among buyers, suppliers, and other institutions. Manggarai's location on the margins of the market could be viewed as a reason for slow industrial development. To others, its isolation could be interpreted as an advantage in preventing absorption into large industrial clusters that would exploit people in Manggarai. It is hoped that the innovation of products will pique interest in the form of foreign capital to grow the industry, even if linkages between foreign markets and Manggarai remain weak.

The theory emerges from a dualist perspective that business development in small enterprises will support economic growth, which will prompt socioeconomic development for those involved. Improving products, increasing skills, and becoming more efficient are all termed *upgrading* (Humphrey & Schmitz, 2002).

Disperindag's aims are to improve productivity, cut costs through technological assistance, and focus on quality and design in emerging clusters in Todo and Cibal (Livens, personal communication, May 23, 2015). As Humphrey and Schmitz (2002) had highlighted, knowledge spread within

the cluster through incidental synergies was insufficient, whereas policies of public and private actors encouraged knowledge sharing. According to Livens (personal communication, May 23, 2015):

There are more than a hundred collectives, and there are a few strategies of assistance the government is trying to give. . . . The general tenun ikat is traditional so that colours and motifs, among other things, represent the preferences of weavers, not the taste of the consumers. . . . The government tries to bring consumers closer to weavers.

The concept of clusters rests on the view that developing quality local demand will support firms to improve goods and compete via differentiation. In 1997, Nusa Tenggara Timur Governor Herman Musakabe introduced a policy to increase local product demand that required government staff to wear *tenun ikat* to work (Pollock, 2012). Currently, government staff wear the garb to office every Thursday and Saturday. Livens believed that such action was important to for strengthening Manggarai identity and increasing the quantity of *tenun ikat* orders (Personal communication, May 23, 2015).

The majority of weavers responded that orders for *tenun ikat* have increased slightly. However, this did not lead to significant economic gains. There is only a limited number of government staff ordering *tenun ikat*, and this does not represent a growing market. Moreover, increased competition

between weavers as a result of Disperindag's policy, is having adverse consequences for weavers. Traditional weaving is time-consuming, laborious work that demands a high price; however, government staff are required to pay for their own uniforms. Since the basic monthly salary for government staff is approximately 1.5 million rupiah (€100), they do not have enough expendable income to purchase a woven jacket that might cost roughly 700,000 rupiah (€45). As a result, government workers tend to purchase lower-quality products that can at least satisfy the uniform policy requirement. That tendency creates downward pressure on the price of cloth and, in turn, reduces the profits that weavers can generate. In order to meet the new price point, weavers inevitably downgrade the quality of their production.

Disperindag representatives visited Manggarai villages to encourage the formation of clusters and use of new technology to support weaving production. To weaving clusters in Todo, Bea Mese, and surrounding villages, they gave *alat tenun bukan mesin* (ATBM) [stylised, non-mechanical weaving looms], which have been used in large workshops that employ dozens of women in other parts of Indonesia (Pollock, 2012). Weavers use the looms while seated, by raising and lowering the sheds with foot pedals. Trainers visited Manggarai to show the weavers how to use the ATBM, reduce the complexity of the motifs, and use brightly coloured thread in their work. Disperindag's benchmark of quality was cloth made in a standard pattern without defects. From its perspective,

woven cloth made in group workshops was likely to be of higher quality than cloth made in weavers' homes.

Disperindag solicited the support of non-state actors to implement the technological upgrade and training, the different levels of which were provided according to type of cluster. Weavers in Cibal received training from Tunas Jaya, a charity organisation, about how to combine colours of thread to suit consumer preferences (Bernadetta Esi, personal communication, August 2, 2015). The director of Tunas Jaya claimed that by changing motifs and colours in the design and generally improving the quality of production, weavers could increase the price of cloth by 700,000 rupiah, or €48 (Maria Moe, personal communication, July 25, 2015). In Bea Mese, the local parish helped to organise the cluster and training about how to use the ATBM, as well as coordinated a credit union to assist the weavers. A workspace in front of the manse in Bea Mese had been allocated for four to five women from the cluster. In contrast, the cluster in Todo supported by nuns received no training; instead, the nuns gathered the weavers together by providing microloans up to 100,000 rupiah (€6.85) to buy the thread and tools that they needed to begin weaving (Susanti Jelita, personal communication, August 1, 2015). The nuns also assisted in marketing the products (ibid.).

Most weavers interviewed expressed concerns about working in a cluster. First, clusters often depend on orders from outside their families. In Bea Mese, for example,

the government office ordered 80 shirts of the same make; however, such demand was not stable, and when there were no orders, the cluster disintegrated (Agustinus Rame, personal communication, August 2, 2015). Second, while participating in the cluster, women are expected to continue to fulfil their responsibilities in farming and social reproductive work. However, orders in the cluster can pressure weavers to meet quick turnaround times and work in the workshop, which does not allow women to multitask (Wihelmina Adus, personal communication, July 27, 2015). In contrast, working independently from their homes gives women more flexibility for livelihood diversification. Third, it can take up to three months to receive payment from suppliers once they complete weaving orders (Susanti Jelita, personal communication, July 28, 2015). Several women reported that the payment period was so long that they could not afford to buy the materials for new cloth until they had the profits from their finished work. Women felt that if they could market their own products directly, especially using family networks, that they could make faster profits. Fourth, if weavers work within a cluster, then the price is set, and they may only sell to the affiliated market—for example, Tunas Jaya's shop in Ruteng. Since there are far more weavers hoping to sell their products than customers, price competition comes into play.

Fifth and lastly, weavers found that the ATBM technology was not appropriate for their culture or traditions. Their idea of quality cloth was *tenun*

ikat, characteristically rich in detailed motifs and with designs representing place-based identity. By contrast, the ATBM was designed to efficiently make plain-coloured, low-quality cloth (Agustinus Rame, personal communication, August 2, 2015). Although the new technology is faster than a back-tension handloom, it is not easily used for making the motifs that Manggarai customs require. At the same time, the weavers expressed concern that there was no demand for plain cloth anyway (Agustinus Rame, personal communication, August 2, 2015), and without meaningful colours and motifs, the cloth would lose its currency. Despite the investment in ATBM technology, the weavers had relegated it some time ago to an abandoned building as illustrated in Figure 4. Instead, weavers made many diversified products using a back-tension handloom for Disperindag's showroom, even if there were few customers.

Disperindag and Tunas Jaya had expected that weavers would modernise their work practices to become more productive. According to Rossi (2006), "representations of identity are not neutral. They ascribe needs, rights, and duties and imply moral and programmatic evaluations of who can deal with problems, who *is* a problem, and how certain actors should change and conduct their life" (p. 34). These development powerbrokers and mediators constructed the weavers' behaviours and traditional mind-sets as the problems to the policies' success. As described by Mosse (2004), development projects work to maintain themselves as coherent policy



Figure 4. A broken non-mechanical loom (ATBM), Bea Mese cluster

ideas and obscure actual outcomes. Indeed, such was the case with the clustering policy that followed a global logic of economic growth, but did not consider the actual aspirations of women weavers or social conditions.

CONCLUSION

This paper shows the contradictory outcomes of interventions aimed at developing communities by way of clustering and technological upgrading. From the perspective of the weavers, the clustering policy neither improved their livelihoods nor fit with their interests. From the outset, weavers had been marginalised by their exclusion from participation or consultation in policymaking, which explains why the clustering policies did not improve the well-being of their communities. Technology would have a greater scope for supporting wellbeing if it was designed within the community. As was found in the research, there is expertise in woodworking and crafting weaving tools among men in the

community (Wihelmina Adus, personal communication, July 27, 2015). If their skills with using local forest resources could be combined with the experience of weavers to design a new handloom, then the potential for transformation could be greater. Solar lights could be installed to illuminate houses and reduce strain on weavers' eyes. Altogether, social policies for the skills development of weavers would benefit from an understanding of the weavers' subjectivities. Further research is needed to investigate how the state or civil society can support Manggarai women to realise their aspirations. Moreover, solutions devised via participatory processes among women, with local expertise and technologies, are likely to be the most sustainable.

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Factors Influencing Directors' Remuneration Disclosure in Malaysia PLCs

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ABSTRACT

This study is intended to examine the levels of directors' remuneration disclosure among public-listed companies in Malaysia. It further aims to examine the relationship among total directors' remuneration, directors' education level, size of external auditors, and proportion of managerial ownership and directors' remuneration disclosure. The analysis is conducted based on three models, which are constructed from the Malaysian Code on Corporate Governance (Model 1), Global Practices (Model 2), and a combination of both Malaysian Code on Corporate Governance and Global Practices (Model 3). This study found that the size of external auditors had a positive significant relationship, while the proportion of managerial ownership had a negative significant relationship with the disclosure. This study contributes to the improvement of policymaking and body of knowledge by highlighting the relationship between the selected corporate governance characteristics and directors' remuneration disclosure in the context of Malaysia.

Keywords: Audit firm, corporate governance, directors' remuneration, disclosure, Malaysia, managerial ownership

INTRODUCTION

Corporate governance has become a significant issue in the business world since the collapse of Enron, Parmalat, World.Com, and other companies involved in major scandals. This has also become an important paradigm shift of the business environment. Similarly, in Malaysia, the financial crisis in 1997 had an adverse effect on the Malaysian economy, coupled with many corporate frauds and poor

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internal controls, which caused the cessation and insolvency of business operations as well as the loss of billions of dollars (Khadijah et al., 2015; Manan et al., 2013; Nawawi & Salin, 2018; Omar et al., 2016; Rahim et al., 2017; Suhaimi et al., 2016; Zakaria et al., 2016). This has motivated the government to focus more attention on the quality of good corporate management practice and accountability in the private and public sectors (Shariman et al., 2018). For example, authorities have taken initiatives to strengthen the internal situation, particularly by implementing effective corporate governance in the domestic economic sector with the introduction of the Malaysian Code on Corporate Governance in the year 2000 (Hamid et al., 2011; Husnin et al., 2013; Nor et al., 2017).

One of the issues of corporate governance is excessive remuneration paid to top management. Although a company's performance may have deteriorated, the perks and salaries paid to managers keep increasing without justification. Furthermore, there is a lack of information on remuneration disclosed in annual reports, thus worsening the problem (Ahmad et al., 2016; Jaafar et al., 2014; Salin et al., 2017).

A study conducted by Anwar and Tang (2003) and Hashim et al. (2014) claimed that Malaysian companies were lacking in transparency on disclosing information on corporate governance, while Ghazali and Weetman (2006), in their investigation on the corporate governance reform after the 1997 crisis, found that only the directors' ownership was significant enough to explain

the extended level of voluntary disclosure. This is not good because, as a developing country with an emerging capital market, Malaysian companies need to disclose more information to create confidence and attract foreign investors from a broader international market to invest more capital into their operations (Salin, 2017; Mitton, 2002) and gain benefits from the lower cost of financing (Botosan, 1997; Botosan & Plumlee, 2002; Sengupta, 1998). More disclosure of information will also support the efficiency and establish their compliance with regulations (Gibbins et al. 1990) such as reduction of management earnings (Safari et al., 2016).

In addition, more voluntary information disclosed will signal better transparency, which is highly valued by stakeholders. Mitton (2004) posited that companies with better transparency had higher abnormal market returns, as investors place a high premium on firms that opt for higher disclosure quality. Superior transparency practices are able to reduce information asymmetry and, thus, reduce conflicts between owner and manager (Healy & Palepu, 2001), manager and outsiders (Zhou & Lobo, 2001), and different types of shareholders (Allegrini & Greco, 2013) while at the same time reducing stakeholder uncertainty (Hirst et al., 2007).

This is also why merely complying to mandatory disclosure imposed by laws and regulations will typically threaten a company's survival. Disclosing the minimum required information is insufficient because different stakeholders may require different

types of information. For example, certain classes of investors such as institutional investors, pension funds, and financial analysts demand more transparency from a company, so that they can assess the holistic view of a company's performance (Cheng et al., 2014). As mandating too much information is also costly for the companies and regulators itself, voluntary disclosure plays its role to complement the minimum required disclosure, which is specifically designed to fulfil the needs of stakeholders and a company's own characteristics. It also prevents unnecessary costs of information disclosure that outweigh the benefits. For example, a company that operates in an environmentally sensitive area, e.g., mining and gas, needs to disclose more information on environmental reporting, but the same information only adds minimal value for a company that operates in a financial or banking industry.

Therefore, the current study is motivated to investigate the factors influencing corporate disclosure in Malaysia by selecting directors' remuneration as an area to be explored. Specifically, the objective of the study is to examine the relationship between directors' remuneration disclosure with the selected corporate governance variables, namely, the total directors' remuneration, directors' education level, size of external auditors, and proportion of managerial ownership.

This study examines whether the criticism of lack of transparency in corporate reporting is still relevant in Malaysia. Arguably, companies that lack transparency

in disclosing voluntary information may tarnish the reputation of the Malaysian economy and, hence, indirectly give a negative signal to existing and potential investors on the competitiveness and sustainability of Malaysian business. As Malaysia aspires to become a developed nation in 2020, transparency and integrity are of the utmost importance to attract investors from overseas to Malaysia.

Moreover, in Malaysia, the directors' remuneration is not a mandatory disclosure. Therefore, the study is intended to examine the companies' annual report to determine whether they have adopted the practices recommended by the Malaysian Code on Corporate Governance. Furthermore, limited studies have been conducted to examine the directors' remuneration disclosure in Malaysia. Mostly, in Malaysia, researchers are more interested to investigate the disclosure and practices in the areas of risk management (Amirudin et al., 2017; Ismail & Rahman, 2011), directors' remuneration and performance (Abdullah, 2006; Hassan et al., 2003), environmental reporting (Saleh et al., 2010; Smith et al., 2007) corporate social responsibility (Ho & Taylor, 2013), intellectual capital (Haji & Ghazali, 2013) and corporate governance (Haniffa & Cooke, 2002).

This study is significant to the extended research on corporate governance literature in a number of ways. First, it will provide important information on the quality of directors' remuneration disclosure because it is not a mandatory disclosure in Malaysia. It may help the relevant

authority and professional accounting bodies in Malaysia such as Bursa Malaysia, Securities Commission of Malaysia (SC), Malaysian Accounting Standard Board (MASB), and audit and accounting firms as well as companies to understand the extended quality of directors' remuneration disclosure in Malaysia. Following that, these relevant authorities can improve and amend the loophole on the existing rules and regulations to enhance the quality of transparency of disclosure among Malaysian public-listed companies.

Second, this research will also facilitate the users of existing and potential investors, legitimate shareholders, and other stakeholders to evaluate and examine the specific characteristic that may impair a company's level of transparency on disclosing the voluntary information disclosure in the annual report. Therefore, a company will be able to make the right investment decision to invest its money in the appropriate companies, which may operate at a high level of transparency.

This paper is organized to include a review of literature in the next section. This is then followed by the hypotheses and its justification in the subsequent section. The third section discusses the sample, data, model, and statistical method used. The results of the statistical analysis and the discussion on the findings are then presented in Section 4. The last section is the overall conclusion drawn from the study.

LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPHOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

Theoretical Framework

The issue of directors' remuneration and corporate governance can be explained via agency theory. According to Jensen and Meckling (1976), the agency relationship exists between the management (agent) and shareholders (principal). The conflict exists when management maximizes its interest at the expense of the shareholders. Management uses its power to retain profit rather than paying the shareholders' dividend to reduce risk. At the same time, management will manipulate financial performance by executing earnings management to gain greater incentives and bonuses. Therefore, at present, the authorities take remedial action to protect the interest of shareholders and other legitimate stakeholders on the remuneration packages paid to directors by recommending management to provide a statement on directors' remuneration disclosure.

Hypotheses Development

Directors' Remuneration. The issues of directors' remuneration are often discussed in many studies, especially in regard to the excessive payment to directors. The best practices of corporate governance suggest that payment should be determined based on a firm's performance (Abdullah, 2006; Cybinski & Windsor, 2013; Jaafar et al., 2014; Rampling et al., 2013) and aligned with the effective risk management (Shlomo et al., 2013). Hasan et al. (2003) investigated directors' remuneration and

firm performance in Malaysia before and during the Asian financial crisis of 1996–1998, and they found that directors' remuneration had a weak relationship with firm performance but still in a positive relation. They also found a significant positive association between directors' remuneration and companies' turnover and size, which represented as firm's internal growth.

Talha et al. (2009) discussed the development of directors' remuneration and corporate governance practiced by Asian countries such as Malaysia, Singapore, Indonesia, Philippines, and Thailand. They suggested that directors' remuneration should be held close to the corporate governance process, and the remuneration should be satisfactory to magnetize the directors' expectations to run the company successfully. This can be accomplished when directors are rewarded with the best compensation packages that encourage them to align the interest of shareholders and managers (Dong & Ozkan, 2008). Director's pay is not only determined by the firm's performance but also other factors such as quality managers, which include managers with the character of integrity and transparency (Dong & Ozkan, 2008).

In the United Kingdom, director's remuneration has become a dominant element in the reformation of corporate governance. Cadbury (1992) report explained that the major issue of the reformation was focused on establishing a more transparent procedure for pay-setting and rewarding success with fair

and competitive perks. Accordingly, the Greenbury (1995) report emphasized greater disclosure on director's remuneration and attractive package offered to directors of UK companies. In addition, many previous studies (Fich & Shivdasani, 2005) found evidence that the stock option plan for directors is related with the performance and value of the company.

The agency theory (Jensen & Meckling, 1976) proposed that appropriate remuneration and disclosure are the two actions that can be taken to realign the interests between shareholders and managers. Shareholders need to pay sufficient remuneration to managers. Thus, in return, managers need to run the company successfully within a good governance framework. Because shareholders are not involved in operations, more disclosures are required from directors to update the shareholders on the company. Thus, a satisfactory remuneration will encourage more disclosure from the directors as part of their governance responsibility. Nagar et al. (2003) proposed to link remuneration directly with disclosure activity.

However, some studies were unable to find any positive relationship between directors' remuneration and good governance practices of the company. Conyon and Peck (1998), Ntim et al. (2015), and Vafeas (2000) were unable to find concrete evidence on the influence of directors' remuneration with corporate performance, suggesting poor governance practices. Chee-Wooi and Chwee-Ming (2010) also found that directors' remuneration was

not associated with firm's profitability. Although this study relates directors' remuneration with corporate performance, the same observation can be made because a company that has pay-performance link is a company that is more likely to exercise good governance, including disclosing more voluntary information.

Based on this premise, it is hypothesised that

H1: There is a positive and significant relationship between directors' remuneration and the level of voluntary disclosure of the directors' remuneration.

Directors' Education Level. Akhtaruddin (2005) suggested that the level of higher education of a CFO and CEO was positively related to the level of voluntary disclosure, based on the sample of Bangladeshi's public-listed companies. As an educated manager, a director's analytical thinking is optimistic with the firm's performance and growth; thus, he or she is able to see things in the future better and broader as well as willing to increase exposure to new ideas. Directors are also more popular, especially to new firms, as they can contribute to many aspects of a company, including good governance practices (Field et al., 2013), and help to obtain a positive market reaction (Defond et al., 2005).

This argument is in line with that of Merchant et al. (1995) who indicated that managers who pursued higher education in Western countries could play a vital role in creating proper disclosure behaviour.

Gray (1998) also found that the level of education was a significant institutional consequence to influence accounting practices. Indeed, education is an important source of normative isomorphism. Managers with good normative isomorphism have a strong level of compliance with regulations (Teodoro, 2014), social obligation, create identical organizational practices, and, hence, disclose more information to the public.

According to Douppnik and Salter (1995), those with a higher education would tend to further use financial statements. Indirectly, the level of corporate disclosure may increase with the level of education. Archambault and Archambault (2003) used education as a measure of a country's culture; they found that such culture had a positive effect on the amount of corporate disclosure by companies.

Besides that, Wallace and Cooke (1990) opined that the increase in the level of education in a country enhanced corporate accountability and governance. Therefore, companies with board members who have a high level of business and accounting education background will tend to disclose more information in order to boost the firms' credibility and reputation. Roberts et al. (2005) in a similar tone argued that education, especially advanced education, was a critical factor for a good nonexecutive to have an independent thinking. Similarly, Korac-Kakabadse et al. (2001) documented that the board members of the Bank of Montreal had high levels of independence as a result of a strong directors' education,

thus impacting good practice of governance. These evidences show that directors' education has good potential in influencing directors' remuneration disclosure. Based on the agency theory, shareholders (principal) will invest more money and pay higher perks to hire more educated directors (agent) with an expectation that these directors are more transparent and willing to disclose more information about a company to outsiders.

While previous arguments showed a positive contribution of education to good governance, Brown and Caylor (2006, 2009) and Bebchuk and Cohen (2005) did not find any definite evidence. Brown and Caylor (2009), for example, found that directors with a higher level of education were unable to drive firm performance, whereas Bebchuk and Cohen (2005) and Brown and Caylor (2006) posited that more educated directors were not an important factor in increasing the superiority of a firm's values.

Based on this premise, it is hypothesized that

H2: There is a positive and significant relationship between directors' education level and the level of voluntary disclosure of directors' remuneration.

Size of Audit Firm. DeAngelo (1981a) suggested that external auditors play a significant role in influencing a firm's financial reporting and disclosure of information in the annual report. Bigger audit firms are more likely to be competent in handling their jobs to ensure that their companies comply with the statutory requirements and regulations

set by authorities; at the same time, these auditors are more independent to report any misstatements and wrongdoings by the companies (DeAngelo, 1981b) and more able to curb earnings management (Khalil & Ozkan, 2016); this is because they are recognized as having a high reputation on quality audit and are highly independent. A high-quality audit will affect the reliability of the financial report and protect the interest of its reader (Husnin et al., 2016; Jais et al., 2016; Asmuni et al., 2015).

Lin and Liu (2009) found that companies with the duality of a CEO, smaller supervisory board size, and large controlling shareholders preferred to hire Non-Big 4 auditors because these firms had a less transparent disclosure. In contrast, firms having effective and high-quality internal controls would hire the Big 4 auditors to signal to investors that the companies have good internal controls and effective corporate governance. Adelopo (2011) suggested that Big 4 auditors provided more confidence on the credibility of information disclosed in an annual report, where the information was true and fair. The agency cost of a company is also slightly reduced because the auditors have improved the stakeholders' perception.

Previous studies by Camfferman and Cooke (2002), Han et al. (2012), Mahmood (1999) and Naser et al. (2002) found a positive and significant relationship between the types of audit firms and the level of voluntary disclosure. However, there are studies that show inconclusive evidence of the relationship between auditors and

nonfinancial voluntary disclosure, e.g., Braam and Borghans (2014) and Lee et al. (2003). Dun and Mayhew (2004) also found no association between auditors and disclosure quality.

For the purpose of this study, it is hypothesized that companies audited by Deloitte, KPMG, PricewaterhouseCoopers, and Ernst and Young disclose more information than companies audited by other auditing firms:

H3: There is a positive and significant relationship between the companies audited by the Big 4 audit firms and the level of voluntary disclosure of directors' remuneration.

Managerial Ownership Proportion.

Companies with a greater proportion of equity owned by the top management are less likely to disclose more information in their annual financial reports because they have lower agency costs and, hence, have little incentive to monitor the management (Jensen & Meckling, 1976). Owusu-Ansah (2005) found that New Zealand companies held by insider equity had a tendency to disclose less information in their annual reports, while Leung and Horwitz (2004) demonstrated that board ownership oppositely influences the level of voluntary disclosure. Their study supported earlier findings by Wright et al. (1996) who suggested that firms with a significant amount of managerial ownership would disclose less information in an annual report to avoid outside shareholders' controlling and monitoring.

In contrast, Baek et al. (2009) found that firms with low level of managerial ownership would disclose much more discretionary information to make investors happy and to avoid any hostile takeover that would possibly remove them from the current management position. Yeo et al. (2002) also found that informativeness of earnings increases when a firm had a low level of managerial ownership.

Another study, conducted by Eng and Mak (2003), concluded that a low level of managerial ownership would increase agency cost problems. Managers will optimize their own benefit at the expense of shareholders by maximizing their job performance via manipulating earnings because managers will be entitled to a higher compensation if they manage to increase a firm's accounting performance. Managerial entrenchment will also occur as they will pursue their own interests above the others' (Elsayed & Wahba, 2013) and act only from the owners' perspectives (Paek et al., 2013).

To avoid this, shareholders have a greater incentive to increase the monitoring cost to monitor a manager's behaviour by increasing the number of outside shareholders. Unfortunately, this may incur a higher cost. To simplify the cost and monitoring problems, shareholders require managers to disclose more voluntary information as a mechanism to control their behaviour as a substitute to the monitoring activities. All of these arguments lead to the following hypothesis, where

H4: There is a negative and significant relationship between managerial

ownership and the level of voluntary disclosure of directors' remuneration.

Figure 1 illustrates the conceptual framework of this study. It seeks to investigate determinants affecting directors' remuneration disclosure on a selected

sample of public-listed companies in Malaysia. The independent variables in this study are the total directors' remuneration, directors' education level, size of external auditors, and proportion of managerial ownership.

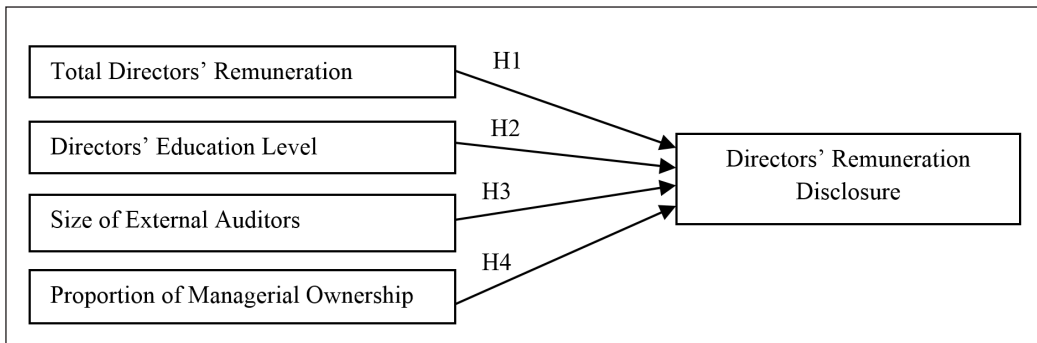


Figure 1. Conceptual framework

METHOD

Sample Selection

The focus of this study is on Malaysian public-listed companies (PLC) in the Bursa Malaysia in 2006 because the *Malaysian Code on Corporate Governance (Code)* was first issued in 2000 and subsequently revised in 2007. Although the data are collected for the year 2006, and the code has changed since then, the study is still relevant because no significant changes were required by the code in respect to the variables (directors' remuneration, directors' education, external auditors, managerial ownership, and voluntary disclosure of directors' remuneration). The latest revision of the code in 2012 is more concentrated on enhancing governance practices in board leadership, effectiveness, composition

and independence, and encouragement to disclose corporate disclosure policies and publicize a company's commitment to shareholder rights.

There were 1027 companies listed on Bursa Malaysia on December 31, 2006. A sample of 494 of the largest listed companies by market capitalization was selected based on the method suggested by Sekaran (2003) and ranked by their market capitalization. Market capitalization with respect to the 2006 data was retrieved from the Osiris database system. This database stores various corporate information of companies around the world.

In this study, the dependent variables (level of directors' remuneration disclosure) were derived from previous research done by the Accounting Research Institute (ARI)

of Universiti Teknologi MARA (UiTM), based on the data from 2006. Table 1 provides the sector representation of the sample companies in this study. Industrial products and trading services make up almost half of the companies investigated in this study. Consumer, finance, and property are represented in a further one-third of the sample size. The annual reports of the sample companies for the financial year 2006 were downloaded from the Bursa Malaysia website.

Variables, Measurement, and Sources of Data

A summary of the dependent and independent variables, their measurements, and sources of data are as per Table 2.

Table 1
Distribution of the final sample by sector

Sector	Sample	
	No. of Companies	%
Trading and Services	116	23.5
Industrial Products	108	21.8
Property	61	12.3
Consumer Product	57	11.5
Finance	47	9.5
Plantation	35	7.1
Construction	28	5.7
Technology	25	5.1
Infrastructure Project	8	1.6
Hotel	4	0.8
REITs	2	0.5
Closed-end Fund	2	0.4
Mining	1	0.2
Total	494	100

Table 2
Summary of the variables, their measurement, and data sources

Variables	Measurement	Sources of Data
Dependent Variable		
Level of directors' remuneration disclosure	Disclosure index on directors' remuneration	Annual reports
Independence Variables		
Total directors' remuneration	Value of directors' remuneration	Annual Reports
Directors' education level	Percentage of the directors' education with degree and above	Annual Reports
Size of external auditors Big 4 auditors	If the firms are audited by Deloitte, Ernst & Young, KPMG or Price Waterhouse Coopers, coded dummy variable of 1	Osiris database
Non-Big 4 auditors	If the firms are not audited by the above audit firms, coded a dummy variable of 0	
Proportion of managerial ownership	Proportion of outstanding equity shares owned by the executive directors directly or indirectly when the financial year ended.	Osiris database

The directors' remuneration disclosure index is basically a scorecard that is based on 32 distinct items taken from the report

of the Directors' Remuneration Survey conducted by the Minority Shareholders Watchdog Group (2007), categorized

in three sections, namely, Principle of Corporate Governance (Malaysian Code on Corporate Governance), Best Practices (Malaysian Code on Corporate Governance), and other Global Practices. There are three (3) checklists on the principle of corporate governance, which are the level and makeup of remuneration (policy), procedures on directors' remuneration, and the disclosure remuneration. Under the section of best practices of the Malaysian Code on Corporate Governance, there is only one (1) checklist, i.e., principle on examining the remuneration committee, whereas the last section on global practices also consists of three (3) general principles, which are the level and makeup of remuneration (policy), procedures on directors' remuneration, and the disclosure remuneration. When the items satisfy the disclosure, it will be awarded 1 point, otherwise, 0 points. Therefore, the maximum possible disclosure is 32 points if a firm meets all the disclosed items, and its minimum level of score is 0 in the cases where a firm fails to fulfil all the disclosure criteria.

Regression Model

The data were analysed based on the three models of the disclosure index of directors' remuneration. Model 1-MCCG is based on the Malaysian Code on Corporate Governance and Malaysian Best practices (MCCG), Model 2-GLOBE is based on global practices (GLOB), and the Model 3-D_SCORE is based on the total disclosure of Model 1 and Model 2.

RESULTS

Descriptive Statistics for the Dependent and Independent Variables

Table 3 reports the descriptive statistics for all the dependent and independent variables. The dependent variables refer to the disclosure of directors' remuneration described by the companies. For Model 1-MCCG, the mean value of 0.64 indicated that, on average, Malaysian companies tend to comply with 64% of the total items as required by the MCCG. However, for Model 2-GLOB, on average, the companies tend to comply with only 21% (mean value of 0.21) of global practices, indicating poor

Table 3
Summary statistics of the nonstandardized independent variables

Variables	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Dependent				
Model 1 - MCCG	0.13	0.94	0.64	0.164
Model 2 - GLOB	0.00	0.64	0.21	0.124
Model 3 - D_SCORE	0.10	0.80	0.44	0.116
Independent				
DIR_REM	75.87	79058.00	3231.62	5310.51
EDU	0.00	100.00	81.75	19.67
AUD	0.00	1.00	0.73	0.44
I_HOLD	0.00	41.50	0.85	3.62

initiatives by Malaysian companies to meet international requirements and practices. Furthermore, there were companies that did not disclose any information based on this requirement, as indicated by the value 0 for the minimum statistics. The final model of Model 3-D_SCORE showed overall moderate information disclosed by the companies. The mean value of 0.44 was slightly below the 50% par value, with the highest of 80%, while the minimum at 10% disclosure level.

The independent variables refer to the total directors' remuneration, directors' education level, size of external auditors, and proportion of managerial ownership. The mean score of the total directors' remuneration was RM 3,231,620. Almost 80% (81.75%) of directors possessed a degree qualification and above. For the size of the external auditors, 73% of the companies were audited by the Big 4 audit firms. Because the samples were from large companies, this is an expected situation. The mean score of the proportion of managerial ownership was 0.85%, which was considered low because it did not achieve 50% holding of the shares.

Correlation Analysis of the Independent Variables

Table 4 presents the Pearson correlation matrix of unstandardized variables between the independent variables. It provides the indication that all correlation values were less than 0.8 in magnitude. Therefore, there was no problem with multicollinearity, as Gujarati (1995) suggested that a harmful level of multicollinearity incurred when the bivariate correlation magnitude reached 0.8.

Results of Multiple Regression Analysis for Model 1-MCCG

Table 5 summarizes the multiple linear regression results by providing the coefficient of each independent variable, which represents its degree of contribution and its relationship with the dependent variables.

Based on the table, the hypothesis on the directors' specific characteristics such as the total directors' remuneration (H1) ($\beta=1.583$, $p=0.453$, $p>0.05$) and directors' education level (H2) ($\beta=0.001$, $p=0.860$, $p>0.05$) were not supported. The empirical data also did not support the hypothesis on the size of external auditors (H3) ($\beta=0.034$, $p=0.180$, $p>0.05$) and proportion of managerial

Table 4
Pearson correlation matrix of standardized variables

VARIABLES	DIR_REM	EDU	AUD	I_HOLD
DIR_REM	1			
EDU	0.048	1		
AUD	0.018	0.070	1	
I_HOLD	0.150*	0.085	0.088	1

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Table 5

Relationship between the independent variables and directors' remuneration disclosure, i.e., Model 1-MCCG

Model	Unstandardized Coefficient		Standardized Beta	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
	Beta	Std. Error				Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	1.107	0.199		5.570	0.000		
DIR_REM	1.583E-6	0.000	0.065	0.752	0.453	0.719	1.391
EDU	0.000	0.001	0.014	0.176	0.860	0.896	1.116
AUD	0.034	0.025	0.104	1.348	0.180	0.888	1.126
I_HOLD	0.008	0.004	0.187	1.900	0.059	0.549	1.823

a. Dependent Variable: MCCG

ownership (H4) ($\beta=0.008$, $p=0.059$, $p>0.05$). Therefore, the results rejected all the hypotheses. As a result of VIF values below 4 and the tolerance statistics above 0.2, it can be concluded that there was no multicollinearity problem.

Result of Multiple Regression Analysis for Model 2-GLOB

As opposed to the statistical results for Model 1-MCCG, it was found that the size of external auditors (H3) had a significant and positive relationship with the level of directors' remuneration disclosure ($\beta=0.043$, $p=0.023$, $p<0.05$) (Table 6). Therefore, the result failed to

reject H3. Furthermore, as hypothesized, the proportion of managerial ownership (H4) was also found to have a significant and positive relationship with the extent level of directors' remuneration disclosure from global practices ($\beta=0.008$, $p=0.011$, $p<0.05$). However, the result rejected H4 due to the inverse relationship. The empirical data also did not support the hypothesis on total directors' remuneration (H1) ($\beta=5.81$, $p=0.711$, $p>0.05$), and directors' education level (H2) ($\beta=-7.268E-5$, $p=0.867$, $p>0.05$). Hence, only H3 was accepted. There was no collinearity problem on the data, as the resulting tolerance statistics were above 0.2 and the VIF values were below 4.

Table 6

Relationship between the independent variables and directors' remuneration disclosure, i.e., Model 2-GLOB

Model	Unstandardized Coefficient		Standardized Beta	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
	Beta	Std. Error				Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	0.313	0.148		2.111	0.036		
DIR_REM	5.814E-7	0.000	0.031	0.371	0.711	0.719	1.391
EDU	-7.268E-5	0.000	-0.013	-0.168	0.867	0.896	1.116
AUD	0.043	0.019	0.172	2.286	0.023	0.888	1.126
I_HOLD	0.008	0.003	0.246	2.569	0.011	0.549	1.823

a. Dependent Variable: GLOB

Result of Multiple Regression Analysis for Model 3-D_SCORE

In the Model 3-D_SCORE, the dependent variable was a combination of Model 1-MCCG and Model 2-GLOB. Table 7 summarizes the coefficient of each independent variable with its significance to the dependent variable.

For this model, it was found that two (2) variables were significant enough to explain the variation changes in the directors' remuneration disclosure. The hypothesis on the size of external auditors (H3) was supported, as it was found that the extent level of directors' remuneration disclosure was associated with the size of the external auditors ($\beta=0.038$, $p=0.024$, $p<0.05$); hence, it failed to reject H3. The proportion of managerial ownership (H4) was also found to have a significant and positive relationship with the extent level of directors' remuneration disclosure ($\beta=0.008$, $p=0.006$, $p<0.05$). The result, however, rejected H4 due to the inverse relationship. Contrary to our hypothesis with respect to the total directors' remuneration (H1), there was an insignificant relationship with the extent level of directors' remuneration

disclosure ($\beta=1.084$, $p=0.443$, $p>0.05$) and also an insignificant relationship of director education (H2) ($\beta=1.17$, $p=0.976$, $p>0.05$) with their outcome.

Similar to the previous models, the result of the VIF values, which were below 4, and the tolerance statistics well above 0.2, showed that the data presented did not violate the assumption of multicollinearity.

DISCUSSION

This study used three (3) models to test the variables of the level of directors' remuneration. None of the variables was significant in Model 1. The sizes of the external auditors and proportion of managerial ownership were significant variables for both Model 2 and Model 3. Below are the detailed discussions on these results.

Size of External Auditors

As hypothesized, there was a positive and significant relationship between the size of external auditors and the level of directors' remuneration disclosure in both Model 2-GLOB and Model 3-D_SCORE but not in Model 1-MCCG.

Table 7

Relationship between the independent variables and directors' remuneration disclosure, i.e., Model 3-D_SCORE

Model	Unstandardized Coefficient		Standardized	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
	Beta	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	0.734	0.133		5.517	0.000		
DIR_REM	1.084E-6	0.000	0.064	0.769	0.443	0.719	1.391
EDU	1.178E-5	0.000	0.002	0.030	0.976	0.896	1.116
AUD	0.038	0.017	0.169	2.270	0.024	0.888	1.126
I_HOLD	0.008	0.003	0.266	2.799	0.006	0.549	1.823

a. Dependent Variable: D_SCORE

This also signified that Malaysian public-listed companies audited by Big 4 auditors had more motivation to disclose more information on the directors' remuneration disclosure than the companies audited by Non-Big 4 audit firms. This was consistent with the prior researches done by Camfferman and Cooke (2002), Hasan et al. (2013), Mahmood (1999), and Naser et al. (2002), which found a positive and significant relationship between the size of external auditors and the level of disclosure.

In this context, the auditors will use their competencies in helping companies to comply with the statutory requirements and best practices of corporate governance. Based on Chung et al. (2003), an external audit can be an effective control mechanism to monitor the managers and guarantee the integrity of financial reports. A larger size of auditor will also influence clients to voluntarily disclose more information in annual reports (Braam & Borghans, 2014) enhance audit quality, and differentiate themselves from the other type of firms in fulfilling clients requirements (Dunn & Mayhew, 2004; Han et al., 2012; Lee et al., 2003).

Even though the directors' remuneration disclosure is not mandatory in Malaysia, the companies are willing to disclose this information to portray their good commitment and cooperation on promoting and recognizing the fairness and accountability of a business. At the same time, they believe in the credibility of the Big 4 auditors in providing good services and subsequently manage to detect any

material misstatement and error of the disclosure. This will also give extra credits to all stakeholders on the company's image and integrity, which are audited by the Big 4 audit firms. Therefore, companies are more motivated to disclose more information, specifically on directors' remuneration, as the shareholders and investors believe that the companies are trustworthy, have good track records, and are highly transparent.

Proportion of Managerial Ownership

As hypothesized, the proportion of managerial ownership had a significant and negative relationship to the extended level of directors' remuneration disclosure for Model 2-GLOB and Model 3-D_SCORE. However, the empirical result rejected H4 due to the inverse relationship. This contravened with the statistical result derived from Model 1-MCCG, which found that the proportion of managerial ownership was an insignificant variable to explain the visibility of directors' remuneration.

The positive relationship implied that directors who owned outstanding shares and controlled the firms were more willing to disclose their remuneration in annual reports. The empirical result contradicted prior research conducted on the same study on directors' remuneration disclosure. For example, Jensen and Meckling (1976) found that directors who owned a greater proportion of outstanding shares on firms were less likely to disclose more information on directors' remuneration due to the less or no agency cost bonding to monitor the managers' behaviour.

However, the result was consistent with that of Baek et al. (2009) who found that having less than 12% of the proportion of managerial ownership was more inclined to disclose more voluntary information to avoid risk of takeover. Therefore, based on this study, the positive relationship between the proportion of managerial ownership and level of directors' remuneration disclosure came from the low level of proportion of managerial ownership reported. The descriptive statistic revealed that the average proportion of managerial ownership was only 0.85%, and almost half the sample companies did not have the proportion of shares held by directors directly or indirectly. Subsequently, this factor may impair the empirical results of the outcome.

Discussion on Rejected Hypothesis: Total Directors' Remuneration and Directors' Remuneration Disclosure

The result revealed that total directors' remuneration had no direct significant relationship with the extended levels of directors' remuneration disclosure. This result is due to several possible reasons. First, Dong and Ozkan (2008) suggested that companies must provide high-quality directors' pay, including the best compensation packages such as share options, bonuses, and other incentives to encourage directors to align with the shareholders' interest and solve agency costs, including transparency issues. This was, however, difficult to become a reality, especially in this context of the study. Second, Malaysia is still far

away in practicing the best remuneration disclosure practices, as compared with other developed countries. Less encouragement and guidance given by the regulator, e.g., the latest Malaysian Code on Corporate Governance under Recommendation 2.3, only highlighted two aspects to be disclosed in the annual report, i.e., remuneration policies and procedures. This low incentive somehow did not motivate companies to disclose more information.

Discussion on Rejected Hypothesis: Directors' Education Level and Directors' Remuneration Disclosure

This study found that the directors' education level did not have a significant relationship with the directors' remuneration disclosure. The empirical finding of this study did not support the research conducted by Haniffa and Cooke (2002) and Akhtaruddin (2005), which found that the level of education had a positive and significant relationship with the extended level of voluntarily disclosure. Based on their study, educational background can be an important determinant of disclosure practice with better educated managers being more likely to adopt innovative activities. These findings, however, were similar to a few other findings. Brown and Caylor (2009) found that directors' education was not significant to a firm's performance. Similar evidence was also shown by Bebcuk and Cohen (2005) and Brown and Caylor (2006) who concluded that directors' education had no link to the firm valuation. Other researchers also found that director's education was

not an important factor in determining the capital structure of a firm (Jiraporn et al., 2011) and did not contribute to enhance the corporate social responsibility performance (Zahm, 1989).

CONCLUSIONS

Based on Model 1, the statistical result revealed that all the variables were insignificant to explain the variation changes on directors' remuneration disclosure. Based on Models 2 and 3, only the size of external auditors was found to have a positive and significant relationship with the outcome. The proportion of managerial ownership had a significant relationship with the outcomes, but the result was rejected due to the inverse relationship.

The results implicated that companies hiring the Big 4 audit firms were more likely to disclose their directors' remuneration because they believe it is a strategic tactic to impress stakeholders on their credibility, trustworthiness, accountability, and fairness. For example, hiring the Big 4 audit firms will signal the investors and shareholders that the company has a good prospect to success in the future because the Big 4 have a higher reputation, as these firms are incorporated overseas and well established with good track records across the world. Thus, these types of companies are ready to compete internationally and are prepared to voluntarily disclose more information, especially the information that complies with and is recommended by international best practices.

Theoretically, this result also showed that directors' ownership on a company could influence a company's decision to disclose more information on its remuneration in an annual report. The different findings on the positive relationship in this study showed that companies in Malaysia prefer to disclose more information on directors' remuneration when the directors hold outstanding shares of the firms.

Practically, the present study provided a clearer understanding to the stakeholders on the achievement of Malaysian public-listed companies in disclosing information on directors' remuneration. Inclusive actions by regulatory and professional bodies, e.g., Securities Commission, Bursa Malaysia, and Malaysian Institute of Accountants, can be taken to promote greater transparency among the companies such as to provide awareness to the directors and provide comprehensive transformation road maps to modify the current practice on disclosure. At the same time, these bodies may study the particular significant variables that could influence the directors' remuneration disclosure in determining the strategies to amend and improve the future guidelines and principles on disclosure.

The limitation of this study was that it was only conducted in Malaysia and limited only to one year, i.e., 2006, based on the Malaysian Code on Corporate Governance in 2000. However, the Malaysian Code on Corporate Governance had been revised in 2007 and 2012. It is recommended that future research should conduct a

longitudinal study to obtain more conclusive and generalized results on the variables tested in this study.

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Measuring the Sustainability Performance of Islamic Banking In Indonesia

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ABSTRACT

Islamic banks have grown very rapidly in recent years in Indonesia. Islamic banking has its own uniqueness in carrying out its activities based on *Sharia* law which employs the philosophy of *Qur'an* and *Sunnah* to provide good and efficient services. This study employed Practice Theory to identify the indicator of sustainability performance from an Islamic perspective. This research used qualitative and quantitative methods to find the measurement of sustainability performance for Islamic banking from an Islamic perspective in Indonesia. Performance measurement system's development requires a dynamic and balanced system in transcribing complex and huge information in terms of Analytical Hierarchy Process (AHP) approach. This method provides the priority of attributing pairwise comparison. The 33 performance criteria will then be used as a priority consideration for the decision maker in measuring the Islamic banking sustainability performance. As a result, Islamic Banking sustainability performance is developed as the main priority is given to the environmental factor compared with social and economic factors.

Keywords: Analytical Hierarchy Process (AHP), Islamic banking, Islamic perspective, sustainability performance

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INTRODUCTION

Sustainability is a very important issue for the development of companies around the world including Islamic banks. Companies that adopt sustainability practices are able to achieve better product quality, high market

share, and obtain increased profits (Nambiar, 2010). Sustainability is a balanced concept of how to build a society that can help to strengthen the economic, social and ecological aspects.

Sustainability proxy for performance indicators was widely used for manufacturing companies. Teh et al. (2015) examined the Sustainable Performance Measurements in Malaysia's manufacturing industries and discovered that Malaysian manufacturing companies gave more privilege for process technology implementation. Nevertheless, for service companies such as banks, sustainability as performance is still scarce in Indonesia. Islamic banks have grown very rapidly in recent years. Islamic banking has its own uniqueness as in carrying out its activities based on *Sharia* law. Therefore, in assessing the sustainability aspects of a company's performance from the perspective of Islam, the balanced aspects of the world, economy, society, and environment must be considered to portray a holistic view or *ukhrawi* (Chapra, 1999). In Islamic banking, social responsibility, for instance, is very relevant and needs to be considered due to several factors. Islamic banking is based on *Sharia* that operates with the foundation of morals, ethics; principles upon obedience to the commandments of God and the *caliph*; and the principle of public interest, consisting of avoidance of decay and poverty (Chapra, 1999).

According to Agustiyanti (2015), Handayana comments that from 2000 to 2014, the aggregate growth of Islamic

Banking in Indonesia exceeded conventional banks and proved the Compound Annual Growth Rate (CAGR) of 43.16%, compared with conventional bank's growth which is only 12.4%. However, in 2015 the growth of Islamic Banks slowed down drastically whereby the financial percentage was only 5.5% lower than that of conventional banks that had 8% growth. One of the reasons for this decline is the lack of efficiency in the operational implementation and non-adequate level of service in terms of quality, human resources, and technology.

Sustainability of Islamic banking until this moment has brought about many criticisms and raised fundamental questions. The limitations in Islamic banking in acting according to the Islamic economic system objectives is due to insufficient *Falah* (getting the benefit of the world and the Hereafter). This failure has caused Islamic banking to be no different from its conventional counterparts (Antonio & Nugraha, 2013). This gap has motivated the researchers to review the previous research on the topic of sustainability and to identify appropriate indicators from an Islamic perspective.

Corporate Sustainability can be understood as a concept that integrates social, environmental and economic decision-making strategies (Antonia et al., 2013). Wilson (2003) suggested that Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) was a management paradigm. Fernandez and Souto (2009) stated that CSR was an effective management tool, which offered confidence to stakeholders as an organization

that was responsible and reliable. As a consequence, organizations must redefine the company's goals closely in responding to social expectations of society (Antonia et al., 2013). Social Responsibility (SR) is also used to assess the performance of the organization and convey the processes and progress to the stakeholder. This indicates that the measurement of performance and CSR or Sustainability Report was done separately but are common in terms of orientation at the strategic level that supports the management in decision-making activity and contributes to the creation of value.

The most important component in building a performance measurement system is the decision-making processes related to the collection, elaboration, and analysis of information (Neely et al., 2002). Lack of decision-making ability in transcribing complex and huge information will trigger loss and biased decision-making. AHP is one of the Multi-Attribute Decision-Making (MADM) approaches that can be used to identify the priority and significance analysis of criteria in performance measurement (Saaty & Decision, 1990). This research answers the question of how to design a decision support system in identifying the priority indicator of the sustainability performance of Islamic Banking through the application of AHP. A system design can be used as a guide for management leadership in making a decision and conducting corrective actions in Islamic Banking Sustainability Performance. This design can be used as a tool for the government in measuring the Islamic Banking Sustainability in Indonesia.

This triggers the effectiveness and efficiency of sustainability in Indonesian Banking.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Practice Theory

Practice Theory is a theory of how social beings with their diverse motives and intentions make and transform the world in which they live. It is a dialectic between social structure and human agency working back and forth in a dynamic relationship (Bourdieu & Nice, 1977). Practice Theory seeks to explain the relationship between human action, on the one hand, and some global entity which we call 'the system' (Ortner, 2006). The approach seeks to resolve the antinomy between traditional structuralist approaches such as methodological individualism which attempted to explain all social phenomena in terms of individual actions.

In this study, the researchers try to identify the indicators of sustainability from an Islamic perspective that is based on the theory and practice in the field of Islamic banking.

Definition of Sustainability

In the Global Reporting Initiative (GRI, 2000), sustainability encompasses: (i) economy, (ii) environment, (iii) human rights, (iv) community, (v) responsibilities, (vi) products, (vii) labor and decent work. Sustainable Development is a new concept of development that emphasizes the integration of environmental conservation and economic growth. Previously, the

concept of development was synonymous with economic growth, which can be quantified by certain parameters such as Gross Domestic Product (GDP). In fact, the concept of development has a wider meaning than the concept of growth because development means increase in the quality of life while growth only emphasizes increase of the economy (Schmidheiny, 1992). According to Munn (1989), the meaning of development in sustainable development refers to the quality enhancement of humans and other spheres by achieving their basic needs. Clearly, the concept of development here has a more comprehensive meaning than economic growth.

Principles of Sustainable Development

The concept of Sustainable Development that was proposed by World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED, 1987) clearly emphasizes several strategies to conserve the environment:

a. Merging Economic Growth and Environmental Conservation should be regarded as the ultimate goal in policy making at every level whether by the government, cooperation or private sectors;

b. Enhancement of Quality of Human Life'

The ultimate purpose of development is to enhance the quality of human life, which includes every aspect related to human needs. In other words, the yardstick of development is not only quantitative measurement such as Gross Domestic Product (GDP) or per capita income, but

also qualitative measurement such as satisfaction, comfort and safety.

c. Establishing Social Justice

Social justice means everyone in a country has an equal right to share the prosperity which means a person can at least meet her/his own needs to live. WCED (1987) suggested that development has to meet the needs and aspirations of an expanding and developing world population.

d. Conservation of Biodiversity and Ecological Equilibrium

Development should involve all efforts to conserve the biodiversity and ecological equilibrium on which humankind depends. Therefore everyone who is responsible for policy making needs to be aware of the importance of diversity and ecological equilibrium.

e. Optimization of Natural Resources

Development needs to ensure the minimal use of natural resources to bring maximum benefit to humankind. Inevitably, this principle is very much needed in order to achieve Sustainable Development, as one of its goals is to enable future generations to meet their own needs. Therefore, it is important to place a reasonable price upon natural resources by paying great concern to economic, ecological and social impacts.

f. Society and Individual Responsibility

Conservation as well as development should involve participation of each individual of a society and an individual's responsibility to global society.

According Rebai et al. (2012), to examine the sustainability of a bank, six stakeholders' points of view need to be considered, namely: *regulators, shareholders, customers, managers, employees* and *civil society*. In the following sub-sections, they suggested a list of criteria related to each stakeholder. These criteria were commonly used but not exhaustive in measuring bank performance.

The Holy *Qur'an* highlighted some principles and guidelines on sustainability, which include the following (Matali, 2012; Matin & Ibrahim, 2010):

1. *Adl* (Justice): governing human relationships and other living creatures;
2. *Mizan* (Balance): governing not only human, social and economic relationships but also the environment, especially in ensuring the equilibrium of nature, use of resources and life cycle of all species;
3. *Wasat* (Moderation): choosing the middle path in economic planning, social conduct, scientific pursuits, ideological views, material, and in water and energy consumptions;
4. *Rahmah* (Mercy): governing all aspects of human relationships and treatment of all living animals, plants and insects including micro-organisms;
5. *Amanah* (Trustworthiness and custodianship): Human kind is

considered to be a trustee appointed by the Creator, for all earth's assets;

6. *Taharah* (Spiritual purity and Physical cleanliness): generating contented individuals through spiritual purity, conscious of the presence of his/her Creator that would result in a balanced society, living in harmony with the environment; cleanliness that would generate a healthy society devoid of air and water pollution, as well as generating a clean economy devoid of usury and deceitful marketing techniques and business transactions;
7. *Haq* (Truthfulness and Rights): Truthfulness in all dealings that recognise the respective rights of others (humans, animals and plants); and
8. *IlmNafi'* (usefulness of knowledge and science): Knowledge, whether theological, scientific or technological, must be beneficial to others (individuals and society) including the future generations.

METHODS

The objective of this research is to identify the indicator of sustainability performance from an Islamic perspective and to apply AHP approach on decision support system design in identifying the priority of Islamic Banking Sustainability Performance indicators. The study was conducted in two main phases.

Phase 1: Development and validation of framework

The first phase consists of three stages:

Stage 1: Problem Identification through literature review and interview of experts and practitioners. As a result of this stage, a conceptual framework was produced (Figure 1).

Stage 2: Development of instruments for surveying the respondents' agreement and analyzing the indicators and their level of importance. The survey was conducted in 5 Islamic banks in Indonesia, including Bank Mandiri Syariah, Bank Muamalat Indonesia, Bank BRI Syariah, Bank Riau Kepri Syariah dan Bank BNI Syariah.

Stage 3: Validation of indicators through the application of AHP approach, analysis of indicators, construction of the hierarchy structure, establishment of the paired metrices for comparison, calculation of eigen vector, and tests of consistency and normality. As an output, the validated AHP framework was proposed.

Phase 2: Design of Decision Support System AHP

In this phase, the Decision Support System AHP was designed. System development applied the Waterfall software life cycle concepts on Decision Support System Components (Turban et al., 1997), data externalization and internalization, data management, model management, knowledge management, and user interface and user definition in combination with AHP Concept model.

RESULTS

Sustainability performance indicators in Islamic banking

As Figure 1 illustrates, based on the interviews of several top and middle managers from Indonesian Islamic Banks, the following sustainability performance indicators were performed:

- Environment

There are three main principle indicators to describe Islamic Banking sustainability in environment (Ingar, 2008; Matin & Ibrahim, 2010). The first is the principle of justice (Hamza, 2013) which includes the procedural, distributive and interactional justification. The second is the principle of *mizan* or balance which includes balancing of nature, utilization of resource, survival of stakeholders and the profitability balancing (Rahmawati & Hosen, 2012). Finally, it is the principle of *Wasat* or moderation which emphasizes moderation in economic planning, facing regulators and risks, practicing moderation in social interaction, scientific analysis and decision-making (Ibrahim, 2009) by following the islamic ideology (Ingar, 2008; International Financial Standard Board [IFSB-3], 2006) and propotional energy consumption.

- Social

The Performance of Islamic banking sustainability in the social sector can be described through three main principle indicators (Matin & Ibrahim, 2010) including the principle of mercy, beliefs and *taharah*. The principle of mercy is embodied in the form of community and citizenship development, community

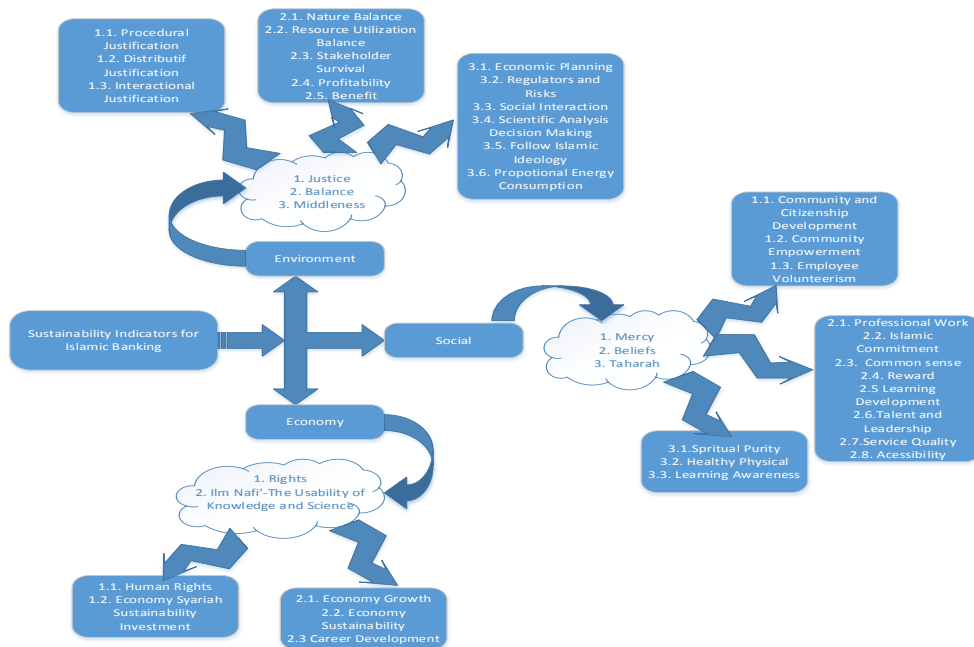


Figure 1. Sustainability performance indicators in Islamic banking

empowerment, and employee volunteerism. The principle of beliefs is embodied in the form of professional work, islamic commitment, common sense, rewards, learning development, talent and leadership, service quality and accessibility. Finally, the principle of *Taharah* or Spritual Purity includes having a healthy body and learning awareness.

• Economy

The Islamic Banking sustainability in economy is performed through two mains principles (Matin & Ibrahim, 2010) which are the Rights and *IlmNafi'* or the usability of knowledge and science. The principle of Rights includes human rights and economic *syariah* sustainability investement. Meanwhile, the usability of knowledge principle is embodied in the

form of economic growth, sustainability in economy and career development (Komari & Djafar, 2013).

Validated AHP Framework and Measuring The Sustainability Performance

From the result of AHP analysis, the values of eigen vector can be seen in Table 1. The dominant indicators in the structured criteria include Environment (0.4174), Social (0.3554) and Economy (0.2270) respectively. The Sub-criterion of Environment includes Balance (0.3806), Moderity (0.3777) and Justice (0.2416) respectively. In the Social sub-criterion the priority eigen vector values of sub-indicators included Mercy (0.4413), *Taharah* (0.3102) and Beliefs (0.2483). Finally, the sub-criteria of

Economy, the priority eigen vector values of sub-indicators include Rights (0.5454) and Ilm Nafi'-The Usability of Knowledge and Science (0.4545) respectively.

Consistency Index (CI) and Consistency Ratio (CR) values are less than 10% (Table 2). These values are in an acceptable range. The validation of restructured criteria and sub-criteria of AHP Framework has been established and it is ready to be used as a measurement tool for Islamic Banking Sustainability Performance.

Based on AHP analysis and complemented by the Decision Support System (DSS) Components, a design of DSS-AHP modelling is presented in Figure 2. There are 5 main components in designing DSS-AHP including Data Management, Knowledge Management, AHP Modelling, Islamic Banking Performance Measurement, and User Interface.

Islamic Banking Performance Measurement and User Interface. Data Management provides data and information captured on indicators, prioritized and standarized from many resources including internal (top and middle managers in Islamic Banking) and external stakeholders (customers and government) through dissemination of questionnaires and interviews.

DISCUSSION

Based on the results of this study the main priority of sustainability is environmental factors. This could be due to the high level of awareness of Islamic banking in Indonesia about conditions like global warming. So, priority is given to environmental factors.

The selection of the *haq* (recognizing other's rights) variable as an important

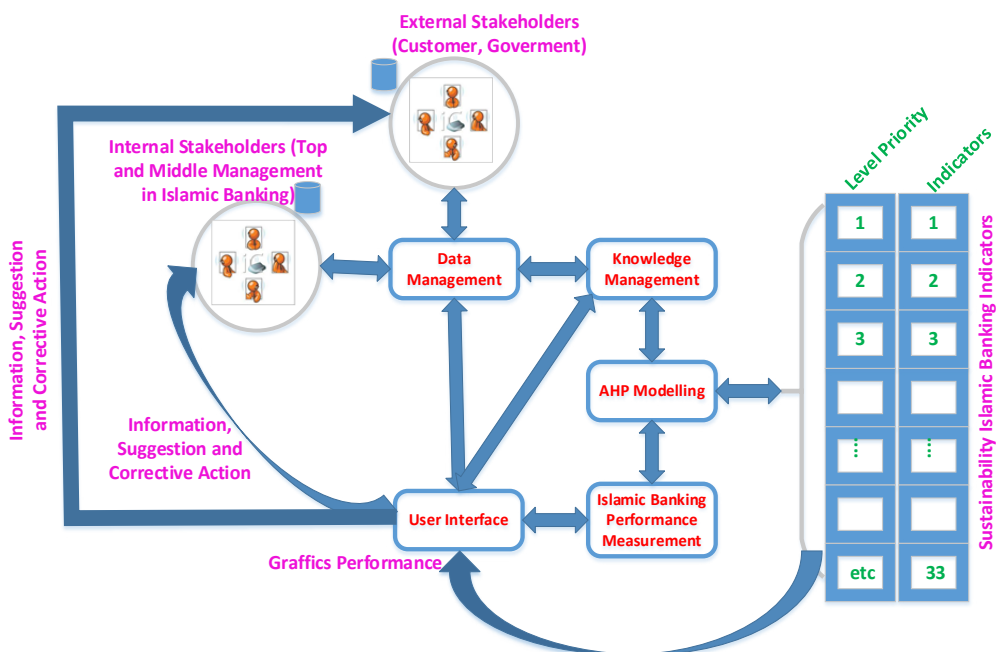


Figure 2. Design of decision support system-AHP modelling

Tabel 1
Indicators priority eigen vector values

No	Criteria	Eigen Vector	No	Sub Criteria	Eigen Vector	No	Sub-sub Criteria	Eigen Vector	No	Criteria	Eigen Vector	No	Sub Criteria	Eigen Vector	No	Sub-sub Criteria	Eigen Vector	
1	Environment	0.4174	1.1	Justice	0.2415	1.1.1	Procedural Justification	0.4052					2.2	Beliefs	0.2483	2.2.1	Professional Work Islamic	0.1289
						1.1.2	Distributive Justification	0.3762							2.2.2	Commitment	0.0873	
						1.1.3	Interactional Justification	0.2184							2.2.3	Common Sense	0.1662	
			1.2	Balance	0.3806	1.2.1	Nature Balance Resource Utilization	0.2884							2.2.4	Reward Learning	0.1262	
						1.2.2	Balance Stakeholders Survival	0.1674							2.2.5	Development Talent and Leadership	0.1089	
						1.2.3		0.2789						2.2.6	Service Quality	0.1031		
						1.2.4	Profitability	0.1462							2.2.7		0.1233	
						1.2.5	Benefit	0.1189										
			1.3	Middlewares	0.3777	1.3.1	Economic Planning	0.1971							2.2.8	Accessibility	0.1567	
						1.3.2	Regulators and Risks	0.1700				2.3	Tabawab	0.3102	2.3.1	Spiritual Purity	0.4386	
						1.3.3	Social Interaction Scientific Analysis Decision Making	0.2210						2.3.2	Healthy Physical	0.2702		
						1.3.4	Follow Islamic Ideology	0.1794						2.3.3	Learning Awareness	0.2910		
						1.3.5	Proportional Energy Consumption	0.08										
						1.3.6	Community and Citizenship Development	0.1523										
2	Social	0.3554	2.1	Mercy	0.4413	2.1.1	Community and Citizenship Development	0.3656	3	Economy	0.2270	3.1	Rights	0.5454	3.1.1	Human Rights Economic Spiritab	0.6	
						2.1.2	Community Empowerment	0.3923						3.1.2	Sustainability Investment	0.4		
			2.2		0.3020	2.2.1	Employee Volunteerism/Employee Engagement	0.3020							3.2.1	Economic Growth	0.3500	
														3.2.2	Economy Sustainability Career	0.4256		
														3.2.3	Development	0.2243		

Source: Output AHP Analysis (2017)

Tabel 2
Consistency and normalization of indicators

No	Indicators	λ max	CI	CR	No	Indicators	λ max	CI	CR
1	Environment	3.00005	0.0002	0.0004	2.2.1	Professional Work	8.9558	0.13655	0.0968
2	Social				2.2.2	Islamic Commitment			
3	Economy				2.2.3	Common Sense			
					2.2.4	Reward			
					2.2.5	Learning Development			
					2.2.6	Talent and Leadership			
					2.2.7	Service Quality			
					2.2.8	Accessibility			
1.1	Justice	3.0536	0.0268	0.0462	2.3.1	Spiritual Purity	3.0055	0.0027	0.0047
1.2	Balance				2.3.2	Healthy Physical			
1.3	Middleness				2.3.3	Learning Awareness			
1.1.1	Procedural Justification	3.0055	0.0027	0.0047	3.1	Rights	2	—	0
1.1.2	Distributive Justification				3.2	Ilmu Nafi-The Usability of Knowledge and Science			
1.1.3	Interactional Justification								
1.2.1	Nature Balance	5.0823	0.0205	0.0183	3.1.1	Human Rights	2	0	0
1.2.2	Resource Utilization Balance				3.1.2	Economic Syariah Sustainability Investment			
1.2.3	Stakeholders Survival								
1.2.4	Profitability								
1.2.5	Benefit								
1.3.1	Economic Planning	6.0297	0.0059	0.0052			3.0396	0.0198	0.0341
1.3.2	Regulators and Risks				3.2.1	Economic Growth			
1.3.3	Social Interaction				3.2.2	Economy Sustainability			
1.3.4	Scientific Analysis Decision Making				3.2.3	Career Development			
1.3.5	Follow Islamic Ideology								
1.3.6	Proportional Energy Consumption								
2.1	Mercy	3.0512	0.0256	0.0441	2.1.1	Community and Citizenship Development	3.0092	0.0046	0.0079
2.2	Beliefs								
2.3	Taqarrub				2.1.2	Community Empowerment			
					2.1.3	Employee Volunteerism/Employee Engagement			

Source: Output AHP Analysis (2017)

criterion for sustainability in Islamic banking in Indonesia shows that the importance of upholding human rights both in bank operations and in profit sharing. In addition to being able to apply *haq* in all affairs Islamic banks should always pay attention to the provisions of Islamic law based on *Sharia* principles. The banks should always maintain Economic Sustainability both in investment and other *Sharia* transactions.

There are several other banking documents and government regulations related to sustainability of Islamic Banking. Meanwhile, Knowledge Management performs an expert system of mechanism that provides the rule base and data analysis on sustainability of Islamic Banking. In AHP Modelling, the identification of level priority through vector eigen and CI and CR values is defined for each indicator. These values are used to define the standardized and maximal values of Islamic Banking sustainability performance measurement. The Banking performance is flexible and is based on target and objectives of each banking system.

Based on the performance standard (Volby, 2000), the indicators illustrated in the scale in Table 3 show the condition of Islamic banking performance in Indonesia at the level of "Good" or "Very Good" with a value of 77.8093.

The good performance is because environmental factors were made a priority in the sustainability measurement of the company. This will help create a balanced nature, appropriate use of resources, ensuring

the sustainability of the stakeholders, and a balanced distribution of profits and dividends in accordance with the initial contract and wages and a reasonable bonus. Making environmental factors a priority will have an impact on decisions/policies that have always taken a middle ground, both in economic planning and risk analysis. If Islamic banks are to make decisions/policies in moderation, they need to use scientific analysis that is based on Islamic ideology, namely the principles of *Sharia*.

CONCLUSION

This research explored the linkage of several theories to develop a unique Decision Support System. The decision support system was successfully developed based on empirical data. The application of AHP in solving the problems of priority selection of sustainability performance indicators was well implemented. There were 33 indicators that were ranked based on the level of priority values. In order to see the gap analysis between the standardized and personal banking performance, Islamic Banking Performance Measurement was conducted. This design not only provides AHP analysis but also gives the company recommendations, suggestions and corrective actions. An ideal sustainability performance indicators ranking as well as customization indicators that are based on target and focus achievement are also mechanized in this system.

Theoretically, this research combines four fields of research; i.e., Sustainability Performance Indicators, Social Accounting,

Table 3
Calculation of Sharia Banking performance in Indonesia based on AHP

No	Construct/Variable /Indicator	Score (%)	Priority Subcriteria	Sub CriteriaValue	Total Sub Criteria Value	Sub Criteria Priority	Sub Criteria Value	Total Criteria Value	Criteria Priority	Criteria Value			
1	Keadilan (Justice)												
	Procedural Justification	75.56	0.4052	30.615	74.219	0.2416	17.9313	29.3018	0.4174	32.1360			
	Distributif Justification	73.33	0.3762	27.588									
	Interactional Justification	73.33	0.2184	16.016									
2	Azan mizanatau neraca (balance)												
	Nature Balance	71.11	0.2884	20.508	76.988	0.3806	29.3018						
	Resource Utilization	77.78	0.1674	13.02									
	Stakeholders Survival	84.44	0.2789	23.551									
	Profitability	71.11	0.1462	10.396									
	Benefit	80	0.1189	9.512									
3	Wasat atau Jalan tengah (Moderation)												
	Moderation in Economic Planning	77.78	0.1971	15.33	78.787	0.3777	29.7577						
	Moderation in regulators and risk	77.78	0.17	13.22									
	Moderation in social interaction	80	0.221	17.68									

Table 3 (Continued)

No	Construct/Variable /Indicator	Score (%)	Priority Subcriteria	Sub CriteriaValue	Total Sub Criteria Value	Sub Criteria Priority	Sub Criteria Value	Total Criteria Value	Criteria Priority	Criteria Value
	Scientific analysis decision-making	77.78	0.1794	13.95						
	Following Islamic ideology	84.44	0.08	6.75						
	Proportional energy consumption	77.78	0.1523	11.85						
4		Rahmat (mercy)								
	Community and citizenship development	5.56	0.3656	27.62	76.286	0.4413	26.4753	78.4509	0.3554	27.8814
	Community empowerment	77.78	0.3323	25.84						
	Employee volunteerism/ employee engagement	75.56	0.302	22.82						

Table 3 (Continued)

No	Construct/Variable /Indicator	Score (%)	Priority Subcriteria	Sub CriteriaValue	Total Sub Criteria Value	Sub Criteria Priority	Sub Criteria Value	Total Criteria Value	Criteria Priority	Criteria Value
5	Azaz amanah (beliefs)									
	Professional work	80	0.1289	10.312	72.2264	0.2483	19.6719			
	Islamic commitment	84.44	0.0873	7.372						
	Common sense	77.78	0.1662	12.927						
	Reward	75.56	0.1262	9.535						
	Learning development	77.78	0.1089	8.47						
	Talent and leadership	77.78	0.1031	8.019						
	Service quality	82.22	0.1223	1.058						
Accessibility	80	0.1567	12.536							
6	Taharah (purity)									
	Spiritual purity	77.78	0.2366	1.40	80.96	0.3102	25.1138			
	Healthy physical	77.78	0.1974	15.35						
	Generating a clean economy devoid of usury/loan contract	80	0.1292	10.336						
	Ambiguity in contracts	84.44	0.2287	19.312						
	Learning awareness	84.44	0.2079	17.556						

Table 3 (Continued)

No	Construct/Variable /Indicator	Score (%)	Priority Subcriteria	Sub CriteriaValue	Total Sub Criteria Value	Sub Criteria Priority	Sub Criteria Value	Total Criteria Value	Criteria Priority	Criteria Value
7		<i>Hak (rights)</i>								
	Human rights	77.78	0.6							
	Economic syariah sustainability investment	80	0.4			0.5454	42.9048			
8		<i>IlmNaft' (The Usability of Knowledge and Science)</i>								
	Economic growth	80	0.35	28						
	Economy sustainability	77.78	0.4256	33.102						
	Career development)	75.56	0.2243	16.947						
		TOTAL								
								78.378	0.227	17.7918
										77.8093

Islamic Banking, and AHP analysis. Practically, the development of this system increases the effective use of indicators towards the success of sustainability reporting. The developed system design can be used as a guide for management leadership in making a decision and conducting corrective actions in Islamic Banking Sustainability Performance. Moreover, this design can be used as a tool for the government in measuring Islamic Banking Sustainability in Indonesia. This triggers the effectiveness and efficiency of sustainability in Indonesian Banking. The dynamic ecosystem which is responsive and adaptive in facing the sustainability changes and challenges can be developed.

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Corporate Governance Practices of Contributory Pension Scheme Operators in Nigeria

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ABSTRACT

Unlike the previous defined benefit pension scheme in Nigeria, the current contributory pension scheme (CPS) is characterised by separation of ownership and management of pension fund. In view of agency problem this portends, the need to empirically examine corporate governance (CG) practices of operators is of importance for CPS survival. Thus, this study examines corporate governance practices of operators of CPS in management and custody of the CPS fund. Survey data from 212 managers and assistant managers of CPS operators were analysed using one-sample t-test and mixed ANOVA. The results showed significant practices of CG mechanisms in the form of board independence, director independence, board disclosure and audit committee effectiveness. Significant difference was found in practice of above CG mechanisms. However, there was no significant difference in GC practices among various types of CPS operators. Similarly, the interaction of CG mechanisms with CPS operator type was also found to be insignificant. Based on the results, good corporate governance practices in the management of CPS fund is evident. However, it is recommended that there is an

urgent need to intensify regulatory role of the part of CPS regulator- National Pension Commission to ensure that operators are not lacking behind in practices of various mechanisms of CG.

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Keywords: Corporate governance, board independence, board disclosure, audit committee, director independence, ownership

INTRODUCTION

The study examines corporate governance practices among the operators (pension fund administrators [PFAs] and pension fund custodians [PFCs]) of contributory pension scheme (CPS) in Nigeria. It is established that good corporate governance practice facilitates stakeholders' trust in stewardship of the operators of CPS to effectively manage the pension fund (Ekpe, 2016). Unlike the previous defined benefit pension scheme, the current CPS in Nigeria is characterised by separation of ownership and management of pension fund which might lead to agency problem. In line with standard global practice, National Pension Commission [PenCom] as the regulator of Nigerian CPS issued a code of corporate governance (CG) in 2008 as part of its regulatory responsibility. Similar to other industry-specific codes of CG in Nigeria, PenCom's code of corporate governance aims at protecting the interest of major stakeholders in the pension industry especially CPS participants (contributors and retirees). This is line with corporate governance aim of proper management of resources under the stewardship of managers to ensure that such resources are managed in the best interests of their owners.

CG has widely gained importance in management of multitude of enterprises where the ownership is separated from management. Historically, the advocacy role of large pension funds such as California Public Employees' Retirement System [CalPERS] and California State Teachers Retirement System [CalSTRS]

was instrumental to the emergence of CG (Becht et al., 2003; Cadbury Committee, 1992; Romano, 1993). The advocacy drive evolved due to managerial abuses and board tendency to act in their own interests rather than that of the plan participants who own and bear associated risks of pension fund failure with the aim of eliminating management abuses (Cocco & Volpin, 2007; Kowalewski, 2012). Although, literature has emphasized the role of CG in boosting stakeholders' trust in Nigerian CPS industry (Ekpe, 2016; Okoye & Eze, 2013). Yet, no empirical study has so far examined the CG practices among the operator of Nigerian CPS industry in Nigeria. Thus, the study fills this gap.

Despite the long history of CG in Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), literature has documented weak external and internal governance mechanisms among pension plans (Kowalewski, 2012). Available empirical findings in the banking sector indicate that the situation is no different among Nigeria banks. This might have a spill over effect on the Nigerian CPS industry. In relation to Nigerian CPS industry, Ekpe (2016) has established that managers of emerging CPS industry have high tendency to overlap their stewardship with other business interests. Other studies (Akinkoye & Olasanmi, 2014; Nwannebuikwe & Ike, 2014; Okike, 2007; Proshare, 2014) also noted that weak corporate governance practices could prevail in CPS industry as documented in other industries such as banking. These assertions to date are yet

to be tested empirically in relation to CPS industry. This study gives further insight into CG practices of various operators (PFAs and PFCs) of the CPS which are treated as heterogeneous groups due to their distinct function as well as ownership. Thus, we examine the implementation of four mechanisms of CG and further test for differences among operators charged with different functions in the management of CPS as well.

Research evidence has documented mixed and mostly weak evidence on level of corporate governance practices in Nigeria. More so, the evolving CG empirical studies were drawn largely from the banking sector with mixed findings (Abiola, 2012; Aina, 2013; Bhagat & Bolton, 2013; Idam, 2015; Ogbechie & Koufopolous, 2010; Turley & Zaman, 2007) across countries with no empirical study yet on the emerging CPS industry in Nigeria (Okoye & Eze, 2013). Although Ekpe (2016) recently examined how corporate governance may affect stakeholders' trust in CPS industry, the study however fell short to indicate the level of CG practices in the industry. In view of this gap with respect to CG practices in the pension industry, this study was conducted to provide empirical insight into CG practices among the operators of CPS industry.

Examining the corporate governance of Nigerian CPS is significant for some rationales. First, CPS has become a vital and indispensable part of the Nigerian financial system within its 13 years of coming into effect. As a such, the need

to strengthen the corporate governance practices of CPS operators to be at par with other players in Nigerian financial system is timely. Second, CPS fund has proved to be easier and cheaper domestic source of providing funding for corporate entities and various tiers of government in Nigeria. Thus, CPS has provided the needed finance to curtail fiscal sustainability challenge that could have unfolded due to protracted challenge of declining oil revenue- which has been the main source of revenue to Nigeria since independence. Third, given that CG addresses conflicting interests of ownership and management of pension fund, examining the CG practices of CPS operators can provide guides to policymakers and regulators to prevent weak implementation of CG that might spell doom for the future income payment of post-retirements benefits to employees. The remaining part of the study is organised as follows. The next section focuses on related literature on CG generally and its mechanisms of board independence, director independence, board disclosure and audit committee effectiveness specifically as well as hypotheses development. The materials and method were presented in the section that follows. Results and discussion of analyses of data and conclusion of the study follow in that order.

LITERATURE

Corporate Governance

According to Cadbury Committee (1992), "Corporate governance is the system by which companies are directed and

controlled". Corporate governance (CG) involved mechanisms put in place to monitor the actions, policies, and decision of agents of corporation to align the conflicting interests of agent (management) and that of other relevant stakeholders in the corporation (OECD, 2004). Though, good CG is pivotal to the activities of pension funds while acting in their fiduciary capacity (OECD, 2004), empirical studies have reported mixed findings on the impact of CG. The mixed results could be due to difference in governance structures and regulatory framework among countries with attendant tendency of management to consider CG as simply a technical matter of low-priority that can be evaded when its implementation is not convenient as well as use of different mechanisms of CG (Lehn et al., 2007; Rahman & Bremer, 2016). While several mechanisms of corporate governance have been identified, this study focuses on four mechanisms of CG reviewed below:

Board Independence

Board independence has remained a vital mechanism of corporate governance mechanism, yet what constitutes the independence of board has remained mixed (Almania, 2017; Beltratti & Stulz, 2009; Erkens et al., 2012; Malik & Makhdoom, 2016). In an attempt to clarify board independence, Lefort and Urzúa (2008) identifies two bases of independence of board members to include presence of outside directors and professional directors. Professional directors are mostly experts appointed by institutional

investors or controlling shareholder while outside directors are elected by minority shareholders. As a mechanism of CG, board independence addresses agency problem from separation of owners of the resources from managers who might operate the firm in their own interest (Romano, 1993). Thus, the criteria for independence of board is associated with whether board member are free from undue influence of the management or not to discharge their responsibilities.

In developed countries with long history of CG, much attention has been focused on board independence and its committee. As such, as high as 80% of boards listed companies are considered as independent (Gunes & Atilgan, 2016; Weir & Laing, 2001). Despite the high rate of board independence in these countries, the effects of board independence remained mixed. For instance, Erkens et al. (2012) documented negative effect of board independence on stock returns of 296 firms across 30 countries during financial crisis of 2007-2008. In consistent with Erkens et al., Beltratti and Stulz (2009) found similar evidence of negative relation between board independence and performance of banks in selected European countries. Almania (2017) examined the impact of board independence on leverage of 122 non-financial Saudi Arabian firms over 2012-2015. The results show a significant but negative impact of independent board on firms' leverage proxied by proportion of total debt to total assets.

The negative impact of board independence documented by Almania (2017) and Erken et al. (2012) is not consistent with study of Fortune Global 500 firms over 2005-2012 across 18 countries by Malik and Makhdoom (2016). Based on data of 33 US firms and 67 non-US firms, it was reported that board independence enhances transparent decision making. Similar evidence was found in a meta-analysis of 27 studies conducted by Garcia-Meca, and Sanchez-Ballesta (2010). The study reported that board independence (proxied as the proportion of independent directors on firms' board) positively related to voluntary disclosure. Whereas, Vafeas (2003) found no evidence to confirm that outside directors significantly affected CG practices of firms, Bhagat and Bolton (2013) examined the impact of board independence on firm performance in two scenarios: before and after introduction of Sarbanes Oxley Act, 2002. The results show two conflicting evidences of significant negative and positive relationship between board independence and firm performance before and after the Act respectively. These conflicting results calls for examining the practices of corporate governance mechanisms in an emerging industry like Nigerian CPS in view of different regulatory environment and governance structure across countries.

Director Independence

Director independence is a position of being devoid of conflict of interest by a director (Van den Berghe & Baelden, 2005).

Extant literature conceptualized director independence from multiple perspectives. Director independence has been established on the basis of nonemployee status of the directors in the firm as well as absence of financial, family, donor and social relationships (Johnson, 2008). Empirical findings on director independence has largely stand mixed across industries and countries. For instance, Kang et al. (2007) found that in Australia, 83% of sampled companies duly appointed adequate number of independent directors in their board and board committees as required by Australian corporate governance regulations. Wan (2003) also examined the influence of independent director on board to reduce executive pay and boost firm performance. The results based on data of US firms show that the presence of independent director neither reduce executive pay nor improve firm performance. Further analysis of the sampled firms establish that firm-industry specific factors largely account for difference in executive pay. Whereas, studies have also reported significant positive relationship between proportion of independent directors and debt ratio (Jensen, 1986; Abor & Biekpe, 2007).

On the contrary, Agrawal and Knoeber (1996) documented negative relationship between proportion of independent director on board and performance of firms. In contrast, Petra (2005) stated that outside independent directors did appear to strengthen corporate boards. Besides, studies and anecdotal report have recognised presence of outside directors on board as

a way of attaining director independence. Vafeas (2003) noted that the presence of outside director was instrumental towards proper monitoring of management. Such monitoring of management actions as noted by Petra (2005), ensured that managers make decision in the best interest of stakeholders- to whom the resources under their stewardship belong. Thus, the presence of independent director is a mechanism that minimise agency conflicts between owners and managers (Fama & Jensen, 1983). The effect of director-chief executive officer (CEO) tie and compensation on director independence compromise was also examined by Westphal and Zajac (1995). It was found that when CEO appointed a director, there was a probable risk that such director might support the CEO rather than to discharge their duty of monitoring the CEO. The implication of their finding is that under such scenario the independence of director may be jeopardized.

However, the option of compensation of the independent director may minimize the risk based on evidence provided by Podder et al. (2013). They examined the impacts of director compensation options on their independence using 2006-2010 data of 104 insurance companies in the US and found that equity-based compensation aligns the interests of independent directors and stakeholders they represent. On the contrary, Deutsch et al. (2011) noted that compensating independent director using equity option negatively affected the risk taking in board decision-making. Notwithstanding failure to locate study

that relate impact of cash compensation on director independence, empirical evidence of independent director cash compensation on earning management presented by Ye (2014) showed positive relationship based on 2002-2008 data of Chinese listed firms. The finding indicates that higher cash compensation may compromises the independence of director to effectively discharge their oversight on financial reporting.

Board Disclosure

Corporate board disclosure has become a subject of growing concern (Garcia-Meca & Sanchez- Ballesta, 2010). Broadly speaking, emerging markets tend to be characterized by high level of information asymmetry (Uyar & Kilic, 2012). Such information asymmetry has led to distrust in corporate management (Patel & Dallas, 2002). Therefore, Sihombing and Pangaribuan (2017) proposed that timely information dissemination to various stakeholders significantly reduced such information asymmetry. Also, Engel et al. (2010) stated that presence of reputable directors minimized such information asymmetry between firms and investors as the reputable status offers them some discretion on information disclosure (Turley & Zaman, 2007). Thus, the need for adequate disclosure cannot be under-estimated in general and on Nigerian CPS industry in particular towards minimizing the effect of such information asymmetry.

However, poor disclosure of executive and non-executive information sensitive to market dealings to facilitates stakeholders' confidence, CEO compensation, directors' remuneration, and transactions with related-parties were documented in Nigeria (Okike, 2007). This may have accounted for investors' reluctance to channel their resources to environment where corporate disclosure is low (Ejuvbekpokpo & Esuiké, 2013). Therefore, poor level of disclosure among firms no doubt constitutes a serious threat to the growth of developing countries due to loss of confidence by investors to inject the needed capital for investment (Okpara & Kabongo; 2010). Aina (2013) posited that disclosure of remuneration of directors and senior executives of Nigerian firms eliminates controversy and unsustainable pay. On the contrary, Sanda et al. (2005) stated that disclosure of reliable financial and non-financial information enhanced investors' participation in stock of a firm. Adegbite (2012) also noted that disclosure improves participation of investor in a firm that provided information on ownership structure of the firm and matters relating to members of board and key employees.

Audit Committee Effectiveness

As a board sub-committee, audit committee (AC) is a vital mechanism of CG that its effectiveness has continued to be a global concern. To arrest the concern, several reports and professional publications have focused on AC effectiveness among CG mechanisms (Cadbury Committee, 1992; Deloitte,

2015; Hong Kong Society of Accountants [HKSA], 2002; PricewaterhouseCoopers, 2011). Traditionally, AC is established to facilitate a continuous communication between the board and external auditors through regular meetings. Such meetings are held to review internal accounting controls system and audit process to improve financial statements credibility (Rahman & Ali, 2006). Besides, audit committee assists investors to obtain relevant information for decision making based on external audit (Okike, 2007). While justifying the need for audit committee in a meta-analysed study, DeZoort et al. (2002) affirmed that AC was vital to protect stakeholders' interests. In a comparative study, Gunes and Atilgan (2016) examined the impact of AC effectiveness (ACE) on performance of Turkish and UK banks during 2006–2010. ANOVA results of data obtained from 10 banks in each of the country showed significant difference of effect of AC effectiveness on performance (proxied by return on asset and return on equity) among Turkish banks. Contrarily there was no significant differential effect found among UK banks. The differential effect was attributed to varying independence level of AC members in UK (100%) and Turkey (19%) due to relatively long history of corporate governance in UK compared to Turkey.

Another paradigm of literature has focused on the impact of audit committee members' skills on the performance of their function. With the aim of comparing the effect of AC effectiveness (proxied by

independence and expertise) on restatement of accounts, Carcello et al. (2011) used matched data of 2000-2001 financial statements of equal sample (104) for restating firms and non-restating ones. The results of conditional logistic regression showed that the higher the independence of the AC, the lower the tendency of restatement of financial statements. They also found a significant negative relationship between AC expertise and account restatement with no significant effect of CEO involvement in selection of AC members on the relationship. McDaniel et al. (2002) corroborated that inclusion of financial experts as members of audit committee improved the focus on financial reporting quality far deeper than financial literates due to differences in judgement of financial experts and financial literates. The study established that the differences might lead to different basis of opinion on financial reporting issues

In a study of Thai listed firms, Kamolsakulchai (2015) examined effect of audit committee effectiveness (proxied by members' expertise) on financial reporting quality (exponential of discretionary accrual) of three industries (Agro & food, Technology and industrial) over 2008-2012. The results show positive significant effects of AC expertise on discretionary accrual with significant difference across three industries. Literature has further investigated how interaction with other control mechanisms affect audit committee effectiveness. In a case study conducted by Turley and Zaman (2007), interview

analyses showed that interactions of audit committee with internal controls (internal auditor and senior management) and external controls (external auditor) had effect on the potential achievement of audit committee effectiveness. Based on the review of related studies on the four mechanisms of CG, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H1: there is significant board independence practices by operators of CPS in Nigeria

H2: there is significant director independence practices by operators of CPS in Nigeria

H3: there is significant board disclosure practices by operators of CPS in Nigeria.

H4: there is significant audit committee effectiveness practices by operators of CPS in Nigeria.

Ownership and Corporate Governance

According to Petra (2005), through ownership shareholders take control of firms. Consequently, there is need for CG regulations to take cognisance of corporate ownership (Adegbite, 2012). By design, there are two categories of CPS operators: pension fund administrators (PFAs) and pension fund custodians (PFCs). While, PFAs are charged with management of the CPS fund, the PFCs are the custodians of the fund. PFAs are in two sub-categories of open PFAs and closed PFAs. Open PFAs manage the pension fund of employees engaged by unrelated employers while closed PFAs are established by employers to manage the pension fund of their employees (Pension

Reform Act, 2004). Therefore, closed PFAs represent a kind of related-parties in terms of ownership on the basis that the employers that established the PFAs may have influence on their activities unlike open PFAs where such ownership relationship does not exist. The PFCs also have unique ownership type as well under the Nigerian CPS. As at 2017, all the four PFCs licensed to operate as custodians of CPS are fully owned by institutional investors (banks).

Literature has focused attention on effect of various ownership type on CG practises. For instance, Balagobei and Velnampy (2017) asserted that there was vital effect of ownership structure on corporate governance mechanisms among beverage and tobacco firms in Sri Lanka. Also, corporate ownership of Bangladeshi firms was found to have negative relationship on board independence largely due to family concentrated ownership (Hasan et al., 2016). They further reported significance difference among various ownership types (family, institutional and public) on board independence. Whereas employer managed pension funds have demonstrated poor corporate governance practice (Kowalewski, 2012), institutional owners have shown high preferences for CG through their intervention behind the scene (Bushee et al., 2014; McCahery et al., 2016). The evidences presented above provide arguments that ownership of the CPS operators may have impacts on their level of corporate practices. Therefore, this study hypothesized as follow:

H5: there is significant difference in practices of various mechanisms of corporate governance by CPS operators in Nigeria.

H6: there is significant interaction effect of various CG mechanisms with CPS operators type in Nigeria.

H7: there is significant effect of ownership of CPS operator type on CG practices in Nigeria.

MATERIALS AND METHOD

The population of the study covered all the 32 operators of CPS which consist of 21 open PFAs, 7 closed PFAs and 4 PFCs as at the end of 2017. The units of analysis comprised 212 managers and assistant managers of CPS operators (PFAs and PFCs). The sample were drawn from PFAs and PFCs which are charged with the administration and custody of CPS fund respectively. With respect to measurement of corporate governance, studies have used various mechanisms of CG as proxies for measurement. While some studies have used single of CG mechanisms such as board independence (Bhagat & Bolton, 2013; Chen & Jaggi, 2001; Malik & Makhdoom, 2016), audit committee characteristic (Gunes & Atilgan, 2016), CEO duality (Duru et al., 2016), others have combined various mechanisms of CG (Bhagat, & Bolton, 2013; Sang & Il, 2004). This study therefore adapts measures of CG mechanisms of board independence, director independence, board disclosure and audit committee effectiveness developed

by Sang and Il (2004) in a CG study of five Asian countries.

The responses to the measurement item were Likert-scaled from between 1 indicating “strongly disagree” to 7 indicating “strongly agree”. The instrument consists of 22 items covering the above corporate governance mechanisms. Six items measure board independence, five measure director independence, four measure board disclosure while seven measure audit committee effectiveness. Cronbach’s alpha reported by the CG mechanisms are board independence (0.906), directors independence (0.838), board disclosure (0.806) and audit committee effectiveness (0.816). The items were tested for validity using factor analysis (see Table 1). All items adequately loaded on the CG mechanism they measure with the loading of 0.40 and above, except one of the seven items that measure audit committee effectiveness (AUDCOM3) which was deleted from further analyses. Kaiser Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett’s test of sphericity were examined to ensure sampling adequacy and significance. For all the four CG mechanisms KMO of 0.60 and above and significant Bartlett’s test of sphericity were reported as recommended for sampling adequacy and significance respectively (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013; Pallant, 2013). The results of reliability and validity test is in consistent with study by Ibrahim and Zulkafli (2016) that adapted the same items in their study. The justification for use of items to measure CG is in line with suggestion of Malik

and Makhdoom (2016). They suggested the need to go beyond secondary data to measure corporate governance mechanisms. They further argued that using other than secondary data allowed researchers to go for other alternative data source such as item–response questions to elicit perception of relevant players on the extent corporate governance practices.

Scholars have emphasized that corporate boards play substantial roles in entrenching good GC while acting as the guardian of shareholders’ interest in oversight of management (Dalton et al., 1998). Others (Amrah et al., 2015; Lefort & Urza, 2008) argue that board of directors and its committee are pivotal in internal governance of firm. Therefore, this study measures CG based on some vital characteristics of the board and its committees. In order to analyse data collected, one sample t-test was used to examine the practices of four corporate governance mechanisms (board independence, director independence, board disclosure and audit committee effectiveness) of operators of CPS. Further analyses were conducted to examine if difference exists in practice of corporate governance across the four mechanisms as well as among the various type of CPS operators based on ownership (open PFAs, Closed PFA and PFCs) using mixed ANOVA. The use of mixed ANOVA accommodates scores generated from repeatedly observed sampled cases for the four mechanisms of CG to be compared (Lindstrom & Bates, 1990). Mixed ANOVA

Table 1

Summary of factor analysis estimates

CG Mechanisms	Items	Loadings	KMO	Bartlett test of Sphericity		Eigen Value	% of Variance Explained
				Chi-Square Statistics	p-value		
Board independence			0.877	1052.550	0.000	4.179	69.653
	BODIND1	0.929					
	BODIND2	0.925					
	BODIND3	0.728					
	BODIND4	0.902					
	BODIND5	0.927					
	BODIND6	0.508					
Director independence			0.779	430.180	0.000	3.069	61.374
	DIRIND1	0.713					
	DIRIND2	0.829					
	DIRIND3	0.754					
	DIRIND4	0.847					
	DIRIND5	0.766					
Board disclosure			0.780	284.296	0.000	2.566	64.142
	BODDIS1	0.794					
	BODDIS2	0.842					
	BODDIS3	0.835					
	BODDIS4	0.726					
Audit committee effectiveness			0.782	393.545	0.000	3.049	50.049
	AUDIT1	0.634					
	AUDIT2	0.777					
	AUDIT4	0.654					
	AUDIT5	0.688					
	AUDIT6	0.731					
	AUDIT7	0.779					

Note: Extraction method: Principal component analysis

was also appropriate due to its merit to test difference among CPS operator type (open PFAs, closed PFAs & PFCs) and analyse interaction of the two factors (CG mechanisms and CPS operator type).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A total of 212 managers participated in the survey out of which 155 and 42 were from open and closed PFAs respectively. The remaining 15 were from PFCs. The average tenure of holding managerial position by the

respondents was 3.87 years with standard deviation of 2.15 years. Table 2 reports the results of hypotheses (H1, H2, H3 and H4) in relation to the practices of the four mechanisms of CG tested with one-sampled t-test as follow: $t(211) = 3.040$, $p < 0.003$; $t(211) = 15.513$, $p < 0.000$; $t(211) = 18.032$, $p < 0.000$; and $t(211) = 20.775$, $p < 0.000$ respectively. The results show significant practices of each of the four CG mechanisms which indicate their significant practices by CPS operators. Thus, hypotheses H1, H2, H3 and H4 were supported.

Subsequently, other hypotheses (H5, H6 and H7) were tested using mixed ANOVA to examine the effect of three CPS operator types (open PFAs, closed PFAs and PFCs) on the practices of CG across the four CG dimensions (board independence, director independence, board disclosure and audit committee effectiveness). The results of mixed ANOVA were presented

in Table 3 and Table 4. As a prelude to guide the use of appropriate estimates of mixed ANOVA, test of sphericity assumption was conducted across the repeated measures (CG mechanisms). Mauchly's test showed Chi-Square value of 68.069 and $p < 0.000$ for repeated scores across mechanisms of CG (within-subject effects) violated the sphericity assumption indicating a significant differences in variances of the CG mechanisms (Field, 2013). The violation indicates that the F-values of CG mechanisms for the main effect and its interaction effect with CPS operators type (between-group effect) need to be corrected using Greenhouse-Geisser correction.

Based on Greenhouse-Geisser correction, the results ($F(2.842, 518.809) = 25.479$, $p < 0.000$, $\eta^2 = 0.109$) of Hypothesis H5 showed there was significant main effect difference among the practices

Table 2
One-sample t-tests results

Test Value = 5						
Corporate governance Mechanisms	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
BODIND	3.040	211	0.003	0.234	0.083	0.387
DIRIND	15.513	211	0.000	0.905	0.790	1.020
BODDIS	18.032	211	0.000	1.074	0.957	1.191
AUDCOM	20.775	211	0.000	1.021	0.924	1.118

Note: computed using $\alpha = 0.05$

BODIND=Board independence, DIRIND=Director independence,
BODIND= Board disclosure, AUDCOM=Audit committee effectiveness

Table 3

Tests of within-subject effects

Source		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
CGMechanisms	Sphericity Assumed	50.196	3.000	16.732	25.479	0.000	0.109
	Greenhouse-Geisser	50.196	2.482	20.221	25.479	0.000	0.109
	Huynh-Feldt	50.196	2.539	19.773	25.479	0.000	0.109
	Lower-bound	50.196	1.000	50.196	25.479	0.000	0.109
CGMechanisms *CPSopertatortype	Sphericity Assumed	6.245	6.000	1.041	1.585	0.149	0.015
	Greenhouse-Geisser	6.245	4.965	1.258	1.585	0.163	0.015
	Huynh-Feldt	6.245	5.077	1.230	1.585	0.161	0.015
	Lower-bound	6.245	2.000	3.122	1.585	0.207	0.015
Error (CGMechanisms)	Sphericity Assumed	411.743	627.000	0.657			
	Greenhouse-Geisser	411.743	518.809	0.794			
	Huynh-Feldt	411.743	530.558	0.776			
	Lower-bound	411.743	209.000	1.970			

of four CG mechanisms (Table 3). Pairwise comparisons revealed that average board independence practices (5.235) of CPS operators was significantly lower compared to other CG mechanisms that reported average ranging from 5.905 to 6.074. Therefore, Hypothesis H5 was supported. For Hypothesis H6, the results ($F(4.965, 518.809) = 1.585$, $p < 0.163$, $\eta^2 = 0.015$) showed there was no significant interaction effect of CG mechanisms and CPS operator type. Thus, Hypothesis H6 was not supported. Also, the results ($F(1, 2) = 0.043$, $p < 0.958$, $\eta^2 = 0.000$) of Hypothesis H7 on the main effect comparing the practices of CG among the

three CPS operator types was also found not to be significant. Therefore, Hypothesis H7 was not supported (Table 4).

The findings from results (H1, H2, H3 and H4) showed adequate practices of CG among CPS operators in Nigeria. The findings of the first four hypotheses are in contrast with the poor level of CG reported in the Nigerian banking sector (Akinkoye & Olasanmi, 2014; Nwannebuikwe & Ike, 2014). The findings are also inconsistent with the weak practices of CG among pension fund in OECD (Kowalewski, 2012). With regards to H5 which states there is significant difference in practices of various mechanisms of corporate governance by

Table 4

Tests of between-subject effects

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	12503.116	1	12503.116	9772.472	0.000	0.979
CPSopertatortype	0.111	2	0.055	0.043	0.958	0.000
Error	267.399	209	1.279			

Note: computed using alpha= 0.05

CPS operators in Nigeria. The results show a significant difference with relatively low board independence practices compared to other mechanisms of CG under review. For H6 on interaction effect of type of CPS operators with CG mechanisms, the study reported no significant effect. The finding is contrary to that of Turley and Zaman (2007) that interactions of audit committee with internal controls (internal auditor and senior management) and external controls (external auditor) have effect on the potential achievement of audit committee effectiveness. As for H7 on the effect of ownership of different types of CPS operators on CG practices in Nigeria, there is no significant effect. This is inconsistent with the finding of Balagobei and Velnampy (2017) that reported significant effect of ownership structure on corporate governance mechanisms among beverage and tobacco firms in Sri Lanka. The finding is also incongruent with study of Bangladeshi firms that found negative effect of ownership on board independence (Hasan et al., 2016).

CONCLUSIONS

The study examines practices of corporate

governance among operators of CPS in Nigeria. Despite the preponderance of studies related to CG in banking and other sectors in Nigerian, there is relatively scarcity of attention paid to CG practices in the CPS industry. The paper empirically examines board independence, director independence, board disclosure and audit committee effectiveness of operators of CPS in Nigeria. The study fills the literature gap of presenting empirical evidence in relation to practices of CG of operators of CPS. The findings showed that there exist significant practices of CG mechanisms (board independence, director independence, board disclosure and audit committee effectiveness mechanisms) among the CPS operators of CPS. More so, there is significant difference in practices of CG across the various mechanisms of CG. It was also found that CPS operators types (PFAs and PFCs) based on their ownership perspective do not differ with respect to practices of CG. The study also reported no interaction effects of CG mechanisms and type of CPS operators based on ownership.

The study makes significant contributions in a number of ways. Far

more than other industries, the strategic significance of CG to the performance of CPS industry cannot be under-estimated. CPS has become a vital aspect of the Nigerian financial system. For instance, within barely over a decade of coming into effect, CPS fund has become a major source of finance for corporate entities and various tiers of government to maintain fiscal sustainability. Similarly, given that CG addresses conflicting interests of ownership and management of pension fund, examining the CG practices of CPS operators can provide guide policymakers and regulators to prevent weak implementation of CG. The finding will also forestall likely future crisis similar to ugly experience of the old defined benefit scheme in the CPS industry so as to safeguard the future income of retirees.

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Leadership Competencies and Leadership Style in Aspiring Cluster Schools of Excellence

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ABSTRACT

Cluster School of Excellence (CSE), a school base administrative system was introduced to ensure autonomy to school leaders to excel schools in both academic excellence and non-academic performance. This implied leadership changes and innovative practices for educators and policy makers, as active participation was expected in academic and co-curricular excellence at state, national and international events. Yet, limited literature is available on leadership competencies, practices and style expected of school leaders in aspiring CSE, which have potential to be awarded with a CSE status through its academic and curriculum evaluation by the Malaysian Education Quality Standard. For this exploratory study, face to face interviews were conducted with four selected staff in two aspiring schools of excellence in Perak region to understand the personal aspirations, practices and challenges faced by such administrators in its pursuit for excellence. The locality was chosen to ascertain the viable leadership qualities in such schools targeted to be future CSE. The findings signify the importance of leadership qualities; leadership style; personal human values; knowledge of personal and social environment; close rapport with stakeholders; active planning and innovative practices in academic and non-

academic excellence via active community engagement sessions. Leaders voice the need for unwavering varied engagement and motivational sessions despite financial and individual challenges as the way forward in attaining the said educational excellence in both academic and non-curricular activities. It reaffirms the importance of innovative and creative leadership practices and leadership

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styles for leaders to in such aspiring schools to attain the CSE status.

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INTRODUCTION

The connotation of Cluster Schools of Excellence (CSE) essentially denotes schools that have independence in decision making and possess the capability to implement administrative decisions in educational matters such as in the academic and co-curricular programs of the school (Bhattacharyya et al., 2014). In such schools, state, district and school leaders possess greater decision-making power and autonomy over day-to-day operations to tailor interventions based on the school's context and enable greater schoolbased management (Bhattacharyya et al., 2014; Ministry of Education, 2012). Cluster schools are established to develop the full potential of schools within the cluster schools of excellence (CSE) as part of the mechanism in the 6th strategic thrust, i.e. accelerating the excellence of educational institutions (Ministry of Education, 2006).

Prior to this, many schools were run by independent administrative mechanisms that befit the "one-size-fits all" model which does not justify the schools' individual performance and capabilities. Schools were not provided with autonomous decision making to implement management decisions in both academic and co-curricular

excellence (Bhattacharyya et al., 2014; Ghani, 2013; Noor & Crossley, 2013).

As such, the performances of schools were not optimized in both academic and co-curricular programs. As such, renewed efforts were set in place through specific outcomes identified in the National Educational Blueprint 2013-2025 (Ministry of Education, 2012) where all schools will be responsible for operational decision making in terms of budget allocation and curriculum implementation. The implementation of cluster schools is based on the decentralization process that involves the empowerment of schools through the provision of guided autonomy (Bhattacharyya et al., 2014). This decentralization autonomy implies the need for excellence in leadership and administrative capability of the Principal and staff of the school as well as outstanding merit in academic and co-curricular activities.

Leading universities may present a unique challenge. Because of the organizational complexity of the university, its multiple goals and its traditional values, the nature of leadership in higher education is ambiguous and contested (Petrov et al., 2007). Universities have been described as "organized anarchies" with high inertia, unclear technologies and problematic goals (Cohen & March, 1974). Leading academics has been likened to "herding cats", yet the very strength of the university system lies in the independent thought, creativity and autonomy of the people who work in them. Unilateral top-down leadership

is clearly at odds with the traditional values of academic freedom and autonomy, democratic participation and the variety of academic interests (Middlehurst, 2012).

Thus, there is a need to understand what kind of leadership and leadership development are most effective, when are decision makings made independently or that of a collective based consensus made by the university authorities? This empirical research seeks to identify and develop effective leadership styles necessary managing Cluster Schools of Excellence (CSE). In addition, at present most of the studies of leadership in higher education tend to focus on the role of the stakeholders (students, parents, educators and policy makers). The paper investigates the competencies (attitudes, knowledge and behaviors) that are needed for emerging leaders to succeed in governing Cluster Schools of Excellence (CSE). The input is aimed at creating better and much more efficient leadership styles necessary for Cluster Schools of Excellence.

Objective of Study

The objective of this research is aimed at investigating the role of the Principals and the competencies (attitudes, knowledge and behavior) that are needed for effective leadership in Cluster Schools of Excellence (CSE).

Literature Review

With Vision 2020, there is a need for liberalization of educational policies leading to the democratization, privatization

and decentralization of the Malaysian educational system (Lee, 1999). As such, Cluster Schools of Excellence (CSE) as part of the government's national policy toward such measures aim to empower and provide autonomy to school platforms over academic and non-academic programs. In the process of such administrative changes, schools aspiring to attain the said status react differently and experience different levels of concerns and challenges (Harris & Jones, 2015; Noor & Symaco, 2017; Verspoor, 2008).

For some schools the transition to that of a CSE status experienced seemingly hassle-free transition, while for other schools administrators, staff groups and students, the transition implied otherwise. Berger et al. (2005) stated that moving teacher research out of individual classrooms and into the entire school posed to be astonishingly difficult filled with sometimes impossible demands and seemingly impossible expectations. This implied that higher expectations were demanded of the teaching staff which now was not only focused in individual class performances but among the entire classes in both academic and non-academic programs.

Attaining the CSE status meant that the whole school was required to change in accepting accelerated and visible upward performance in both academic and non-academic programs in the school. For such changes to occur, many apparent needs were yet to be fulfilled in attaining the said status. Berger et al. (2005) implied that all teachers, staff and students alike, needed

to be ready for the change as a result of decentralization of authority to the school level. There is a call for shared responsibility and immediate ownership (Leonard, 2013; Pawan & Orloff, 2011).

Reynolds (2001) stated that in instilling a transformation across the school environment, the importance of certain fundamental elements like “transformational leadership in the leadership team, mind-shift on teaching and learning commitment, staff enhancement development, decision making, teamwork, time and resources for reflection and research both within staff groups and with stakeholders (teachers, pupils, parents) are considered fundamental for change process and transitions to occur. However, the question we pose is how ready are the administrators, staff groups and stakeholders with such changes?”

In relation to the CSE status, it has been noted that there is currently only 1 per cent of the Malaysian schools have been identified as having the CSE status (Loke & Hoon, 2011; Malaklolunthu & Shamsudin, 2011). Hamidah (2013) reported that 263 schools had been accredited the CSE status while 60 schools had attained the High Achiever or High Performing School status. There are indeed lots more effort required to increase the number of CSE schools. It is envisioned that the Ministry targets to create 300 of such schools by 2015 (BERNAMA, 2011; Noor & Crossley, 2013). Efforts to learn more of CSE schools proves a challenge as there is limited literature available to understand the notion on required leadership competencies and management necessary

to increase the CSE status in the Malaysian performing school context.

In the creation of CSE schools, there arises the issue of empowerment and decentralization of authority to relevant school authorities. With such empowerment, come undoubted pressure, accountability, expectations and demands expected of school administrators like Principals and Headmasters’ who are required to lead such aspiring CSE schools.

In this respect, the success of attaining the cluster school of excellence status requires a change in the mindset of the decision makers where greater autonomy is provided to school principals, staff and students to independently plan and execute detailed academic and non-academic programs in the beginning of each academic calendar to ensure that there is ample planning, preparation, practice, participation as well as monitoring of student participation in niche programs identified for the said school. Chan and Kaur (2009) mentioned that excellent principals were sense makers of schools who helped create a sustainable school climate that would enhance students’ and teachers’ productivity.

Aspiring CSE schools denote schools which have the academic and co-curricular potential to be ranked as a CSE school. This implies that the school principal’s job is more complex where school leadership and dependency can no longer reside on one person only (Ballek et al., 2005). Leadership tasks and roles need to be cultivated and nurtured where school staff needs to be accountable in executing and expediting

the execution of various academic and non-academic programs set in the schools (Ahmad et al., 2013; Kin et al., 2017; Scutt, 2004).

Hence, Principals in the pursuit of excellence, need to be consciously aware that in the pursuit of attaining an intended goal, the leadership capabilities and competencies, model values and practices consistent with that of the school's niche areas (Sergiovanni, 1995; Spendlove, 2007). In nurturing an instructional program and creating a school culture conducive to learning and professional growth, effective instructional and administrative leadership is required to implement change processes (Hoy & Miskell, 2008).

In attaining the CSE status, there arises a range of feelings, challenges and uncertainties associated with the possibility of creating change in school systems (Gronn & Lacey, 2004). School leaders who embark on implementing such school face high levels of pressure to demonstrate such improvement in student achievement (Mette & Scribner, 2014). How do Principals overcome such challenges and mounting pressure in pursuit of excellence? The investigation is necessary to aid the global concern on principal attrition and retention with the high rate of teacher retirement (Borman & Dowling, 2008; Darling-Hammond, 2017; Hamzah et al., 2011). Left unchecked, the attainment of aspiring leaders to lead cluster schools of excellence as stipulated in the Education Blueprint may not be met (Azman et al., 2016; Yim, 2015).

Essentially, a shared vision among all stakeholders, transparency on the school's academic and non-academic planning, competences, outcome oriented strategy, academic time usage consistency, including some high-quality teaching, teacher-student interaction, compassionate and caring teachers and low noise levels as well as lots of work-related movement and positive feedback from teachers are measures toward success (Reynolds, 2001).

Greater autonomy among and decision-making policies and practices are required for school administrators. Autonomy and decentralization are the main features of CSE schools (Loke & Hoon, 2011; Tan & Ng, 2007; Yin & Ching, 2007). With autonomy and decentralization, leadership qualities and competencies of the Principal and staff administrators are crucial in creating that transformation among the staff and students alike (Arokiasamy, 2017; Kean et al., 2017).

Although this was a relatively small study, the research highlights the need for a more proactive approach to identifying leadership competencies and developing leadership throughout Cluster Schools of Excellence (CSE) in the higher education institution.

Research Questions

What leadership competencies (attitudes, knowledge and behavior) are necessary in managing Cluster Schools of Excellence?

What leadership styles are necessary in managing Cluster Schools of Excellence?

METHOD

For this purpose, being an exploratory study, two Principals and two Senior Administrative Staff such as Head of Student Affairs and Student Disciplinarian Head were chosen as respondents for the study. The respondents represented Senior Management and Leadership authorities of two aspiring cluster schools in the Perak region of Malaysia. The said schools were chosen as it met all the requirements necessary as aspiring cluster schools of excellence in the Perak region. The researchers obtained the necessary demographics of the stipulated schools from the list of names of schools provided by the Perak Education Department. The input may not be exhaustive but provides researchers the initial insight on the said phenomenon. The researcher has selected the state of Perak as it marks one of the educational hubs envisioned in the National educational Blueprint. The research site was also selected in view of the lack of study conducted on aspiring cluster schools of excellence leadership management styles, aspirations, challenges and competencies of leaders in less explored schools.

Principals and Senior Administrative Staff were selected as they would be able to share the administrative perspective. Senior Unit Heads were selected as they were not involved in the teaching of examination classes of the school. As such they were available to provide feedback without interruption to the normal school process and schedule. These respondents were considered appropriate as it mirrored the

sentiments stipulated by the Ministry of Education, Malaysia, where there was no interruption to the examination process of the said schools.

Thus, the names of Senior Administrative staff were based on the Principal's recommendations and who held administrative positions in the school. The Senior Administrative Staff were pivotal in providing information on cluster school of excellence in view of their years of experience and seniority in the school administration. All respondents involved in the study had served for more than 10 years in the schools and were thus familiar and well-versed with the CSE programs in their schools. The respondents were able to provide feedback on their experiences in both academic and co-curricular programs. It is for this reason that the said staff was selected as respondents as they fitted the criteria of the research study.

In terms of ethical sanction, formal written permission to conduct the research was obtained from the Ministry of Education, Malaysia. Preliminary visits were conducted with the intended schools. The researcher provided the School Principal with the official letter of permission from the Ministry of Education and explained the objective of the study. Once sanction was obtained from the Principal, the researcher was directed to the Senior Administrative Staff who were similarly informed of the research purpose and objective of the study.

Sampling Technique

For the purpose of this paper, findings

from 4 School authorities (2 Principals and 2 Senior Administrative Staff) of both schools were selected. In the case of names of the Senior Administrative staff, names were provided by the Principal. The researcher provided the autonomy of decision making to the Principal. The Principal and Senior Administrative staff chosen were administrators and were also subject teachers from the Science, Information Technology or Non-Technical (STEM) stream of non-examination classes.

Research Design

Prior to the face-to-face interview, the Principal and staff were briefed on the research objective of the study. All had the right to opt out of the discussion if they decide to do so. Thus, Principals and staff had the independence to decide to participate or withdraw from the interview session if they so choose to. Should the respondents feel the need to opt out of any questions, they were free to do so. The interview session utilized the elicitation technique where respondents were encouraged to provide their feedback. In this case, respondents were eager and receptive toward enriching the researcher on the various types of programs, practices and challenges faced as well as the aspiration to excel in attaining the said status for all programs set in the school.

Research Instrument

For the purpose of this study, semi-structured and open-ended questions were used to facilitate spontaneous responses from two selected Principals and two senior

administrative staff. A semi-structured interview is less rigid with a combination of “standardized and open-ended questions to elicit more qualitative information” while an unstructured interview, on the other hand, “is a purely qualitative interviewing strategy where questions and follow-up probes are generated during the interview (Clarke & Dawson, 1999). The respondents were all provided with the “Consent to Interview Form” and made to understand that sessions were audio-taped for transcription purposes. In addition, the official mail of sanction as provided by the Ministry of Education was also provided to the selected respondents to indicate compliance to the Ministry of Education ethical processes for school-based research studies. In relation to the qualitative analysis, NVivo 11 (www.qsrinternational.com) was used to code the data as the researcher was familiar with the said qualitative data analysis software program.

Face-To-Face Interview

The interview session utilized the face-to-face interview technique (Palys & Atchison, 2014). The technique incorporated the interaction of the interviewer and the respondent. Interviews of such nature allow researchers to probe more fully into why people might feel the way they do, and the broader belief system that makes those attitudes make sense. Interviews are an excellent choice for more exploratory studies that are not well understood, and often contribute to knowledge that allows for the creation of better surveys. Face-to-

face interviews allows greater likelihood of developing rapport and create generally less feeling of anonymity between the researcher and the respondent. Interview sessions generally lasted for an hour and fifteen minutes with all of the Principals and Senior Administrative staff who were interviewed individually.

Principals and Senior Administrative staff who responded in the face-to face interviews were asked to comment on their involvements in the academic and co-curricular programs, student potential, personal and social environment of CSE schools, staff support, administrative management, leadership qualities, leadership competencies and challenges experienced by the school authorities in the implementation of CSE programs. They were also welcome to provide feasible suggestions for the sustenance of such programs. In addition, the Principals and staff were encouraged to share their uppermost concern in ensuring the success of CSE programs in aspiring schools. The researcher encouraged all Principals and staff to provide their feedback for all questions. In addition, Principals and

staff were also provided with the option to add any further comments if they wished to do so.

Qualitative Data Analysis: Thematic Analysis

Qualitative data were analysed using the six-step coding process as prescribed by Creswell (2003). Creswell's (2003) generic process of qualitative data includes steps such as "a) organizing the data, b) preparing the data, b) reading the data, c) coding, d) narrating descriptions and forming themes, and e) interpreting the data" (Creswell, 2003, 2008) as indicated in Figure 1.

This form of qualitative data analysis was similarly conducted in other qualitative data studies (Buetow, 2010; Liu, 2016). The said interview technique provided all an opportunity to express their concerns and gave allowance to further comments that might not have been captured on the onset of the interview session. At the completion of the interview session, all respondents were provided with a token of appreciation by the researcher.

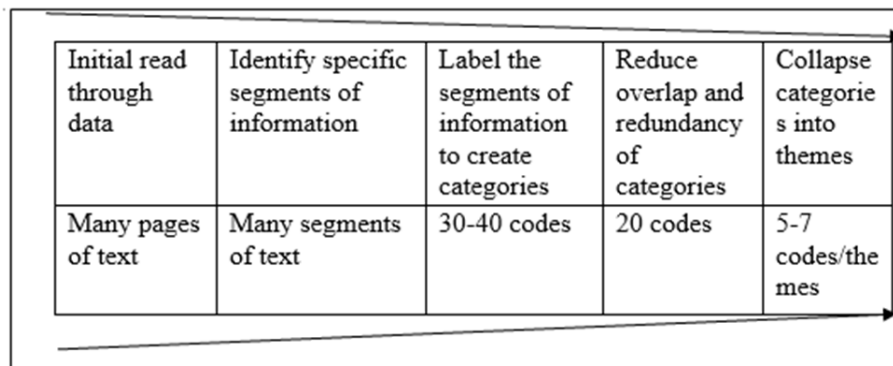


Figure 1. Coding process of qualitative data (Creswell, 2008)

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The following section elaborates on the themes derived from the interviews conducted with the said respondents. The themes were derived as a result of the qualitative data analysis employed via the use of Creswell's (2003, 2008) generic process. Interview texts are transcribed verbatim and the six-step coding process is utilized to derive the themes deemed crucial to the respondents. By the use of the coding process, various themes were elicited from the qualitative data as provided by the respondents.

Among the themes derived include emphasis on Leadership Competencies; Democratic and Collaborative Leadership Style; Realistic Goal and Aspiration; Tolerance and Personal Determination; Knowledge of Personal and Social Environment; Engagement and Rapport with Community and Visual Communication of Encouragement and Sustaining Commitment as critical areas of importance for effective leadership and management of cluster schools of excellence.

Theme 1: Leadership Competencies

Among the essential concern expressed by Principal A is the need to for leaders to demonstrate particular leadership competencies which marks leadership excellence including change management, research and teaching, communication, strategy and shared values, leadership, departmental culture, rewards and staffing. Such values are similarly echoed in other

studies (Corcoran, 2016; Kok & McDonald, 2017; Spendlove, 2007).

According to Principal A, the cohesive efforts of all are required and the need for such transformation relies on the effectiveness of the Principal in providing the lead, direction and guidance to the staff and students.

It is collective effort of all but such transformation may not materialize if the leader is unclear and unsure...so leader needs to create the direction, only then others can add to the transformation in either the academic or non-academic programs...we must be clear of what can be achieved by the staff and students and provide the right direction.

Thus, the need for a competent leader is essential in aspiring to attain the said status (Perera, 2015; Sirat et al., 2014).

Theme 2: Democratic and Collaborative Leadership Style

For Principal B, it is not only about the leader's direction but more importantly, the aspiration to attain the said status is also dependent on the leadership style of the Principal. In this light, Principals nearing retirement must prepare to pass the torch of leadership to those who come after them (Weller & Weller, 2002). Principals need to exercise democratic leadership style and ensure that staff is given the autonomy and freedom to make decisions in the classroom.

To Principal B, there is no doubt on the need for a good leader to provide directions, but the responsibility can be equally entrusted to the teachers to provide equal leadership opportunities and decision-making opportunities. There is a need for equal representation of both sexes in leadership positions (Harper, 2010; Sperandio, & Kagoda, 2008, 2010). This way, equal opportunities are provided to all teachers to be nurtured as future leaders for school management. Inadvertently, such collaborative leadership style creates a positive environment in the school (Ismail, 2012; Pounder & Coleman, 2002).

For Principal B, the importance of “grooming the staff with leadership responsibilities is necessary to ensure that there is a level of sustenance of succession” and “provides opportunities for the young staff to lead”. This accentuates the emphasis placed by Principal B on the importance of leadership qualities necessary for effective management. Principal B expresses the importance that opportunities are accorded for all staff to acquire leadership qualities in academic or non-academic niche areas.

Theme 3: Realistic Goal and Aspiration

Principal A mentioned that the school had to be realistic with the intended aspirations according to the academic ability of the students. For Principal A mentioned that the school had intended originally to attain higher academic status in 2 years but after 4 years this aspiration did not reach the intended target of improvement academically. This means that leaders in

such aspiring schools of excellence must be realistic in achieving the goals and aspirations set forth for the school. There is a need for school leaders to revisit and relook at the goal and aspiration in accordance to the academic status of the students. It does not imply that a leader places a lower goal but realistically provides a longer duration for a goal to be realistically achieved. The duration in attaining a specific goal is extended. For this, the leadership style is one of a flexible and realistic approach.

Thus, according to Principal A, the aspiration must also be realistic in line with the students’ capability as evidenced in the following statement.

We have to be realistic in our aspirations within the capabilities of the students. We may aspire to achieve high status in our program planning, but realistically we have to adjust according to the potential of our students. These are our ... “clients” who enter our school. There are many Form Five students who are still struggling with their basics. So, to me, I am even happy with a 1% increase in academic excellence. That to me is an achievement.

Thus, to the Principal, an institution can aspire to excel at all levels in both academic and non-academic programs, but realistically, the aspirations need to be in accordance to the academic potential of the students as well as ability for students to perform in such programs.

According to Principal A, the school has to ascertain that the goals set in place and planned for the school are attainable and achievable in accordance to the students' academic ability. This is necessarily so in the said school, as the school population comprises mainly of lesser academic performing students. According to Principal A, many of the students' background include "children from broken homes and divorced parents where there is minimal role model in the families". Thus, the academic expectation and aspiration had to be realistic. This however, does not deter the morale of the Principal and staff as various academic and non-academic programs over and above the normal syllabus requirement are set planned in the yearly academic calendar at the beginning of the academic year.

This view seconds Reynolds (2001) where there needs to be a balance between plans, manpower, and communication among all stakeholders on the aspiration of the school. There is a need to streamline academic and non-academic programs to students' realistic performance. This view was also mentioned in studies (Bhattacharyya et al., 2014) which indicated the need for effective leadership and management in line with the school's vision and mission to attain the CSE status. The need for effective leadership practices and management as crucial fundamentals to manage and lead schools is acknowledged in other studies (Jones et al., 2015; Kin et al., 2017).

Theme 4: Tolerance and Personal Determination

For Principal A, the saying, "when the going gets tough, the tough gets going" held true for the administrative staff and teachers in the school when faced with challenging students who possessed low academic performance at the onset. However, the Principal was of the notion that her team of staff and administrators were fully supportive and motivated despite the said circumstances. For this reason, Principal A stated that personal determination was crucial to overcome struggles in basic provision of amenities, infrastructure or even state-of the-art technology in such aspiring schools. As mentioned in the study (Bhattacharyya et al., 2014), for aspiring CSE to be successful, such amenities are considered fundamental. However, realistically, this may not be the case.

This was the case for School A, where limited funding was available. However, this did not deter the spirit and morale of the Principal and staff of the school. Instead, the Principal rallied on the assistance of the State Education department, staff and students as well as that of the surrounding community. Repeated emails and correspondences were a norm. The perseverance of the Senior Unit Heads and staff eventually paid off when funds were received to create a better maintained school with proper gates and fencing surrounding the school grounds. Bus sheds propped up and a religious house of worship was made available to the students of the Muslim faith. These achievements were relentlessly pursued

by the School Principal and staff to create a better environment for all the students. Principal A clearly mentioned,

My teachers worked hard. We conduct various types of programs to provide constant motivation to the students. We are well aware that the students are from broken homes with minimal guidance and lack of academic motivation...thus to me...their excellence may not be defined as being a doctor, but just as responsible family person is excellent...despite all these trials and tribulations, I will not give up as I wish to uplift the name of the school. This is my vision. I have all the respect for all the teachers here as they are really tolerant, and this has resulted in students' co-curricular achievements at national level competition.

The Principal preserves to ensure that all students and staff strive for the betterment of the students. Tolerance and personal determination are indeed valued principles required of effective leaders in order to lead aspiring schools to attaining CSE status (Leithwood et al., 2008; Walker & Ko, 2011).

Leaders such as Principals and staff of the school need to listen and understand the struggles of the students. This is evidenced from the findings shared by the said Principal who is well aware of the potential of students from such backgrounds who require constant motivation to overcome the turmoil in the students' personal life. Thus,

tolerance and personal determination are apt values required in such challenging personal and social background.

Head of Student Affairs (referred to as Senior Admin B) mentioned that "issues cannot be solved by mere punishment; instead all of the teachers use a lot of empathy in handling the children's issues". In terms of issues related to attendance, the teachers take an extra initiative to conduct personal checks in the classes at random school hours to ensure that students are present in the classroom. Thus, for such CSE programs to leapfrog, school staff need to provide emotional support for students' from such background.

Theme 5: Knowledge of Personal and Social Environment

Feedback from the Head of Student Affairs (referred to as Senior Admin B) resonated shared views of Principal A. According to Senior Admin B, the majority of students are from problematic homes and thus lack the motivation to study. Senior Admin B shared,

In terms of students' personal and social background, based on our survey, the main problem stems from the socio-economic status of the parents. Fathers are not working, the mothers have to go out and work, so what do these students do...they mimic behaviors from problem homes, they get into fights, arguments as this is their only knowledge to a solution. Although we try and have seen improvements...The next issue of

concern is the social background... these children come from villages where there is lack of education emphasis in homes. However, there are also bright students who try their best in this school...we provide all sorts of motivational programs for all the students in the school. At the end, ultimately, the problem students may estrange themselves from such programs, but the rest may participate.

The challenge to create a positive learning environment is indeed challenged when students are faced with various personal and social environments. However, such staff knowledge of students' background propels the teaching staff to plan programs to instill various motivational programs and continuously provide positive encouragement to the students. This feedback on the need for a supportive and conducive environment concurs with McGee (2004).

The importance of conducive environment is similarly expressed in other studies (Blankstein, 2004; Malaklolunthu & Shamsudin, 2011). With the awareness of the personal and social standing of the students, the school teachers are willing to make a personal sacrifice of a yearly salary contribution of RM100.00. The school also takes the stand to ensure commitment from the students by encouraging a yearly donation of RM10.00 from each student. Through such measures, the school authorities address the financial hardships of the family. This sends the message that

school authorities are aware of the personal and social background of the student. By providing the financial support, it is envisaged that a positive and supportive environment is created for the students' full participation in CSE.

Theme 6: Engagement and Rapport with Community

In ensuring sustenance of any intended program, Senior Admin C (a Student Disciplinarian Head) stated that the engagement and support of the community and members of the public living around the area was pivotal to create the sense of shared vision and aspiration in achieving CSE status. To Senior Admin C, the success of many of the academic and non-academic programs was dependent on parents' encouragement and motivation to create that push factor for student participation. One such example was the materialization of house of worship in School A which garnered the support of community Heads from various villages as well as contribution from the public.

Through the committed efforts and shared vision of enhancing religious values to the students, the goal to build a house of worship was materialized when funds amounting to RM250,000.00 were successfully raised. Free architecture consultation was also provided by the former student of the school. For Senior Admin C, efforts were placed to provide financial support to needy students. In this instance, financial aid was also received from state religious institutions amounting

to RM75,000.00 Financial support was dispersed to the needy students of the school based on family financial income and standing. The school authorities utilized such aid for deduction of the students' annual school fees. Senior Admin C added,

This financial assistance from the religious authorities help to ease the financial constrain to the student and parents. Parents are very appreciative of such aids which are a motivating factor to encourage participation amongst needy students. In addition, the school delivers talks at community halls to brief the community of the current programs and initiatives of the school. Brochures are similarly distributed to reach the masses on the progress of the students. This enables the community to have a better understanding of the activities carried out for the students. Religious programs are also conducted to instill religious values among the students. Informative and Motivational programs are also conducted with members of the Police force and Naval Office for lesser achieving students.

This finding concurs with studies on aspiring schools which reaffirm the need for continuous engagement with members of the community (Reynolds, 2001). Schools have to work together hand-in-hand with parents and students and be open to the performance abilities of the students. Thus, for students

to achieve success, it is impertinent that community engagement is present to create a shared vision and goal.

Theme 7: Visual Communication of Encouragement and Sustaining Commitment

The success of CSE for such aspiring schools is dependent on instilling encouragement and creating a sustained commitment among the school community. For this purpose, Principal D mentions that knowing the students' personal and social environment, the staff goes an extra mile by providing encouragement through visual communication and print placed around notice boards in the school. Thus, according to Principal D,

Should a student achieve a particular success, banners and photographs are placed at the notice boards. This is to encourage other less aspiring students to pursue and aim higher. Many notices have been placed...too many in fact, so we have to display current achievements. This we hope will motivate the students to excel in academic and non-academic programs. By God's grace, there have been steady progress in students' state and national level participation in co-curricular competitions such as the Traditional Martial Arts and others. Students' efforts are appreciated when announcements on their achievements are made every subsequent week during the school assembly.

The findings indicate that school authorities attempt various means to ensure that students in such aspiring schools are kept motivated to excel. Motivation and encouragement through visual communication and continued commitment from all staff is essential to attain such CSE status. As mentioned by Duke et al. (2007), the conditions necessary for attaining success are reliant on student achievement and behavior; school programs and organization; staffing; school system concerns, and parents and community. The above findings indicate similar concerns shared by Duke et al. (2007).

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

The findings indicate that in an effort to attain the CSE status, Principals, school administrators, staff, parents and the community need to firstly understand the background knowledge of the students' personal and social background and academic and non-academic performance to be able to plan and administer various CSE programs. In addition, leadership competencies, leadership style coupled with knowledge of the social environment and rapport with the parents/guardians and community around the vicinity of the school is essential for decision making purposes in aspiring to achieve CSE status. Plans and initiatives maybe set forth but may not be achievable in practice sue to such challenges. Reality differs from practice as we need to be as one before we can achieve a shared desire and goal, in this case, the CSE status

for aspiring schools. To do so, principals, school staff and community may have to make changes according to the ability and pace of the students. In doing so, much leadership style, leadership competencies, empathy, sacrifices, engagement, planning, communication is required and expected of the educators to materialize the said vision. The importance of good leadership, competencies as well as positive human values supersedes all forms of trials and tribulations, should educators aspire in attaining educational excellence in both academic and non-curricular activities. In such aspiring schools, the challenges and tribulations in attaining the said status is the combined effort of leadership, commitment, competencies and support from all levels, i.e. Principals, staff, students and community to overcome challenges and aspire to attain excellence in academic and non-academic programs.

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Green Food Product Purchase Intention: Factors Influencing Malaysian Consumers

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ABSTRACT

The rising concerns for food safety and insecurity, coupled with environmental issues, push consumers to make ethical choices affecting their purchase behaviour. The demand trend for green food products is rising and fast-growing economies like Malaysia is not exempted. The green food products industry is in its infancy stage in Malaysia and stakeholders need consumer behavioural research to develop Malaysia's green food industry. Few contextual researches have been undertaken in Malaysia and therefore this study was conducted to determine the significance of the link between consumer behavioural factors and the intent to purchase green food products. An adapted extended Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) model was used in the study and the influence of Environmental Attitude (EA), Subjective Norm (SN), Perceived Behavioural Control (PBC), Environmental Knowledge (EK), Health Consciousness (HC) and Environmental concern (EC) on green product purchase intention was examined. A total of three hundred questionnaires were distributed in the Klang Valley and 284 usable responses received were used to examine the significance of relationships using multiple regression analysis. Findings indicated that EC, PBC, HC and SN had a significant relationship to Intent to Purchase (ITP) green food products. The factors that marketers should focus on are environmental concern, price, availability,

health benefits and initiatives to promote environmental knowledge and attitude that may influence the purchase intentions positively.

Keywords: Environment, green consumerism, green food products, Malaysia, purchase intention, theory of planned behaviour

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INTRODUCTION

Food safety and security issues are trending topics with consumers' increased consciousness on the ecological impact of their choices. The rising concern for the future generations, increase in knowledge, health consciousness and environmental well-being has contributed to the growing popularity of the green movement. Emergence of green consumer behaviour altered the significance of various deciding factors and the attitude of consumers towards the intent to purchase a product. Hence marketers of green food products have to understand the antecedents of green food products purchase intention, to formulate appropriate marketing strategies.

Green products are produced using eco-friendly technology causing no environmental danger with several characteristics comprising of originally grown, recyclable, reusable, biodegradable, containing natural ingredient that are non-toxic or even approved chemicals, are not animal tested and have eco-friendly packaging (Mishra & Sharma, 2010). On that note, green foods are a family comprising organic and non-organic foods products (Saleki & Sayedsaleki, 2012). The United States Department of Agriculture (USDA) defines organic as a product produced without sewer-sludge, synthetic fertilisers, pesticides, genetic engineering, hormones, irradiation and antibiotics (Lim et al., 2014) while non-organic foods allow to some extent the use of chemicals (Saleki & Sayedsaleki, 2012). Therefore, there is a fine demarcation between green

and organic food products in terms of how they are grown but they both consider the environmental welfare, health and safety.

The government and citizens of Malaysia, a fast developing economy in South East Asia, support the green concept and policies were implemented to promote consumption of ecological products with the legislation of the Environmental Quality Act in 1974 and the creation of the Ministry of Energy, Green Technology and Water in 2009 (Nezakati & Hoseinpour, 2015; Rezai et al., 2013; Sinnappan & Rahman, 2011). The establishment of AFFIRM framework (Awareness, Faculty, Finance, Infrastructure, Research, development and commercialisation, and Marketing) and schemes like the Good Agricultural Practice (GAP), The Malaysian Organic Scheme (SOM) and Malaysian Farm Accreditation (SALM) to commit to green agricultural practices (Rezai et al., 2013; Sinnappan & Rahman, 2011) shows the government's commitment in this area. Since 2001 significant progress were made from 131 to 1848 hectares of organic farm in 2015 (Somasundram et al., 2016; Song et al., 2016). Despite Malaysia's governmental effort, the rising demand for green food products forces the import of green food products (70%) causing variations in quality and price which ranges from 100 to 300 % compared to Europe (Song et al., 2016). The development of the green food industry in Malaysia is crucial and information regarding consumers' green food purchase intention is a much-needed necessity.

Green consumers possess ethical consumption and green consumerism principles who favour eco-products from businesses that operate in an eco-friendly manner (Mei et al., 2012). Although the area of organic food research is common, consumer behavioural studies on green food products are rare and should be given focus as new agricultural techniques are producing novel green products like Microgreen (Portilla, 2016; Robinson, 2017). Various authors who have undertaken research in the area opined that additional research is needed for researchers and stakeholders to comprehend what influences green purchase intent in Asian countries (Maichum et al., 2017; Sinnappan & Rahman, 2011). Contextually, in Malaysia, Goh and Wahid (2015) found that determinants linked to green purchase behaviours varied with geographical region and demographic profile. Hence, the goal of this research was to determine statistically the relevance of each consumers' behavioural elements (EA, SN, PBC, EK, HC and EC) to the intention of purchasing green food products, using an adaptive and extended approach to Ajzen's model of Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB).

Review of Literature

The 1960s and early 1970s marked the emergence of the 'green' concept (Mostafa, 2007) which later led to the conceptualisation of ecological marketing that focused on customers that used green products (Zakersalehi & Zakersalehi, 2012). Emergence of this concept challenged industries to meet customer needs, proper

manufacturing practices, product price and quality while ensuring environmental welfare (Zakersalehi & Zakersalehi, 2012). The continual environmental degradation affecting the food chain has caused the green movement to be more widespread among customers who were even ready to pay higher prices (Rezai et al., 2013). Thus, the rising environmental concern, health and safety lead to a higher demand of green food products from consumers (Schifferstein & Ophuis, 1998).

The term 'green' emerged after the initial workshop on ecological marketing in 1975 which later led to extensive research in environmental consumerism because of the increasing demand of eco-friendly products (Cherian & Jacob, 2012; Mishra & Sharma, 2010). Green marketing as defined by the American Marketing Association (2017) is abridged as the industrial effort to develop and market products with minimal negative consequences to the environment. Green products according to Mishra and Sharma (2010) simply means products produced using eco-friendly technology and holds characteristics such as to be grown untouched, reclaimable, perishable, contain natural ingredients (non-toxic or even approved chemicals), none animal tested and have eco-friendly packaging.

This study adopted TPB model for its ability to overcome the weakness of the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) model. The TPB model includes a non-volitional control aspect called perceived behavioural control, which was not considered in TRA model (Ajzen, 1991). The TPB model

centres around the link of an individual's behavioural intentions with attitudes, subjective norm and perceived behavioural control which is suitable in predicting eco-friendly products behaviours (Chen, 2007; Tarkiainen & Sundqvist, 2005). Several authors have demonstrated the strength of the factors of TPB model in predicting intention. Paul et al. (2016) showed that the model optimized the link between intention and its constructs to strengthen the prediction of green products purchase intent. Interestingly, the model proved its relevance, strength and validity in several fields such as green hotels, energy efficient and organic products (Yadav & Pathak, 2016b). Furthermore, the model could even be extended beyond the standard three factors by including domain specific factors to enhance the model's predictive power in green product studies by including environmental knowledge as a construct (Yadav & Pathak, 2016a, 2016b).

Attitude depicts the likes or dislikes of a consumer through an evaluation process that can be either positive or negative having a straight link to behavioural intentions (Maichum et al., 2017; Sentot et al., 2015; Yadav & Pathak, 2017). In the environmental context, attitude consists of features that is not instinctive but learned and is a collection of beliefs that a consumer holds towards environmental activities and issues (Mark & Law, 2015; Sentot et al., 2015). Goh and Wahid (2015), Mostafa (2009), and Wahid et al. (2011) reported that environmental attitude had an effect on green purchase and the inclination of consumers to pay

more for eco-products, but the results were inconclusive. The study conducted in Malaysian context by Wahid et al. (2011) showed an insignificant relationship between environmental attitude and green purchase behaviour. Thus, considering the above equivocal results, hypothesis 1 (H1) was developed: Environmental attitude positively influences intent to purchase "Green" food products.

Subjective norm is a state when someone communicate beliefs, values and thoughts to others and peer pressure arises when compliance to others is not met, affecting an individual's state of mind (Mei et al., 2012; Sinnappan & Rahman, 2011). In green context, such pressures compel individuals to be involved in different actions which has been proven to be linked to green purchase behaviours and intentions (Joshi & Rahman, 2015; Yadav & Pathak, 2017). A study conducted by Liobikiene et al. (2016) found that the influence of subjective norm varied in European countries, showing that different cross-cultural dimensions influenced green purchase behaviours. This need to be tested in Malaysian context and hence hypothesis 2 (H2): Subjective norm positively influences intent to purchase "Green" food products.

Perceived behavioural control is the extent an individual believes to have control over his/her behaviour and consists of external factors such as time, availability and recognition which is believed to influence purchase intention (Chen, 2007; Johe & Bhullar, 2016). It is the perceived ease or difficulty of performing the

behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). It may also include motivational and non-motivational factors such as resources (price), opportunities and facilitators (Paul et al., 2016). Malaysian studies have not tested the influence of PBC and hence hypothesis 3 (H3): Perceived behavioural control positively influences intent to purchase “Green” food products.

Environmental knowledge allows the understanding of the decision making and information searching process that impacts how much a consumer trust a product (Hossain & Lim, 2016). It is also the knowledge of facts and relationships that affect the environment, which may lead to environmental responsibility of an individual (Maichum et al., 2016). Studies show equivocal results about the linkage between environmental knowledge and green purchase behaviour (Joshi & Rahman, 2015) including studies conducted in Malaysian context (Mei et al., 2012; Wahid et al., 2011). Therefore, hypothesis 4 (H4): Environmental knowledge positively influences Intent to purchase “Green” food products.

Health consciousness is often a crucial parameter when it comes to food product purchases and food safety issues like pesticide content in food affects consumers purchasing decisions as they are concerned about their health and their family (Yadav & Pathak, 2016a). Since green food products are considered safer, healthier and more nutritious, health conscious consumers have a more confident outlook in consuming them, driving its demand up (Hassan et al., 2015; Jeger et al., 2014). Findings from

another study showed that health was a stronger motivator than environmental factors when it came to food products purchasing behaviour (Smith & Paladino, 2010). Therefore, hypothesis 5 (H5): Health consciousness positively influences Intent to purchase “Green” food products.

Environmental concern has three pillars: its emotional characteristics towards environmental issues, readiness to solve environmental problems and willingness to amass knowledge and awareness on ecological issues (Joshi & Rahman, 2015; Mark & Law, 2015; Thambiah et al., 2015). Research from around the world depicts how strong as a predictor is environmental concern (Hossain & Lim, 2016; Maichum et al., 2016; Yadav & Pathak, 2016b). Cherian and Jacob (2012) in their study found that environmental concern tended to be high in Asian countries. Hypothesis 6 (H6) tests this in Malaysian context: Environmental concern positively influences Intent to purchase “Green” food products.

Intention to purchase is an expected behavioural outcome and it includes either planned or unplanned purchase (Sentot et al., 2015). Also, other studies showed that along with the TPB framework, readiness to participate in a behaviour had a strong relationship to intent to purchase (Yadav & Pathak, 2016a, 2016b). Studies conducted in Malaysian context were mostly on general green purchase behaviour and were based on the TRA model. Furthermore, the relationship between PBC and green food product purchase intention using TPB model is yet to be explored and hence this

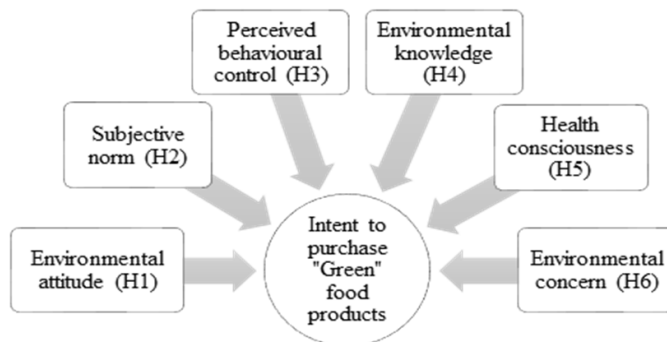


Figure 1. Conceptual model

study. Based on two models from Yadav and Pathak (2016a, 2016b), an adapted version of the TPB framework was made as shown in Figure 1.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The sampling design and statistical test performed in this study was based from Sinnappan and Rahman (2011) whereby a non-probability convenience sampling method was used. The target population was Klang Valley with a population of 7.2 million (World Population Review, 2017) that represented the diverse characteristics of the Malaysian population. Hence, the method adopted was more economical, faster and convenient (Zhen & Mansori, 2012) and helped to minimise constraints of time, budget and accessibility during the period of study. Data was collected in and around ten shopping malls spread throughout Klang Valley to improve the representativeness of the population, which most of the past studies lacked.

The questionnaires consisted of structured closed-ended questions with

items generated from existing literature using deductive approach. The source of the items is shown in Table 1. To measure the items, a 5-point Likert Scale (1- Strongly Disagree to 5- Strongly Agree) was used as a standard benchmark (Maichum et al., 2017). The unit of analysis for this study were Malaysians of 18 years old and above. According to Zhen and Mansori (2012), respondents with high education level (Diploma, Bachelor and Master level) were more inclined to purchase organic food that would benefit their health in terms of safety. Also, it was assumed that people below 18 years old might not be generally involved in household purchase decision.

A pilot test was conducted along with debriefing questions to rate the overall survey, to obtain feedbacks and to set time measurement criteria. The sample size was calculated using the formula proposed by Pallant (2016) and the formula from SurveyMonkey (2017) at 95% confidence level at 6% margin of error that resulted to 267. Thus, 300 surveys would be distributed and collected throughout Klang Valley. A

Table 1

Literature sources of item generation

Construct	Source
EA	Maichum et al. (2017); Sinnappan and Rahman (2011)
SN	Maichum et al. (2016); Sinnappan and Rahman (2011)
PBC	Maichum et al. (2016); Zhen and Mansori (2012)
EK	Yadav and Pathak (2016b)
HC	Hassan et al. (2015); Kai et al. (2013); Ueasangkomsate and Santiteerakul (2016)
EC	Maichum et al. (2016); Kai et al. (2013); Sinnappan and Rahman (2011); Yadav and Pathak (2016a)
ITP “Green” food products	Maichum et al. (2016, 2017); Ueasangkomsate and Santiteerakul (2016); Yazdanpanah and Forouzani (2015)

supervised self-completed survey approach was used to prevent biasness, clear out any ambiguity and to enhance response rate by prompting respondents for missing data. Following data collection, surveys were removed according to the survey criteria set. Data was entered and analysed using the IBM Statistical Package for the Social Sciences 24.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

From the 300 questionnaires collected, 16 surveys had to be removed for reasons such as: respondents completing the questionnaire below the minimum time requirement of 2 minutes, incomplete responses, responses by non-Malaysians and respondents who duplicated answers from their peers. Therefore 284 usable questionnaires were used for statistical analysis. Demographic analysis revealed that out of 284 respondents, 48.6% were males and 51.4% females. Race distribution showed that 55.99% were Malay, 22.89%

were Chinese, 19.01% were Indian and 2.11% were classified as Others. Household size showed that 47.5 % had one to three members, 45.8% had four to six, 5.6% had seven to nine and 1.1% had 10 and above members in the family. Age distribution shows that 42.6% were 18-25 years old, 34.5% were 26-35 years old, 13.4% were 36-45 years old and those above 46 years old constituted 9.6%. The salary distribution showed those below RM2000 were 27.8%, RM2001-RM4000 were 32.7%, RM4001-RM6000 were 18.7% and those earning above RM6001 were 20.9%. Education wise, 59.2% had a Bachelor degree followed by 24.3% with a diploma/certificate and 10.9% with a postgraduate degree. Also, 69.7% were employed, 16.9% were students and 1.8% unemployed.

The Cronbach’s alpha test performed on the variable produced satisfactory results as follows; EA (0.847), SN (0.834), PBC (0.593), EK (0.807), HC (0.845), EC (0.724) and ITP “Green” food products (0.883). Usually, Cronbach’s alpha values of 0.7

and above are considered acceptable but values below 0.7 may be accepted in some situations (Bryman & Bell, 2015; Field, 2009). Studies like Cleaveland et al. (2005) and Zhen and Mansori (2012) both used a construct below 0.7. According to Tavakol and Dennick (2011), the low number of items and the dimensionality may have contributed to the low Cronbach's alpha value which is true for the two mentioned cases.

Data collected need to be assumed as normal as according to Field (2009), the data must prove to be normally distributed to perform parametric tests. During normality testing, data cleaning was performed. Based on Pallant (2016) and Field (2009) normality results were satisfactory as Skewness and Kurtosis values were close to zero, a bell-shaped histogram curve for sample size larger than 200 and QQ plots near the diagonal line was obtained. In line with studies from Sinnappan and Rahman (2011) and Zhen and Mansori (2012), multiple regression analysis was then performed.

The variance inflation factor (VIF) values obtained from the multiple regression

analysis revealed that independent variables ranged from 1.609 to 1.787 while the tolerance values ranged from 0.560 to 0.621. Pearson correlation test revealed some relationship between the dependent and independent variables (above 0.3) while the link between the independent variables were not high (below 0.7). This proves the non-existence of multicollinearity (Pallant, 2016). Table 2 summarises the results of the multiple regression analysis.

The model summary revealed an R square value of 0.575. From the results in Table 2, EC, PBC, HC and SN have a p value of less than 0.05 which means they are uniquely contributing to predicting the dependent variable. Furthermore, their Beta values of 0.286, 0.270, 0.265 and 0.105 respectively make them the strongest contributors to explain the dependent variable. In such order, H6, H3, H5 and H2 hypotheses were supported. However, the Sig. value of Environmental attitude and Environmental knowledge are higher than 0.05 ($P > 0.05$) and as such, they are not uniquely contributing to predict the dependent variable.

Table 2

Multiple regression analysis results

Hypothesis	Variables	Standardised Coefficients Beta	Sig. value	Decision
H1	EA	0.067	0.181	Not supported
H2	SN	0.105	0.047	Supported
H3	PBC	0.270	0.000	Supported
H4	EK	0.042	0.424	Not supported
H5	HC	0.265	0.000	Supported
H6	EC	0.286	0.000	Supported

Environmental attitude and Environmental Knowledge had an insignificant relationship to Intent to purchase green food products. Cleaveland et al. (2005) opined that the complexity and multidimensionality of the EA construct could be a cause of such insignificant relationships. The EA construct was developed using items from works of Maichum et al. (2017) and Sinnappan and Rahman (2011), but the results contrasts with the findings of their studies. The reason could be attributed to the unidimensional nature of constructs used by them and the usage of items from multiple sources, for this study, might have consequently resulted in a multidimensional construct, having stability problems (Wright et al., 2012). Similarly, Wahid et al. (2011) segregated the EK construct into three constituent parts and obtained significant relationships to green purchase intention. Another reason could be the respondent criteria. The results contrasts with the study by Yadav and Pathak (2016b) albeit the same construct was used. The latter's study had skewed demographics; 18-25 years old (69.3%), bachelor's degree (63.8%) and male gender (59.8%). In contrast, this study used a more balanced and broader range of respondent criteria to enhance representativeness. These parameters might have influenced the outcome of this study. Nevertheless, Malaysian marketers must identify the constituent elements of EA and EK and leveraging these can have a positive impact on purchase intention.

Subjective norm has a significant relationship with the dependent variable and such results has been shown by several studies. Mei et al. (2012) showed the relationship of peer pressure to intent to purchase green products. Joshi and Rahman (2017) explained that sustainable purchase behaviour might be due to the extensive effect of subjective norm on young consumers highlighting "group effect". According to Paul et al. (2016), Ajzen (1991) identified subjective norm as the weakest link. This is true in this study as subjective norm is ranked 4th among the positive hypotheses.

Perceived behavioural control was found to be the second strongest link to green food purchase intention. This construct took into consideration price, availability and perceived control. Johe and Bhullar (2016) stated that perceived behavioural control might solely predict intentions, but it mostly depended on the motivation on the individual. Respondents were willing to pay for green food products which is in-line with the findings of Smith and Paladino (2010). The availability concept tallies with Hossain and Lim's (2016) study whereby ease of access may increase consumption. The results show that by making the products conveniently available, Malaysian marketers can increase green food purchase intention, even at a higher price.

Health consciousness had the third strongest link to green purchase intention. According to Smith and Paladino (2010) and Yadav and Pathak (2016a) consumers who

are more concerned about their health will have a better inclination towards purchasing healthy foods and egoistic motives made such construct to have significant relationship. In Klang Valley, Ahmad and Judhi (2010) found that consumers perceived organic food as healthier and more eco-environmentally. This highlights the importance of projecting green foods as a healthier choice, for marketing success.

Lastly, Environmental concern has a significant relationship to Intent to purchase "Green" food products correlating with studies such as Sinnappan and Rahman (2011) and Lee (2008) as being a top ranked predictor. Mark and Law (2015) stated that increase in environmental concern and attitude might enhance purchasing intent of eco-products and might even be an incentive to pay more for them. Interestingly, a study of Malaysian background from Thambiah et al. (2015) showed no statistically significant relationship which might be due to the sample frame chosen of only Y generation respondents. This substantiates the researcher's intention to restrict the respondents to those aged 18 and above. Marketers should join hands with the government and relevant non-governmental organisations to work towards enhancing environmental concern of the public which in turn increase the eco-friendly purchase intent. From a marketing perspective, the group effect highlighted by Joshi and Rahman (2017) could be a viable strategic direction for marketers. 77.1% of the respondents was from 18 to 35 years old. In line with the work of Smith and

Paladino (2010) and Hossain and Lim (2016), this age group might feel more motivated and disposed to look for and purchase eco-friendly products. Therefore, tailoring marketing communication to such age group to convey information about health benefits and availability of green food products can be a strategy to motivate them and may result in spill over effects. They may in turn encourage their family members on the health benefits of green food products as demographic statistics found that 47.5 % had 1-3 and 45.8% had 4-6 family members. The opportunity to marketers is that with the group effect and the education that youngsters possess, they may increase the societal knowledge and concern on environmental issues which may in turn promote a favourable intention towards green food purchase.

CONCLUSION

This study has contributed to the body of knowledge both academically and practically by addressing the research gaps in the green food industry of Malaysia. Academically, perceived behavioural control has been shown to have a significant relationship with intent to purchase 'Green' food products. This was not tested before as most studies used TRA model. Furthermore, environmental concern, health consciousness and subjective norm also had a significant relationship to green food purchase intention. Practically, marketers, may understand how to formulate their marketing strategies to approach the green food segment to increase intent to purchase.

The influential factors that marketer should focus on are environmental welfare, price, availability, health benefits and lastly a marketing message that may influence others in purchasing more green food products based on present results. To reinforce all aspect, business firms along with the government could work towards enhancing and promoting environmental attitude along with environmental knowledge which may eventually promote green purchase intent.

Limitations, Recommendations and Directions for Future Research

Limited resources and time at disposal led researchers to employ convenience sampling method and this might limit the generalisation of results to whole of Malaysia. Language was a barrier and non-English speaking people were not comfortable in taking part in the survey. Certain level of bias is expected as respondents could not be prevented from situations like asking for opinions of friends, which may have an impact on the originality of the answers. As a survey, respondents were only willing to answer if the survey was short or not time consuming which limits the number of items per construct. Recommendation for prospective studies would be the use of random probability sampling method for generalisation of results. Furthermore, multidimensional environmental constructs could be broken to a simpler unidimensional construct to determine the exactitude of factors having significant relationship to a dependent variable.

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The Impact of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour and Organisational Commitment on Organisational Learning in Hotels

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ABSTRACT

This paper explored the influence of organisational citizenship behaviour on the relationship between organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB), organisational commitment (OC) and organisational learning (OL) in hotels. The majority of studies conducted on this issue have thus far focused on the relationship between OCB and job satisfaction, and the results have been mixed. This study hypothesises that OC influences OCB and OL positively, and OCB influences OL positively. Using a quantitative research design, this study sampled 115 hotel staff in Tangerang Indonesia. A structured questionnaire was designed using a 5-point Likert scale. Data testing for reliability and validity was computed using SPSS software, and the data analysed using AMOS and interpreted based on SEM analysis. The result reveals that OL is not influenced by OC directly, but influenced by the OCB of an employee who has OC.

Keywords: Organisational citizenship behaviour, organisational commitment, organisational learning

INTRODUCTION

The tourism industry contributes significantly to the economic development of many countries (Amin & Akbar, 2013). In Indonesia, the number of international

visitors grew consistently, with only slight fluctuations between 2006 and 2009 (Ling & Jiahao, 2013). The number of hotels in Indonesia has increased rapidly due to growing tourist numbers (Amin & Akbar, 2013). As such, ensuring professional standards across and within hotels is critical to sustaining such demand. In this regard, it is crucial to optimise employee behaviour as they play important roles in delivering services to guests. This underscores the importance of organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) (Latonia, 2015). OCB is

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a major construct in the fields of psychology and management (Mohammad et al., 2011). OCB refers to the chosen behaviour by employees, spontaneously and of their own accord, that is not required or listed in an employee's job description (Podsakoff et al., 2009).

Within the ambit of organisational behaviour, organisational commitment (OC) is a crucial factor that contributes significantly to organisational efficiency (Rehan & Islam, 2013). Teamwork is crucial to organisational success, and researchers conclude that commitment levels are stable within-persons, and increase or decrease as a result of substantial organisational changes (Becker et al., 2013). Organisational commitment (OC), organisational trust (OT), and organisational identification (OI) are three forms of psychological attachment to an organisation. Each variable captures an organisation-targeted attitude toward an employment relationship (Ng, 2015). The importance of OC is simultaneously witnessed and empirically supported, with social support revealed as a significant determinant. A number of studies have examined the effect of culture on the development of employees' level of commitment to an organisation (Limpanitgul et al., 2014).

Optimal performance requires good organisational learning (OL) within the company. OL is a process of creation, acquisition and integration of knowledge aimed at employee development contributing to better organisational performance. It is among the most widespread and fastest

growing interventions in HRD practice that leads to organisational effectiveness (Hsu, 2009).

Studies of OCB show that there is a relationship between OCB and employee performance. Studies of OC also indicate that OC has the potential to boost employee performance. Similarly, studies of OL found that it leads to improved employee and organisational performance. Comparatively, few studies have been concerned with the influences of OCB and OC on the effect of OL, especially in Indonesia. To address this lacuna in the literature, this paper studies the influence of OCB and OC on the OL of employees in the hotel industry in Tangerang, Indonesia.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Organisational commitment (OC) is defined as the attitude of an employee toward his or her job (Aghaei et al., 2012). It is the emotional attachment of employees to the organisation (McShane & Glinow, 2010) and their level involvement with their organisation (Chang et al., 2013). OC improves customer satisfaction since long tenure employees have better knowledge of work practices and clients prefer to do business with the same employees. Different approaches have been used to describe the concept of commitment. One of the major models of organisational commitment conceptualises OC into three distinct dimensions: affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment (Chang et al., 2013). Affective commitment (AC) represents the individual's

feelings toward the employer, commitment and level of joy with membership to the organisation. Continuance commitment (CC) is the willingness of an employee to remain with an organisation because of the “non-transferable” investment they have in that organisation. Normative commitment (NC) is when employees feel obligated to remain with the current organisation. Organisational commitment, organisational trust and organisational identification are types of psychological attachment to an organisation (Ng, 2015). Some scholars found that commitment in relation with organisational citizenship behaviour, like continuance commitment, is affected by values and affects OCB (Liu & Cohen, 2010). Furthermore, role cognition refers to the obligation to perform OCB (Kim et al., 2013) where employees who feel engaged exhibit positive extra-role behaviour (Zhang et al., 2017).

Based on the above, and as shown at Figure 1, this research proposes the:

H1: Organisational commitment influences organisational citizenship behaviour.

Organisational learning (OL) is defined as the capability of the company to maintain, promote, and improve their performance (Chang et al., 2013). It is a process of acquiring knowledge and information which is then shared with members to adjust successfully to changing circumstances (Schermerhorn et al., 2011). Usefi et al. (2013) found that OL correlated with organisational performance. If a company

cannot achieve OL, their efficiency, effectiveness and overall performance will decrease resulting in a failure to achieve the goals of an organisation. According to Guta (2013), Huber divided OL into four elements in his study as information acquisition (IA) (the process of obtaining information and ideas). The most important information might be obtained from sources outside the company at the time of its founding. As the company grows, they obtain information internally through experience and systematic search (Schermerhorn et al., 2011). Information distribution (ID) is the distribution of knowledge and ideas from different sources leading to new information or understanding (Chang et al., 2013). Information interpretation (II) is the condition by which the distributed information and ideas are understood and correctly interpreted by all the organisation members. Information memory (IM) is the process of storing valuable information, knowledge and ideas for future use.

Some researchers find that OC has a mediating role in OL (Aragón et al., 2014; Hu, 2014; Husain et al., 2016). In line with this, it is also can be seen on Figure 1, we hypothesise:

H2: Organisational commitment influences organisational learning.

OCB is the behaviour chosen by the employee spontaneously and of their own accord that is not available and required in their formal job description (Podsakoff et al., 2009). In recent studies, OCB has been viewed widely as contributing to an

organisation's overall effectiveness (Chang et al., 2013). According to Robbins and Judge (2013), employees who have good citizenship behaviours will help others on their team, avoid unnecessary conflicts, volunteer for extra work, and respect the spirit as well as the letter of rules and regulations.

Four distinct elements make-up the concept of OCB. Altruism is the behaviour of an employee to help co-workers and being selfless toward the organisation (Rehan & Islam, 2013). Conscientiousness is the discretionary behaviour where employees exceed the basic requirements of the task and job in terms of obeying the work rules,

attendance, and job performance, even when no one is watching (Polat, 2009). Sportsmanship is employee tolerance toward less ideal work circumstances that may occur without complaining (Naqshbandi et al., 2016). Finally, civic virtue refers to behaviour where the employees are concerned with the image and life of the company (Kasa & Hassan, 2015).

Based on the literature review, it is also shown on Figure 1 the following hypothesis is proposed:

H3: Organisational citizenship behaviour influences organisational learning.

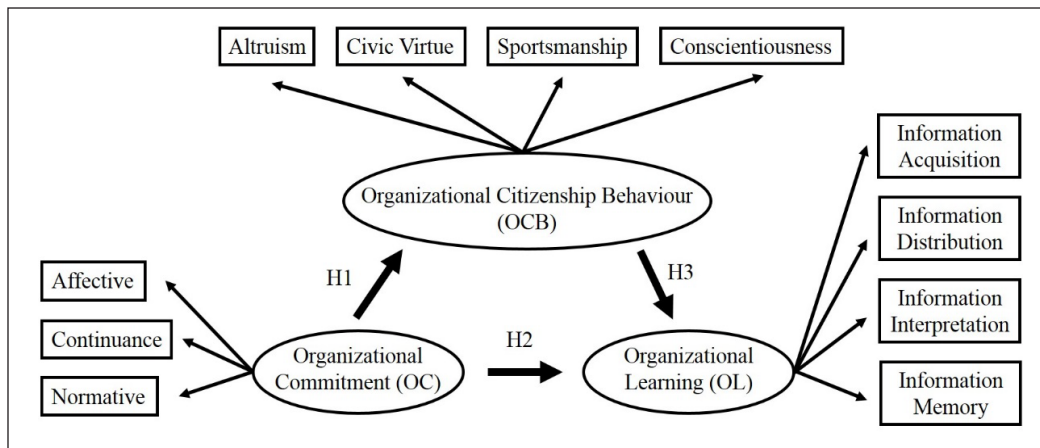


Figure 1. Research framework

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The study adopted a quantitative design. A survey was employed to test the hypotheses discussed in the previous section. A structured questionnaire was adopted from earlier studies, and each question item was set with a 5-point Likert scale from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5).

The questionnaires were divided into two parts. The first part focused on respondents' demographics such as professional role, gender and age. The second part comprised questions regarding the constructs proposed in the study. The items related to organisational commitment were adapted from Chang et al. (2013). The

measurements for organisational citizenship behaviour were adapted from Rehan and Islam (2013) while the measurements for organisation learning were adopted from Guta (2013) in Chang et al. (2013).

This study incorporated a descriptive study to provide information on the relationship and influence between the variables and indicators (Cooper & Schindler, 2011). Questionnaires were distributed to a sample of hotel employees to collect primary data. Secondary data was sourced from published information and journals. The target population was members of the Soll Marina Hotel Serpong in Tangerang and comprised 120 employees from staff to managerial level. Stratified sampling was used where the respondents were classified into sub-populations (Indriantoro & Supomo, 2013). In this case, the criteria or “strata” is the hotel department which is classified into five parts: front office, housekeeping, food and beverage, sales and marketing and other departments. Slovin’s formula was used to calculate the sample size, and the total number of employees is 120. With a 5 % desire margin of error, 93

respondents were needed out of 120. One hundred and twenty questionnaires were distributed to respondents. One hundred and seventeen questionnaires were returned, but only 115 were eligible for data analysis due to missing data.

Pre-testing and post-testing were conducted to test the reliability and validity of the instrument used in the questionnaire. The pre-testing was based on the result of 30 respondents, and the post-testing was based on the result of 115 respondents. Cronbach’s alpha was used to measure the reliability of the test where a value greater than 0.7 was considered reliable, and for validity test, the Keiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test was used where a value greater than 0.5 was considered valid (Budiman & Anantadjaya, 2014). As the result presented on Table 1, the value of reliability is above 0.7 and the value of validity are greater than 0.5, it can be concluded that the instruments are valid and reliable.

Descriptive Statistic

Table 2 shows the descriptive analysis of each variable and indicator in this research.

Table 1
Reliability and validity testing

			Pre-Test	Post-Test
Reliability	Cronbach’s Alpha	OCB	0.871	0.793
		Organisational Commitment	0.822	0.795
		Organisational Learning	0.946	0.883
Validity	KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy	OCB	0.639	0.818
		Organisational Commitment	0.573	0.740
		Organisational Learning	0.721	0.820

Source: Data Processing Result

Table 2
Descriptive statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
AL	115	1.60	5.00	3.8957	0.54248
CO	115	1.00	5.00	3.7348	0.59261
SP	115	2.00	5.00	4.1435	0.67948
CV	115	2.00	4.50	3.4391	0.48507
AC	115	1.60	5.00	3.8157	0.58348
CC	115	1.00	4.75	3.4848	0.59906
NC	115	1.00	4.50	3.5022	0.56048
IA	115	1.00	5.00	3.5739	0.75516
ID	115	1.00	5.00	3.7884	0.71373
II	115	2.00	5.00	3.8848	0.53526
IM	115	1.00	5.00	3.6674	0.57993
Valid N (listwise)	115				

Source: Data Processing Result

Goodness of Fit Model

Figure 2 is the SEM model result with regression values after the data was processed.

The goodness of fit analysis for the SEM model above can be seen in the Table 3.

The table shows that the SEM model meets the recommended standard values and has a good fit, meaning that the SEM model fits the sample data.

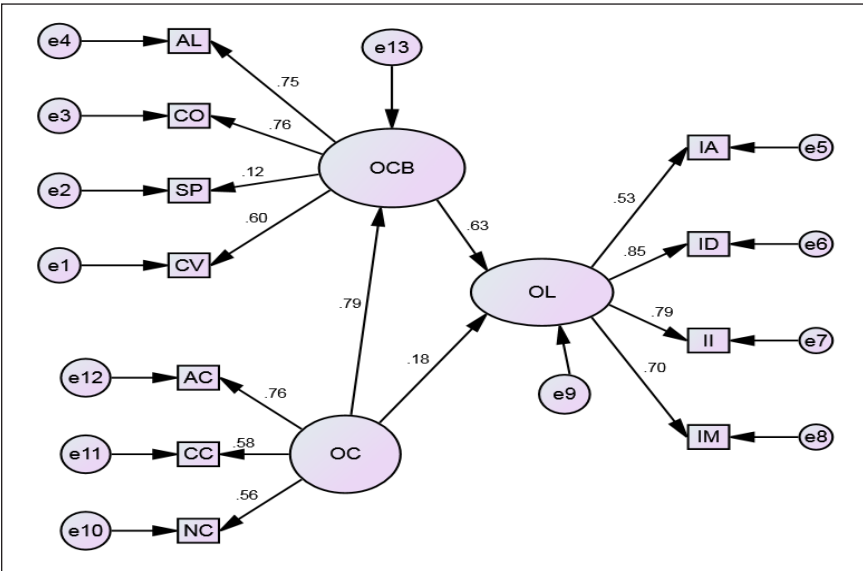


Figure 2. Structural equation model (Source: Data Processing Result)

Table 3
Goodness of fit analysis

Fit Index	Recommended Standard Values	Value	Evaluation
X ²	As low as possible	56.338	Good Fit
p – value	p – value ≥ 0.05 = better	0.056	Good Fit
CMIN/df	CMIN/df ≤ 2.00 = better	1.374	Good Fit
RMSEA	RMSEA ≤ 0.08 = better	0.057	Good Fit
GFI	GFI value closer to 1 = better	0.924	Good Fit
AGFI	AGFI value closer to 1 = better	0.877	Good Fit
TLI	TLI value closer to 1 = better	0.948	Good Fit
CFI	CFI value closer to 1 = better	0.961	Good Fit

Source: Data Processing Result

Standardized Regression Weight Analysis

Table 4
Standardized regression weights

			Estimate
OCB	<---	OC	0.793
OL	<---	OCB	0.630
OL	<---	OC	0.176
CV	<---	OCB	0.600
SP	<---	OCB	0.119
CO	<---	OCB	0.760
AL	<---	OCB	0.746
IA	<---	OL	0.530
ID	<---	OL	0.849
II	<---	OL	0.788
IM	<---	OL	0.700
NC	<---	OC	0.563
CC	<---	OC	0.582
AC	<---	OC	0.760

Source: Data Processing Result

The estimated value in the Table 4 above is rounded as shown in the SEM model in Figure 2. Each variable and indicator has a positive relationship with almost everything above 0.5. Only SP is below 5 indicating that the relationship between OC and OL is weak.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Sixty-six percent of the respondents are male, and 34 are female. Forty-five percent are 20-30 years old, and 55% are aged from 30 to 60 years. As for the level of respondents, 12% are from the managerial level, 20% supervisory level, and 68% are rank and file staff.

Table 5 provides the data required to determine the level of influence within the model. If its p-value is under 0.05 (<0.05), it

Table 5
Regression weights

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
OCB	<---	OC	0.732	0.178	4.108	***	
OL	<---	OCB	0.866	0.347	2.496	0.013	
OL	<---	OC	0.223	0.283	0.788	0.431	
CV	<---	OCB	1.000				

Table 5 (*continue*)

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
SP	<---	OCB	0.278	0.242	1.150	0.250	
CO	<---	OCB	1.547	0.264	5.855	***	
AL	<---	OCB	1.390	0.240	5.799	***	
IA	<---	OL	1.000				
ID	<---	OL	1.513	0.269	5.632	***	
II	<---	OL	1.053	0.192	5.478	***	
IM	<---	OL	1.014	0.196	5.166	***	
NC	<---	OC	1.000				
CC	<---	OC	1.105	0.248	4.459	***	
AC	<---	OC	1.406	0.278	5.051	***	

Source: Data Processing Result

means that there is a significant influence in the relationship (Wijaya & Mustafa, 2012). A value of *** as seen in the table means that the value is less than 0.01 and extremely

small, which is better than the standard value of 0.05. Table 6 presents the hypothesis testing based on regression weights:

Table 6
Hypotheses testing

	Measurement	Criteria Value	P-value	Conclusion
H1	Organisational Commitment to OCB	H ₁₋₀ : OC does not influence OCB H ₁₋₁ : OC influence OCB	***	H ₁₋₁ is accepted
H2	Organisational Commitment to OL	H ₂₋₀ : OC does not influence OL H ₂₋₁ : OC influence OL	0.431	H ₂₋₀ is accepted
H3	OCB to OL	H ₃₋₀ : OCB does not influence OL H ₃₋₁ : OCB influence OL	0.013	H ₃₋₁ is accepted

Source: Data Processing Result

The full version of the three hypotheses is as follows:

H1 = Organisational commitment significantly influence OCB. The higher the OC will also make the OCB higher and vice versa.

H2 = Organisational commitment does not significantly influence organisational learning.

H3 = OCB significantly influences organisational learning. The higher the OCB, the higher the OL and vice versa.

After the regression value is known and hypotheses tested, the research questions can be answered.

Table 7
Hypotheses result

	Measurement	Standardized Estimate	p-value	Result
H1	Organisational Commitment to OCB	0.793	***	H ₁₋₁ is accepted
H2	Organisational Commitment to OL	0.176	0.431	H ₂₋₀ is accepted
H3	OCB to OL	0.630	0.013	H ₃₋₁ is accepted

Source: Data Processing Result

Hypothesis #1. Question 1: Does organisational commitment influence OCB? From the summary of the results above, as can be seen on Table 7, the first hypothesis testing reveals that employees' OC has a positive and significant influence on OCB because the standardized estimate value is positive (0.793) and its p-value is ***. Hypothesis 1 is accepted.

Hypothesis #2. Question 2: Does Organisational Commitment influence OL? The second hypothesis testing result reveals that there is a positive correlation between OC and OL at 18%, it is also shown on Table 7. However, the p-value is 0.431, and since it is below 0.05, therefore OC does not significantly influence OL.

Hypothesis #3. Question 3: Does OCB influence OL? The third hypothesis testing result reveals that employees' OCB has a positive and significant influence on OL because the standardised estimate value is positive (0.630) and its p-value is 0.013. It can be concluded that hypothesis 3 is accepted as it shown on Table 7

Based on the results above, it is confirmed that OC influences OCB. Liu and Cohen (2010) found that the continuance commitment of an employee is affected by value and OCB. Extraverted people are found to be more pleasurable to work with

(Zafar et al., 2015), and commitment will correlate positively with OCB (Organ & Ryan, 1995). To add theoretical support to this finding, Kim et al. (2013) found that role cognition increased the sense of obligation (commitment) to perform OCB. In addition, Zhang et al. (2017) found that employees who felt engaged exhibit positive extra role behaviour. Ng (2015) found that fostering organisational commitment included organisational trust and organisational identification as types of psychological attachment to an organisation. OCB forms a part of psychological attachment that employees have to their organisation.

We found that OC does not significantly influence the OL since the p-value is below 5. Other researchers found that OL is influenced by factors others than OC such as transformational leadership (Shao et al., 2017), knowledge creation, innovation and OL (Lyles, 2014), and measurement of OL (Lloria & Luzon, 2014). Some researchers found that OL is a mediating variable (Aragón et al., 2014; Hu, 2014; Husain et al., 2016). Furthermore, even though OC does not significantly influence OL, there is a strong argument that OC is related to OL as mentioned by Aghaei et al. (2012).

The result also shows that OCB influences OL. In order to survive, an

organisation needs to sustain which requires periodic learning. Sustainability is a major challenge for organisations (Merad et al., 2014). Organisations require a strategy to secure a competitive advantage. Having a certain personality like OCB from hotel employees is a requirement if organisations want to compete. The OCB staff will enhance organisational learning since one of the attributes of OCB is a civic virtue which is when an employee is concerned with the image and life of the company.

The results highlight how OCB influences OL, and how OC influences OCB. However, the result must be taken with caution since the respondents are limited to one hotel. The results could be different with different samples.

CONCLUSION

OC influences OCB positively, and OCB positively influences OL. However, OC does not significantly influence OL. In other words, employees who have a high commitment to their job and employer will exemplify positive OCB because they are committed and ready to give their best to the organisation. This is sometimes also called “going the extra mile”. When employees have good OCB, they are more likely to undergo OL since their OCB is positively influenced by OC. When the employees are loyal to their organisation, they show greater commitment to helping implement the organisation’s strategies.

There are two limitations of this research. First, the sample size is small, which means the results might be unable

to be generalised. A larger sample could be used to for more generalisable results. Second, the study was conducted in a single hotel in Tangerang. Further studies with more analytical measures are recommended, including comparing one hotel to another, to confirm the influence of OL on OCB and influence of OCB on OL.

This study has both theoretical and practical implications. The contribution to theory is that the study offers empirical evidence of the relationship between OC, OCB and OL. The practical implication concerns hotel managers. Applying OC, OCB and OL as human resources strategy within an organisation’s strategy could help the organisation secure a competitive advantage.

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Estimating Farmers' Willingness to Pay for Stress Tolerant Maize (STM) in Nigeria: A Heckman Model Approach

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ABSTRACT

Maize constitutes an important source of calories and plays a crucial role in the livelihoods of most Africans. However, maize productivity in the continent remains low relative to other regions of the world. To improve the productivity of maize in the continent, the International Maize and Wheat Improvement Center (CIMMYT), launched the Stress Tolerant Maize for Africa (STMA) project in 2016. Employing a combination of the contingent valuation methodology and Heckman's two-step model, farmers' willingness to pay (WTP) for the STM and levels of payment was analysed. The factors influencing farmers' WTP and their levels of payment was also investigated. Data from 165 randomly sampled maize-based farming households was analysed to achieve the study objectives. Results of the study showed that about 75% of the farmers were willing to pay for the STM varieties with

an average price of N261.52/kg (\$US0.8/kg). Farm income, years of experience in farming, membership of social group and price of other maize seeds were found to be statistically significant factors influencing farmers' WTP. The payment level was found to be influenced by farm size, level of education of the household head and access to credit. Based on the results of the study, it is recommended that governments and other stakeholders in the development

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sector should encourage credit institutions to grant farmers access to credit to enable them to invest on improved technologies such as the STM in order to raise their productivity.

Keywords: Contingency valuation method (CVM), Heckman model, maize, willingness to pay (WTP)

INTRODUCTION

Maize is a strategic crop in Africa, grown in 48 of the 49 countries in sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) for food security and daily livelihood (Abate et al., 2017). It occupies the largest area of all major staples (maize, millet, sorghum, cassava, cowpea, rice, beans, groundnut, yams, and barley) occupying about 36 million ha of land (Abate et al., 2017). Thanks to laudable projects such as Improved Maize for African Soils (IMAS) and the drought-tolerant maize for Africa (DTMA) implemented by the International Maize and Wheat Improvement Center (CIMMYT) and the International Institute of Tropical Agriculture (IITA), the productivity of maize in SSA has experienced an increasing trend in recent years (Abate et al., 2017; Ayinde et al., 2013). In spite of this progress however, the average performance of maize in SSA is the lowest among all world regions and has failed to reach its full potential achievable with improved seed varieties and better agronomic management practices. In fact, there has been a decline in per capita maize production by about 10 % since 1970 (Minot, 2008).

Of the major maize growing countries in Africa, Nigeria occupies a pivotal position

as the largest producer in West Africa and fifteenth in the world producing about 12 % of total maize grown in Africa coming only behind South Africa (Daly et al., 2016). Maize is widely grown across all regions of the country mostly by small holder farmers cultivating between 1 and 1.5 hectares (Abate et al., 2014; Liverpool-Tasie et al., 2017). Maize constitutes a major calories source and plays a crucial role in the livelihoods of the majority of Nigerian rural and urban population (Ayinde et al., 2010; Iken et al., 2002; Liverpool-Tasie et al., 2017). Just like other African countries however, maize productivity is still below its full potential in Nigeria with food insecurity and poverty dominating in the maize based agricultural production households in the country. The supply of maize has not kept pace with demand and the country remains a net importer of the grain (Abate et al., 2014, Ammani, 2015). Though there has been increase in maize production over the years especially in the last decade, more of the increase has come from growth in area of land cultivated rather than increased productivity. For example, while the national average growth rate in area of maize planted and production between 1994 and 2012 was about 3.8 and 4.7% respectively the rate of productivity growth was less than 0.5 % over the same period (Ammani, 2015). With the Nigeria population projected to surpass the 300 million people mark by 2050 (United Nations, 2017), the current level of productivity growth is totally inadequate. In addition to being threatened by climate change and deteriorating environmental

conditions, such as flood, droughts, insect pests, diseases, poor soil fertility among others, low level of awareness and use of improved seed varieties, lack of good management practices as well as institutional and policy issues, including research capacity, level of input use and access to financial resources have been identified as the major constraint to improved maize productivity in Nigeria (Abate et al., 2014; Food and Agricultural Organisation [FAO], 2017; Liverpool-Tasie et al., 2017). Increased agricultural productivity and resource use efficiency are identified as principal instruments for stimulating economic growth, increasing food security and alleviating poverty of resource-poor farm families in Nigeria (Bamire, 2007; Mozumdar, 2012; Thirtle et al., 2003; Prabha & Chatterjee, 2010).

Studies have shown that the adoption of improved maize varieties combined with better management techniques can minimize losses from maize yield by about 40% (Hendrix & Glaser, 2007). To contribute to increased maize production and productivity such that farmers are provided with the opportunity of overcoming the challenges of maize production and improving their livelihood the Stress Tolerant Maize for Africa (STMA) project was launched in 2016 by the International Maize and Wheat Improvement Center (CIMMYT) and its partners. The project is aimed at the developing and disseminating improved multiple stress tolerant maize varieties. With a low level of adoption of improved maize varieties in the past especially in West

Africa where adoption rate is only 36%, the success of the project will to a large extent depend on farmers' willingness to pay for the improved maize varieties and their conviction of the value they add. The low adoption rate is connected to the fact that most maize farmers do not purchase improved maize varieties for a plethora of reasons ranging from economic to cultural reasons.

The objective of this study is to evaluate the level of awareness of the STM varieties, analyse farmers' willingness to pay for the STM varieties and determine factors influencing farmers' willingness to pay for the STM varieties in Kwara state, Nigeria. Analysing farmers' awareness of the new technology and the relative prices farmers are willingness to pay will serve as a vital contribution to the enhancement of the maize sector by presenting some important policy suggestions based on empirical findings. It will also contribute to future research and development initiatives especially in terms of helping authorities to make informed decisions. This is particularly vital given that the percentage of farmers employing purchased inputs such as improved maize varieties in Nigeria is low (Ajeigbe et al., 2009; Liverpool-Tasie et al., 2017). For example, Jayne et al. (2003), found that the size of the maize market was constrained by high costs of adopting improved technology relative to farmers' willingness to pay (WTP) for maize. This is because a lot of the resource-poor farmers are influenced by their behavioural and institutional characteristics (Wale & Yalew, 2007). Farmers' awareness

and willingness to pay for improved maize varieties is a prerequisite to increasing maize productivity. There is need to make farmers to be aware of the high yielding maize varieties that are resistant to pests and diseases and are able to withstand stress such a drought and other climatic condition.

Studies on WTP for improved agricultural technology in Africa are few. For example, Kassie et al. (2017) analysed farmers' preferences and WTP for maize traits (drought tolerance) employing the choice experiment approach. They found from their analyses that maize farmers were WTP a premium for the drought tolerant trait in maize relative to other traits. Asrat et al. (2004) examined the factors influencing farmers' WTP for soil conservation practices in Ethiopia's southeastern highlands. In their study, they found that farmers were happy to spend more time and employ more labour for soil conservation practices rather than paying cash. Ulimwengu and Sanyal (2011) analysed farmers' WTP for a variety of agricultural services in Central Africa using a multivariate probit approach. They showed from their results that land ownership and farmers' income significantly influenced WTP for agricultural services. Asrat et al. (2010) analysed farmers' preferences for different crop varieties in Ethiopia and the factors influencing their preferences employing a choice experiment approach. The results of their analyses showed that environmental adaptability, household resource endowments yielded stability, access to extension services, and farming experience and were the major

factors influencing farmers' preferences for improved seed varieties. This study is the first to access farmers' awareness of the STM varieties and their willingness to pay for it in Nigeria using a combination of the contingency valuation methodology and the Heckman model. In actual sense, the STM variety was introduced in 2016, and its success will depend on farmers' willingness to adopt and pay for it.

The remaining part of this paper is structured into five sections: Section 2 discusses the tress Tolerant Maize for Africa (STMA) project. The description of the database and methodology for the study is presented in section 3 while section 4 presents the empirical results and gives an interpretation of the main results obtained in the light of economic theory while section 5 gives an overview of the paper's conclusion and provide important policy implications.

Stress Tolerance Maize for Africa (STMA)

Building on previous projects such as the "Drought Tolerant Maize for Africa" (DTMA) and the "Improved Maize for Africa Soils project" (IMAS), the Stress Tolerant Maize for Africa (STMA) project was launched by the International Maize and Wheat Improvement Center (CIMMYT) and its partners. The project is undertaken working together with the national agricultural research institutions of participating countries. It is a four-year project (2016 -2019) funded by the Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation and the United States Agency for International

Development (USAID) in twelve Sub-Saharan Africa countries; Nigeria, Benin, Ghana, Ethiopia, Kenya, Malawi, Mali, Uganda, South Africa, Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe. These countries constitute about 72% of the total maize area in sub-Saharan Africa covering more than 26 million households, or well over 176 million people whose livelihoods depends to a large extent on maize-based agricultural production. The project also promotes the adoption and commercialization of multiple-stress-tolerant maize varieties and hybrids and its successful adoption is expected to increase maize productivity by 30 to 50% and improving the competitiveness of the maize sub-sector thereby alleviating poverty and improving food security of resource-poor farm families in sub-Saharan Africa (SSA).

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The data for this study was obtained through a painstaking data collection process and analysed using descriptive statistics and Econometric model. Descriptive statistics was employed to analyse the socio-economic and demographic characteristics of maize farmers and the level of farmer's awareness of STM varieties in the study area. The Contingent valuation method (CVM) was used to determine how much farmers were willing to pay for STM varieties in the study area, while the Heckman regression model was employed to analyse the factors influencing the farmers' WTP for STM varieties and the amount farmers were willing to pay for it.

Study Area

The study was conducted in Kwara State, Nigeria. The state is one of the 36 states in Nigeria and has a predominantly farming population constituting about 70% of the 2.4 million total population with the majority living in rural areas (Adenuga et al., 2013). The state has an estimated land area of about 32,500km² out of which 75.3% is cultivable. The state experiences both the wet and dry seasons each lasting for about six months providing a conducive environment for growing different categories of crops (Adenuga et al., 2013; Ajadi, et al., 2011). Maize is one of the most important crops grown in the region and along with other cereals constitute the main staple food (Olanrewaju, 2009). The crop is usually grown twice a year however its productivity has been hampered by climate change. The state is divided into four main agricultural development zones based on cultural practices and ecological characteristics by the Kwara state Agricultural Development project (KWADP), namely: Zone A: Baruteen & Kaima; Zone B: Edu and Patigi; Zone C: Asa, Ilorin East, Ilorin South, Ilorin West & Moro; and Zone D: Ekiti, Ifelodun, Irepodun, Isin, Offa, Oke-Ero & Oyun (Kwara State Agricultural Development Project [KWADP], 2006).

Sampling Techniques

A four-stage sampling technique was adopted for this study. The sampling of the maize-based rural households began with the purposive selection of two of the agro-ecological zones (zones C and D)

where maize was widely grown and played an important role in food security. This was then followed by a random selection of two local government areas from zone C and three local government from zone D proportionate to the size of each of the zones. Three villages were selected from each of the selected local government area resulting in a total of 15 villages, after which we randomly selected 11 farming households from each of the villages. In each case the sampling frame was the list of maize based farming households in the village. In all, 165 farming households were randomly sampled from each village household list. Relevant data was collected with the aid of questionnaire. A pilot survey was carried out across the study area and with different kinds of maize farmers included in the population to test the design of the survey and validate the questions.

The Contingent Valuation Method (CVM)

The “contingent valuation method (CVM) is a stated preference method which involve the hypothetical choices in an administered and well-designed sample survey, based on the direct elicitation of individual’s preference (Arrow et al., 1993)”. Willingness to pay usually refers to the maximum amount of money a consumer is ready to commit towards a purchase of a product or service and is therefore a reflection of consumers demand for the product/service (Kalish & Nelson, 1991). CVM has been widely used in WTP studies given its many advantages. It is flexible and relatively easy to implement

compared to other methods (Misra et al., 1991; Tao et al., 2012). Though some researchers have suggested the methodology might be a poor indicator of actual WTP because of its hypothetical nature (Carson et al., 2001). Nevertheless, it is supported by most experts in the field, and more careful WTP estimates are encouraged because of this (Sattout et al., 2007). To guarantee the collection of accurate and limit bias especially with respect to farmers’ response, an open-ended WTP questionnaire which ensures that the farmers are not constrained by defined values was used. Missing responses were minimized by proper explanations of the questions making use of face-to-face interviews. Also, WTP for the STM varieties was estimated based on the expression in equation (1).

$$E = WTP = \sum_{i=1}^N \beta_i P_{ri} \quad (1)$$

The equation (1) expression is the weighted mean of the WTP in different payment level according to the distribution of WTP frequency. Where E is the amount farmer i is willing to pay, $P_{ri} = \frac{n_i}{N}$ is the probability that farmer I will pay that amount, with n_i being the number of farmers whose WTP is β_i and N is the total number of observations or the sample size of farmers whose WTP is positive. Recent studies that has applied similar methodology include Kong et al. (2014), Gebremariam et al. (2013) and Xiu et al. (2012).

Heckman’s Two-step Model

Different studies have analysed factors

influencing consumers' willingness to pay for improved technology using mainly Logit, Tobit and multiple regression models. For example, Babatunde et al. (2016), Jiang and Wen (2011), Poudel and Johnsen (2009) and Ulimwengu and Sanyal (2011). However, the above models are subject to the problem of selection bias (Kong et al., 2014). They are also not able to simultaneously analyse the determinants of WTP and the payment levels. The Heckman's two-step model is able to overcome these shortcomings of other models including the prevention of selection bias (Bett et al., 2013; Briggs, 2004; Kim & Jang, 2010) only very few studies (Kong et al., 2014), have combined the CVM and the Heckman's two-step model to analyse the determinants of WTP and levels of payments. The model is more efficient and provides more information than other models. It provides information on the respondent's decision on whether to pay, together with the level of payments. The model is made up of two steps: First is the modelling of the respondent's decision on whether to pay or not. The amount the respondent is WTP is modelled in the second step. The probit model is first employed to test the factors influencing WTP after which multiple linear regression model is employed to analyse the determinants of the payment levels. The models are expressed as given in equations (2) and (3) respectively:

Where Y is the probability of the maize farmers' WTP for STM maize varieties (1 if Yes or 0 if No). $\alpha_0, \alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n$ are the parameters to be estimated, X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n are the explanatory variables hypothesized

to influence WTP for the STM varieties and μ is the error term.

$$Z = \delta_0 + \delta_1 X_1 + \delta_2 X_2 + \dots + \delta_n X_n + \lambda Y + \phi \quad (3)$$

Z in equation (3) is the dependent variable, in the second stage of the Heckman model used to analyse the determinants of levels of payments for the STM varieties while $\delta_0, \delta_1, \delta_2, \dots, \delta_n$ and λ are the parameters to be estimated. Y is the Mills ratio added to overcome the selection bias (Kong et al., 2014). In this paper as recommended by (Johnson et al., 2012). X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n are the explanatory variables hypothesized to influence the payment levels while Φ is the error term. Based on review of literature, the following variables were hypothesized to influence WTP for STM varieties and the amount they are willing to pay. They include: age of the household head measured in years (X_1), farm size measured in hectares (X_2), household size (X_3) level of education of the household head measured by years of schooling (X_4), access to extension service measured by number of visits (X_5), income from farming measured in Naira (X_6), experience in maize farming measured in years (X_7), Access to credit measured as a dummy variable (X_8), membership of social group measured as a dummy variable (X_9), price of other maize seeds measured in Naira (X_{10}). The hypotheses to be tested with these variables are, on the one hand, that farmers WTP for STM varieties increases with younger farmers (age), farmers that have large household size, or possess higher level of awareness (level of education access

to extension services and membership of social group), are more involved in farming activities (percentage of income derived from farming) or their technical skills are higher (level of experience) (Asrat et al., 2004; Faye & Deininger, 2005; Holden & Shiferaw, 2002). On the other hand, the hypothesis that farmers WTP for STM varieties increases with larger farm size or when farmers have better access to credit financing was also tested.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This section deals with the empirical findings and discussion of the results obtained from descriptive and econometric analysis. A summary of the socioeconomic characteristics of the respondents is given in Table 1.

84.8% of the maize farming households are male-headed and. 82.4% are married.

About 65.5% of the farmers are within the range of 30-49 years with a mean age of 47 years. The average household size of the respondents was about 6 persons per household. About 80% of the farmers had one form of formal education or the other. The mean annual farm income of the respondents was ₦121, 515.15 (\$US1 = ₦325). This amount is less than the official annual minimum wage in the country. Also, the mean farming experience of the farmers was 18.27 years. This implies that a lot of the maize farmers are highly experienced. About 54.5% indicated that they have not been visited by an extension agent in the last one year. This reflects the low extension worker to farmer ratio in the study area. The results also showed that only about 21.8% of the respondents have access to credit.

Table 1

Summary statistics of variables used in the analysis

Characteristics	Frequency	Percentage
Gender		
Male	140	84.8
Female	25	15.2
Total	165	100
Marital status		
Married	136	82.4
Single	10	6.1
Widow	18	10.9
Separated	1	0.6
Total	165	100
Education		
Tertiary	42	25.5
Secondary	46	27.9

Table 1 (*Continued*)

Characteristics	Frequency	Percentage
Education		
Primary	39	23.6
Adult	5	3
No formal	33	20
Total	165	100
Age in years		
20-29	18	10.9
30-39	59	35.8
40-49	49	29.7
50-59	30	18.2
>60	9	5.5
Total	165	100
Household size		
1-3	1	0.6
4-6	51	30.9
7-9	95	57.6
10-12	18	10.9
Total	165	100
Times visited by extension workers		
Nil	90	54.5
Once	49	29.7
Twice	25	15
More than twice	1	0.6
Total	165	100
Annual farm income in Naira		
50,000-100,000	16	9.70%
101,000-150,000	35	21.2
151,000-200,000	30	18.2
201,000-250,000	40	24.2
251,000-300,000	44	26.7
Total	165	100
Distribution with respect to access to credit		
Access to credit	36	21.8
No access to credit	129	78.2
Total	165	100

Awareness of STM Varieties

As shown in Table 2, the level of awareness of the STM varieties is relatively low with only about 33.9% of the respondents being aware of it.

Almost half (46.5%) of those that were aware of the STM varieties got their information from friends and relatives. This is an indication that a lot more still need to be done especially through extension agents given that only 21% of the interviewed respondents claimed they got their information from extension agents. In terms of sources of seed, majority of the maize farmers (about 48%) got their seeds

from the reservation of previous season. Only about 30% claimed they bought their seeds from the local market and about 8% from agricultural shops.

Analysis of Willingness to Pay

The analysis of WTP based on equation (1) shows that the farmers were willing to pay ₦261.52 (\$US1 = ₦325) per kg of STM varieties. The maximum amount the farmers were willing to pay was ₦ 400 per kg of STM varieties. This result is an indication that the farmers are prepared to pay a reasonable amount for the STM varieties to raise their productivity.

Table 2
According to awareness of STM varieties

Awareness of STM varieties	Frequency	Percentage
Aware	56	33.9
Not aware	109	66.1
Total	165	100
Source of information		
Extension agent	12	21.4
Agricultural shows	7	12.50
Friends/relatives	26	46.5
Agro-dealers	11	19.6
Total	56	100
Sources of Seeds		
Reserve from last season	79	47.9
Relatives and other farmers	12	7.3
Local market	50	30.3
Agricultural development project	11	6.7
Agric shops	13	7.9
Total	165	100

Factors Affecting Farmers Willingness to Pay for STM Varieties

The parameters of the Heckman regression model were estimated using Stata statistical package and the results are presented in Table 3 and Table 4. The Chi-square statistic significant at 1% shows that the model gave a good fit for the analysis. The result shows that farm income (X_6), experience (X_7), membership of social group (X_9), and price

of other seeds (X_{10}) are the significant factors influencing farmers' willingness to pay for STM varieties. Variables in the second stage of the analysis has been included based on information obtained from literature regarding the factors influencing the amount farmers are willing to pay for improved technologies (Ajayi, 2006; Kassie et al., 2017).

Table 3

First-stage probit analysis

Variables	Coefficients	Std. Err.	Z	P> z
X_1	0.106	0.174	0.610	0.544
X_2	-0.194	0.129	-1.49	0.135
X_3	-0.074	0.248	-0.30	0.765
X_4	-0.049	0.102	-0.48	0.634
X_5	0.339	0.557	0.61	0.542
X_6	-0.276***	0.100	-2.76	0.006
X_7	0.475***	0.167	2.85	0.004
X_8	0.216	0.367	0.59	0.556
X_9	0.589**	0.290	2.03	0.042
X_{10}	-0.876***	0.262	-3.34	0.001
Constant	1.159	0.997	1.16	0.245

Table 4

Second-stage multiple linear regression analysis

Variables	Coefficients	Std. Err.	Z	P> z
X_{10}	4.591	5.062	0.91	0.364
X_2	10.956**	4.681	2.34	0.019
X_4	8.906***	3.264	2.73	0.006
X_6	3.495	3.644	0.96	0.338
X_8	18.833**	11.306	1.67	0.096
Constant	341.864***	20.517	16.66	0.000

Note: Number of observations =165; Log likelihood = -716.968. Wald chi2 (7) =23.34 Prob > chi2 =0.0015. ***, ** and * are significant at 1%, 5% and 10%, respectively

Membership of social group is significant at 5% and positively affect farmers' willingness to pay for STM varieties. This implies that farmers that are members of social group are more likely to pay for STM varieties compares to farmers that are not members. This may be because those who belong to social group have access to information on new agricultural technologies such as improved seed varieties that can help them improve production compared to those that does not belong to any social group. One would expect farmers with high farm income to be willing to pay for STMA varieties more readily than their low-income colleagues. However, the result of this study gave a reverse trend. This could result from the fact that those who earn high income from their farm operations are likely engage in other businesses apart from farming that they invest their farm income in. This may explain the negative significance of farm income in relation to ability of the farmers to pay STM varieties. Another reason could be that, given that they are earning much already from their farming, they may not see any reason to change their current production technique compared to farmers with low income who will be more enthused to change their production techniques so as to increase their income stream. Experience in farming is found to affect farmer's willingness to pay positively at 10% significance. This could be that farmers who have stayed long in maize farming are more willing to pay in order to avoid facing some of the production problems

they have faced in past years compared to those who have less experience in maize farming. Price of other seeds was found to negatively affect farmer's willingness to pay for STM varieties and it was significant at 1%. This could be that the farmers expect price of other maize seeds to be relatively low compared to the STM varieties being an improved technology. Farm size (X_2) is statistically significant with the payment levels and shows a positive coefficient. Thus, farmers having WTP and possessing more arable land will have higher payment levels; That is, farmers who have more arable land are willing to pay higher sums in order to increase their productivity. Access to credit (X_8) was found to have positive effect as expected and significant at 5% significance level. This shows that farmers who have access to credit are willing to pay higher amount for STM varieties compared to those who do not have access to credit. Educational level (X_4) was found positive and significant at 1%. This implies that the higher the educational level of the household head, the more likely the amount he would be willing to pay for STM varieties. This result is consistent with results from previous studies that found that education has a positive relationship with willingness to pay for improved technologies (Asrat et al, 2004; Holden & Shiferaw, 2002).

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Traditionally, maize production is produced with limited inputs and less attention for management. However, decreasing

soil fertility, pest and diseases, heat and drought are the most pressing problems that maize farmers faced. One of the important strategies to reduce the stress posted by these factors requires increasing agricultural technology development in form of improved seeds like STM varieties. In this regard, improved seeds, such as STM varieties render greater advantage because of its higher yield potential, ability to withstand drought, resistance to heat, pest and diseases. This study, therefore, was initiated to investigate farmers WTP and factors affecting farmers' WTP for stress tolerant maize for Africa in Kwara State, Nigeria. It can be inferred from the study that most of the farmers are not aware of STM varieties because majority (66.1%) of the households interviewed have not heard about STM varieties, nevertheless, about 75.2% of the sampled maize-based farming households were willing to pay for STMA varieties. Majority of the farmers were willing to pay not more than N350/kg for each of the STM varieties. It can be concluded that the rural households are willing to pay for stress tolerant maize for Africa varieties if the varieties are available at their access and at affordable prices. The results of the study are able to provide decision-makers with a broad range of information to facilitate the implementation and adoption of STM varieties. Based on the findings of this study the following recommendations have been made: Policy makers should support farmers through provision of adult education which should empower them to understand new agricultural technologies such as STM

varieties. Government and stakeholders should encourage the credit institutions to grant farmers access to credit to enable them to invest on improved technology in order to increase their productivity.

It is important to emphasize that some level of care is needed in the generalisation of the study results to other Africa regions. This is because Kwara state, Nigeria where the study has been carried out may exhibit some level of differences in social and economic structure relative to other regions of Africa where the project has been implemented. Nevertheless, this study will serve as a good benchmark for other studies and also contributes to the literature on WTP for improved seed varieties

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Testing Fiscal Sustainability Hypothesis for Pakistan

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ABSTRACT

Fiscal sustainability has always been a lingering concern for developing countries like Pakistan. This study intends to verify the sustainability hypothesis by estimating a long run relationship between fiscal variables in Pakistan for a period 1976-2016. Dickey and Fuller Generalized Least Square (DF-GLS) and Ng-Perron unit root tests were used to determine the order of integration. Three most significant structural breaks had also been identified by using Bai and Perron test. Further, Fully Modified OLS (FMOLS), Dynamic OLS (DOLS) and Auto-Regressive Distributive Lag (ARDL) cointegration techniques were employed to find the long run relation between public expenditures and revenues. After a long run analysis, the results depicted that fiscal policy was found to be weakly sustainable. Therefore, the present study suggests fiscal reforms to sustain the fiscal policy in the long run.

Keywords: Cointegration, fiscal policy, public expenditures, public revenue, sustainability hypothesis

INTRODUCTION

The sustainable fiscal policy is a basic requirement for a long run sustainable economic growth. The developed economies have a very strong concern for fiscal sustainability. For example, European countries are required to retain debt to Gross Domestic Product

(GDP) ratio below sixty percent. They are also required to keep budget deficit to GDP ratio either below three percent or to keep the budget in balance or surplus. Fiscal sustainability issue emerges due to fiscal deficits and it may give rise to public debts in the economies. Pakistan, on account of its fiscal mismanagement, is no exception to fiscal unsustainability as it has been facing

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budget deficits for many decades. This issue warrants attention of economists and policy makers in ensuring the fiscal sustainability. Hence, unsustainable fiscal policy is termed to be an impulse to unsustainable debt that may cause macroeconomic crisis to respond.

The theory of government Inter-Temporal Budget Constraint (ITBC) elaborates that budget surpluses in proceeding years in present value should match with stock of public debt to ensure the fiscal sustainability. Where, the existence of sustainability hypothesis means that the present fiscal policy is sufficient. In absence of it, a discretionary policy is required. Later condition is being evaluated on stance of inefficiencies in debt management as it tends to cause high interest payments endangering fiscal management being counterproductive in nature. Afonso (2005) investigated the fiscal sustainability hypothesis by estimating a cointegration between Public Expenditures (PE) and Public Revenues (PR). He stated that presence of sustainability hypothesis required a cointegration between the aforementioned variables. Nevertheless, the condition of unit slope on public expenditures was also required for a strong sustainability. He further argued that current fiscal policy was sufficient in case of a strong sustainability. Hence existing policy is acceptable and no fiscal adjustments are required. But, if coefficient of public expenditure is less than one, which signifies a weak sustainability, then fiscal reforms are required because public expenditures are increasing at greater rate than that of public revenues. If unsustainability hypothesis

stands true then a discretionary policy is mandatory.

The fiscal sustainability catches a greater importance in the recent macroeconomic literature due to dependency of fiscal policy on it. Majority of the empirical studies do not support sustainability hypothesis due to insufficient estimation techniques. Considering, structural breaks responsible for it, Quintos (1995) stated that ignoring structural breaks not only affected the empirical estimation but also misguided about the magnitude of their relationship. The present study aims to test the sustainability hypothesis for Pakistan. It includes the three most significant breaks in the cointegrating relationships of PE and PR. An ARDL cointegration technique, FMOLS and DOLS are further being used to get more reliable results to conclude about the sustainability hypothesis for the economy of Pakistan.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The previous literature exhibits two types of analysis for testing the sustainability hypothesis. The first stream of literature has shown concern with stationarity of public debt to ensure a sustainable fiscal policy (i.e. Baglioni & Cherubini, 1993; Wilcox, 1989). The recent studies work on cointegration between PR and PE under the ITBC. There has been a lot of literature on the second approach in the time series and panel data estimation. For example, Payne (1997) investigated the relationship between PR and PE for G-7 countries. He found an unsustainable fiscal policy in case of France,

Japan, and Italy. Fiscal policy of Germany was found strongly sustainable and a weak sustainability was found for the rest of countries. Afonso (2005) used the unit root, structural break and cointegration tests on fifteen EU countries for a period 1970-2003. A cointegration between PR and PE was found in most of countries but slope of public expenditures was found less than one. Therefore, he concluded that fiscal policy of these countries were weakly sustainable. By utilizing same country set, Afonso and Rault (2010) had applied Westerlund-Edgerton panel cointegration and structural break tests for a period 1970-2006. They asserted that sustainability hypothesis stood true in these countries in panel setting. Baharumshah and Lau (2007) investigated the fiscal sustainability of five East Asian countries by checking the degree of association between PR and PE after incorporating the dummies of structural breaks. They found an evidence of a strong sustainability in case of Korea, Singapore and Thailand and weak sustainability in case of Malaysia and Philippines.

Westerlund and Prohl (2010) used the quarterly data of eight OECD countries for a period 1977-2005. They claimed a strongly sustainable fiscal policy for these countries. They also incorporated the significant structural breaks in analysis and claimed that insufficient econometric techniques might become cause of inaccurate results. However, Afonso and Jalles (2012) analyzed this issue for all OECD countries with panel data estimation techniques and with a time series data technique for each country

separately. They did not find an evidence of fiscal sustainability with both analyses. Afonso and Jalles (2015) re-investigated this for eighteen OECD countries. They tested the unit root and cointegration between PR and PE. They reiterated an evidence of no sustainability within panel. Further, they found a one-way causality from public debt to primary surplus. Foregoing further, Camarero et al. (2015) investigated the fiscal sustainability of 17 OECD countries. They found a cointegration in PR and PE including structural changes in the model and concluded a fiscal sustainability. Hence, the structural changes have a great impact on the all parameters in the model as those changes help to find a weak sustainability in the model and suggest the fiscal adjustments. Therefore, they claimed the importance of structural breaks in analysis to conclude the true fiscal sustainability. Likewise, Afonso et al. (2011) used quarterly data of a mix panel of US and eight EU countries. They also analyzed fiscal shifts of public expenditures and revenues in each single country analysis. They claimed that fiscal shifts had a strong impact on a relationship between fiscal variables. While, fiscal sustainability had not been found in most of countries.

Christophe and Llorca (2017) investigated the fiscal sustainability of 20 central and Latin American Countries using a panel cointegration technique for a period 1990-2012. They found an evidence of weak sustainability. Tran (2018) explored the fiscal sustainability for the fourteen emerging countries using a threshold

technique and by utilizing a period 1999-2016. He corroborated the sustainability hypothesis in the short run with a threshold bound of 40-55% of GDP but fiscal policy was found as unsustainable in the long run path with rising debt levels.

The country-specific studies are also available in the fiscal sustainability literature. For example, Quintos (1995) probed sustainability hypothesis of US considering structural changes in analysis. He found a significant break in 1980 and tested cointegration between PE and PR. He found a cointegration between PE and PR before the time analysis of 1980 but failed to find cointegration after 1980. Berenguer-Rico and Carrion-i-Silvestre (2011) investigated the fiscal sustainability with multi-cointegration of PR, PE and public debt in US. They found a cointegration between PR and PE. Therefore, they concluded a fiscal sustainability in the presence of a structural break that signified the change in the equilibrium relationship.

Marinheiro (2006) investigated the fiscal sustainability for a long period of 1903-2003 of Portuguese economy by testing the relationship between PR and PE and found a sustainable policy. An investigation of sub-sample periods demonstrates that fiscal policy does not remain sustainable for the period of 1975-2003 due to heavy debt to GDP ratio. In the same line, Kirchgaessner and Prohl (2008) performed cointegration test on Swiss fiscal variables for a period 1900-2002. They included a structural break of Second World War in analysis and concluded an unsustainable fiscal policy.

Silvestrini (2010) delved into the fiscal sustainability for Poland using Bayesian analysis of cointegration of fiscal variables by using monthly data of a period 1997-2007 and found an evidence of a strong sustainability. Sakuragawa and Hosono (2011) tested the fiscal sustainability in dynamic stochastic general equilibrium model for Japan. They found a weak sustainability with coefficient less than one on government spending. Based on the simulation results, they found that debt to GDP ratio relied on the targeted economic growth rate and suggested that this ratio must increase in the bounds otherwise fiscal policy did not behold.

Fan and Arghyrou (2013) investigated the fiscal sustainability of UK by applying the cointegration test on public expenditures and revenues after incorporating the three structural breaks for the slope shift in analysis for a quarterly data of a period 1955-2006. They found a sustainable fiscal policy for the whole sample of analysis. But for the subsample analysis, UK fiscal policy did not prove sustainable during the period of 1973-1981 and they concluded that change in public expenditure corroborated a reason for the shift in fiscal regimes. Further, an adjustment in fiscal balance was observed through government revenues and it showed a nonlinear behavior because government did not respond to the small deficit quickly but showed abrupt action in removing the large deficit.

Chen (2016) investigated the cointegration between US government revenue and spending using a quantile

approach. He found the evidence of cointegration and causality in the quantile coefficients and suggested to control government spending to reduce fiscal deficit. Cassou et al. (2017) reinvestigated the asymmetric effect of fiscal policy in the USA during a period 1955-2013 by using a quarterly data. They found a sustainable policy during the good economic times and unsustainable during distress period. Nxumalo and Hlophe (2018) assessed the fiscal sustainability of Swaziland and reported that government spending was increasing faster than the government revenues. Therefore, deficits were found unsustainable in the medium term and weakly sustainable in the long term.

In case of Pakistan, Mahmood and Rauf (2012) investigated the debt sustainability for a period 1971-2011. They found an unsustainable debt through unit root test analysis. Further, they applied DOLS on the relationship between PR and PE and found unsustainable debt again. The reliability of their test may remain questionable as they had used ADF and PP unit root tests which were not efficient for small sample size and secondly for a long run relationship, they had used the fiscal variable without ratio of GDP. This analysis was ignoring the importance of country size as it had been strongly argued by Hakkio and Rush (1991) to normalize the fiscal variables. They also ignored the fact of separation of East Pakistan in 1971.

Considering the above state of the art, a literature gap has been identified in the Pakistan context as no comprehensive

empirical study on the existence of sustainability hypothesis has been carried out yet. The underlining study fills in the above gap by applying most efficient unit root tests, structural break test and the cointegration tests.

ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK

The present study utilizes the government ITBC to test the fiscal sustainability for Pakistan. The public budget constraint has a prerequisite to match the present values of future PR with a sum of present values of public debt and PE. A sustainability of fiscal policy may show an ability of government to pay its debts and is an ability of government to be financially solvent. Following the Afonso (2005), the flow budget constraint is given below:

$$ps_t + (1 + i_t)pd_{t-1} = pr_t + pd_t \quad [1]$$

Where ps_t is primary public spending by excluding interest payment, pd_t is the public debt, pr_t is the public revenue, i is the real interest rate on debt and t is a time flow. Equation [2] is defining a variable of public expenditures (e_t) by assuming a stationary real interest rate i :

$$e_t = ps_t + (i_t - i)pd_{t-1} \quad [2]$$

Solving [2] for ps_t :

$$ps_t = e_t - (i_t - i)pd_{t-1} \quad [3]$$

Putting [3] into [1]:

$$e_t - (i_t - i)pd_{t-1} + (1 + i_t)pd_{t-1} = pr_t + pd_t \quad [4]$$

Solving the [4] for pd_{t-1} :

$$pd_{t-1} = \frac{pr_t - e_t}{1+i} + \frac{pd_t}{1+i} \quad [5]$$

Applying the summation and limit approximation to get the present value of budget constraint:

$$pd_{t-1} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{pr_{t+k} - e_{t+k}}{(1+i)^{k+1}} + \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{pd_{t+k}}{(1+i)^{k+1}} \quad [6]$$

In [6], if $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{pd_{t+k}}{(1+i)^{k+1}}$ approaches to zero at infinite time horizon then fiscal policy can be considered as sustainable by compensating the debt from present value of all future budget surplus. By using [2] and another definition of public expenditures with including interest payment, $pe_t = ps_t + i_t pd_{t-1}$, ITBC can be derived in the following form:

$$pe_t - pr_t = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{\Delta pr_{t+k} - \Delta e_{t+k}}{(1+i)^{k+1}} + \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{pd_{t+k}}{(1+i)^{k+1}} \quad [7]$$

Again, $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{pd_{t+k}}{(1+i)^{k+1}}$ must be zero to ensure the sustainability of fiscal policy and pr_t and e_t should be stationary on the first difference or both must be cointegrated.

The fiscal sustainability condition can also be derived with fiscal variables as ratio of GDP as economies are growing in terms of GDP and normalizing fiscal variables are very important in this manner (Hakkio and Rush, 1991). For this purpose, we may divide [1] with gdp_t .

$$\frac{ps_t}{gdp_t} + \frac{(1+i_t)pd_{t-1}}{gdp_t} = \frac{pr_t}{gdp_t} + \frac{pd_t}{gdp_t} \quad [8]$$

Here gdp_t can be expressed as $gdp_t = (1+g)gdp_{t-1}$. Where g is GDP growth rate in time t . Assuming real interest and economic growth rates constant, [8] can be

expressed as:

$$\frac{ps_t}{gdp_t} + \frac{(1+i)}{(1+g)} * \frac{pd_{t-1}}{gdp_{t-1}} = \frac{pr_t}{gdp_t} + \frac{pd_t}{gdp_t} \quad [9]$$

$$PE_t + \frac{(1+i)}{(1+g)} * PD_{t-1} = PR_t + PD_t \quad [10]$$

Where, $PE_t = ps_t/gdp_t$, $PD_{t-1} = pd_{t-1}/gdp_{t-1}$, $PR_t = pr_t/gdp_t$ and $PD_t = pd_t/gdp_t$. Solving [10] for PD_{t-1} :

$$PD_{t-1} = \left[\frac{1+g}{1+i} \right] (PR_t - PE_t) + \left[\frac{1+g}{1+i} \right] PD_t \quad [11]$$

Applying the summation and limit to get the present value of budget constraint:

$$PD_{t-1} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \left[\frac{1+g}{1+i} \right]^{k+1} (PR_{t+k} - PE_{t+k}) + \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} PD_{t+k} \left[\frac{1+g}{1+i} \right]^{k+1} \quad [12]$$

$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} PD_{t+k} \left[\frac{1+g}{1+i} \right]^{k+1}$ must be zero to verify the condition of fiscal sustainability and the present value of budget surplus as a proportion of GDP must also be equal to public debt as a proportion of GDP to ensure fiscal sustainability.

The public debt and its interest cannot be supported from the new debt for an infinite time period. Therefore, it must be paid from present value of all future budget surpluses. Alternatively, Ponzi game theory states that stationarity of public debt to GDP ratio ensures a long run balanced relationship in fiscal variables. However, in the non-Ponzi game theory, a cointegration between PR and PE with a similar level of integration is a necessary condition for a sustainable fiscal policy (Afonso, 2005). It can be checked with a simple equation given below:

$$PR_t = \alpha + \beta PE_t + \mu_t \quad [13]$$

In [13], if the public expenditures and revenues ratio to GDP are not stationary at level then its long run relation should be stationary. In the residual based cointegration tests, if residual from [13] is stationary at level then a cointegration and fiscal sustainability can be claimed. Additionally, for the strength of analysis, ARDL, FMOLS and DOLS cointegration techniques have been utilized in the present paper to test the sustainability of fiscal policy of Pakistan.

METHODS

This section describes the empirical estimation techniques to confirm the fiscal sustainability in Pakistan. Firstly, we used Ng-Perron and DF-GLS tests to certify the level of integration in PR and PE. Secondly, we used Bai and Perron (2003) test to find three most significant breaks in the cointegration of PR and PE. Thirdly, ARDL co-integration test was estimated after incorporating the three most significant structural breaks in the relationship of PR and PE. And last but not the least, the magnitude of slope of PE had been checked and verified by using ARDL framework, FMOLS and DOLS to justify the strength of fiscal sustainability by using a period 1976-2016. Different cointegration tests were utilized to avoid any estimation biasness and data was sourced from World Development Indicators.

Following the theoretical background, the sustainability hypothesis can be tested by following function:

$$PR_t = f(PE_t) \quad [14]$$

The structural breaks in fiscal variables' relationship are very natural. As, policy shifts and economic fluctuations may have a great role in determining the behavior of the relationship of fiscal variables. Therefore, it is pertinent to include the effects of these shifts in analysis. These shifts have captured through the dummy variables in the present study and have incorporated in the [14] in the following way:

$$PR_t = f\left(PE_t, \sum_{i=1}^n D_i\right) \quad [15]$$

Where, D_i assumes zero before the break date and one afterward. This study calculates three most significant unknown structural breaks in the long run relationship of PR and PE. The inclusion of such breaks completes the information of policy shifts and any other types of fluctuations in the model. Further, this procedure may also ensure the reliability of estimated parameters to confirm the degree of fiscal sustainability.

For analysis, this study used DF-GLS unit root test by Elliott et al. (1996) which is an efficient version of ADF test. It used the following equation to check the stationarity in a variable.

$$\Delta z_t^d = \gamma z_{t-1}^d + \sum_{j=1}^q \nu_j \Delta z_{t-j}^d + \psi_t \quad [16]$$

Here, z_t^d is a detrending of variable Z_t . The process of detrending is as follows:

$$z_t^d = z_t - \hat{\alpha}'_{\bar{\varphi}} D_t \quad [17]$$

and

$$\hat{\alpha}_{\bar{\varphi}} = (D'_{\bar{\varphi}} D'_{\bar{\varphi}})^{-1} D'_{\bar{\varphi}} z_{\bar{\varphi}} \quad [18]$$

By using [16], Ng and Perron (2001) augmented the test statistics for sake of greater efficiency to deal with small sample size. The test statistics of this test are as follows:

$$MZ_{\alpha}^d = (T^{-1}(y_T^d)^2 - f_0) / 2k \quad [19]$$

$$MSB^d = (k / f_0)^{1/2} \quad [20]$$

$$MZ_t^d = MZ_{\alpha}^d \times MSB^d \quad [21]$$

$$MPT_T^d = ((\bar{c})^2 k + (1 - \bar{c})T^{-1})(y_T^d)^2 / f_0 \quad [22]$$

where

$$k = \sum_{t=2}^T (y_{t-1}^d)^2 / T^2, \bar{c} = -13.5 \quad [23]$$

and

$$f_0 = \sum_{j=-(T-1)}^{T-1} \theta(j).k(j/l) \quad [24]$$

Structural breaks in long run relation may have a severe impact on the reliability of parameters. Bai and Perron (2003) proposed a methodology to find multiple unknown breakpoints in the long run relationship with m potential break points:

$$PR_t = \beta_j PE + \varepsilon_t \quad [25]$$

$j=1, 2, \dots, m+1$ for regime shifts.

Above test utilizes regression and its sum of square of residuals to find the possible break points. Sum of square of residuals is defined as:

$$S\left(\frac{\beta}{T}\right) = \sum_{j=0}^m \left(\sum_{t=T_j}^{T_{j+1}-1} PR_t - PE_t \beta_j \right) \quad [26]$$

This study is utilizing a Global Information Criteria (GIC) to find the possible most significant breaks. The target

of this test is to find those break points that are minimizing the sum of square of residuals in the regression.

After checking the order of integration in the variables and possible unknown structural breaks, this study uses the ARDL cointegration bound testing technique proposed by Pesaran, Shin and Smith (2001). ARDL has a unique feature of capturing different lag length in autoregressive process to save degree of freedom and it also improves the efficiency of cointegration analysis. A cointegration gives a long run equilibrium relation among variables of interest even after shock of short run disequilibrium. The ARDL equation for estimation is given below:

$$\Delta PR_t = \alpha + \gamma PE_{t-1} + \delta PR_{t-1} + \sum_{i=0}^q \phi_i \Delta PE_{t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^p \phi_i \Delta PR_{t-i} + \varepsilon_t \quad [27]$$

where Δ shows the variables at difference. PR_t and PE_t are the ratio of public revenues and expenditures to GDP, t contains time dimensions, i contains optimum lags. Dummy variables of structural breaks will also be included in [27] after choosing optimum lag length by Akaike Information Criterion (AIC). The null hypothesis of [27] is of no cointegration i.e. ($\lambda = \delta = 0$).

Following the same ARDL methodology, the short run results can be obtained from its Error Correction Model (ECM). It is as follows:

$$\Delta PR_t = o + \sum_{i=0}^q \mu_i \Delta PE_{t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^p \pi_i \Delta PR_{t-i} + \gamma ECT_{t-1} + \xi_t \quad [28]$$

Here, the ECM will use same lag length selected by [27]. ECT_{t-1} is lag of error correction term. After applying ARDL procedure, this study is confirming the reliability and consistency of our estimates through FMOLS and DOLS. Because, coefficient of PE_t is a major estimate which may confirm a weak or a strong sustainability therefore it is very pertinent to see whether the estimated results are technique biased or not.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This section provides the all necessary empirical estimation required to test the sustainability hypothesis of Pakistan. Table 1 shows the unit root test statistics for the variables under consideration with individual intercept & trend. Results show that both public expenditures and revenues are non-stationary at level with both unit root tests' application. Nonetheless, both of the variables show stationary behavior after first differencing. DF-GLS test show

that both variables show stationary behavior at 1% level of significance. Ng-Perron test shows that public expenditure is stationary at 5% and public revenue is stationary at 10% level of significance. Therefore, order of integration can be concluded one in case of both variables. Now, fiscal policy can further be tested for sustainability by applying a cointegration between PR and PE.

Before conducting a cointegration test between the public expenditures and revenues, Bai and Perron (2003) test had been applied to find the most significant unknown breaks. This test is calculated on the bases of GIC at 5% level of significance. The estimated results provide that three most significant structural breaks are found in the years 1989, 1997 and 2010. These points of structural breaks show the major fiscal policy changes in Pakistan. Therefore, these break points should be included while doing long run analysis to have true long run parameters.

Table 1

Unit root analyses

Variable	DF-GLS	Ng-Perron			
		MZa	MZt	MSB	MPT
Level of Variables					
PR _t	-2.6559(0)	-9.3091 (0)	-2.1562	0.2317	9.7961
PE _t	-2.2472 (0)	-7.8096 (0)	-1.9693	0.2522	11.6852
First Difference of Variables					
ΔPR _t	-8.1037*** (0)	-17.1420* (0)	-2.8829*	0.1618*	5.5828*
ΔPE _t	-6.3806*** (0)	-18.1078** (0)	-2.9792**	0.1645**	5.2113**

Note: Brackets contain optimum lag lengths. Δ is for differenced variables. *, ** and *** show the stationarity at 10%, 5% and 1% level of significance.

After conducting the unit root tests and multiple structural break points test, an ARDL has been applied on public revenues and expenditures as ratio of GDP after incorporating the three dummy variables to include the effect of structural breaks in the cointegration. Each dummy variable assumes the zero value before a time of break and one afterward. AIC is utilized to find the optimum lag lengths of PR and PE. The lag length of dummy variables is taken as zero because dummy variable cannot be lagged or differenced. The results of table 2 show that F-statistic of selected ARDL model with lag length (1,0,0,0,0) is

3.984 which is larger enough than that of upper bound F-value at 10% significance level. The diagnostic of serial correlation, normality, heteroscedasticity and functional form tests show the appropriateness of results and also prove that the model is out of any econometric problem. This whole process gives valid evidence for cointegration between PR and PE. Hence, fiscal sustainability holds true in Pakistan. Furthermore, it is pertinent to see whether this sustainability is strong or weak. This can be analyzed through the coefficient of PE on PR.

Table 2

ARDL bound test

Calculated F-value		Selected Lag Length	
3.984		1,0,0,0,0	
Sig. Level		Critical F-values	
		Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1%		4.94	5.58
5%		3.62	4.16
10%		3.02	3.51
Serial Correlation	Functional Form	Normality	Heteroscedasticity
0.0567 (0.9450)	0.0004 (0.9825)	2.9067 (0.2338)	0.4811 (0.2409)

Table 3 shows that the coefficient of PE on PR is found to be statistically significant which again provides evidence for fiscal sustainability in the analysis. However, the coefficient value of less than one signalizes a weak fiscal sustainability in case of Pakistan thus suggesting the need for fiscal reforms. It also shows that public expenditures are not productive enough to attract an equal amount of public revenues.

The coefficient is found between 0.3-0.4 that is significantly deviating from Mahmood and Rauf (2012). Their study had found this coefficient between 0.83-0.92 due to biasness in estimation of cointegration between PR and PE without taking care of country size. The coefficients of dummy variables are also statistically significant. This confirms that structural breaks are shifting the intercept in the respective years

Table 3

Long-run and short-run results

Regressor	Parameter	Standard Error	t-statistic	P-value
ARDL: Long-Run				
PE_t	0.3555***	0.0802	4.4344	0.0001
D_{1t}	0.0086**	0.0039	2.1953	0.0353
D_{2t}	-0.0104*	0.0057	-1.7947	0.0819
D_{3t}	-0.0103**	0.0042	-2.4624	0.0192
<i>Intercept</i>	0.0771***	0.0196	3.9324	0.0004
ARDL: Short-Run				
ΔPE_t	0.3289***	0.0774	4.2471	0.0002
ECT_{t-1}	-0.8799***	0.1625	-5.4163	0.0001
FMOLS				
PE_t	0.3045***	0.0576	5.2829	0.0001
<i>Intercept</i>	0.0887***	0.0141	6.2737	0.0001
DOLS				
PE_t	0.3975***	0.0719	5.5281	0.0001
<i>Intercept</i>	0.0437**	0.0177	2.4660	0.0253

Note: *, ** and *** show the significant parameters at 10%, 5% and 1%.

of breaks and it further confirms reliability of long run parameters. Table 3 also presents the short run parameters of ECM based on selected ARDL model. The coefficient of differenced PE has a significant positive effect on PR in short run as well. Though, its impact is even smaller than that of long run impact. The co-efficient of ECT_{t-1} is negative and highly statistically significant. This confirms a short run relationship in our ARDL model. Its value depicts a high speed of adjustment (i.e. 88% in a year) from short run imbalance toward long run equilibrium. Further, the long run coefficient of PE has been confirmed by estimation of FMOLS and DOLS in table 3. The results show that this coefficient again remains between 0-1

and it is also statistically significant. This exercise confirms that our conclusion is out of any econometric technique biasness in the estimations. The coefficient of PE is less than one and greater than zero. Therefore, the estimates of FMOLS and DOLS are also corroborating a weak fiscal sustainability in Pakistan.

The coefficient of public expenditure (between 0-1) is not sufficient to generalize a weak fiscal sustainability in above estimations. Therefore, two competing hypotheses (i.e. slope = 0 and slope = 1) have been tested through Wald coefficient restriction test. The estimates in table 4 depict that abovementioned both hypotheses have been rejected for all estimates of

Table 4

Wald test

Estimators	ARDL	FMOLS	DOLS
Chi-Square (Slope=1)	145.5941*** (0.0000)	47.9172*** (0.0000)	59.802*** (0.0000)
Chi-Square (Slope=0)	27.9089*** (0.0000)	48.8484*** (0.0000)	31.6523*** (0.0000)

Note: *** shows the rejection of hypotheses (slope = 1 & slope =0) at 1% level of significance.

ARDL, FMOLS and DOLS. So, the slope is neither unit nor zero and is again confirming a weak sustainability of fiscal policy.

CONCLUSIONS

This paper aims to investigate the validity of the sustainability hypothesis in Pakistan by employing adequate econometric techniques. At first, DF-GLS and Ng-Perron unit root tests were carried out to test the stationarity of PR and PE. Our results confirm that both variables are integrated at order one. Further, three most significant structural breaks are found in the cointegration between PR and PE. An ARDL cointegration technique has been applied on the relationship of PE and PR after incorporating the dummy variables to complete information of structural breaks in the analysis. A cointegration is proven in the model. It is a confirmation for the existence of sustainability hypothesis in Pakistan. But, the long run coefficient of public expenditures is found to be less than one. Further, this coefficient has further been verified through FMOLS and DOLS. The Wald restriction tests on $slope = 0$ and $slope = 1$ have also been carried and this test is also seconding the result of a weak fiscal sustainability. Thus, indicating a weak

fiscal sustainability in Pakistan with all estimations.

Consequent to the analyses and results of our study, fiscal reforms by the government of Pakistan has been recommended. This may be sought through a policy of broadening the tax base or by creating more sources of public revenues. Further, it is suggested that public expenditures should be spent in productive way which may help the government to generate more public revenues to cover the public debt and to sustain the fiscal policy of Pakistan in the long run.

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Puritanism in Edmund Spenser's *Amoretti* and *Epithalamion*: Refashioning the Petrarchan Sonnet

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ABSTRACT

This paper analyses Edmund Spenser's sonnet sequence *Amoretti* and its concluding sequel *Epithalamion* within the context of Puritanism. By highlighting the Puritanical concepts in Spenser's two poetic works, the two researchers demonstrate the aspects in which Spenser parts ways with the Petrarchan sonnet tradition. Spenser offers a pure, Christian love that ends in holy matrimony as an alternative to the unsanctified, unrequited love in Petrarchan sonnets. Moreover, this research identifies the segments of Spenser's poems wherein Platonism is exceedingly manifested. Through the textual examination of the two aforementioned works, it becomes evident that nuances of the Puritan faith come to light in Spenser's depiction of a holy, Christian courtship and marriage, in his portrayal of the lady as an embodiment of heavenly light in contrast to the inferiority of earthly existence and in his parallel presentation of the lover's suffering for his angelic lady as an allegorical reflection of the agony endured by the Puritan to gain Heavenly Grace.

Keywords: *Amoretti*, Edmund Spenser, *Epithalamion*, holy marriage, platonism, puritanism

INTRODUCTION

The *Amoretti* sonnet sequence by Edmund Spenser (1595) embodies numerous Petrarchan conventions. The lady's physical charms as well as her chastity both inspire and torture the speaker. However, Spenser (1595) departed from Petrarch by describing a pure, Christian love that led to marriage in *Epithalamion*. The Petrarchan sonnet is not only a poetic tradition, but also a structure of feeling

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in which love flourishes in the absence of mutuality. What distinguishes the *Amoretti* sequence is that aggressive masculine activity is met with female passivity albeit by diverse structures of the lady's interactive response. According to Sanchez (2012) in "Modesty or Comeliness": The Predicament of Reform Theology in Spenser's *Amoretti* and *Epithalamion*", Spenser's two poetic creations concur with various Christian ideals in their portrayal of a Protestant alternative to the Petrarchan convention. Therefore, these poems reveal a distinct discrepancy between a Catholic idealization of celibacy and a Protestant celebration of marriage. Spenser was an Anglican and more specifically a Protestant; furthermore, during his early years, he was deeply influenced by Puritanism. As Hume (1984) stated, "The religion to which he [Spenser] adhered throughout his life was fervent Protestantism which requires the label 'Puritan' during a specific period". According to Abrams (2000), "In his [Spenser's] early days, he was strongly influenced by Puritanism [and] remained a thoroughgoing Protestant all his life".

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Critics have extensively explored aspects of the Puritan faith as it appears in Spenser's works, focusing on the manifestation of certain Puritan beliefs in his poetic achievements on one hand, and the integration of Spenser's religious convictions with an espousal of the Renaissance spirit on the other. (e.g. Crawforth, 2013; Lethbridge, 2006; Oser, 2014; Padelford, 1916; Tolman,

1918; Van Gelder, 1961). This paper follows a critical /analytical approach to highlight the Puritan concepts apparent in *Amoretti* and *Epithalamion*, specifically the Puritan's notion of marriage, the contrast between earth and heaven, the Puritans' interpretation of grace, and their attitude towards suffering.

The Petrarchan Sonnet

The Petrarchan sonnet was first created by Francesco Petrarch (1304-74) in Italy in the 14th century. Petrarch's sonnets depict the plights and perils of the tortured lover whose deep, desperate love for Laura, the lady of all his sonnets, remains unrequited. The poet /lover uses hyperboles and sensual imagery in order to dramatize the excruciating agony inflicted upon him by the unattainable lady. The poems do not portray a mutual love that leads to a blissful marriage, but rather a deeply passionate one-sided love which leaves the speaker lamenting the misery of unfulfilled desire.

Petrarch's sonnet sequence comprises 366 poems, and it is considered to be "the first collection of poetry that was completely and seriously devoted to a single subject or person" (Johnson, 2009). Although Petrarch's poems were rooted in the medieval tradition of courtly love, Petrarch departed from the practices of courtly love in his omission of "the final consummation: his is a love that is endlessly frustrated" (Johnson, 2009). Spenser, on the other hand, deviates from the Petrarchan depiction of an unrequited, exasperated love and instead illustrates a pure Christian love that is eventually sanctified through holy matrimony.

The Platonic Tradition

The Renaissance in Europe was marked by the rebirth of Classical scholarship and philosophy. Amongst the works revived was Plato's *Symposium* which explicates his concept of love as the means for the lover to transcend the material, physical world through the meditation upon the idealized beauty and virtue of the lady who is the object of this platonic love. Therefore, "the purpose of love was to draw the lover toward a higher, heavenly idea of beauty and virtue, eventually leading him to a better understanding of God" (Johnson, 2009). Love in the Platonic sense serves as a ladder that carries the lover high above earthly desires to the elevated realms of celestial eternity.

The concept of the Platonic ladder of love refers to the process in which the poet /lover may surpass the material world in pursuit of spiritual delights. In Spenser's sonnets, the speaker contemplates his beloved lady's divine beauty and ascends heavenwards away from all that is earthly and ephemeral. It is the lady's celestial spirit and beauty that enable the poet to transcend earthly materialism. Consequently, the principle of the Platonic ladder may be linked to the Puritan preference of the Hereafter as opposed to the physical world.

The Philosophy of Marriage in Puritanism

The Puritans hold a very high opinion of marriage. In his article "Puritan Christianity: The Puritan at Home", Pronk (1997) quoted Thomas Gataker as saying "there is no society

more near, more entire, more comfortable, more constant, than the society of man and wife". Furthermore, Pronk (1997) explained that unlike the Catholics and the Protestants who thought that the purpose of marriage was procreation, the Puritans shifted the emphasis from procreation to companionability. Furthermore, the Puritans placed emphasis on physical love as part of the "joys experienced within the bonds of matrimony." The husband was the head of the household, but his rule should be "as easy and gentle as possible, and strive to be loved than feared" (Pronk, 1997).

For William Gouge, the influential Puritan writer, the mutual love between a husband and wife originates in the heavenly spheres. Johnson (2005) discussed the theological framework surrounding Gouge's portrayal of marriage stating that "love is the source of duty in Christian marriage, and the source of love is divine grace" (Johnson, 2005). The Puritans' celestial visualization of marital love is reflected in Spenser's platonic depiction of the speaker's passion towards his beloved in his *Amoretti* and *Epithalamion*.

Another prominent Puritan thinker who was instrumental in shaping the Puritans' concept of marriage was Robert Cleaver. According to Johnson (2005), Cleaver modifies the priorities in the sacred Christian marriage by giving precedence to companionship over the conventional aim of procreation. In that regard, Cleaver "reversed the traditional order of the ends of marriage: mutual society, not procreation, is the most fundamental" (Johnson, 2005).

The Puritan notion of companionability in the marriage comes to light extensively in Spenser's sonnets and in his marriage poem as will be argued within the upcoming sections that present an analysis of *Amoretti* and *Epithalamion*.

Lane (2000) stated in his article "Two Schools of Desire: Nature and Marriage in Seventeenth-Century Puritanism" that Puritanism understood the institution of marriage as a training ground in the learning of affection, which eventually led to Christ's captivating beauty. Similarly, John Robinson argued that a man's love for his wife must be "like Christ's to His Church: holy for quality and, and great for quantity" (cited in Pronk). Pronk (1997) elaborated further by pointing out that the Puritans developed John Calvin's 'companionate marriage.' "They conceived of marriage as a deep spiritual union of spirit and mind as well as body...on the spiritual and often intellectual level, the Puritan wife thought of herself as his [her husband's] equal...The core of their union is the communion with Christ." (Pronk, 1997). Neuman (2016) in "Puritanism and Modernist Novels: From Moral Character to the Ethical Self" argues that the influence of Puritanism is evident in literature through religious allegories. Therefore, from a Puritan perspective, man and wife in holy matrimony solidify their bond in their constant journey towards the love of Christ.

According to Verma (2001) in *Amoretti* (*A Detailed Consideration of the Poem with Text*), Spenser's innovation in the Petrarchan sonnet springs from the fact

that the poet dedicates his sonnets to his future wife Elizabeth. However, Johnson (1993) in "Gender Fashion and Dynamics of Mutuality in Spenser's *Amoretti*" pointed out that Spenser identified the sonnet lady in *Amoretti* within a complex of terms that depicted her in a series of metaphors identifying her as merely 'she'. Nonetheless, Spenser parted ways with previous sonneteers, who pursued an unattainable married woman. Thus, as Paul Cavill (2007) argued, Spenser did not revel in profane love; instead, his aim was towards "an Orthodox Christianmarriage". On the other hand, Renwick (1933) in *Edmund Spenser: An Essay on Renaissance Poetry* suggested that the love described in *Amoretti* was really a "nameless and undefined aesthetic experience recognized as love". This undefined experience need not be aesthetic; it could be deeply religious.

In line with this religious angle, the whole Christian marriage between the poet and the lady can be viewed at a more allegorical level as being parallel to the relationship between a Puritan and Christ. The poet enjoys suffering for the sake of his lady in the hope of reaching an elevated love in the same manner that a Puritan suffers in his quest for Christ's grace. The lady is of divine origin and in numerous instances she is depicted as possessing the power of life and death regarding the poet. Johnson (1993) cited Spenser's extensive allusions to the church calendar in *Amoretti* as proof that the poet here described "a metaphoric presentation of the Christian's love for Christ" (cited in Wirth, 2007).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Amoretti as an Expression of Puritan Theology

In *Amoretti*, Spenser depicts the courtship between himself and his future wife Elizabeth. This sonnet sequence displays a variety of Puritanical concepts, namely the sanctity of marriage as a mirror of mankind's sacred love of Christ, the contrast between Heaven and Earth, and the Puritan's quest for God's grace as attained through physical and spiritual anguish.

In sonnet I, the lady's life and death giving powers are depicted in the first two lines: "Happy ye leaves when as those lily hands, / which hold my life in their dead doing might" (1-2) She has an "Angels blessed look" (11) as testimony to her celestial essence. On the other hand, the Puritan idea of earthly companionability surfaces in this sonnet; for the speaker, the lady's presence is akin to food for his soul. Moreover, she embodies his "heaven's bliss" (12), a phrase that reinforces the Puritan notion that the union in a marriage brings the couple closer to God in his heaven. According to Johnson (1993), the description of the lady in this sonnet shifts from a fragmented one to a whole "voiced figure who relates mutually with the poet-lover". He says that:

Only as the lady emerges from marginality to a voiced, named, part of the sequence, do we realize it is very much she, not the poet-lover, who shapes the sequence's plots, themes, conflicts and emotive fluctuations.

Ultimately, it is she as female creator-nurturer who refigures both gender and genre, the poet and the poetry, the lover and his love. In the process, materiality is incorporated into spirituality, chastity is redefined, and the female presence becomes a force beneficial rather than inimical to men. In the complex ludic interplay of a poet fashioning poetry, and thus fashioning a self, the poet also fashions a lady; and she in turn, as the poet's projection of female other who is, nonetheless, more than an imagined 'muse', refashions the poet. (pp. 505-506)

The lady in this sequence steps out of the passive shadows confined to the traditional Petrarchan lady. She possesses an independent spirit which is angelic in its life-giving, celestial qualities. At the same time, she retains the pious morality and earthly companionability as the speaker's future wife. The lady here guides, nurtures and reshapes the essence of the speaker. Moreover, she instils within him a sense of peace and wholeness that aids him in his own quest for piety and inspiration.

By that same token, the lady's control of the poet's life comes to light anew in sonnet VII. One gentle glance from the "fayre eyes" (1) and the speaker's soul fills with life and love. In contrast if the lady eyes him "askew" (7) then the poet will die as though struck by lightning. In sonnet XI, the poet compares the lady to a "cruell warriour" (3) who constantly wages war on him. She torments him and makes his miserable life her "vnpittied spoil" [unpittied] (8). Holding

his life in her hands, she forces him to continue living, unable to die in peace. He concludes that although all pain and wars have an end, no amount of prayer can make his pain cease.

In sonnet IX Spenser explicitly draws a comparison between his beloved and the Maker. He is at a loss to find something on earth with which he can compare the “goodly light” (4) of her “powerful eies” (2). Her rays are superior to the sun, moon, stars, fire, lightning, crystal and glass. He concludes that she resembles the Maker “whose light doth lighten all that here we see” (14).

In sonnet LXXIX, the poet describes the lady’s spiritual beauty which far surpasses the flesh. He declares that her true beauty lies in her “gentle wit” (3) and “vertuous mind” (4) which are not transitory like physical beauty. Here the lady is such a sublime being that she is given Christ-like dimensions. She is of “heavenly seed: / deriv’d from that fayre Spirit” (10-11). Her everlasting beauty is from God because “true beauty derives from God” (Yale; cited in Wirth, 2007). The sensitivity to feelings of ecstasy, anguish and profound longing came to characterize Puritan conversion narratives as a natural expression of such an impulse. Moreover, the capacity to comprehend the depths and heights of loss and joy became increasingly a measure of one’s own nature before God.

In sonnet VIII the lady is said to be born of the life-giving fire that is kindled in heaven by the Maker. The brightness of her eyes compels Cupid to strike arrows that

may conjure up base emotions. However, because she is of celestial origin the angels stop such baseness and guide “fraile mindes” (7) towards heaven’s beauty. In the third quatrain the speaker addresses his sweetheart directly and informs her of her positive influence on him. “The Puritan wife is her husband’s helper, counselor and comforter” (Pronk, 1997). In this sonnet she helps the speaker formulate his thoughts and his inner being. He tells her “you stop my tounge, and teach my hart to speake” (10). By contemplating her beauty, he goes into a meditative silence and delves into his heart’s deepest sensibilities and sentiments. The world is brighter because of her companionship; without her, darkness prevails.

The Contrast between Heaven and Earth

The contrast between heaven and earth is explored by the poet in sonnet III. Puritans forsake the earth with all its worldly temptations and corruptions and instead incessantly strive for God’s heaven. The lady here with her “souerayne beauty” (1) and “heavenly fyre” (3) refines the poet’s soul and raises it from the baseness of the earth, so that he looks upward towards God in his heaven. The beloved’s divine rays motivate the poet in his voyage towards heaven; he views earth as inferior to celestial light and therefore unworthy of any attachment by the poet: “That being now with her huge brightness dazed / base thing I can no more endure to view” (5-6).

This earth /heaven dichotomy is reiterated in sonnet V. The poet admires the lady's "portly pride" (2) even though others criticize her for it. She deserves to be full of pride as testimony of her heavenly origin. She has nothing but contempt and "scorn of base things" (6) in the world of mortals. Her warranted pride is also the theme of sonnet LXI wherein she exemplifies "the glorious image of the makers beautie" (1), "divinely wrought" (5) and "Angels heavenly borne" (6). The speaker concludes that a person of such heavenly magnitude should be worshipped rather than loved.

In sonnet XIII, the poet contrasts the lady's mortality with her constant climb to heaven. She looks down upon this world of which she was born as being "lothsome and forlorne" (11). Not only is the poet on a voyage heavenwards, but rather the lady as well is on a journey of "self-transcendence" (Turner cited in Wirth, 2007), heaven bound. In this sonnet Puritanism meets Platonism. A Puritan always looks up to heaven in order to embrace God's grace; in the same fashion, anyone who subscribes to the Platonic ladder of love surpasses this world in pursuit of celestial delights. In addition, Puritanism differs from previous doctrines in its view of women. According to Pavlick (1993) in her thesis *The Puritans and Women: Equality under God*, "Christian women were spoken of favourably, and were thought to be just as spiritual -- and just as capable of spirituality -- as men were. This image of the capable woman was very removed from the pre-Reformation idea of women as the ruin of humanity, and the religious image, far from

being misogynist, praised the role of women in the community". The lady here is just as capable of ascending the Platonic ladder as the male speaker is. She becomes more than a lovely face or an objectified ideal as she expresses her emotions, experiences, and interpretations apart from the stylizing poet-lover's attributes to her. She constructs a discourse of language and action in which she views herself equal, if not superior, to the lover.

Mortality versus immortality in the Afterlife is the topic of sonnet LXXV. The poet writes the lady's name on the sand near the sea, but the waves keep erasing it. His beloved tells him what he is doing is in vain because she herself will be "wyped out" (8) just like her name. The poet refuses to give up and declares that despite inevitable death, his sweetheart shall be immortalized in his lines. He will continue writing poetry in heaven and their love shall continue living in the Afterlife: "Where whenas death shall all the world subdew, / our love shall live, and later life renew" (13-14).

In sonnet LV the poet wonders what mould his lady is made of and how she can combine beauty with cruelty. Spenser's lady refuses to remain a literary projection of the lover's desire and by such a refusal, she is liberated from the patriarchal order, which would restrict to a passive observer. Consequently, he gives proof that she cannot be composed of the four elements: Earth, water, air and fire. He concludes in the end that she is made of a mould from up above because "to the heaven her haughty looks aspire" (11). Just like in sonnet XIII the lady

is seen as someone ascending the Platonic ladder to transcendence. However, it is also evident that she is capable of hesitation, anger, and pain. At one point she laughs and at another she deconstructs the poet-lover's language and actions.

Interestingly enough, the contrast between spirituality and physicality is explored once again in sonnet XXXV through the myth of Narcissus. Rogers (1976) explored this mythological angle in his article "Narcissus in Amoretti XXXV." Rogers (1976) explained that in this sonnet the poet compared the lady to Narcissus' image in the lake; however, there was reversal in the outcome of the poet's contemplation of his lady. Unlike Narcissus who loses his life because of his vanity and pursuit of worldly possessions, the poet here feels his adoration of the lady has some "genuine value". Rogers elaborates further by bringing forth the idea of the Platonic ladder of love as it appears in this sonnet. By meditating upon the lady's heavenly beauty, the poet is drawn away from any "preoccupation with transitory physical things" (Rogers, 1976). The poet declares that all things in this world are vain and worthless "shadowes saving she" (14). The lady's essence rises above earthly materialism, and therefore serves as a worthy quest. Once more, the whole notion of the Platonic ladder of love bears a clear connection to the Puritan disdain of the worldly in favour of the heavenly.

Puritanical Suffering and Gaining Grace in *Amoretti*

Another Puritan concept in this poem is the agony that the seeker suffers in his pursuit of this elevated beauty. He cannot remove his eyes from the lady, "the object of their pain" (2); in the same fashion, a Puritan does not remove his eyes from looking up to God despite any suffering at His hands in this world.

Platonism comes to light once again in sonnet LXXII. Verma (2001) explicates how the poet is fixated on Plato's flight of the spirit (p. 74). As the speaker aspires to reach the pure sky, he feels weighed down by earthly things and his mortality. The lady's lofty beauty fills his soul with "heaven's glory" (6) and sets it on the right course upwards. He also feels that their grand love for one another is just like heaven on earth: "Hart need not with none other happinesse, / but here on earth to have such heavens bliss" (13-14).

The spirituality of their love is emphasized once again in sonnet LXVI. The lady is given such an elevated status that she cannot find a match in heaven or on earth. Nevertheless, she bestows her love upon this low-ranking poet. The speaker then declares that the love they share endows her with "greater glory gate, / then had ye sorted with a princes pere" (9-10). Their bond surpasses all earthly riches and social rankings. The light she shines on him will increase because of its reflection in his adoration of her: "Yet since your light hath once enlumind me, / with my reflex yours shall increase" (13-14). As Okerlund (1982) pointed out, the poet's

admiration of the lady “elevates their love into a spiritual phenomenon that transcends mere earthly matters” (39). In sonnet XVII he once again contrasts her “Angels face” (1) with “the world’s worthlesse glory” (3). Yet these rhetorical figures, argued Johnson (1993), were hardly agreed upon terms between the poet-lover and the lady as they depicted a male fantasy that illustrated the structures of dominance and submission.

The idea of pure love versus lust evinces itself most prominently in sonnet VI in *Amoretti*. Here the lady remains too proud to submit to the speaker’s love, but this dejection does not discourage him. He feels his love is “not lyke to lusts of baser kynd” (3) and will mature slowly as it is directed towards heaven. He compares his deep desire to an oak that takes a long time to ignite but when it does “it doth divide great heat, and makes flames to heaven aspire” (7-8). In this sonnet the Puritan idea of directing the lovers’ union towards Christ (heaven) becomes clear. In actuality, Puritanism focuses on the nature of love as well as the respective duties of both husbands and wives within a patriarchal society. To Puritans, desire becomes a significant path toward the acknowledgement of God since the desire of the heart is the most pleasing to Him. Therefore, when a husband and wife enter into matrimony, Puritans expect a greater manifestation of love to emerge from that bond. The speaker’s love for the lady grows and becomes more intense the more the flame of his desire burns towards heaven. The Puritans also embrace suffering as an integral component in their journey for

a higher purpose. In the final two lines, the speaker states that he can endure “taking little paine / to knit the knot, that shall ever remaine” (13-14). He feels that this pain he suffers at the hands of his lady strengthens and purifies his love and makes their union in marriage all the more worthy. In addition, the blazing desire in this sonnet hints at the physical aspect of love which the Puritans accept as an essential part of the marital bliss to come.

The Puritan’s positive attitude towards pain is even clearer in sonnet XLII. He speaks of “The love which me so cruelly tormenteth, / So pleasing is my extreamest paine.” He continues to say that the more he suffers the more he wants to embrace his bane. In sonnet XVII, he describes the arrows that glide from her “sweet eye glaunces” (9), and, in sonnet XVI the poet expresses his fear at almost being slain by the one of the deadly arrows that fly from the “immortall light” (2) of her eyes. At the last minute her eye twinkles and the arrow does not sink into his heart. Even so he declares that he “hardly scap’t with pain” (14). Transcending towards heavenly altitudes does not come easily. He has to suffer whenever he peers into the heavenly rays that rise from her eyes. The poet’s agony at any glance of the lady’s physical charms is of course a Petrarchan convention. However here, the fact that the arrow does not actually strike his heart shows that this love is not utterly devastating to the poet-lover. It is not love that inflicts him with pain but rather the transcending experience that accompanies it. In addition, the lady

he seeks is attainable unlike the ever out of reach Petrarchan lady, and it is the twinkle in her eye that ultimately saves the poet. In other words, and in the course of the entire sequence, the *Amoretti* lady is available to the poet-lover and she may even be eager for his love but only on her own terms.

The poet's suffering in his pursuit of the sonnet lady's "grace" (1) appears in sonnet XX. In a series of comparisons, the poet reveals how the lady here is crueller than lions and lionesses alike. Even though he yields before her and begs for mercy, she places her foot on his neck and stomps down his life. He addresses her saying that even a lion has mercy upon a lamb that yields before him; therefore, don't let your unmatched beauty be tainted with the blood of a prey supplicating before you: "Fayrer then fayrest let none other say, / that ye were blooded in a yeelded pray" (13-14). The poet's "humbled hart" (2) here can allude to the humbling experience of a Puritan as he overcomes the harshness of this world in his pursuit of heaven's salvation. The idea of suffering for a lofty cause reappears in sonnet LXIII. Here the poet feels he can endure all types of pain in order to "gaine eternall blisse" (14). Apparently, she at one point ignores his attention remaining aloof during even the rituals of courtship in a probable attempt to keep the lover's desire going.

The concept of grace resurfaces in sonnet XL but from a positive angle:

Mark when she smiles with amiable
cheare,

And tell me whereto can ye liken it:

When on each eyelid sweetly doe
appeare.

An hundred Graces as in shade to sit
(1-4)

From the poet's point of view, the lady's sweet smile cannot be justly compared to any earthly object. The word "Graces" is capitalized, an indication that the speaker intends a meaning beyond that of human grace. It could have holy implications, a grace that brings peace to the mind and spirit of the poet. Just like the title of the sonnet sequence, which is pluralised meaning little loves, here grace is also in the plural form as it is granted gradually in little bits. Later on, in the sonnet the lady's smile, with its balm-like quality is compared to mild sunshine after a violent storm: "...the fayre sunshine in somers day: / that when a dreadfull storme away is flit" (6-7). She brings delight to his "storme beaten hart" (13); as he meditates upon her "Graces" his spirit is uplifted and he forgets his troubles.

In sonnet LXXXVIII the poet pushes away every "spark of filthy lustful fyre" (1) that may disturb the lady's repose. Instead the poet brings forth only the purest emotions when he visits her in her "bowre of rest" (7). According to Okerlund (1982) this sonnet represents "an argument between two aspects of the poet's soul – his spiritual being and his baser physicality. The speaker may be attempting to control passions which threaten the sacred purity of his love in a dialogue with self." (Okerlund, 1982,

p. 41) The poet does not acquiesce to his physical desire which would taint the purity of his love. Although the Puritans celebrate physical pleasure in marriage, they look down upon pre-marital relations.

In sonnet LXVIII the poet combines religion with sensuality. His images echo those of the Song of Solomon in which the language of love “was considered in Spenser’s day to be an allegory of the union between Christ and his church” (Cavill, 2007). As Cavill (2007) pointed out, Spenser did not confine himself to secular sources to find images that alluded to physical intimacy. The Song of Solomon begins with “Let him kiss me with the kisses of his mouth” (cited in Cavill, 2007), while in the sonnet the poet begins by stating that he found “grace” (1) in the lady’s kiss. It is arguable that this grace the poet finds in his beloved’s lips could echo God’s grace. Even this physical act of kissing is associated with his quest to be at one with Jesus Christ. His love for this lady transcends this world and transports the poet to a realm of spirituality.

Cavill (2007) argued that the image of the deer in sonnet LXVII was also taken from a holy source. Psalm 42 reads as follows: “As the hart brayeth for rivers of water, so panteth after thee O God” (cited in Cavill, 2007). He hunts after the lady just as a believer strives for God’s salvation. Johnson (1993) discussed another angle of this sonnet. Here the poet is no longer the hunter because after he has almost given up the hunt, the deer approaches him willingly:

There she beholding me with milder
looke

Sough not to fly, but fearlesse still did
bide

Till I in hand her yet half trembling
tooke

And with her owne goodwill hir fyrmely
tyde (9-12)

According to Johnson (1993), “the male surrenders his will to mastery, and the female surrenders her freedom”. From a Puritan perspective this situation between the two lovers is ideal in the making of a successful marriage. The man’s rule is not so forceful; he relinquishes the role of the hunter. There also has to be willing submission on the part of the woman, “as part of her obedience to Christ” (Pronk, 1997). In the preceding sonnet or the “betrothal sonnet”, the love between the poet and the lady “is synchronized with the divine love of Christ in the final outcome of reconciliation of opposites” (Wirth, 2007).

In sonnet XXII the poet speaks of the “holy season” (1) for fasting and praying. Here the poet wants to build a temple for his “sweet Saynt” in his mind and his thoughts will perform sacred ceremonies like priests. He will sacrifice his heart on the temple’s altar where it will burn with the paradoxically “pure and chaste desire” (12). Their love is associated to a number of religious references in this sonnet to further reinforce the sacred quality of their Puritan love for one another.

Another overtly religious sonnet is LXVIII or “Easter”. From Cavill’s (2007) viewpoint this sonnet alludes to Jesus’ love and suffering for humanity. The

poet describes “the sacred love of God for those he created” (Cavill, 2007). He sanctifies their love once again by creating a link between it and Christ, as love is the lesson to learn from Christ’s sacrifice for mankind. A Puritan couple should always direct their love for each other towards their love for Christ. Johnson (1993) stated that suffering for both lady and lover becomes an opportunity rather than a sacrifice. Through acceptance of deprivation, both of them achieved a reward that proved to be of greater value than individual triumph.

As the wedding approaches, the lady begins to harbour some doubts in sonnet LXV. The two lovers have reached a degree of mutuality wherein the lady “is liberated enough to express her very human doubts about marriage” (Johnson, 1993). The speaker assures her that her fears are unnecessary because she is not really losing her freedom as much as she is gaining two liberties. The poem here expresses some Puritan ideals in marriage such as “loyal loue” (10), “simple truth” (11), and “good will” (11). The lady’s willing acquiescence to her future husband is necessary for the marriage to work; matrimony for the lady is likened to a pleasant bird cage: “the gentle birde feels no captivity / within her cage, but singes and feeds her fill” (7-8). The “spotless pleasure” (14) echoes the Puritan celebration of physical enjoyment made pure in marriage.

In the final sonnet in *Amoretti* the two lovers experience a period of separation that is unbearable to the poet. He compares himself to a Culver, or “dove” (Verma,

2001) that sits on a branch singing her songs and awaiting her absent mate. The speaker mourns the parting of his beloved, for his world is sad and dismal without her. He uses the word “mourn” to allude to his dead life in the absence of her glorious light. Nothing can bring surcease to his sorrows except “her owne ioyous sight, whose sweet aspect both God and man can move” (10). Once again, the lady is attributed with larger than life dimensions; she not only brings joy to people on earth, but she also moves God in his heaven with her divine beauty. The Puritan idea of companionability makes a strong presence in this sonnet. The lady “appears again as the absence presence; her voice is not heard but recognized as the ‘sweet aspect’ that alone can ‘move’ the lover” (Johnson, 1993). Even in her absence the speaker always carries her essence in his heart for solace.

Spenser continues the theme of cruel love in the attached Anacreontics, a series of epigrams with which the poet concludes the *Amoretti* sequence. These poems which feature Cupid and the goddess of love perpetuate the lover’s suffering in *Amoretti* and foresee the holy union in *Epithalamion*. As Silvia (1989) pointed out, the Anacreontics should be viewed “as the finale of the *Amoretti*, rather than the *Epithalamion* (which is treated more as the fulfilment of the courtship process)”. Seen in such a manner the Anacreontics revealed “the ambivalent and inconclusive nature of love” (Silvia, 1989); consequently, these epigrams “recapitulate the conflicts in the sonnet sequence and anticipate the epithalamial resolution” (Silvia, 1989).

Although these epigrams convey the painful woes of love as an experience, they also portray “love as a gift of grace” and a “benevolent, healing experience” (Silvia, 1989). The episodic narrative that unfolds in the epigrammatic sequence reinforces the never-ending paradoxical cycle of cruel / joyous love. The poet-lover draws parallels between himself and Cupid as both the victim and victimizer in the experience of love. In the first epigram it is Cupid who entices the lover to chase after the bee, grab it forcefully and get stung; in a similar fashion when the speaker tries to impose his passion on his beloved, he receives a sharp dose of suffering from his lady. Ironically, in epigram four Cupid is the victim of his own playful ways when he hastily grabs a bee in order to ‘subdue’ it and ends up inflicted with the bee’s sting. Cupid’s mother, Venus, the goddess of love takes pity on her wounded son and heals him only after she gently advises him to have mercy on the lovers whom he has inflicted with anguish in the past for his own merriment. Cupid heeds his mother’s words albeit temporarily only to resume his mischievous ways after healing from his wounds. The speaker concludes the final stanza in the fourth epigram wondering about the inconclusive nature of love until he remembers the lesson to be learned from the story of Cupid and the bee. Love is both an all-consuming and a healing experience; the poet-lover must not insist upon reciprocity from his beloved. Only when he can wholly submit to the encounter with Cupid’s arrow can he gain the mutuality of affection that he so desperately seeks.

In this epigrammatic narrative, Spenser’s combines religious and mythological imagery revealing his espousal of Christian and Renaissance values. Such a combination of Christian and Classical images come to light most prominently in the portrayal of Venus and Cupid. Miola (1980) remarked that

it is Venus’ divinity, her compatibility with the notion of a loving Christian God, that sparks the comparison between her meeting with Cupid and the sinner’s reconciliation with God. The striking similarity between this simile and the epigram’s reunion of cupid and Venus points to the latter’s allegorical significance. In both passages Venus acts as a symbol of divine power whose primary function is the healing of spiritual wounds and the reinstatement of sinners to a life of grace. (p. 63)

The image of Venus holding Cupid in her lap brings to mind “the iconography of the Madonna and child” (Silvia, 1984). Interestingly enough, the poet’s beloved is associated with Venus in epigram three when Cupid mistakes the speaker’s lady for the goddess of love. In the final line of this epigram, the poet lover is not surprised that Cupid has made such a mistake, stating that “many haue err’d in this beauty” (8). Once again, the lady’s divine beauty is emphasized; by meditating upon his lady’s unsurmountable beauty, the poet is both afflicted and healed by her powers.

Platonism comes to the fore here anew; love appears as the means for the lover to transcend the material, physical world through the meditation upon the idealized beauty and virtue of the lady who is the object of this platonic love. Likewise, the Puritan strives for God's grace through the contemplation of the beauty of divine ideals.

Spenser's use of sensual imagery and Classical allusions alongside his portrayal of Puritan suffering for heavenly light in the *Amoretti* and the *Anacreontics* reflect the poet's amalgamation of his Puritan faith with the essence of the Renaissance in his works. Spenser's Puritanism is one which is qualified by the Elizabethan spirit of humanism and the rebirth of Classicism. Padelford (1916) summed up the two disparate dimensions of Spenser's character best in the following statement: "Spenser was in the main an admirable exponent of the Renaissance, however contradictory to its spirit his theological professions may have been". Thus, Spenser embraces the Renaissance revival of Classical scholarship and philosophy in addition to the Elizabethan emphasis on humanistic values, but all within the spiritual milieu of his Christian faith.

Holy Puritanical Union in *Epithalamion*

After this period of separation, the two lovers are united in holy matrimony in the poem *Epithalamion*. This poem celebrates the "marriage of mind, body and spirit" (Johnson, 1993), a phrase that resonates with Puritan ideals in marriage. This exemplifies Spenser's model of the sacred relationship

between man and woman and the appropriate kind of love relationship between them. The images in this marriage ceremony display various Episcopalian components; Spenser's employment of such imagery illustrates his position, even during his strongest espousal of Puritan beliefs in his early days, as a "moderate Episcopalian Puritan" (Hume, 1984). In fact, in her analysis of Spenser's *The Sheperdes Calender*, Hume (1984) noted that "Spenser supported episcopacy as did many Puritans; but his management of the argument in the *Calender* ... indicates that he participated during those years [the 1570s] in the zealous Puritan search for reform of ecclesiastical abuses". Although it is hard for critics to ascertain whether Spenser retained his Puritan faith during the 1590s when he wrote the *Amoretti* sequence and the marriage song, most agree that he remained a devout Protestant throughout his life.

Cavill (2007) marked that Spenser utilized the Classical form in *Epithalamion* to suit his Protestant beliefs. Even though the poem contains numerous mythological references, it still focuses in the end on "a Christian marriage service before an altar attended by a 'holy priest' (224) and choirs of angels singing alleluia (240)". The poet rejoices in describing the marriage bed, but as a means to produce children: 'that may raise a large posterity' (417).

The Protestant notions of marriage as pointed out by Cavill concur with the Puritan sacredness in marriage; nevertheless, the poet's emphasis on the joys of the marital chamber express the Puritans' emphasis on the physical pleasures of matrimony.

Procreation is of course the Catholic and the Protestant purpose in marriage while physical pleasure is regarded with disapproval. The Puritans on the other hand have a healthier attitude to the joy that comes with this holy union. This positive attitude manifests itself in *Epithalamion* in the marital chamber scene. The poet welcomes the night after the marriage ceremony and says he does not want anything to disturb “The safety of our joy” (325). Lane (2000) stated that:

[T]he Puritans revealed themselves as intensely a people of desire. In fact, this evocation of passion was what made necessary the severe cautions against the danger of misdirected longing that we have come to regard as characteristically Puritan. The excesses of natural theology (the pantheistic identification of God with nature) and the peril of disordered affections were perennial concerns in the preaching of Puritan pulpits. In a spirituality where temporal beauty was recognized as an unpolished mirror of eternal Beauty, there was always the danger of lingering at the enjoyment of the one without pressing on to ecstatic union with the other... This theme of “desiring God” had appeared so often in Puritan sermons that desire itself had become a dominant way of articulating the knowledge of God, the surest test of human character, the authenticity of

spiritual experience generally, and the very nature of prayer. (pp. 374-375)

The repetition of the word “woods” in the refrain “That all the woods may answer and your Eccho ring” can also have some Puritan relevance. For Puritans all forms of worship don’t necessarily have to be performed in the church. In this poem, the marriage ceremony takes place in the church, but its joy resonates in the birdsong of the surrounding woods. Lay (2016) explained that Spenser dedicated a major part of his marriage poem, namely twelve stanzas, “to the anticipation, preparation and procession” of the wedding but only one stanza for the ceremony itself” thereby revealing a certain “hesitation surrounding the marriage service”. Due to the fact that marriage was no longer considered a sacrament in the Anglican Church, “chastity within the marriage had...surpassed the virtues of perpetual virginity”. The wedding goes beyond the confines of the church; it is no longer a religious ritual performed in church but rather a spiritual and physical union between two individuals whose love harmonises the couple both with natural beauty and God’s grace.

Many of the *Amoretti* lady’s divine attributes are praised here once again, but her pride has been converted to humility. Even the heavenly light in her eyes has been toned down to modesty; she is too humble to lift her eyes up: “Her modest eyes to behold...Ne dare to lift her countenance too bold, / But blush to heare her prayes sung

so loud" (159, 162-3). According to Klein (1992) in her article "Protestant Marriage and the Revision of Petrarchan Loving in Spenser's *Amoretti*", this poem traces the poet's success in the "fashioning of the lady from a proud mistress into a humble bride who exhibits the richly suggestive "proud humility" [306] that characterises a virtuous Christian wife". In addition to this traditional image of the humble protestant bride is her celestial independence. The lady here retains the Puritan wife's spiritual equality with her husband that the Puritans emphasize (Pavlick, 1993; Pronk, 1997). She joins the poet in their mutual flight towards heavenly light through their holy union and pure love. Spenser celebrates the beauty of her spirit and "The inward beauty of her lively spright" (186) just as he did in the preceding sonnet sequence as well as her chastity. Her love is pure and free of any "base affections" (196). Throughout the poem, in the events preceding the ceremony, within the ceremony itself and in the privacy of the "brydall bourse" (299), the poet sings the praise of his lady's angel-like physical and spiritual beauty. Selincourt (1961) in *The Poetical Works of Edmund Spenser* summed up this nuptial song as a celebration of the "magic union of the lover's passion with deep religious feeling, of a free and ardent joy with a deep and tender reverence". This combination of the religious and the sensual is characteristic of the whole sonnet sequence as well as the marriage poem. The merging of elements that are at once of Classical,

mythological, Anglican, Protestant and Puritan significance in varying degrees illustrates furthermore the hybridized spirit of Spenser as a man and a poet; he truly embodies the values of Christian theology and Renaissance humanism.

CONCLUSION

In these two works Spenser succeeds in the intermingling of his religious beliefs with Petrarchan conventions on one hand, and the Platonic ladder of love on the other. By placing the lady high above upon a pedestal as is the norm in Petrarchan poetry, Spenser parallels her lofty status to the sought-after heavenly light in Platonism and the striven for salvation in God's Grace. During the sequence of *Amoretti*, Spenser gradually transforms the lady in the sonnets from a fragmented form to an angelic figure to a voiced being with an identity. Spenser, by that, shifts in his sonnets from the portrayal of the transcendent ideal to the phenomenal everyday life. All throughout the *Amoretti* sequence as well as in *Epithalamion*, the poet exhibits numerous Puritan tendencies, especially with regard to marriage, suffering, spirituality and Grace.

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Sacred Narratives and their Potential Contribution to Cultural Tourism in Malaysia

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ABSTRACT

This article focuses on sacred narratives found in Malaysia, in particular in the northern region of Peninsular Malaysia and their potential contribution to the cultural tourism sector in Malaysia. Sacred narratives refer to oral stories regarding beliefs that were regarded as sacrosanct and inherited since time immemorial by the Malay society. In the traditional context, such stories provide a set of guidelines, rules and prohibitions to be observed in our daily lives. Apart from its correlation with traditional beliefs, this article argues that sacred narratives have an enormous potential to be fostered as one of the factors that can help to boost the country's tourism industry. In order to provide evidence, this article will examine the method used by some tour operators particularly in Langkawi Island and Mount Jerai, Kedah to highlight sacred narratives in those tourist locations that they were operating in as a tactic to attract tourists. Based on this success, this article suggests that the involved parties in the tourism industry should mobilise efforts in a more systematic manner to gather sacred stories, to promote the unique features of these stories through websites, as well as to shape and to place skillful storytellers of sacred narratives in the various tourist locations. This article suggests that concerned parties should exploit this advantage as a potential to boost cultural tourism, a sector that is currently growing in this country.

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INTRODUCTION

The discussion of oral stories, including sacred narratives in the Malay world has never been neglected, although the corpus

of written and modern literature accorded much space in seminars, conferences and publications. This situation has occurred due to a number of factors; researchers who have shown little interest in oral literature, a field that includes sacred narratives; a dearth of notable scholars who are keen to explore and promote this field; and the low probability of discussing new findings during important seminar meetings. Equally important, sacred narratives have the potential of providing material for cultural tourism as in the case of the island of Bali, Indonesia.

Deriving from this importance, this article examines the significance of sacred stories that are considered sacrosanct to a society by providing evidence that will prove their sacredness based on a number of features. Then, this article will examine the potential of these sacred narratives as a medium to motivate the country's tourism industry particularly from the aspect of cultural tourism in Malaysia. Both objectives are important to answer the question of whether sacred stories have to be preserved in society as part of its belief system or can they be moved to a wider space, to be mobilised as an economic generating medium through the tourism sector.

CONCEPTS AND METHOD

The data of this study comprise oral stories with sacred features which were either obtained through fieldwork or derived from published books. According to Osman (1982), compiling stories at fieldwork is most important method in oral literature

research. The fieldwork was conducted in a number of districts in the northern region of Peninsular Malaysia, as well as the island of Bali for the purposes of comparison. The study site of this fieldwork consisted of areas that have evolved into tourist attractions in both these countries.

This article is discussed from the perspective of scholars who have problematised the concept of sacred narratives in a particular society. For example, William (1984) argued that myths or sacred narratives were "true narratives" because of the capacity of this kind of story to transmit important messages to society; more importantly, they were assumed to be true, sacred and could not be ridiculed. Dundes (1984) a famous folklorist, whose view converges with William Basscom, had provided a definition that was insightful. To him, myths that are inherent in these sacred narratives approximate to a man's journey of life: "*A myth is a sacred narrative explaining how the world and man came to be in their present form*". In other words, stories that are sacred normally recount the origin of a phenomenon which involves life in this world and also that of man from ancient to contemporary times. Dundes (1965) opined that stories were quite different compared to oral stories or *folktales* which were solely fictional in character. For the ancient society, myths contain a high level of truth, hence Dundes contended that there was a high level of confidence towards sacred narratives in certain aspects of a religious belief until today. It is highly probable that rituals or ceremonies in certain religious

practices today stem from beliefs in sacred narratives from ancient times. If this can be proven true, then it can be said that sacred narratives indeed continue to exist and wield an influence on the life of society today although for some modern societies. Apart from that, Osman and Ahmad (2004) saying that stories such as it was could be narrated by either amateur storyteller or professional.

Local scholars who were spurred by Dundes' definition included Mat Piah et al. (2000) who characterized myths as stories that were considered by society as being true and sacred. The figure or character involved in myths usually comprises a spirit, deity, or half-deity. Mat Piah et al. (2000) also stated that myths which had sacred elements provided one of the bases of a belief regarding a phenomenon by the society which owned and inherited these sacred narratives. Taib (1991) also had said once that such type of stories was known as legends or *Keramat*.

Seagel (1999) suggested that myths often co-existed with certain rituals. According to him, "*Myths and rituals operate together... myth and rituals cannot exist without each other*". The rites concerned were probably in the form of ceremonies, worship, the practice of feasting the spirit etc. Indirectly, the presence of rituals in these sacred narratives would be better believed because of physical evidence in order to show that the society concerned truly respects and believes the stories.

Based on the perspectives of Western and Malaysian scholars, it can be concluded that in the traditional context, oral stories

which are sacred in nature necessarily consist of the following distinctive features:

i) pure in nature, sanctified and assumed to be true by the society which owns the sacred narratives.

ii) associated with the beliefs of a society

iii) the characters comprise a human being or an abnormal human being

iv) ritualistic practices

Stories with such features have endured till today although they appear to be hidden and relatively unknown. Certain community groups in rural areas have stored these stories in their memories and would often narrate them to their grandchildren. At times, these stories are regarded as lessons to be learnt, taboos and rules of daily life for the younger generation. Although such stories are not easily proven, the society which owns these beliefs is proud of its heritage and would recount these stories to any interested party without any sense of awkwardness.

FINDING

Indeed, ancient society believed that sacred narratives were not to be mocked at as they have actually occurred in ancient times. Vansina (1985) viewed sacred narratives as part of an oral tradition; they were able to stand on their own as a historical source. This is because these narratives are informed by cultural values and beliefs of that society which have been passed on from one generation to another. In this context, stories such as "Mahsuri" in Langkawi Island, "Cerita Tok Syekh" as

well as “Batu Kapal” in Mount Jerai in Kedah are regarded by the local community as credible in terms of their existence and sacredness. The story of Mount Jerai was also documented in the document/ *Handbook of Oral History in Lembah Bujang* (Musa, 2015). This handbook is a research collaboration between the Northern Corridor Implementation Authority (NCIA) and Universiti Sains Malaysia (USM).

For instance, each and every generation in Langkawi knows who Mahsuri was, her character and the tough challenges she faced until her murderous death which occurred between 1817-1821. Mahsuri was a woman slandered by a village headman named Wan Yahaya. The slander was based on the jealousy of his wife, Wan Mahora, because Mahsuri was beautiful and attracted many men including her husband. Mahsuri was wrongfully accused of committing adultery with a traveller when her husband was not at home. Without any inquiry, the village headman sentenced Mahsuri to death. The sacred aspect emphasized in each and every narration was the oozing of white blood from Mahsuri’s body when she was stabbed. This caused Mahsuri to put a curse on Langkawi that it would be in a state of unrest for seven generations (Ku Ahmad Bin Ku Sulong, personal communication, Mac 5, 2013). Mahsuri’s curse was also believed to have truly happened by the local people as Siam evidently mounted an attack on Langkawi in 1821 which destroyed the island causing it to suffer decades of decline and neglect. The truthfulness of Mahsuri’s story was reinforced with the emergence of

Mahsuri’s seventh generation in Thailand around the year 2000, in the form of a beautiful Wan Aishah Wan Nawawi.

In the case of Tok Syekh, findings from the field work conducted by the author in 2010 and 2014 revealed that the local community was truly convinced of his existence although there was no scientific evidence to prove this. In the same vein, specific locations on Mount Jerai, the dwelling of this personality, were conserved and not desecrated. Similar taboos were imposed on the area of “Batu Kapal” where the ship which was cursed had turned into stone. The legend of Batu Kapal refers to a giant named Sang Kelembai who once lived in Mount Jerai. According to oral stories narrated by the elders, Sang Kelembai possessed the ability to curse things into stone. Among those he cursed was a huge ship. Apart from stones that resemble a ship, images of men’s heads, fish, huge fingers in the form of stone are also visible till today (Ramli Aziz, personal communication, May 4, 2014) and notes on the area in Mount Jerai. Rahman (2013) also said that area of “Batu Kapal”, known as “Black Territory” in Mount Jerai.

Another informant, Pak Harun, said the local community believed that the cursed area surrounding Batu Kapal reflected “a black region” because it was inhabited by a giant; conversely, Tok Syekh’s area, a short distance away, was regarded as a “white region” due to Tok Syekh’s piety. This “white” region was inhabited by a religious man named Syekh Abdullah al-Yamani. According to the notes in *Hikayat*

Merong Mahawangsa (edition 1998), Syeikh Abdullah was said to have arrived from Mecca. According to Pak Harun, it is possible that Syeikh Abdullah was accompanied by Arab traders to Kedah once upon a time. In this area, there was a wide field and a well that is related to the Syeikh's dwelling when he arrived in Mount Jerai. This field is said to be a place of worship and regarded holy. However, the local community believed that the Syeikh had disappeared after outsiders began to visit this place for superstitious reasons. Till today, the wide, open stony space is called "Padang Tok Syeikh" (Harun Bin Ahmad, personal communication, September 7, 2010) and notes on Mount Jerai.

What is the connection between these sacred narratives and ritualistic practices? Using Seagal's (1999) perspective as a guide, a story that is regarded as sacrosanct is required to be accompanied by certain rituals. In the context of the oral story of Langkawi and Mount Jerai, indeed such rituals did exist. According to informant Ku Ahmad Ku Sulong, a retired teacher and who once served in Kota Mahsuri, Mahsuri's tomb was regarded as sanctified by some members of the society as it could fulfil their wishes; in fact, a few worshipping practices were conducted in that area before conservation work was carried out by the government around the 1980s. As a follow-up to the incident, the tomb was relocated in order to circumvent such ritualistic practices. However, during the fieldwork in 2015, it was found that such practices still occurred, but they had taken a different

form. For example, at the end of the tomb's site was a box full of Thai currency which was believed to have been filled by visitors from Thailand for purposes of having their vows fulfilled and their spiritual intentions realized.

Likewise, in Mount Jerai, Tok Syeikh's abode became a site of meditation by some people. According to an informant named Nor Ramzee Ishak (civil servant), Mount Jerai was often frequented by those who were interested to pursue metaphysical knowledge as well as shamanic spiritual practice. They often prayed and recited Quranic verses all night long. There might be some truth in this as a number of web and blog sites have highlighted the fact that people have been conducting rites in the aforementioned location. As such, the sacred element in Tok Syeikh's story indeed existed, it was then extended to some rituals which are still conducted by practitioners of traditional medicine. Apart from meditation, magical spells were also recited when they visited the site as a condition to acquiring their metaphysical knowledge.

DISCUSSION

The Potential of Sacred Narratives in Malaysia for Cultural Tourism

Theoretically, there is a basis for linking sacred narratives to tourism. In this regard, Janos (2012), provided the following definition of cultural tourism:

"Cultural tourism can be defined as that activity which enables people to experience the different ways of life other

people, thereby gaining at first hand an understanding of their customs, traditions, the physical environment, the intellectual ideas and those places of architectural, historic, archaeological or other cultural significance which remain from earlier times..."

There are various types of cultural tourism. These include *heritage tourism, cultural thematic routes, cultural city tourism and cultural tours, tradition ethnic tourism, event and festival tourism, religious tourism and pilgrimage routes, creative culture and creative tourism*. Heritage tourism is a suitable category in order to explain the importance of folklore or oral tradition, specifically the use of legends and local myths as a tourist attraction. As Janos (2012) contended, heritage tourism "*enables people to experience the different ways of life of other people...*" (Janos, 2012). The sacred narratives found in the tourist site certainly will foreground characters, plot and story motifs which are different and unheard of prior to this. Consequently, the use of these sacred narratives will provide new experiences and knowledge to tourists.

The island of Bali, Indonesia is a perfect example of how a country in Southeast Asia exploits sacred narratives and rituals for the purpose of cultural tourism. The tradition of storytelling in Bali, known as *Satua* (Suastika, 2011). Bali employs four popular sacred narratives, namely, the stories of "Tanah Lot", "Tirta Empul", "Rambut Siwi" and "Naga Basuki". In contrast to the stories in Langkawi or Mount Jerai, the

background of Bali's sacred stories illustrate the place of worship of Bali's Hindu society. These stories problematised the origin of the formation of "Pura-Pura", that is the temple or the huge place of worship in Bali which has remained in its undamaged condition till today.

In the author's fieldwork in 2014 and 2015, it was found that every resident, regardless of age, inhabiting the areas relating to the four sacred narratives, knew the stories that explained the creation of "Pura-Pura". In fact, in the village of Besakih in Kabupaten Karangasem where the story of "Naga Basuki" originated, the statue of a huge dragon near the main entrance of Pura Besakih was displayed. Naga Basuki refers to a huge dragon which occupied a cave in the village concerned. A king named Mpu Sidimantra from Jawa often visited this cave in order to obtain spiritual knowledge to guard the well-being and the safety of his people. One fine day Mpu Sidimantra sent his son, Ida Manik Angkeran, to face the dragon as he was indisposed. The son, a gambler, soon met the dragon and brought a message from his father. However, after the dragon turned to re-enter the cave, Manik Angkeran, upon seeing a huge diamond at the end of the dragon's tail, took a knife and cut off the dragon's tail and absconded with the diamond. Angered, Naga Basuki licked Manik Angkeran's footstep, and all of a sudden fire engulfed Manik Angkeran's body.

Worried that his son had not returned home, Mpu Sidimantra proceeded towards Besakih, performed a number of devotional

rituals to coax a reluctant dragon to reemerge from the cave. Sidimantra appealed to Naga Basuki to revive his son and promised to use his magical powers to reconnect the dragon's tail. An agreement was reached and Manik Angkeran was then decreed to live in Desa Besakih as a cleaner of that place of worship. Anxious that his son would flee to Jawa, Sidimantra used his magical powers to part the land with his staff, thus separating Jawa from Bali (Suarka & Cika, 2013). According to Komang Hendra, one of the workers at Pura Besakih, the elders keep recounting the tale of Naga Basuki being a caretaker of the area as well as Gunung Agung, which was behind Pura Besakih. To symbolise that belief, the statue of the dragon which was erected remained on a permanent basis in that place. Likewise, Pura Besakih also remained eternally as the biggest Pura among all the oldest Puras in Bali.

Ritualistic practices have gained prominence in Bali because of the symbiotic relationship between the sacred narratives of Bali and its religious beliefs. For example, in Pura Tanah Lot rituals conducted included the presentation of *sesajen*, that is "performance" or "offerings" to God as a sign of gratitude, and prayers apart from drinking "holy water" which was believed to be located in the lower part of the Pura. In Malaysia, such ritualistic practices are regarded as superstitions and are in conflict with the tenets of Islam. Nevertheless, sacred narratives should not be ignored in the agenda of the state's economic development. The state government has

promoted tourism by publicizing these sacred narratives via websites, replicas and notice boards in tourist sites as well as hiring skilled story tellers to work in these areas. Kedah, for instance, provides an excellent example of how sacred narratives can be mobilized for the purpose of cultural tourism. Kedah's tourism is made more vibrant with the discovery of a recent archaeological site in Sungai Batu in 2007 which also exhibited sacred features with the accompaniment of certain rituals found on particular monuments (Stephen & Andaya, 2011).

Sacred Narratives in Tourism Websites

Trevor (2009), a folklorist, once visualized a scenario of oral history including sacred narratives and folklore that would reach the public through the development of new rechnology. The accuracy of Trevor's perspective is shown in the way the management of Mount Jerai in Kedah promoted the place as a tourist site. With reference to the website of jeraihill.theregency.com.my, the management had included photos that were connected to Tok Syekh's story and also Batu Kapal. The photos would attract the attention of potential tourists who would then be motivated to read the sacred narratives and visit the places. In the website (<https://www.langkawi-insight.com/langkawi>), a complete story of the legend of Mahsuri was displayed, including her background, the episode of the curse which was regarded as sacred at that time, and Mahsuri's tomb site.

Sacred Narratives in the Form of Replicas and Notes in the Tourist Site

Apart from websites, sacred narratives also appeared in the form of huge replicas in the main tourist areas in Langkawi and Mount Jerai. According to Samsudin and Mohamad (2013), the construction of a monument or replica related to a story about the place will attract more tourist's attention. For example, in Langkawi, Kota Mahsuri was built and within it was a replica of Mahsuri's tomb and house. According to the informants, the replica of the built house was almost like Mahsuri's actual house. Beside the tomb, Mahsuri's story was made accessible to tourists. According to Ku Ahmad Ku Sulong (67 years), spokesperson of Kota Mahsuri, tourists will normally request a recount of Mahsuri's story.

Meanwhile, in Mount Jerai, the legend of Tok Syekh and Batu Kapal had appeared in a constructed form and documented at the peak of Mount Jerai. The depiction of Tok Syekh's presence is projected through a well which was already in existence and restored by the Kedah state government. It was believed that Tok Syekh had used the well while living on the peak of Mount Jerai a long time ago. This oral story is so interesting that it was included in the narrative of Mount Jerai's historical museum.

The Historical Museum of Mount Jerai provides notes on the background of Mount Jerai from its geological aspect as well as notes of oral stories which are discussed in this article. In addition, small replicas of ships which are connected to ports once

upon a time are also displayed. On the other hand, the Archaeological Museum of Lembah Bujang was more focused on the display of archaeological displays in the area concerned as artifacts that have been discovered. Apart from general information regarding Mount Jerai, the story of Batu Kapal and Tok Syekh was also displayed in this museum and had attracted the attention of visitors.

The Story Teller in the Tourist Site

During the fieldwork at Mahsuri's tomb, the author encountered a retired teacher known as Pak Ku (real name Ku Ahmad bin Ku Sulong), a tourist guide cum story teller of Mahsuri's story. The storytelling facilitated the public's understanding of the famous legend. Apart from seeing the replica of Mahsuri's house, Mahsuri's well and her tomb, visitors are able to understand the stories behind the site. Such storytellers were also found in Mount Jerai. The management hires workers, some local residents who are familiar with the stories, to help tourists to visit the surrounding sites besides recounting the mystical or sacred tales. As Vansina (1965) remarked, the role of articulate storytellers was crucial to ensure that the oral tradition would survive and shared with the public.

A recent development in Kedah was the discovery of Sungai Batu's archaeological site in 2007 (Saidin et al., 2011). Saidin who was directly involved in this archaeological discovery in Sungai Batu in 2007, for example, viewed these oral stories, whether they were mystical or legendary, as crucial

to archaeological tourism, an initiative of the Centre for Archaeological Research, USM in 2015 (Saidin, personal communication, October 10, 2017). In depicting the archaeological site as the main icon of Kedah's tourism, Saidin viewed this icon as requiring other elements which existed around it such as hospitality, transport system including the presence of legends and mystical phenomena to help make the place more interesting to outside tourists. To Mokhtar, the sacred narratives of Mount Jerai, located at a short distance from the archaeological site, is a potential that cannot be left idle; instead it has to be promoted to help develop archaeological tourism in Lembah Bujang/Sungai Batu.

Cognisant of this importance, the Northern Corridor Implementation Authority (NCIA) had initiated the search for new potential to develop archaeological tourism in Merbok/Mount Jerai. Among others is the oral history training programme of Lembah Bujang conducted for tourist guides in the Merbok area in 2014. In this programme, the participants were exposed to the theory and practice of oral history and the heritage of Lembah Bujang. This resulted in the production of a book titled *The Handbook of the Oral History of Lembah Bujang* by Mahani Musa which contains historical information, archaeology and local knowledge gathered by the participants of the programme through interviews with informed village dwellers. This handbook is a guide to help potential tour guides of the Lembah Bujang area to transmit information/interesting stories to

tourists visiting the archaeological site and surrounding areas. Indirectly, it will yield revenue for the tour guides concerned.

Challenges to Exploit the Potential of Sacred Narratives as a Medium for Cultural Tourism

In this contemporary era, oral stories can be used to promote tourism on a global scale, and in this way, they can regain their lost lustre. These stories can be channeled via websites, the construction of replicas on a large scale and also transmitted by a group of trained story tellers in designated tourist sites.

However, challenges to sustain these sacred narratives via the tourism sector still exist. One main problem is the high cost of promoting tourism, updating websites and training story tellers. Mindful of this, tour operators might lose interest in this project in the long run. As well, they might not fully understand the utility of sacred narratives in preserving intangible heritage. Instead, they might focus on aspects of tangible heritage such as heritage buildings, food, equipment, clothes etc. If this happens, the sustenance and use of such sacred narratives will come to a complete stop. This worry has a basis to it, for example, the tour operators in Gunung Keriang, Kedah did not exploit the legendary curse of Sang Kelembai which is linked to the hill to attract the attention of visitors. In other words, although the stories are known to the locals, they were not exploited to attract tourists following the failure of the tour operators in understanding

the potential of the heritage stories of the community to the concerned industry.

To overcome this challenge, the government needs to introduce an act or regulation which is capable of gazettement the heritage of sacred narratives owned by the community in the place concerned so that the cultural heritage is protected. Tour operators have to be reminded that such stories are important for cultural tourism and need to be maintained as an attraction in their tourist sites. In such a matter, only the National Heritage Department is capable of monitoring this issue to the best of its ability. The steps taken by the USM Centre of Archaeology and the National Corridor of Implementation Authority (NCIA) have to be expanded and emulated by other agencies because these methods are novel in promoting oral stories including the sacred ones to the public. Hence, the method used by the USM Centre of Archaeology and NCIA would not only help to enhance the economic standing of the local people but in fact it would make them part of the ambassador of cultural tourism collective.

CONCLUSION

Sacred narratives revolve around oral folk tales regarding the wonder, myths and legends inherited for generations. Clearly, even with modernization, sacred narratives will continue to survive, by becoming a guide or rules for society to follow till today. In this era of technological advancement, sacred narratives, once owned and nurtured in the private domain, have the potential to boost cultural tourism on a large scale, thus

generating income for the country. Propelled to the public domain, they can now be shared and appreciated by the global citizens of the world. The government, tour operators and even the public in Malaysia should not belittle the ability of sacred narratives as a medium of tourism. We should emulate Bali as it has managed to maintain the use of its stories for the survival of the economic sector of tourism. In other words, the link between sacred narratives and cultural tourism is very close, meaningful and should be continued in the major tourist sites in this country.

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The Effectiveness of the Socialization of Tafsir Inspirasi in Social Media

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ABSTRACT

The researcher conducted this study from January 1st to 20th May 2018 (140 days) to find out the effectiveness of the socialization of Tafsir Inspirasi Quran in the Social Media (Tafsir Inspirasi Quran in the social media has been in existence since 2012. This research was conducted by seven members of the KITAP team in Indonesia. Data collection methods such as interviews, observations and review of documents were used. There were three stages of analysis i.e.; media analysis, conversation analysis, and network analysis. Data analysis method was done by data reduction or data process, data presentation and conclusion. The purpose of this study is to determine the effectiveness of socialization through Tafsir Inspirasi in social media. Social media is often ridiculed by religious leaders, and some even forbid the use of social media altogether. This research aims to find out if socialization through Tafsir Inspirasi in the social media is effective. The conclusion was that the four principles of Quran: divinity, humanity, morality and moderation are found in the three stages of method analysis: media, conversation and network analysis.

Keywords: Effectiveness, KITAP, love letter, Quran, socialization, social media, Tafsir Inspirasi, WhatsApp

INTRODUCTION

Kaplan and Hanelein (2010) defined social media as a means for individuals to interact through internet-based applications created using the ideology and technology of Web

2.0. It gives them a place to create, share, and exchange comments against each other in the virtual environment. Some of the more popular social media platforms are Facebook, YouTube, Instagram, Twitter, WhatsApp, Google+ and Line.

According to Hartshorn (2010), there are four effective measures of social media which matter; meets human needs, has cost-effective marketing, builds brand loyalty and is realistic. There has been a shift in

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the ways the world gains information. Previously, information was obtained only by reading books, but at present information is sought through the internet, particularly social media.

What about the Quran? The Quran as a holy book is still reprinted, but reading it alone is not enough for Muslims as they need a complete understanding of the Quran to guide them in their lives and to achieve the desired fulfilment. Social media is one of the alternatives that Muslims use to understand the Quran better.

Tafsir Inspirasi is a commentary of the Quran in Indonesian language. Tafsir Inspirasi consists of brief explanations of the content of the Quran initiated by Arifin (2016). The interpretations are from three main tafsir sources: Al-Qarni (2012), Ash-Sha'rawi (1991), and Yusuf (1987). This interpretation consists of 1 volume with 114 chapters. This book is written sequentially starting from 1000 main titles, 6000 subtitles, verses, translations and inspirational conclusions. This book is published by Duta Azhar Medan Indonesia and dedicated as material for da'wah.

The Tafsir Inspirasi activities in social media are done by a team known as KITAP or Tafsir Inspirasi Community. The team consists of 6 members (Anggraini et al., 2015). The Community was formed on August 17, 2015.

This community began its activities by broadcasting the material themed "One theme one day" every morning. The official program name is "Love Letters". It utilizes various social media to share the content

of Tafsir Inspirasi - through Facebook, Line @, WhatsApp, BBM, Telegram and Instagram. All the data written can be seen in the Tafsir Inspirasi blog spot. In order to attract the reader's attention, the KITAP team creates a quote and image that inspires the audience. This volunteer program is implemented because the creators want to reinforce the inspiring Quranic messages, thus encouraging the readers to understand and practice it in everyday life.

There is a lot of research done on the effectiveness of social media. Kallio (2015) researched about the effectiveness of social media as a marketing communication tactic in the case of Tina Tricot Ltd; while Parsons (2013) wrote about using social media to reach consumers: a content analysis of official Facebook pages. Azkiyah (2017) commented about the effectiveness of research in education. The three researchers studied about the marketing communication strategies in social media (Facebook) and the effectiveness of it in research and education.

Studies on the effectiveness of marketing the Quran on social media are reported by Husen (2017). This book discusses the impact of Quranic verses that are shared in the social media. The verses are often used in argumentation and the author responds to how the law is actually related to the verse in the question.

Among the research on Tafsir Inspirasi within social living and spaces is the impact of this writing in the information age (Saha, 2015). Arifin wrote on multiculturalism in the Quran: the approach of Tafsir Inspirasi

(Arifin, 2014), a critical study of Tafsir Inspirasi method's on Quranic interpretation (Arifin, 2015a) and about placing the Tafsir Inspirasi as part of the renewal of interpretations of the Quran in Indonesia (Arifin, 2015b).

METHODS

This is a qualitative research using the Quran-in-sociology approach. There are two types of data: primary and secondary data. Sources of primary data are from Love Letters in the BlogSpot, numbers 779 to 919. Sources of secondary data are books, articles, and research reports. Data collection methods used are interviews, observations, and documentation. The location of this activity is in Indonesia with participation of people from different areas such as Medan, Bandung, Bengkulu, Aceh and Surabaya. The 6 KITAP members and the writer were the researchers.

The method used for analysis is data reduction or data process, presentation of data and the drawing of conclusions. This method is supplemented by data validation through triangulation. The illustration of

the social media analysis model which is referred to as the 3 stage social media analysis model is inserted below:

RESULTS

Results from media analysis show that the effectiveness has been achieved, i.e., $3402/1000 = 3,402$ effective. The *second* result from media analysis on the effectiveness of engagement is $322/320 = 1.006$ (effective). The *third*, result from media analysis is on good viral. It is can be seen in the table below.

The conversation analysis consists of the evaluation of sharing of voice, sentiment analysis and ethnography analysis. In sharing of voice, we found people who rated negative with a positive majority.

In network analysis, it was found that influencer identification consisted of author, the RRI team and the KITAP team. Tafsir Inspirasi is closer to the members in the campus, office and mosque, on RRI and in social media. The dynamic network is already interconnected within the three parts of Tafsir Inspirasi.

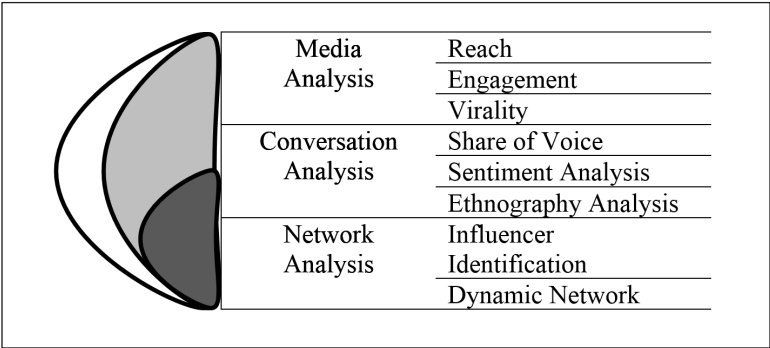


Figure 1. The three stage analysis in social media model
Source: Primaretha, 2012

Table 1
Observation matrix

No	Analysis	Tool	Result
1	Media Analysis	Reach	3.402 or effective
		Engagement	1,006 or effective
		Virality	Good viral, readable and once issued
2	Conversation Analysis	Share of Voice	Mostly neutral and positive
		Sentiment	Doubts against Tafsir in general
		Ethnography Analysis	The social media is often ridiculed by religious leaders, and some found to be forbidding the using social media.
3	Network Analysis	Influencer Identification	Author, RRI team and KITAP team
			Study in the community: campus, office and mosque. Studies at RRI and in social media
		DNA	already interconnected

The results of the study revealed that there are some people who only read or even skip directly without reading. The final result is that social media is often ridiculed by religious leaders and some even forbid the use social media. Overall the results show that socialization through Tafsir Inspirasi in the social media is successful.

The conclusion is that the four principles of Quran: divinity, humanity, morality and moderation are found in the three stages of method analysis: media analysis, conversation analysis, and network analysis.

DISCUSSION

The Media Analysis

The following case study was conducted using the 3 stage social media analysis model. The *First* stage, is the media analysis. This is viewed from the 3 main matrices of reachability, engagement, and virility. The total number of members is 1000 people, from various parts of Indonesia. The output that has been achieved are as follows:

BBM 2: 1464, Instagram: 392, Facebook: 9.961, Telegram: 668, Line @: 6,389 and WhatsApp: 1716. If there is an average of 6 social media then it will be 20.590: $6 = 3.431$. If calculated according to the formula of effectiveness; follower = actual output / output target ≥ 1 . Or $3431/1000 = 3,431$. That is the actual output compared to the targeted output. If it is greater than 1 (one) then the effectiveness of the social media will be considered achieved.

The study also discovered that the members have registered with the same name in more than one social media platforms. Even so, the target of 1000 can still be achieved because members are on BBM 2 and in WhatsApp alone; each of these social media has been targeted. Then, the effectiveness from the reachability is achieved.

The *second* matrix is engagement. This matrix seeks to measure how much activity it makes from the content as well as how much of the content gets feedback from the audience. From January 1 until 20 May 2018

(140 days) as in 2017, the Team planned to present a one-day one theme, or 140 output socialized into social media.

When the researcher saw the blogspot for Tafsir Inspirasi on January 1st, 2018, it had broadcast 779 Tafsir Inspirasi, Hud (11): 50-52. While on May 20th it had broadcast 919 Tafsir Inspirasi, Fathir (35): 24-26. If the researcher minuses $919 - 779$, the result is 140. If the researcher uses the formula: $\text{effectiveness} = \text{actual output} / \text{output target} > 1$. Or $140/140 = 1$; the actual output of the targeted output which is equal to 1 (one), then the effectiveness is considered achieved. In the matrix of engagement, the researcher acknowledges the consistency of the KITAP team.

The researcher also found at least 15 groups with a total of 1716 members following this review in routine fashion: they were State Islamic University (SIU) of North Sumatera with 28 members (Matsum, 2015), Faculty of Da'wah and Communication (FDC-SIU) Group with 63 members (Yusra, 2016), al-Ikhlas Mosque with 28 members (Beni, 2017). Postgraduate Lecturers of SIU North Sumatera with 71 participants (Umri, 2016), Paytren with 32 members (Ningsih, 2017), Ulil Albab Friends with 63 participants (Utami, 2015), Group for Learning Islam with 241 members (Faiz, 2017), Group WOAG (World Organisation of al-Azhar Graduates) Indonesia with 181 members (Khairi, 2015), Group WOAG of North Sumatera with 134 members (Pohan, 2016), Group Gontoriyun with 202 members (Tuskan, 2014), Gonsus 88 with 200 members (Baharudin, 2015),

Friends of ODOJ (One Day One Juz) North Sumatera with 231 members (Hasbi, 2016), Da'wah Council of North Sumatera with 48 members (Azhar, 2017), Islamic State Motivation Group with 69 members (Sudiro, 2016), Council of North Sumatera Students at Egypt with 125 members (Muntaque, 2012).

However, some members of the above mentioned participants left the group because of differences in opinion, especially that which concerns political ideology, understanding of fiqh, organizational policy or because their mobile phones could not receive messages because of phone capacity being limited. Even in more serious conditions, we found that the Tafsir messages sent to the group were removed because it was not in accordance to the group's intended mission. This case will be discussed later.

It was analyzed that no members left the group because of the Love Letter material. Feedback received were in the form of a "thumbs up" or like. There was never "thumbs down" or dislike responses.

Tafsir Inspirasi contained four principles of Quran: divinity, humanity, morality and moderation. An example of divinity can be found in Love Letter number 779, humanity in number 781, morality in number 780 and moderation in number 782. The entire content of Love Letter in Tafsir Inspirasi cannot be detached from the four principles of the Quran.

The last matric of the media analysis is viral. Viral in the Cambridge Dictionary (2013) means describing something that

is quickly becoming very popular or well-known as it is being published and republished (reposted) on the internet (from person to person) by email and phone.

From the observations, the researcher found that the members from the 15 groups know Tafsir Inspirasi because it was broadcast every day. In North Sumatra and Indonesia it was viraled through dissemination and socialization in mosques, offices and study centers. Tafsir Inspirasi can also be found on the internet or in the form of a book, (Tafsir Inspirasi of which 20 thousand copies have been printed). Outside these three contexts, Tafsir Inspirasi is less popular and less viral. When the researcher interviewed the team they agreed that it was almost the same as the findings concluded by the researcher.

The messages conveyed in 140 days are loaded with divinity, humanity, morality and moderation as well as the messages of the Quran as a whole. Since the duration coincided with Ramadhan, many benefitted from this.

The Conversation Analysis

The *second* stage of analysis is conversation analysis. In this analysis, the researcher discussed the matrix: share of voice. It talks about member and tone. Here, the member's conversation is measured based on sentiment analysis using three indications; positive, neutral or negative tone. These indications help in understanding the emotions of the members.

Here's a reader's comment about Tafsir Inspirasi. Like the inspiration of QS al-

Ahzab (33):52: "Prophet Mohammed's marriage with beautiful and many women is humanity". A KITAP member commented with "His inspiration is less connected and less hit".

Almost all members of the respective groups responded to any news without comments including that of the socialization of Tafsir Inspirasi. If there are comments from the members' groups, it is related to Islamic political issues or about fiqh or legal studies. Sometimes they conveyed condolences for some misfortune affecting members or in congratulating a person's success. The members in the social media for Tafsir Inspirasi can be divided into three: active, half-active and passive. For the study of routine interpretations such as Tafsir Inspirasi, members only read (passively) or even skipped directly without reading. The passive condition means that the Tafsir Inspirasi members are being either positive or neutral.

The *second* matrix in the second stage of analysis is sentiment analysis. The admin of Muamalah Market Traders group exited Tafsir Inspirasi stating that it is not in accordance with Islamic Shari'a. After further discussion it turned out that they had a different point of view about Islamic Shari'a. According to the admin of Muamalah group, Islamic law enforces muamalah based on the gold coin dinar and silver dirham, while for Tafsir Inspirasi it is not limited to the gold dinar and silver dirham. According to Tafsir Inspirasi using paper money itself is lawful, and not a sin. The Muamalah mentor seemed to have an

interpretation of the Quran that is quite different from that of Tafsir Inspirasi.

The *third* matric of the second stage of analysis is ethnography analysis. Ethnography is a scientific description of the culture of a society by someone who has lived in it. Based on the ethnography analysis, the researcher found confidence in the author of Tafsir Inspirasi because of his educational background. Bustamisham commented that the author is a graduate from al-Azhar University, Cairo, Egypt. Based on the ethnography analysis, the 6 members of the KITAP team have the same pattern of behavior. They love the Quran, their system of belief is the same, that to seek the pleasure of Allah, and their language is polite. Although there are team members who support one particular candidate in politics or in the elections, they do not ridicule, or insult or spread hoaxes about candidates that they do not support. What they did was to offer prayers for the candidates who won.

However, the researcher found doubts about interpretations in general, including that offered by Tafsir Inspirasi. Understanding can be difficult because they can't speak Arabic (As-Suyuthi, 2010; Az-Zarkashi, 1988). There are three forms of negativity or obstacles that hamper the socialization movement of Tafsir Inspirasi: *first*, the prohibition of reading the Quran's translation because the translation cannot represent the exact Quran.

Second is the prohibition of reading the Quran's interpretation outside of certain circles. Salafi's companions call it the *Ahl*

Sunnah wa al-Jamaah interpretation of *bi al-matsur* without *al-'aql*. Among the readable Quranic books are the interpreted books by Al-Qurthubi (2006), Ath-Thabari (2000), Ibn Kathir (2000), and Ibn Taimiyah (1984).

As for Tafsir Arifin (2016) Ash-Sha'rawi (1991), Yusuf (1987), and Quraish (2000) the interpretation of the *Ahl Bidah*, should not be read. This understanding has hampered the speed of the movement of understanding the Quran that comes from reading various interpreted books.

The interpretation is part of the author's opinion (*ijtihad*). It is not always that the interpretation of *bi al-matsur* is true, and not forever the *al-'aql* interpretation is wrong and sinful (Faisan, 1997). Interpretation according to the author's inspiration means to deliver the da'wah of the Quran that leads man to reach Allah's guidance (Arifin, 2016).

Third, is the prohibition on the interpretations of the Quran without mastery of the Arabic language. There is a hadith that forbids the understanding of the Quran by using other means. On the other hand, there is a holy Quranic verse that advocates using the mind to understand or *tadabbur* Quran (Adz-Dzahabi, 2000).

Some religious leaders forbid the use of social media as a religious reference source. If the understanding of the Qur'an as a book is prohibited, then the understanding of the Quran through social media is even more forbidden. In actual fact, the Quran requires instruction from everyone including bees and animals.

This study also found that the findings with regards the social media are often ridiculed by religious leaders. There were even religious leaders who forbid the use of social media. However, the messages of Tafsir Inspirasi made the members remain intact, interact with their fellow human beings with full of perseverance and moderation. So, the conclusion of this second stage (conversation analysis) is the fulfilment of the four principles of Quran: divinity, humanity, morality and moderation.

The Network Analysis

The *third stage* of analysis is network analysis. One of the purposes of the existence of Tafsir Inspirasi in social media is to gather a community that loves Allah. The Tafsir Inspirasi Community is a powerful tool for influencing the people. People will surely be easily persuaded to believe the Quranic Da'wah if it was promoted by a friend or a family member. The first matrix is influencer identification and measurement. It is necessary to know who are the people who have high influence in the field or industry in which the brand exists. The biggest influence in Tafsir Inspirasi is the author of the book itself. The KITAP Inspirasi team joined hands with Radio Republic of Indonesia (RRI) teammates which included Syamsuddin et al. (2014). As an influencer, the author of the book does not confine work to the Tafsir Inspirasi Community. He also conducts various other activity to influence the Muslims to be involved in Quranic study. The Tafsir Inspirasi activity in 2018 consisted of three parts: direct socialization activity in the community, activities in RRI

and activities in social media. Socialization activities in the community are divided into three sections: activities on campus, activities in the office and activities in the mosque. All three of these activities have been going on since Tafsir Inspirasi was printed in 2012.

The *first* activity, which was on campuses was conducted in the State Islamic University of North Sumatera, University of Medan Area and the Health Polytechnic. As for the office sector, it was done in Telkom, State Electricity Company (SEC), State Plantation Limited Company (SPLC) and Tanjung Gusta Prison. There are six mosques that were involved in the weekly and monthly study. The congregation that follows this study generally had a thousand members.

The *second* activity at RRI was done daily with the theme, "One Day One Verse". This study was conducted every day in 2018. It was broadcasted to all districts of the province of North Sumatera which had a population of 14 million inhabitants. In addition to this broadcast, Muslims in North Sumatera were also exposed to the broadcast of "One Day One Verse" through the loudspeaker of the mosques before the Maghreb prayer. This activity could also be heard through radio streaming around the world. Some of the documents and data of this activity can be seen in the Recording of "One Day One Verse" Program at RRI Medan.

The *second* metric of the last stage is dynamic network. It is a complex measurement because it talks about the

concept or theory of social networking analysis. In this, measurement will be the visualization of the ego network (personal network) with the influencers who have become members of the brand. The concept of the social network of the Tafsir Inspirasi is the propagation of the Quranic Inspiration. This concept is built by incorporating inspirational writing into groups whose members are in various worlds, such as followers of Kitap, WOAG North Sumatera and Indonesia, Gontoriun, and Gonsus. Among these members there are domiciles in America (Joban and Sumandi), Sarawak, Malaysia (Katasman), Egypt (Billah) and group HMM, United Kingdom (Oktavia).

In the third part: the author, RRI Team and the KITAP Team have established a dynamic network. The data consists of visible voice recording documents on RRI uploaded by the KITAP team. Documents written by the KITAP team in social media can be read by the RRI team in the State for Islamic motivation. The author himself has developed the information for both teams as well. The book is given to RRI team as the basic material for da'wah Qurani. The soft copy is also given to the KITAP team for easy uploading onto social networking mediums.

The relationship between the author, the KITAP team and the WhatsApp members shows two systems: *first*, one-way, so that "Love Letter" news can be traced each morning as useful reading. The *second* is two-way. The "Love Letters" are presented in a special group. They can comment on anything. In conclusion, this third stage

is in accordance with the name Tafsir Inspirasi in that this program on social media managed to create human beings who better understand the teachings of the Quran.

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Case Study

‘Ziarah Puyang’, Pilgrimage to Graves: A Case Study in South Sumatra

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ABSTRACT

“Ziarah Puyang” in Indonesia means pilgrimage to a sacred grave. It is a compulsory tradition that must be carried out by every Muslim bride in some regions in Indonesia. It is a belief that a sacred grave holds considerable power, and prevents difficulties, failures and disasters from befalling the households of brides who make such pilgrimage. This long-standing tradition is practiced to this day in the village of Lubuk Rengas Banyuasin in South Sumatra and has been passed down from generation to generation. Those who practise this ritual are often termed as deviants because it is considered anathema and anti-Islam by the *ulama*. Despite this, the tradition continues to flourish in this village. It is therefore interesting to study: (1) how and when the tradition of *ziarah Puyang* began; (2) how this practice became ingrained into the faith of Indonesian Muslims and; (3) what are the Islamic views (Hadith) on this tradition. This study shows that *Ziarah Puyang* is a longstanding tradition in the village of Lubuk Rengas and which precedes the existence of the village itself. Secondly, it shows that the strong faith of the local community in this tradition has ensured its continuity till today although some of it runs against the tenets of Islam and violates the Islamic Law.

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INTRODUCTION

Indonesia is a country that is synonymous with diversity in terms of culture, ethnicity,

race and religion. Despite the influences of foreign cultures, some remote Indonesian regions still preserve unique indigenous cultures. Cultural and social diversity of Indonesian society, according to Azra (2007), are gifts which must be optimized in order to maintain the integrity of the Indonesian nation itself. In addition, diversity and pluralism existed long before the colonial era and even much earlier than the presence of Islam (Suparlan, 2004). It may then be said that diversity and pluralism have become rooted in Indonesian society since its birth, and later became tradition that came to pass from generation to generation. Based on this, it can be inferred that it is not easy to change a deeply ingrained tradition in a particular community. Hence, from a religious perspective, this particular tradition would certainly raise the wrath of *ulama* and certain segments of society as Islam prohibits the pilgrimage to and worship of a grave, however sacred it may be.

The rich diversity of rituals, cultures, traditions and customs of the Muslim majority in Indonesia can be combined with the spirit of nationalism and religion to reflect its ethos. Religious traditions that counter the teachings of Islam however will give rise to conflicts and recriminations. The marriage of culture, tradition and religion should find the middle path so as to overcome any problems that may occur. As such, an adequate formulation of this middle path should be realized immediately, without recrimination and certainly not contrary to the *aqidah* or beliefs propagated by Islam.

One form of tradition or ritual practiced by Indonesian society is a pilgrimage to the places (usually graves) that are considered 'sacred'. This tradition has been in existence for a long time and handed down from generation to generation. The number of graves in Indonesia that are considered sacred are aplenty, for example, graves of saints and clerics, graves that are considered to have a unique history and thought to contain certain myths like bringing forth *karomah* or fortune. This tradition exists in various forms and rituals, in most Indonesian territories and in the Province of South Sumatra as well (Rosidin, 2016).

Ziarah Puyang tradition is still widely practiced by the South Sumateran communities in Burai village, Ogan Ilir regency, Muara Enim village, Semende Darat village, Semende Lebak village and several others, including the village of Lubuk Rengas, in the Banyuasin regency of South Sumatra Province (Feriyanto, personal communication, April 12, 2016). The location of the village in this research is not far from the capital city of South Sumatra, Palembang. Despite considerable progress and development in the city of Palembang, such as in its economy, infrastructure, territorial expansion, entertainment venues and attractions, malls and cafes, the communities in Lubuk Rengas village still cling to the traditions of their ancestors, namely the pilgrimage to *Puyang*. *Puyang* means a great-great-grandmother who is respected and valued by the community. Most people believe that the *Puyang* has sacred powers and is capable

of helping and praying for those who seek her blessings. While the tradition of *ziarah Puyang* in several other areas in South Sumatra is no longer rigidly adhered to, it is believed that the majority of the populace has chosen to do away with this old tradition because it is not practiced in accordance with the teachings of Islam.

However, *ziarah Puyang* in Lubuk Rengas village is still carried out by every bride and groom, including delegates or representatives of families of both the bride and groom. This tradition has been preserved and religiously adhered to since generations of the past. In fact, all the followers are Muslims who have described in detail how the pilgrimage should actually be done. Surprisingly, *ziarah Puyang* in Lubuk Rengas is led by *ulama* who should, in fact, be more knowledgeable as to its execution (as he would be aware if there are practices not acceptable to Islam). Although it is a tradition that is maintained, its aim is not to violate the rules of religion.

The tradition of *ziarah Puyang* in some other areas in South Sumatra is still carried out, but not according to the old tradition. It is interesting to study why people in the Village of Lubuk Rengas practice the tradition of *ziarah Puyang* and strictly adhere to the traditions of the past. The focus of this study is to determine: 1) what lies behind the tradition of *ziarah Puyang*; and 2) how Islam views this tradition?

LITERATURE REVIEW

Traditions and customs in Indonesia are very much alive. Researchers in and outside

the country have been trying to explore a variety of customs and traditions. For example, research on 'Azan in Grave', a local Islamic tradition in Indonesia' (Gafar, 2016) concludes that this tradition has long existed, is still retained by most of the Indonesian Muslim community and is passed down from generation to generation. This tradition too may not conform to the teachings of Islam but is practiced, nevertheless. Similar studies were carried out by Muhaimin (2002) on 'Local Culture of Cirebon', 'Takziah' and the post burial process ('*slametan*'), and Syahdan (2017) *Pilgrimage from the Cultural Studies Perspective* (Study on the Mbah Priuk Grave Site in North Jakarta). Suharti's (2012) research on crocodile handlers in the Islamic Review (Case Study of Rural Community: Pemulutan Ulu and Ogan Ilir) details a tradition of the villagers of Pemulutan about their trust in alligator handlers who are pertinent to community life in Pemulutan. They believe that the alligator handler is able to overcome all sorts of calamity and danger.

In actuality, research on *ziarah Puyang* in the village of Lubuk Rengas Banyuasin has never been done on a wider scale, although it is very likely that this is because the practice of *ziarah Puyang* faces much criticism and rejection in other areas (Gunawan, personal communication, May 15, 2016). This tradition does not only apply to the village of Lubuk Rengas but is also found in several other villages in South Sumatra. *Ziarah Puyang* tradition postulates that it is deeply ingrained and generational.

Therefore, it is a rich tradition and many feels that it should be preserved because it has been adopted by the majority of the local community.

People are always in a process of change because change is something that is inherent in society. Changes in a tradition and new spins on old traditions can bring an end to certain long existing traditions. The tradition of *ziarah Puyang* also appears to have stemmed from a long saga in the city of Palembang in 1756. This saga began with the presence of someone who was able to tame a wild elephant, and therefore came to be considered holy. This person had also convinced the locals about his ability to correctly predict events. Even after death, his grave was visited upon to seek blessings; his legacy has since been sanctified by the community. Since then, the *ziarah Puyang* ritual gained importance, and was deemed to bless and protect those who came to partake in its prayers, especially new brides. Over time, this tradition underwent the process of enculturation.

In theory, a strong belief in something will manifest that belief. Hence for the majority, this manifestation, which is either seen or felt, becomes a strong conviction of their faith. This faith then becomes an oral tradition which is passed down from generation to generation. In Islam as well, there are beliefs that do not require a theory but must be accepted by blind faith, such as the existence of the Hereafter and angels, among others.

METHOD

All studies that pertain to the past beg questions: Why, When, Where, How, Who and everything else related to the object of the past, which as a matter of course, cannot be separated from its history (Moleong, 2005). In order to reconstruct the events of *ziarah Puyang* undertaken by rural communities in Lubuk Rengas Village, Banyuasin District, preliminary research conducted by Erwas finds a variety of resources and information from the key factors associated with the cultural tradition of *ziarah Puyang*, which later became historical data (Gottschalk, 1985; Kuntowijoyo, 1994, 1995; Yatim, 1999). As this was done in the absence of written records, verbal history thus becomes an alternative, as well as provider of a source of information that has since become increasingly important (Huen et al., 2000; Thompson, 1978) either through interviews or through the discussion method (Muhadjir, 1998). These data have led to various interpretations and perceptions. The researcher then systematically compared this data with that derived from different sources in order to gather historical facts that are considered to contain meaning which is most appropriate and most reasonable (Abdurrahman, 1999; Satibi, 2008).

In addition to field studies, the researcher also used literature study (library research) from a variety of sources, both primary and secondary and other sources that can be accounted for, in order to gather information on other forms of *ziarah Puyang*, and also the arguments put forth in both the Qur'an and *hadith*. The writer then argues on

whether *ziarah Puyang* practiced by the community in Lubuk Rengas violates the concept of pilgrimage prescribed by Islam.

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

Some Traditions of *Ziarah Puyang*

Although not as many as Javanese traditions and customs, South Sumatra also has a variety of traditions (Oktovianny, 2012). One of them is *ziarah Puyang*, which is a pilgrimage to an ancestral grave that is considered sacred. Each *Puyang* (existing in several areas in South Sumatra) has differences in characteristics and procedures. There are people who generally make this pilgrimage without any offerings or special prayers. There are also those who make the *ziarah Puyang* at certain times with special prayers. In fact, some are required to make the pilgrimage before carrying out certain ceremonies, as is often done by people in Lubuk Rengas, (the ones I will describe specifically in this research).

In some areas and districts of South Sumatra, *ziarah Puyang* procedures are not contrary to Islamic law. For example, *Puyang* Kodir Serimbang and *Puyang* Natakerti also have a feast after *zhuhur* (noon) prayers, in a ritual called 'Eat Rice *Sekulak*'. In the evening, they hold the *khatam* al-Qur'an which is a recitation of the Qur'an from beginning to end. The main purpose of the *ziarah Puyang* is community bonding and strengthening the religious brotherhood. It is for these reasons that the *Puyang* pilgrimage in Semende Darat needs to be preserved (Puyang Natakerti, n. d.).

Puyang Natakerti is a descendant of the Puyang Kencana Dewa Natakerti. As with descendants of puyang Kodir Serimbang, descendants of puyang Natakerti comprised public figures and luminaries in various fields. *Puyang* Burai and Komeriing are not extraordinary, as people just pray for their ancestors. Usually they recite *Surah al-Fatihah* and *Surah Yasin* prayers which are in accordance with Islamic law. These traditions contrast vastly with the Pilgrimage *Puyang Ayat Bin Janggut* that takes place in Banyuasin Regency; this Regency was formed from the division of Musi Banyuasin (Republic Act No. 6 of 2002) (Community of Banyuasin), in the 1960s, and consisted of various tribes with diverse customs, traditions and cultures (Banyuasin, 2014).

History of Grave Pilgrimage in Islam

Some traditions, borne of ignorance are hard to break, including grave pilgrimage rituals that took place in the early period of Islam wherein burials were the monopoly of the polytheists and idolaters. Therefore, this culture of ignorance features the 'wail of grief', (Subhani, 2006) where the pilgrims not only pray for the deceased, but also provide offerings, hold a special ritual, ask for intercession, and burn incense or *tawassul*. In essence, this form of dedication and idolatry is contrary to Islamic law and the Prophet's teachings. In order to avoid such practices, the Prophet (PBUH) ordained that all Muslims be prohibited from such rituals until they were really to carry out his hadith: "In the past, I forbade you to perform religious visits to the grave,

however, now I suggest that you carry out a religious visit to the grave but do not convey the words that are not polite” [Muslim (1955), no. 977 & Hanbal (2001), no. 1236].

Why? What was the reason for such a prohibition earlier? It was certainly meant to instil the *aqidah* (beliefs) of Muslims and prevent Muslims from *shirk* (idolatry), because faith and unity preached by the Prophet (PBUH) to his followers in the initial stages, had yet to be ingrained in their psyche. Furthermore, this prohibition by the Prophet (PBUH) was also to lift the veil of ignorance of his followers.

After strengthening the Muslim faith by removing their ignorance (towards committing *shirk*), and encouraging them to lift their arms in supplication while reciting the holy verses of al-Qur'an, the Prophet (PBUH) then allowed his followers to carry out grave pilgrimages - this was to remind Muslims of their mortality, and to always remember Allah and his Prophet (PBUH) in all their endeavours [Daud (2009), no 3234; Ibn Majah (1998), no 1571; Ahmad, no 1236]. Since the grave pilgrimage is no longer forbidden and is even commanded, Muslims must pay religious visits to the graves of their relatives, friends and loved ones.

History of *Puyang Ayat Bin Janggut*

The absence of written information about *Puyang Ayat bin Janggut* in rural communities in Lubuk Rengas, Banyuasin Regency, necessitated the visit to seek assistance of certain authorities, elders, and government and local communities, about

information pertaining to the above. After conducting interviews with the Department of Tourism Banyuasin, Abdurrahim (personal communication, May 15, 2016), informed that *Puyang Ayat bin Janggut* still has descendants from *Puyang* Banyuasin. According to Abdurrahim, the name of their *Puyang* is *Puyang Ayat* and his father was named Janggut. He narrates that in 1756 AD, in Palembang, a man named Cek Bahar was imprisoned for dabbling in black magic. He then put a curse on the villagers that took the form of conflict with wild elephants that roamed the village. It is said that no one dared to leave their house for fear of being attacked by these wild beasts.

Puyang Ayat had come to Palembang to escape the war in his native Java. Long after having settled in Palembang, *Puyang Ayat* came to hear about the existence and fury of these wild elephants. Finally, he met and fought with the leader of the elephants. He was hugely applauded for his bravery in defeating the elephant and breaking its ivory tusk. When the Netherlands attacked Palembang, *Puyang* went into hiding in the area of Banyuasin. This place did not have a name then, but since the *Puyang* dwelt in the region, history dictates that in 1935, the village of Maja Pani, changed its name to Lubuk Rengas Village (Abdurrahim, personal communication, May 15, 2016).

When *Puyang Ayat* died, he was buried in the village but soon thereafter, his grave was destroyed by an elephant: its prophecy for revenge had become a reality. This incident is estimated to have happened 110 years ago. This elephant was then shot by

Sima Bakri, who took its one remaining ivory tusk (Abdurrahim, Sunday, May 15, 2016).

Puyang Ayat was also believed to have been able to prophesize events before they took place, an ability called "*mandi ngucap*". His predictions were so accurate that it became a powerful myth in the Lubuk Rengas community and other surrounding areas.

In 1970, a man named Sirrin had experienced a prolonged trance after his marriage took place. All the shamans (*pejayo*) who had treated him opined that his predicament was a result of his not having made a pilgrimage to Puyang. After making the pilgrimage with his wife, he was completely cured. In an almost similar case, in the year 2000, Nafsiah, the wife of a man from Lubuk Rengas had become possessed by an evil spirit. After she performed this pilgrimage, Nafsiah was never again possessed.

Oral histories which were narrated by Abdurrahim, the caretaker of *Puyang*, and who is also the ninth descendant of *Puyang Ayat*, eventually became powerful myths in the community. Although these were handed down from generation to generation by oral tradition, not everyone chose to believe them, or perform the *ziarah Puyang*.

Process and Ritual of the Puyang Pilgrimage

In the study of anthropology of religion, ritual is also often referred to, and is closely linked to religious beliefs. Simultaneously it occupies an important position in preserving

the religion. According to Connolly (2002), a ritual certainly has elements of meaning and spiritual values, as does the tradition of *ziarah Puyang*. Initially, the *ziarah Puyang* performed by the villagers of Lubuk Rengas was similar to other pilgrimages. The Indonesian Muslim community often makes this pilgrimage, and especially when welcoming the month of Ramadan.

According to Abdurrahim, no special ritual is performed when undergoing it. However, a pilgrim must use white clothes and carry a glass of water over which prayers have been recited, remove their footwear before entering the cemetery, and sit cross-legged in prayer and adorn a plain black skull cap and so forth.

The caretaker's version differs from what the researcher had heard from some other sources (especially the common people). The ritual of *ziarah Puyang* is a long standing one, where brides-to-be are obliged to carry out, bringing with them offerings of food and beverages for the *Puyang*. This form of prayers offered to *Puyang* suggests *shirk* (idolatry) because they do not pray according to the will of Allah for peace and wellbeing. These prayers during the pilgrimage offered by Lubuk Rengas villagers run contrary to the religious guidelines outlined in the al-Qur'an and hadith. Dialogue with the *Puyang* cemetery caretaker reveals that his version of *ziarah Puyang* differs from other sources of information. Perhaps his version was from the perspective of how it should be done (the Islamic way)

Eventually, new knowledge gained from the rapid flow of information attracted the attention of some historians of the *ziarah Puyang* tradition in the village of Lubuk Rengas. One such authority is Abdurrahim, of the *Puyang Ayat bin Janggut* lineage, and official caretaker of the puyang cemetery. His knowledge on these matters is recognized by all in Lubuk Rengas, including the village head, village elders and the local clergy.

The responsibility entrusted to Abdurrahim by the local community has led him to unearth much information on the various forms of ritual pilgrimages undertaken, and prayers offered by pilgrims. To avoid any such behaviour that violates the norms of religion (al-Qur'an and hadith), he advises them to avoid all forms of *shirk* (idolatry).

This appeal is not binding on the pilgrims; they can choose to make a ritual pilgrimage, as long as it does not make *Puyang* the object of worship because this is contrary to Islamic teachings. Thus, the conflicting information received on this ritual should not disallow its long existing practice. According to local community, these pilgrimage rituals are performed by the Muslim majority.

The Islamic View on *Puyang Ayat* Pilgrimage

In the history of Islam, the Prophet (PBUH) himself prohibited grave pilgrimage for a variety of reasons, most important of which are polytheism and the practice of making

the deceased *wasilah* (intermediary) in prayer.

To perform this ritual, there is no need for offerings of food and drinks. Since this matter is of great concern to Abdurrahim (personal communication, May 15, 2016), he strongly advises local communities to avoid *shirk*. According to Abdurrahim, *Puyang Ayat* is similar to grave pilgrimage but without the frills and does not contradict nor violate the rites of pilgrimage in Islam in general. But when it is based on an incorrect understanding which leads to other rituals, they are deemed unsuitable in Islam.

The initial perception associated with the long-standing tradition of *ziarah Puyang* observed by the Lubuk Rengas village community is one of blind acceptance. It is only natural, then, that the local community in general is still bound by this tradition of *Ziarah Puyang* pilgrimage; there is also the fear associated with ignoring the tradition all together.

Prayer conducted at the grave site is *sunnah* (way of the Prophet). He often visited the *Al-Baqi* cemetery to beseech forgiveness of Allah for the dead. "I used to forbid you to ever make a pilgrimage to the grave, but now, go on pilgrimage" [hadith narrated by Muslim (1955), number 977; At-Tirmizi (1975), no 1054]. However, when one deviates from the norm of just simple prayers and involves oneself in offerings and frills, then obviously the ritual of performing *tawassul* at the graves of those who are

considered sacred is a throwback to Pagan worship in the days of Noah a.s. So religious visits to the grave in order to beseech goodwill of the spirits to bestow peace and prosperity in one's life is archaic. These practices should not be associated with true worship. So when polytheism creeps into a monotheistic religion such as Islam, then such worship is deemed corrupted worship, as in the case of *ziarah puyang* (in some cases), where there are offerings of incense, food and drinks alongside prayers to appease the dead. In the teachings of Islam, rituals of this kind are categorised as *shirk*. This is stated in the Qur'anic verses (An-Nisa: 48 and 116).

These verses reflect that *shirk* is the greatest sin because Allah explains that He does not forgive idolatry for the unconverted (before his death). Thus, it is mandatory for every slave of Allah to fear idolatry which is a great sin Qur'an, (Al-Maidah: 72).

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

Ziarah Puyang conducted by the Lubuk Rengas villagers started a long time ago, particularly after the mythical magic of the *Puyang* legend which was passed down from generation to generation. Over time, the *puyang* grave became sacred to a generation of brides and grooms who beseeched its powers to grant peace and prosperity, through various offerings. It was common practice then for Muslims to perform this. But according to the rules of Islamic law, making offerings with prayers in worship of the dead is against the teachings of the

Qur'an and the Prophet (PBUH). Through the intervention of the religious *ulama* and also the caretaker of the *puyang*, the ritual of offerings slowly began to cease; now *ziarah Puyang* is sustained as a tradition of grave visitation by family, through simple prayers only, which is in line with Islamic law.

The Tourism Ministry and local authorities are now working towards preserving this tradition in Lubuk Rengas, as part of Indonesia's cultural traditions.

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Case Study

Multidimensional Poverty Index of Marginalized Orang Asli in Terengganu, Malaysia

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ABSTRACT

The general interpretation of poverty line index (PLI) is the measurement of poverty in Malaysia. However, by using this unidimensional poverty approach, it does not truly reflect the status of those who are poor. It is only confined to addressing the income or expenses debate, which does not reflect the actual living standards of the poor. Therefore, this study introduce the multidimensional poverty index (MPI) as an alternative method of poverty measurement. MPI is capable of identifying “Who is Poor” among the underprivileged in society. This paper aims to bridge the gap between the *Orang Asli* society’s development and national policy from a multidimensional perspective. By applying the MPI to the *Orang Asli* population in Terengganu, this study is able to reveal the factors that have deprived the poor to the point of poverty.

There are four dimensions used in this study such as education, health, standard of living, and wealth. The result shows 97.1% of the *Orang Asli* in Terengganu is deprived in livestock followed by waste management at 96.6%, years of schooling at 83.4%, and only 58.9% as an income indicator. The result also indicates that Sungai Pergam village is poorer compared to other villages based on the MPI measured. These findings prove that MPI is able to reveal the real

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reason behind poverty with accuracy. Therefore, this mode of measurement can also be applied to other targeted groups in order to achieve more effective poverty eradication programs.

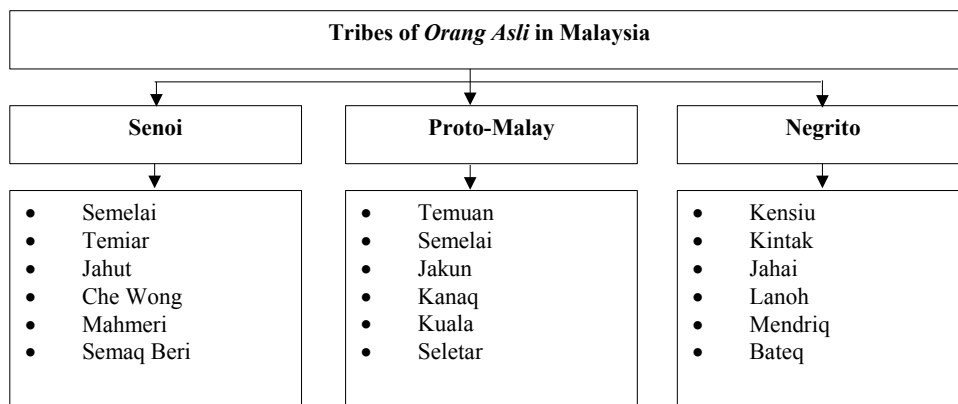
Keywords: Extreme poverty, indigenous people, poverty line index, Sungai Pergam, Terengganu

INTRODUCTION

Indigenous people also known as “*Orang Asli*” is a minority group in Malaysia who are unique from other races especially in cultural heritage, religion, socioeconomic, and beliefs. They are often associated with the native habitants whose behavioural pattern is dependent on ancient culture and subsistent socioeconomic living. The *Orang Asli* in Malaysia can only be found in the peninsular. Based on their geographical distribution, language, and morphological characteristics, *Orang Asli* are divided

into three major tribes and 18 sub-tribes (Abdullah et al., 2016) (Figure 1). However, they live in a heterogeneous setting because each sub-tribe has their own respective followed trait.

The *Orang Asli* is an aborigines minority group of people who live in a primitive environment with poor health and education services, lack of social development and is the financially disadvantaged community. According to Md Nor (1999), the *Orang Asli* community have a low quality of life as a consequence of being fully reliant on traditional socioeconomic resources. These rural socioeconomic activities lead them to live in isolated and countryside areas that are near to their resources. According to Kamarudin and Ngah (2007), the *Orang Asli* community are fully reliant on forest yields to live which are their regular socioeconomic activity but this places them in a precarious position as they cannot fit into the mainstream chain of



Source: Department of Orang Asli Development (JAKOA, 2011)

Figure 1. *Orang Asli* tribes in Malaysia.

Table 1

Poverty among Orang Asli in Malaysia

Year	Total Head of Household (HoH)	Poverty					
		Poor		Hard Core Poor		Total	
		%	HoH	%	HoH	%	HoH
2000	25,337	39.80	10,085	43.60	11,046	83.40	21,131
2001	26,198	39.80	10,428	41.03	10,749	80.83	21,177
2002	28,476	41.20	11,732	37.88	10,788	79.08	22,520
2003	29,873	41.63	12,435	35.26	10,532	76.88	22,967
2007	27,841	18.00	5,011	32.00	8,909	50.00	13,920
2008	27,841	17.75	4,942	32.34	9,004	50.09	13,946
2009	27,841	33.53	9,335	15.47	4,307	49.00	13,642
2010	36,658	11.19	4,102	19.97	7,321	31.16	11,423

Source: Department of Orang Asli Development (JAKOA, 2011)

activities that churn productivity. Ancient ancestral tradition and culture are the major factors that hampers their initiative to make changes and adapt to a more progressive and developed environment. They still believe in the forest and natural environment as provider for their livelihood. Generally, the *Orang Asli* populations in Malaysia are very poor compared to the mainstream Malay, Chinese, and Indian communities (Table 1).

To eradicate poverty more effectively, a need analysis and a thorough research on poverty should be the best course of action. It has been a precedent to use unidimensional measurement with only one indicator either for income or expenses was used to identify the poor. It is different in the case of multidimensional poverty, which uses several dimensions for the same purpose. This view is reflected in the Malaysian Millennium Development

Goals (MDGs)¹ report in 2015, which stated that poverty was multidimensional. It is of course, more than lack of income. Poverty is also associated with lack of access to basic education, health (including reproductive health) services and information, shelter, water clean, and sanitation.

Hence by using multidimensional poverty index (MPI), it could be one measuring method that can be used by policymakers when enacting certain programs related to poverty. Therefore, this research paper is trying to investigate how poverty affects *Orang Asli* by looking at all of the elements that might cause their deprivation. By using MPI that was introduced by Alkire and Foster (2008), with

1. Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) consist of eight international development goals to eradicate poverty across the world. It has been established in the Millennium Summit by United Nation (UN) in 2000. It is currently joined by 193 countries all over the world (United Nation (UN) report, 2015).

the intervention of UNDP and OPHI, these objectives will be attained with accuracy.

Marginalization of *Orang Asli* in Malaysia

Economy plays an important role in affecting the life of a community. According to Yusof (1996), an economy refers to a system that includes productivity, consumption, distribution, and services. However, this marginalised communities especially those who are fully dependent on forest yields such as herbs trees and animals depicting a downturn on development. According to Kamarudin and Ngah (2007), most of the *Orang Asli* are poor because of their dependency on income from forest yields that has been the tradition for years. Generally, they go into the nearby forest to get all the valuable yields and sell them to middlemen. Unfortunately, the *Orang Asli* are always exploited by middlemen. Middlemen will always try to quote the lowest price for the valuable yields from this community and resell these actual valuable yields at a much higher price in the market. As a consequence of this exploitation, the life of the *Orang Asli* will be stagnant with no hope for development thus hampering the objectives of the government. According to Emby (1996), there is a vacuum and discrepancy that do not coincide with their effort as their income is neither stable nor fixed due to the manipulation exercised by the middlemen.

Deforestation of crops and development is the crucial issue for the *Orang Asli* community. Normally, the authorities

infiltrated the forest for wood supply and changed it into a secondary forest by planting oil palm and rubber for commercial purpose. Moreover, the destruction of the nearby forest puts the *Orang Asli* in dire straits as they find it difficult in procuring more yields for survival. They have to find another spot in another forest, which is quite a distance from their home. This may lead them to be in the forest for a few days and away from their family during that time. In addition, being located at a far-off forest requires them to rent a vehicle and this will burden them with a high cost.

Education is the most crucial sociological element for the *Orang Asli* that has to be addressed. According to JAKOA (2011), the education achievement of *Orang Asli* is far behind compared to the other races even though there are so many initiatives taken by our government with respect to *Orang Asli* education. For them, formal education is worthless in comparison to survival skills and knowledge of the forest (Hanafi et al., 2014). They normally allow their children to skip school and some children are not even enrolled in school. This situation happens because they never insist on education or place any high ambition on their children. For them, mastery in basic knowledge (reading, writing, and arithmetic) is sufficient. However, most of them have never mastered basic education and they will drop out of school even before completing standard six (Talib & Muslim, 2006).

Health is also one of the identified factors that can be interpreted as a deprivation

indicator. The ratio of death among children as well as malnutrition suffered among pregnant women and children are the most critical issues that are prevalent among these *Orang Asli* community. According to the Freemantle (2010, July), the *Orang Asli* children are often in poor health because of inaccessibility to health services due to the remoteness of their forest dwelling areas. *Orang Asli* normally believe that the surrounding supernatural and traditional medicine can heal them from any illness. According to World Health Organization (WHO, 2007), traditional healing plays a vital role for the *Orang Asli* healing strategy. Almost 80% of them still rely on the traditional healing system as their primary source of healthcare. “Indigenous people remain on margins of society: They are poorer, less educated, die at a younger age, and are much more likely to commit suicide and are generally worse in health than the rest of the population” (Stidsen, 2006). In Malaysia, the *Orang Asli* resettlement area such as in Hulu Gombak offers excellent medical services by the Federal government. The government has built medical clinics with a few medical staff and basic equipment in the resettlement area. These policies have been successful in changing the life of the *Orang Asli* that do not rely on the traditional healing system. Besides, most of them move from the forest to the settlement just to enjoy this medical facility.

The living conditions among the *Orang Asli* are generally poor. It is a norm to live without access to the road, clean water, houses, electricity, sanitation, cooking fuel,

home appliances, and waste management. All of these indicators contribute to the poor standard of living. According to JAKOA (2011), in Malaysia, most of the *Orang Asli* moved to the new resettlement areas complete with basic amenities needs such as good house condition with good water quality, electricity, sanitation, road access, and other additional facilities provided by the government. The purpose of this is to reduce the gap between rural communities. However, these aids fail to reach those *Orang Asli* who are still living in the forest.

The Poverty Measurement

Poverty is defined as a situation where there is deprivation and inequality among the poor households, with the low level of income to fulfil their basic needs such as low education level, unemployment, zero property, unhealthy, lack of food and clothing, and without shelter (Dawood & Khoo, 2016). This is a standard definition of poverty and hard-core poverty stated in the Tenth Malaysia Plan (2011–2015) (Government of Malaysia, 2011). It is a precedent to use poverty line (PL) as their main source in measuring poverty. In principle, PL is supposed to determine the level of income to avoid poverty. However, after decades of using this method, there is still an increase in the trend of poverty and hunger (UNDP, 2016). This type of method is called unidimensional. The poverty line is just using income or expenses as their base in measuring poverty. In Malaysia, the measurement of poverty can be seen through poverty line index (PLI). PLI is measured by

looking at the average monthly gross income for the population. Poverty occurred when the monthly household income is below the PLI (Table 2).

There are two types of poverty that can be determined by PLI. They are identified as absolute poverty and relative poverty. Absolute poverty is measured by looking at PLI that is determined by the government policies. However, relative poverty is identified by looking at the discrepancy between two individuals or places. For instance, they are relatively poor when compared to the middle-income group and upper-income group in comparison to the two regions with different socioeconomic development (Othman & Pon, 2005).

There have been few policies that have been implemented by the Malaysian government to eradicate poverty since independence in 1957. The New Economic Policy (NEP) was implemented in 1970 focused on eradicating poverty by creating new job opportunities to increase the household income. It can be seen that the NEP has successfully reduced poverty level from 49.3% in 1970 to 17.1% in 1990 (Government of Malaysia, 1991; Nair,

2000). In 1991 until 2000, NEP has been changed to the National Development Policy (NDP), which still focused on poverty eradication. In the year 2000 until 2010, NDP again was replaced with the National Vision Policy (NVP) and successfully reduced the poverty of *Bumiputra* up to 65% in 2009 (Government of Malaysia, 2011). Most of Malaysia's development plans and policies have been significant to the achievement of social development especially in physical infrastructure, job opportunity, and communication technology (Islam, 2010). In fact, Malaysia has achieved the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) to eradicate poverty rate before the 2015 target. There are eight goals to be achieved such as eradicating extreme hunger and poverty, achieve universal primary education, promote gender equality and women empowerment, reduce child mortality, improve maternal health, combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases, ensure environmental sustainability, and develop a global partnership and development. Through Malaysia MDGs, the poverty level had declined from 52.4% in 1970 to 12.4% in 1992 and continued to

Table 2

Poverty line income of Malaysia

Region	Poor (RM/Month)		Hard-core Poor (RM/Month)	
	Household	Per capita	Household	Per capita
Peninsular Malaysia	930	230	580	140
Urban	940	240	580	140
Rural	870	200	580	140

Source: Economic Planning Unit (EPU, 2014)

3.8% in 2009. This positive achievement is part of national strategies in pursuing the new development model and other development policies (United Nation Malaysia, 2016). The launching of New Economic Model (NEM) in 2010 aimed to bring Malaysia as a high-income country. In order to achieve this, there are a lot of strategies that needs to be considered including higher education, good physical infrastructure, good health, low unemployment rate, and high household income (New Economic Advisory Council, 2010). Although there are various improvements in physical features yet, inequality and unevenness still happen across regions where the pocket of poverty in both rural and urban still remains (Dawood & Khoo, 2016).

In order to bridge the gap in poverty measurement, it is important to identify the dimension and indicator of deprivation. Therefore, MPI has to be used. In other

words, MPI is complementing PLI measurement in eradicating poverty. Unlike PLI, MPI is poverty measurement that is not only based on income or expenses but also in other dimensions that are important. There are three dimensions that have been used as a UNDP standard to measure MPI poverty globally. They are education, health, and living standard, which are further separated into 10 other indicators according to the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) (Table 3). However, a country is allowed to add more or change the variables to determine its own poverty measurement outlook.

PLI, which is using only one variable, does not give accurate picture in identifying the poor. According to Alkire and Santos (2009), there is a limitation in unidimensional poverty measurement. They believed income and consumption were not the only factors that were reflected in the poverty

Table 3

Dimension and indicator for UNDP global standard measurement

No.	Dimension	Indicator
1.	Education	Years of schooling School enrolment/attendance
2.	Health	Child mortality Nutrition
3.	Standard of Living	Electricity Drinking water Sanitation Flooring Cooking fuel Asset

Source: United Nation Development Program (UNDP, 2016)

measurement. Besides, it only determines deprivation at the household level and not on the resources among the household. Meanwhile, Alkire and Seth (2015) had identified several advantages when using the method proposed by Alkire and Foster (2008), in estimating the multidimensional poverty and identifying the poor. Alkire and Foster (2008) indicated that the dimensions and indicators used were not related to each other. It made them independent and a standalone dimension, which was not influenced by others. This approach is also free to be given the same or different weightage to every dimension chosen. It is robust in identifying the poorest among the poor by increasing the breakdown aggregate. It is also beneficial in determining the crucial dimension that is reflected to the poverty in the region or among the society. Therefore, this paper aims to bridge the gap between the *Orang Asli* society's development and national policy from a multidimensional perspective. By applying the MPI to the *Orang Asli* population in Terengganu, this study is able to reveal the factors that have deprived the poor to the point of poverty. The finding of this study is important to

help the government agencies in identifying correct aids to fulfil the needs of *Orang Asli*.

METHOD

Participant

This study was conducted at the *Orang Asli* resettlement area in Terengganu, Malaysia where Semaq Beri tribe lives. In this study, primary data had been collected by distributing questionnaires among the head of households (HoHs). The data collection process was assisted by JAKOA officers based on the name list recorded. The study population was from the three (3) *Orang Asli* resettlement areas in Terengganu, (1) Sungai Berua village, Hulu Terengganu, (2) Sungai Pergam village, Kemaman, and (3) Sungai Sayap village, Besut. As HoH is the target respondent in this study, the population number of HoH is only 243. However, due to constrain (as respondent refused to be interviewed), this study managed to get 241 respondents (the response rate is 99%). There were 93 respondents from Sungai Berua village, 140 respondents from Sungai Berua village and other eight respondents were in Sungai Sayap village (Table 4).

Table 4
Distribution of Orang Asli in Terengganu

District	Village	Tribe	Respondent (HoH)	Total		
				Head of Household (HoH)	Household (H)	Population
Kemaman	Sungai Pergam	Semaq Beri	140	140	543	683

Table 4 (Continued)

District	Village	Tribe	Respondent (HoH)	Total		
				Head of Household (HoH)	Household (H)	Population
Hulu Terengganu	Sungai Berua	Semaq Beri	93	95	510	605
Besut	Sungai Sayap	Bateq	8	88	30	38
Total			241	243	1083	1326

Source: Author research finding (2017)

Instrument

The questionnaire used was adapted from the United Nation Development Program of Malaysia (UNDP). The answers were recorded using the binary method, which is “1” as deprived and “0” as not deprived. The data were analysed using the multidimensional analysis.

MPI Poverty Measure

Alkire and Foster (2011) introduced MPI as a new alternative to measure poverty level. However, this method is not practical for continuous data. It is preferred for categorical or ordinal data for robust measurement. This method is intuitively applied as shown in Figure 2.

The MPI value is the product of multidimensional headcount ratio and the intensity of poverty. The headcount ratio (H) is the proportion of the population of the population who are multidimensionally poor:

$$H = \frac{q}{n}$$

where q is the number of people who are multidimensionally poor and n is the total number of the population. The intensity of poverty (A) reflects the proportion of the weighted indicator measured (d) in which on average poor people are deprived in. A is measured by:

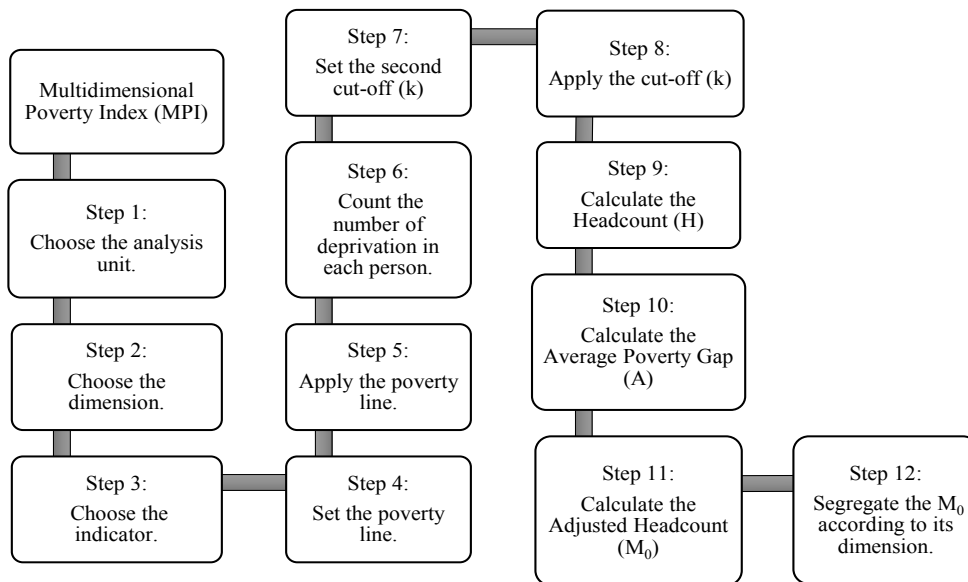
$$A = \frac{\sum_1^q c}{qd}$$

where c is the total number of weighted deprivations and d is the total number of indicators.

In measuring MPI, the researcher needs to have own justification in deciding the suitable dimension and indicator that can be used (Alkire, 2007). Even though, there are three dimensions with 10 indicators used by UNDP for global MPI measures, it can be different in other countries. For example, America has used MPI by looking at four dimensions with eight indicators and India has used three dimensions with 10 indicators (UNDP, 2016). In Malaysia, there was a study done by Che Mat et al. (2012) that used four dimensions with 14 indicators to

measure the MPI on the rural community in Baling, Kedah, Malaysia. As such, with suitable modification from the past research, this study used four dimensions with 17

indicators as MPI measurement for *Orang Asli* in Terengganu (Table 5).



Source: Alkire and Foster (2011)

Figure 2. Twelve steps in measuring multidimensional poverty index (MPI)

Table 5

Dimension and indicator for MPI measurement

No.	Dimension	Indicator
1.	Education	i. Year of schooling ii. Child enrolled
2.	Health	iii. Mortality rate iv. Nutrition
3.	Standard of Living	v. Electricity vi. Sanitation vii. Clean water viii. Type of houses ix. Type of cooking fuel x. Home appliances

Table 5 (Continued)

No.	Dimension	Indicator
3.	Standard of Living	xi. Number of household xii. Road Access xiii. Waste management xiv. Electricity
4.	Wealth	xv. Asset xvi. Income xvii. Livestock

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results are analysed using two methods. MPI was calculated with and without weightage. Figure 3 shows the seventeen indicators (17) of MPI (without weightage) calculated for the *Orang Asli* household, ranging from livestock (wealth dimension) to mortality (health dimension). The higher the percentage, the more they are deprived of those indicators. The three (3) top indicators that *Orang Asli* household were deprived of are livestock (such as cattle, goats and poultry), waste management and years of schooling, 97.1%, 96.7%, and 83.4%, respectively. Hence, they did not get any economic return from livestock. Waste management is also very poor that indirectly would affect their living condition. Years of schooling reflects the high drop-out rates among *Orang Asli* children. A large number of them did not complete primary education. The findings are consistent with the study done by Abdullah (2014). Generally, they have good access to basic amenities, such as clean water, electricity, and road access. Health dimensions (nutrition and child mortality) are found to be decent. This could be due to the facilities and infrastructure

provided by the government through the Regrouping Plan (RPS) of *Orang Asli* in this region with the objective of enhancing their well-being.

The policies and strategies for eradicating poverty are crucial issues. Conceptually, the context of poverty in Malaysia used to identify the poor by only looking at income or expenses (unidimensional) of the household. In practice, this study has proven that there are other important factors that have also influenced the level of poverty besides the unidimensional indicator. This is also in line with the concept recognized by MDGs that used various dimensions to justify the level of poverty in the society. In addition, this result also shows that *Orang Asli* in Terengganu is still lagging behind despite many efforts to achieve the NEM implemented by the government.

The following analysis is to examine the total number of indicators grouped together (combination of any indicators listed in Figure 3). One (1) implies they are deprived from a total of one indicator and the maximum number of indicators that they could be deprived from is nine (9) as shown in Figure 4. Approximately

34% of the *Orang Asli* was deprived from a total of six (6) indicators and 27.4% from five (5) indicators as shown in Figure 4. Approximately 19% of the *Orang Asli* under study was deprived from four (4) or less number of indicators.

Figures 3 and 4 only looked at the household deprivation on dimensions and indicators. However, in determining the poor in multidimensional approach, aggregate cut-off point is required. The cut-off point is a minimum point to determine

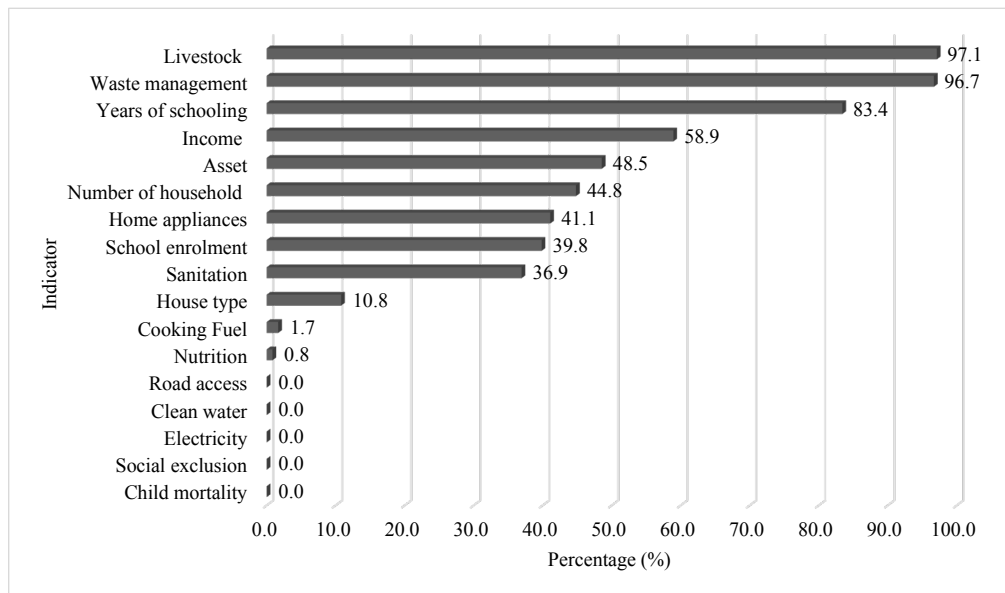


Figure 3. Percentage of deprivation indicator

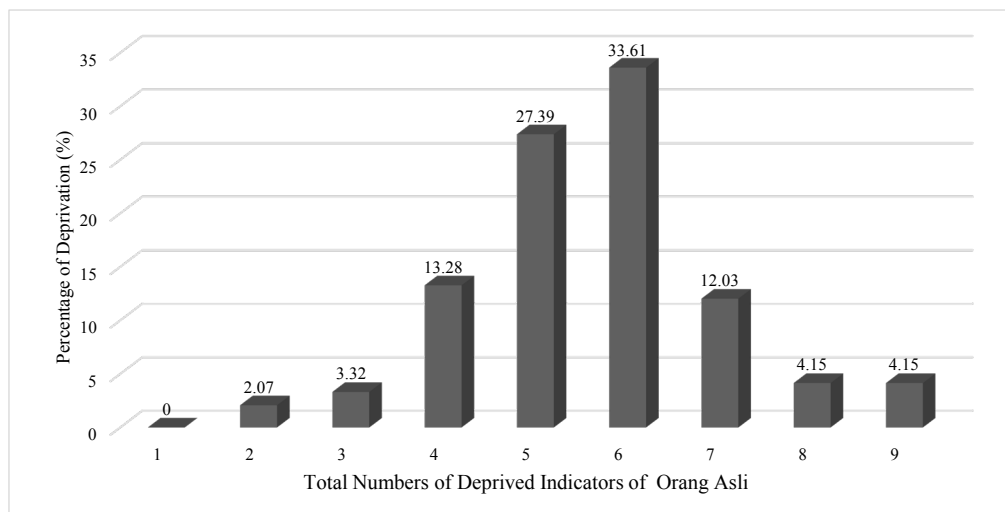


Figure 4. Percentage distribution of *Orang Asli* by number of deprived indicators

the poor. The cut-off in this paper is set at six (6) based on the highest percentage of the total number of indicators deprived (Figure 4, 33.61%). Thus, the household needs to be at least deprived on six (6) or more indicators to be categorized under multidimensional poor group.

Table 6 indicates the aggregated multidimensional poverty of *Orang Asli* in Terengganu based on different cut-off values. If six (6) indicators are taken as the cut-off point ($k = 6$), this implies that 53.9% of the *Orang Asli* household that are under the multidimensional poverty line. Likewise, if seven (7) indicators are taken as the cut-off point ($k = 7$), 20.3% of *Orang Asli* household is under the multidimensional poverty line. Whereas, when eight (8) indicators are taken as our cut-off ($k = 8$), 18.3% of the *Orang Asli* households are under the multidimensional poverty line. It is the same if nine (9) indicators are taken as cut-off ($k = 9$), 4.1%

of *Orang Asli* household categorized as multidimensional poor. In, summary, the higher the value of cut-off (k) the lower will be the percentage of *Orang Asli* households under the multidimensional poor.

In order to know how multidimensional poor *Orang Asli* in Terengganu is, the value of adjusted headcount ratio (M_0) has to be taken. If $k = 6$, the value of M_0 is 0.210. This means, the MPI for *Orang Asli* in Terengganu is 21%. The value of M_0 will decrease whenever cut-off value increased. The lowest M_0 recorded if it comes to the highest cut-off value. Average poverty gap (A) shows the average of deprivation faced by *Orang Asli* household. If $k = 6$, 38.9% of indicator deprived by *Orang Asli* household. The value of A will be increased if cut-off value is increased. If it comes to the highest cut-off value, there are more indicators deprived compared to the least cut-off value. The higher the value of the cut-off point, the lower is the level of poverty.

Table 6
Aggregated multidimensional poverty

Cut-off (k)	Headcount Ratio (H)	Average Poverty Gap (A) ($A=M_0/H$)	Adjusted Headcount, (M_0) ($H \times A$)
$k=1$	1.000	0.330	0.330
$k=2$	1.000	0.330	0.330
$k=3$	0.979	0.334	0.327
$k=4$	0.946	0.340	0.321
$k=5$	0.813	0.357	0.290
$k=6$	0.539	0.389	0.210
$k=7$	0.203	0.448	0.091
$k=8$	0.083	0.500	0.041
$k=9$	0.041	0.529	0.022

Poverty among the Resettlement Villages

In-depth analysis has been done for the three (3) *Orang Asli* resettlement villages in Terengganu to look at the level of their multidimensional poverty. The villages are Sungai, Berua, Sungai Pergam, and Sungai Sayap. For this purpose, research only used four (4) selected cut-off points as previous analyses ($k = 6$ to $k = 9$). Obviously, Table 7 shows that Sungai Pergam has the highest household poverty ratio in every cut-off level compared to other villages. It is proven if $k = 6$, 67.9% of household in Sungai Pergam are multidimensional poor compared to 35.5% in Sungai Berua and 25% in Sungai Sayap. The highest value of household poverty ratio in Sungai Pergam remains whenever cut-off increased compared to other villages. Besides, the study also precisely found that Sungai Pergam is the most multidimensional

poor compared to others. It is proven when Sungai Pergam has the highest value in adjusted headcount ratio (M_0) in every cut-off level. If $k = 6$, the value of M_0 is 27.1% compared to 12.8% in Sungai Berua and 8.8% in Sungai Sayap. This highest M_0 value in Sungai Pergam remains whenever cut-off increased compared to other villages. Whereas, if $k = 8$ and $k = 9$, only Sungai Pergam still has the M_0 value which 7.1% and 3.8% each.

Weighted Multidimensional Poverty

In calculating MPI, the researcher has the option to set the weighted value to the dimension. In doing this however, the importance of the selected dimension must be considered. For instance, by giving more weighted value in education and health indicators, these indicators are considered to be the most important to be assessed

Table 7

Poverty ratio in each Orang Asli resettlement village

Cut-off, (k)	Village	Headcount Ratio, (H)	Average Poverty Gap, (A)	Adjusted Headcount, (M_0)
$k = 6$	Sungai Berua	0.355	0.362	0.128
	Sungai Pergam	0.679	0.399	0.271
	Sungai Sayap	0.250	0.353	0.088
$k = 7$	Sungai Berua	0.054	0.412	0.022
	Sungai Pergam	0.314	0.452	0.142
	Sungai Sayap	0.000	0.000	0.000
$k = 8$	Sungai Berua	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Sungai Pergam	0.143	0.500	0.071
	Sungai Sayap	0.000	0.000	0.000
$k = 9$	Sungai Berua	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Sungai Pergam	0.071	0.529	0.038
	Sungai Sayap	0.000	0.000	0.000

compared to others. In order to get an accurate MPI value by giving different weighted value for different indicators, recalculation is needed.

Table 8 shows the different weighted values for different dimensions. They are calculated by using the number of indicators measured within the dimensions. For instance, in this study, there are four (4) dimensions known as education, health, standard of living, and wealth where each of them are represented by one-quarter ($1/4$). When calculating education dimension, for example, there are two (2) indicator set: children enrolment and years of schooling. As such, one-quarter ($1/4$) represented by education dimension has to be divided

by two (2), which equals to $1/8$ for each indicator [$(1/4)/2 = 1/8$]. In order to have the weighted value, the number of indicators in this study (represented by 17) and the denominator value of $1/8$ also have to be considered. The weighted value is calculated by rationalizing both value [$(17/8) = 2.125$]. Therefore, the weighted value for each indicator in education dimension is 2.125. Similar calculation is applied to other dimensions. The weighted value for education and health is 2.215; 0.425 for standard of living; and 1.42 for wealth. The total weighted value has to be same with the number of indicator measured in this study which is 17.

Table 8

Weighted value for each indicator

No.	Indicator	Weighted
1.	Children enrolled	2.125
2.	Years of schooling	2.125
3.	Nutrition	2.125
4.	Child mortality	2.125
5.	Community	0.425
6.	Electricity	0.425
7.	Sanitation	0.425
8.	Clean water	0.425
9.	Type of houses	0.425
10.	Type of kitchen	0.425
11.	Appliances	0.425
12.	No. of household	0.425
13.	Road access	0.425
14.	Waste	0.425
15.	Asset	1.42
16.	Income	1.42
17.	Livestock	1.42
Total Weight		17.00

Table 9 shows the weighted multidimensional poverty of *Orang Asli* in Terengganu with four (4) different cut-off values ($k = 6$ to $k = 9$). Generally, the percentage of *Orang Asli* household who is under the poverty line will be decreased whenever the cut-off values are increased. If $k = 6$, there is 53.9% of *Orang Asli* household who are under poverty line. It is followed by 20.3% if $k = 7$, 8.3% if $k = 8$ and 4.1% if $k = 9$.

Table 9 also shows the MPI value for *Orang Asli* in Terengganu with four different cut-off values ($k = 6$ to $k = 9$) as PLI. If $k = 6$, the MPI value for *Orang Asli* in Terengganu is 24.8%. This value will be decreased whenever cut-off values increased. It is proven if $k = 7$, the MPI value is 10.3%. It is followed by 4.3% if $k = 8$ and 2.3% if $k = 9$.

An in-depth analysis has been done to get weighted multidimensional poverty for *Orang Asli* resettlement villages in Terengganu. Generally, Table 10 shows that Sungai Pergam has the highest percentage of under poverty line household in all cut-off level. If $k = 6$, 67.9% of *Orang Asli* household in Sungai Pergam who are multidimensional poor. It is followed by 35.5% of *Orang Asli* household in Sungai Berua and 25% in Sungai Sayap. While, if $k = 7$, 31.4% of *Orang Asli* household in

Sungai Pergam who are multidimensional poor and followed by 5.4% in Sungai Berua. However, there is no poverty recorded in Sungai Sayap in this cut-off level. Whereas, if $k = 8$ and $k = 9$, only Sungai Pergam still has household poverty that contributes by 14.3% and 7.1% each.

Table 10 also showed the MPI value by looking at adjusted headcount ratio (M_0). Obviously, Sungai Pergam has the highest MPI value in every cut-off level compared to other villages. If $k = 6$, 32.1% MPI value recorded. It is followed by 15% for Sungai Berua and 11% for Sungai Sayap. While, if $k = 7$, 16% MPI value recorded in Sungai Pergam and followed by 2.7% for Sungai Berua. Meanwhile, there is no MPI value recorded in Sungai Sayap in this cut-off level. Whereas, if $k = 8$ and $k = 9$, only Sungai Pergam still has the MPI value which contributes by 7.5% and 3.9% each.

The results show that, there are poverty disparities between *Orang Asli* resettlement villages in Terengganu by looking at the computed MPI. Although government have given equal physical development through the Regrouping Plan (RPS) including road access, clinic, water supply, electricity, houses and school, poverty disparities still occur among *Orang Asli* in Terengganu.

Table 9

Weighted multidimensional poverty

Weighted Estimate	$k = 6$	$k = 7$	$k = 8$	$k = 9$
Headcount Ratio (H)	0.539	0.203	0.083	0.041
Average Poverty Gap (A)	0.459	0.506	0.524	0.547
Adjusted Headcount(M_0)/ MPI	0.248	0.103	0.043	0.023

Table 10

Weighted multidimensional poverty in each Orang Asli resettlement village

Cut-off	Village	Headcount Ratio (<i>H</i>)	Average Poverty Gap (<i>A</i>)	Adjusted Headcount (M_0)/MPI
<i>k</i> = 6	Sungai Berua	0.355	0.422	0.150
	Sungai Pergam	0.679	0.472	0.321
	Sungai Sayap	0.250	0.439	0.110
<i>k</i> = 7	Sungai Berua	0.054	0.494	0.027
	Sungai Pergam	0.314	0.508	0.160
	Sungai Sayap	0	0	0
<i>k</i> = 8	Sungai Berua	0	0	0
	Sungai Pergam	0.143	0.524	0.075
	Sungai Sayap	0	0	0
<i>k</i> = 9	Sungai Berua	0	0	0
	Sungai Pergam	0.071	0.547	0.039
	Sungai Sayap	0	0	0

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, MPI measurement implemented in this study has successfully covered the objectives of the studies. The results found that most *Orang Asli* in Terengganu was critically deprived in commercial livestock, waste management followed by years of schooling and income indicator. Yet, there are other indicators that are of concerned such as asset, number of households, home appliances, school enrolment, and sanitation which have less than 50% deprivation. However, despite these findings, this study also proves that government has improved the quality of lives of *Orang Asli* in Terengganu due to the least deprivation ratio found especially in nutrition, road access, clean water, electricity, social exclusion, and child mortality indicator. Besides, this study

clearly indicates that Sungai Pergam village in Kemaman is poorer compared to other villages based on the MPI measured.

More important, this study shows that MPI measurement is a better alternative method to elucidate how poor the community is by not only factoring income or expenses but also by using non-monetary dimensions such as education, health, standard of living, and wealth. The aim is to focus on poverty reduction by the public socioeconomic framework, which is efficient in bridging the social gap. By using MPI, the study does not only comprehend the significant level of poverty but also identify the indicator that contributes to poverty specifically. Therefore, MPI measurement can be implemented to other *Orang Asli* sub-ethnic groups in other regions in Malaysia. It is vital for management authorities to have

comprehensive data in order to identify suitable kind of aids to be given to extremely poor *Orang Asli* community.

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Regeneration of Sriwedari *Wayang Orang* Art-Observers: Opportunities and Challenges

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ABSTRACT

Regeneration of *Sriwedariwayang orang/wong* (literally, human puppet) art-observers is a complicated issue encountered by the Solo city art group. *Wayang orang* has long been becoming one of Surakarta's performing art icons and its continuity is a shared concern. The regeneration is influenced by many affecting factors, both internal and external, one of which is developed due to specific objectives. Internally, art-observers regeneration is difficult to accomplish since not all the *wayang orang* art-observers' descendants want to be *wayang orang* art-observers. Other factor is the difficulty of recruiting art-observers through bureaucracy. At present, the number of *wayang orang* art-observers with civil servant status is limited. When they reach the retirement age, no substitution is found yet. Other than civil servants art-observers, Sriwedari *wayang orang* group also recruits contract observers and other freelancers wishing to join the group. Objective conditions add to the difficulties of the regeneration of *wayang orang* art-observers. Social changes and shifts of cultural values leading to pragmatic and materialistic life style also affect *wayang orang* regeneration. Many of the spectators today seem to begin abandoning traditional art performance like *wayang orang* for a number of reasons, one of which people love to watch modernly presented media such as television, and internet. Mostly younger generations hold the belief that becoming *wayang orang* art-worker is materially less favourable.

Wayang orang art-observers' efforts to regenerate need a strong of the government and community thorough participations to ensure that that precious cultural icon does not remain as a memory.

Keywords: Art-worker regeneration, cultural icon, cultural values, performing art, social change, solo, Sriwedari, *wayang orang*

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INTRODUCTION

Wayang is a traditional performance art that has become the center of public attention since the ancient times until the present day (Holt, 2000; Raffles, 2008). One form of well-known *wayang* show in Java is *wayang orang*. *Wayang orang* is a traditional performing art inspired from the stories of *Mahabharata* and *Ramayana*. The stories highlight moral messages and philosophy of life teachings. Both *Mahabharata* and *Ramayana* characters share no differences from the figures played in the shadow puppet (*wayang kulit*). The difference lies on the fact that the characters in *wayang orang* are all played by humans (*wong*), while in shadow puppet (*wayang kulit*) held between a source of light and a translucent screen.

One of the remaining cultural heritages of *wayang orang* groups to these days is Sriwedari *wayang wong*: the cultural icon of Surakarta City. In addition to being a unique cultural heritage, *wayang orang*, or possibly other traditional performances such as dances or music have been considered old-fashion. The presence of Sriwedari *wayang orang* is inseparable from the former Sriwedari Park (*Kebon Raja*), initiated by Sunan Paku Buwono (PB) X in 1907. Supported by the *wayang orang* travelling art-observers (*mbarangan*), Sriwedari *wayang orang* gradually has become a respected group of arts and inseparable from the whole concept of Sriwedari Park. In 1930s a permanent stage was built for Sriwedari *wayang orang* shows, which at the same time it also marked the end of the open stage (*tobong*) era. Modern

stage arrangement (*proscenium*) began to be introduced with a touch of new innovation. For such reason, since then the separating line between spectators and the performer(s) was initially practiced. Additionally, Sriwedari *wayang orang* started to be commercially managed for art performance economic oriented benefits. *wayang orang*'s commercialization started in 1950s and reached its peak in 1970s. This performing art in further turned to be quite popular among the people of Surakarta and the surroundings, where it once became inseparable part of the Javanese living culture.

However, after 1970s, public art observers toward Sriwedari *wayang orang* gradually faded away and abandoned this performance, where these were all led by a number of affecting factors. Internally, i.e., the *wayang orang* art performance itself is monotonous, despite the fact that *wayang orang* nuanced with its glamorous and enchanting characteristics (Hersapandi, 1999; Sonalitha, et al., 2017). It should be worthy of note, there were almost no art performers gaining a better fame except those the *wayang orang* art observers in the 1970s. This condition increasingly leads this art backward and the dominant of reason for the cause is due to the lack of regeneration among those of succeeding generations of *wayang orang* performers. The gap between the succeeding generations of *wayang orang* artist and the performing the art itself has primarily been underlying that leads this condition. In short, the internal problems affecting the existence

of Sriwedari *wayang orang*, among others, are related to aesthetic quality, art observers' qualities to work on *wayang orang* performances, in addition due to the failure to generate its succeeding generations. Several external factors affecting Sriwedari *wayang orang*'s sustainability are due to the lack of protection both from the era of Javanese royal court to current government; social and political pressure; the local leaders whose role are actually in charge of sustaining this traditional art; and the pressure from contemporary art. In addition, the accumulation of various factors led the Sriwedari *wayang orang* to losing its audience, not even succeeding in regenerating the succeeding art workers.

Traditional performance art such as *wayang orang* is the living part of the Javanese traditional and real life philosophy. In such context, traditional art does not merely function as a form of entertainment/spectacle, but also as a guidance or value orientation since it reveals many valuable moral teachings. In an effort to materialise the national development with character based on the cultural values of the nation, preservation and development of traditional arts including traditional performance arts as the cultural property are absolutely necessary (Lindsay, 1995; Sutton, 1995). Traditional art is an important social and cultural asset in future nation development. Therefore, to help preserve and sustain traditional arts such as Sriwedari *wayang orang*, continuous art-worker regeneration should be carried out. Sriwedari *wayang orang* art-worker regeneration is a crucial

and pressing matter to be done because of two reasons: first, Sriwedari *wayang orang* art is part of community life and at the same time, the cultural icon of Surakarta City, which collectively gives and forms cultural identity. Second, *wayang orang* art is kept as a part of Indonesian cultural wealth, so that it is not easily claimed by other parties/nations as their own. In this context, this paper discusses the present regeneration process of the Sriwedari *wayang orang* and gives recommendation for future steps. Beforehand, a short history of Sriwedari *wayang orang* presence and several aspects affecting the development of this art from time to time are presented.

MATERIAL AND METHOD

The research was conducted in Surakarta City, specifically at the base camp of Sriwedari *wayang orang* of Gedung *Wayang Orang* in Sriwedari Park complex, on Jl. Slamet Riyadi Surakarta. The research used the descriptive qualitative method. The sources of research data were informants, *wayang orang* performance stage, archives, and documents. The informants were selected from private sectors, community, art-observers, cultural observers, and government agencies' officials who are concerned for Sriwedari *wayang orang*. The data of research were collected through site observation, focus group discussion, in-depth interview, and content analysis of the prevailing documents. The observation was focused on several activities related to *wayang orang* art-worker regeneration through observing, taking notes, and

recording. Interview was held to get more complete data on the traditional performance art of Sriwedari *wayang orang* by interviewing all related stakeholders. Focus Group Discussion technically used to enable the researcher to obtain deeper analysis on data taken from stakeholders related to the object study, in addition to apply validity over the data through other techniques, which was primarily conducted to keep the data away from biases. The content analysis was performed to study all documents related to the regeneration of Sriwedari *wayang orang* art-observers. The validity of the data was checked by using the source triangulation and the method triangulation, that is, an effort to gain a higher degree of confidence by comparing and re-checking the degree of confidence of pieces of information obtained from a source through different information sources and different techniques. Then, the data were analysed using the interactive analysis model which comprised data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawing (Miles & Huberman, 1984; Moleong, 1989; Sutopo, 2006). Data reduction used in this study was a process of selecting, focusing, simplifying, and abstracting the raw data found in the lists of observation. The display of data was set according to the informational organization that led the researcher to draw a conclusion about the study.

RESULTS

The history of *wayang orang* in Surakarta can be traced back far to the beginning of *Praja Mangkunegaran* reign in the

middle of the 18th century (Kumar, 2008). The emergence of this classic art was a part of the Javanese classic arts revival after the Majapahit downfall. Surakarta style *wayang orang* was believed to be created by Mangkunegara (MN) I (1757-1795) and intended to give a boost and life spirit to Mangkunegara subjects in fighting the Dutch oppression. Thus, at the beginning, *wayang orang* served as a means of amplifying the legitimization of the kings/rulers through the created symbols (Fananie, 2005; Kuntowijoyo, 2006). *Wayang* became the source of legitimization since through the knight characters in the world of *wayang*, a king identified himself as one. The heroic story in the story of Mahabharata depicted the magnitude of a real figure in power. *Wayang orang* still became the attributes of the king's magnitude until the days after. The height of the *wayang orang* development happened in the era of MN V (1881-1896). Since then, many modern fashion creations have been inspired by *wayang kulit*, consequently the popularity of *wayang kulit* was widely known at that time. MN V then authored a book entitled *Pratelan Busananing Ringgit Tiyang* (Explanation on *Wayang orang* Clothing) which became a reference for Surakarta style *Wayang orang* fashion (Hersapandi, 1999). Up to the end of the 19th century, *wayang orang* was virtually unknown outside the walls of *Karaton* (palace) walls.

Wayang orang performance in Mangkunegaran palace was managed by king's servants (*abdidalem Langen*

praja) under the coordination of the assistant head (*Kawedanan Reksawibawa*), whose responsibility was connected to the matter of beauty/pleasure. The institution covers several types of king's servants: *abdidalem Reksawarsastra*, *Reksawahana*, *Reksabusana*, and *Langen praja*. *Abdidalem Langenpraja* consists of *abdidalem dhalang*, *niyaga*, *tledhek*, *badut*, and *palawijaya* (disabled persons) (Hersapandi, 1999). *Wayang orang* performance in a palace could not escape the king's control and authority. It represented the king/castle's interest through the roles of the *abdidalem* who took care of that matter. The story (*lakon*) that was performed, which often claimed as the work of the ruling king, was included. As a system, *wayang orang* performance was supported by several sub-systems: *niyaga* (*gamelan*/music performers), dancers, make-up artists and costume directors, and performance property.

However, along with the economic degradation of Kadipaten Mangkunegaran by the end of the 19th century (Pringgodigdo, 1950; Soedarmono, 2011), arts activities in general and *wayang orang* especially faced a decline. The palace's economic resources were channelled to other activities especially those related to economic and social activities. The palace's *wayang orang* decline continued in the era of MN VI (1896-1916). Several traditional ceremonies and art performance activities were diminished due to the increased economic pressures. Arts which needed a considerable amount of financial support started to be rarely staged and even some of its art-observers had to

leave the palace. Many *wayang orang* art-observers then formed *wayang orang* groups outside the palace and *mbarang* (travelled to perform) to several places outside the palace. That opportunity was exploited by Chinese entrepreneurs to change *wayang orang* art into a commercial art. *Wayang orang* was no longer becoming sacred art which was confined inside the walls of the palace, but had changed into popular art that could be watched by the public. Ever since, there were the co-modification of *wayang orang* art, carried out especially by Chinese entrepreneurs by exploiting *wayang orang* art-observers previously served in the palace. *Wayang orang* was packed to be a spectacle product or creative industry and into the wider market network; for example, a Chinese entrepreneur, Hok Kam, staged *wayang orang* around Singasaren for commercial purposes. Then during the reign of MN VII, along with other Chinese entrepreneur, MN VII also staged *wayang orang* for commercial purposes in Harsono Building (Hersapandi, 1999).

The birth of commercial *wayang orang* outside the palace urged the birth of new creativity both in the stage setting and the staged story (*lakon*). *Wayang orang* no longer served the palace's interests but served the interests of the ever-changing spectators/city community. *Proscenium* stage, that was a stage completed with screen and side wings painted realistically as needed by the need for scenes, lighting, and sound, started to be introduced. The *proscenium* stage for travelling *wayang* (*mbarangan*) was appropriately called *tobong* since that place

was multi-functioned as temporal dwellings for the art-observer's families as well as a performing stage. *Tobong* later became an arena for social interaction and formed a unique and particular *tobong* cultural entity. At the beginning, travelling *wayang orang* (*mbarangan*) was considered low by the palace since it was judged to sell the noble values of the palace arts. The outlook waned after the palace consented for Sriwedari Park to be the performance place for the travelling *wayang orang* (*mbarangan*). The birth of Sriwedari *wayang orang* in 1910 marked the institution of commercial *wayang orang* which was oriented to the economic/profit interests.

Sriwedari *wayang orang* developed fast during 1901-1946 under the reign of *karaton Kasunanan Surakarta*. Sriwedari Park, built in 1899 with the *sengkalan* (encrypted year marker) "*luwihkatonesthiningwong*" (1831 J) (Sajid, 1984), was an amusement complex in which there were various kinds of animals and plants, and various types of entertainment such as film and *wayang orang*, including Radyamustaka Museum. In 1933 it was completed with a sport stadium. Sriwedari Park became a public space for every person from every walk of life. The established Park became the pride of the Solo and its surrounding community, since it provided easy and inexpensive amusement place. Sriwedari *wayang orang* group was established around 1912, on the initiative of PB X. At that time, that *wayang orang* was still under the name of *Persatuan Wayang orang Sriwedari* (Sriwedari *Wayang orang* Association). Since then, the *wayang orang*

performances in Sriwedari were carried out routinely under the supervision of *abdidalem Kepatihan*. Prior to the presence of permanent *proscenium* stage, Sriwedari *wayang orang* performance was executed in a simple way on an open stage, and the standing audiences watched it from every side using the ticket that was purchased upon entering the Park. Only in 1929-1930 for the first time the building of Sriwedari *Wayang orang* was built in the form of *proscenium* stage that was adapting European model performance technique.

Performers/*wayang orang* art-worker natural regeneration actually went along well when that art form was still part of palace art and even when it was developed into commercial art outside the palace walls. Art-worker regeneration was an actor transmission process from the previous generation (older generations) to the following generation (younger ones). In that context Sriwedari *wayang orang* regeneration meant the process of actor/*wayang* art-worker transmission from one generation to other oncoming generation. It had happened for a long time, even when *wayang orang* still became an inseparable part of palace arts or a high form of arts intended for kingdom's ceremonies. To present certain story, the *wayang orang abdidalem* had to exercise routinely; dancing, singing Javanese songs (*nembang*), vocalizing (*antawacana*), and playing Javanese musical instruments/*gamelan* (*karawitan*). Involving senior dancers, junior ones who joined children *wayang orang* was also prepared. The performers

of the children's *wayang orang* came from the circles of *abdidalem* (king servants), *sentana* (king's relatives), and king's sons and daughters. The institution of children's *wayang* was quite strategic since it could produce competent dancers/art-observers in the palace's environment.

When *wayang orang* art changed into commercial art and was routinely performed in Sriwedari, the regeneration process of *wayang orang* art-observers naturally continued. Sriwedari became the place to seed newcomers, trained by their parents who had already become art-observers. Since its establishment in the beginning of the 20th century, Sriwedari became one of the places for widely known *wayang orang* performances. Both Sriwedari *wayang orang* and travelling *wayang orang* group (*mbarangan*), routinely performed in that place. Sriwedari *wayang orang* group was a permanently formed art group in Sriwedari which had a routine schedule every day/week. Travelling *wayang orang* (*mbarangan*) was *wayang orang* group which travelled from one place to another, and which once in a while was performed in Sriwedari *wayang orang* building. It is mentioned in the history that Sriwedari *wayang orang* started to hold regular performances in Sriwedari King's Park since 1911. Prior to the establishment of Sriwedari *wayang orang* association, professional *wayang* performances were carried out in turn by several *wayang orang* groups. The establishment of Sriwedari *wayang orang* was supported by several stage *wayang orang* members who were more experienced

of staging travelling performance in big cities (Hersapandi, 1999).

At the beginning of its establishment, Sriwedari *wayang orang* association was managed by a Dutchman, Rademaker, and the head of Art section was RM Sastratanaya. The management was handled by Kepatihan *abdidalem*, so that the appointment of performers should meet the approval of *Kepatihan*. Outstanding performers were appointed to be *abdidalem Punakawan Langentaya* (servants who took care of dance art sector) in the office building of *Hamongraras*. Male dancers got the appreciation of *abdidalem* status with an additional name of *wibaksa*, and female ones got an additional name of *rini*. Gamelan performer (*pengrawit*) got the additional name of *rawita* or *pangrawit*. Wugu Harjawibaksa for example, was well known as Gatutkaca legendary performer. The name of Harjawibaksawas inherited to the next Gatutkaca performers, namely: Rusman Harjawibaksa, Nalawibaksa (performer of Gareng), Surana Harjawibaksa (performer of Petruk), the name of *rini* was given to Darsi Pudyarini, the performer of woman warrior Srikandi or Banowati. It was a tract called *nunggaksemi* in the regeneration process of Sriwedari *wayang orang*, which could be traced back through the use of additional names behind the real names. That name was granted to those who were able to inherit art capability in *wayang*, from one generation to the next.

Regeneration process needed certain requirement for young generation aspiring to be *wayang orang*. The main requirement

was mastering the acting abilities of *wayang orang* such as the ability of dancing, *tembang* (singing), gamelan performer/song repertoire (*gendhing*), vocalizing (*antawacana*), and other related knowledge. According to Kusumakeswa as cited by Hersapandi (1999), *wayang orang* must master five dancing movement, namely *sembahan* (giving obeisance), *sabetan*, *lumaksana* (walking), *ombakbanyu* (standing still, moving one's body left and right), and *srising* (darting about on tiptoe). Mastering the five dancing movements, one can be involved to play *wayang orang*. However, later one must master several more complicated moving patterns such as *beksanlaras* and *beksankiprahan*. Moreover, a *wayang orang* art-worker should also master dialog technique both in prose and Javanese song (*tembang*). Therefore, one should always practice to improve the performance quality, such as practicing dances, *udanegara* (politeness), *antawacana* (dialog), *uran-uran* (*tembang*), make up and costumes, and *karawitan*.

Under Tohiran's leadership (1954-67), the effort to regenerate art-observers had been carried out in Sriwedari *wayang orang* (Hersapandi, 1999). The effort to regenerate was meant to prepare talented young art-observers to replace the older generations' role in the future. Thus, to prepare for skilled and readily used art-observers, every Monday and Thursday there were practices of dancing techniques, vocalizing techniques for *antawacana* and *tembang*, and *karawitan*. Meanwhile in the production system, alteration was made

from a specific role specialization system as befitted character's self-image (*gandar*) to a more flexible one. A dancer was no longer fixed to play on one certain character only but had to be able to play various *wayang* characters. Transvestite tradition, in which a female played a male part, even also introduced on the Sriwedari *wayang orang* stage (Hatley, 1995; Sunardi, 2009).

Sriwedari *wayang orang* art-worker recruitment was based on the shapes of face and body of the candidates, as adjusted to *wayang* iconography such as to play the role of calm and polite male/female characters (*alusan*). Upon being accepted as an intern, the art-worker candidate had to practice, closely observe every performance, and join the performance in walk on role or supporting role which movement and dialog were not dominant. Often times, those beginners had to serve well known senior figures in order to be able to study more intensively and inherit the figure's expertise. Along with well-kept tradition, a Sriwedari *wayang orang* dancer was fashioned in accordance with the shape of face (*gandar*) and physical attribute.

In order to secure regeneration, every year Sriwedari *wayang orang* opened new admission for junior dancer candidates who wanted to be *wayang orang* art-observers. They could come from the children or grandchildren of senior art-observers as well as from public. Also, Sriwedari *wayang orang* accepted senior performers/dancers who had experienced joining travelling *wayang orang*. It was quite ideal for a means of regeneration, since

by the entrance of potential *wayang orang* young art-observers, concern over the loss of performers could be eliminated. While the entrance of experienced senior dancer would improve the performance quality and creativity. Several performers who then became the stage stars (*rol*) in Sriwedari *wayang orang* are for instance, Surana and Rusman, who at the beginning had only walk on roles (*baladhupak*), playing relatively easy characters such as Citraksa or Citraksi.

The young generation interest in becoming Sriwedari *wayang orang* art-observers was quite good. It could be observed from the number of youngsters who wanted to join the *wayang orang* art-observers and art lovers. They came from various educational and social backgrounds such as SMKI (Indonesian Art High School) and ISI (Indonesian Art Institute) graduates, who formally and informally wanted to join. Some joined through internship, and gradually and routinely practiced with senior performers. Backed by their art education, they were not foreign to several skills that needed to be mastered in *wayang orang* art. Meanwhile, there were also groups of young generation, students, university students, and high school and university graduates who voluntarily join edit as performers without any payment. Their involvement were only incidental, since they were not bound by performance schedules. They wanted to be *wayang orang* performers because of their wish to channel their talents and artistic desires for *wayang orang* art.

Other than high school and university graduates, many primary students and those who joined art studios had a high interest in *wayang orang* art. Several primary schools in Surakarta had *wayang orang* group which joined children *wayang* festival. Youngsters who learnt art in public art studios were also actively involved in art performance events such as children *wayang* festivals and other art performances.

Naturally, youngster group whose interests were high came from the children of Sriwedari *wayang orang* art-observers. Their talents and interests were developed naturally through intensive interactions and communications in their art-worker family so that art values were internalized, which then drove them to be art-observers. Some *wayang orang* children then joined their parents in that profession.

It should be noted, however, that young generations who wanted to be *wayang orang* performers or art-observers were few and far between. The previous revelation shows that the number of youngsters wished to be *wayang orang* performers generally came from two major groups. The first group was that of university students or graduates who took or were taking formal education in art or culture, such as in SMKI (now SMKN), *Institut Seni Indonesia* (ISI) Surakarta, and FIB (Faculty of Cultural Sciences) of Sebelas Maret University. They became the youngster core group interested to be *wayang orang* art-observers. They at least still had a high appreciation for traditional arts especially *wayang orang*, since they were already familiar with the art form since

childhood. The second group was that of youngsters who joined arts studio or those from public schools but had strong interests and talents in arts. That group had also a big potential in conversing and developing traditional arts.

The challenges faced in Sriwedari *wayang orang* regeneration were quite complex, internally as well as externally. The internal factors comprised various problems inside the organization itself, among others were the problems of institution management, leadership, performers' rights and obligations, performers recruitment pattern, and other supporting capacities which were directly and indirectly related to the regeneration process. Meanwhile, several external factors or objective conditions affecting *wayang orang* art-observers regeneration process among others were affecting the synergy and coordination between institutions related to Sriwedari *wayang orang*, government commitment as a regulator, and relation among Sriwedari, palace, and community.

At present Sriwedari has around 99 crews who are responsible to produce *wayang orang* performance. They act their role according to their own expertise, for instance as performers/dancers, music accompaniment performers (*pengrawit*), lighting directors, make-up artists and costume directors, sound system officers, stage manager, and other technicians. There are two groups of observers, civil servants and contract observers. Thirty-four of them are civil servants (PNS), comprise of dancers and musicians (*niyaga*). The other

65 are outsourcing observers/ contract observers who only receive minimal wage. The number of the first group is limited but they have their rightful rights as civil servants (fixed salary, pension, etc.). On the other hand, the outsourcing observers only get a limited income of Rp200,000.00/month, which is obviously still very far from meeting the employees' basic needs.

In short, after *wayang orang* performers became civil servants, their number keeps on diminishing because of retirement or job transfer, while the new worker recruitment is very limited due to bureaucratic hurdles and financial capability of the Surakarta City government's budget. In 2000, for instance, there were 20 retired civil servants while there were 3 new recruiters only in 2007. To augment the number of the performers, contract observers were recruited with very limited income. The condition brings further implication; decreasing the number of the performers as well as reducing the performers' artistic spirit. The decreased number of the performers disturbs *wayang orang* performance since the number of the needed actors/actress is not available, which lower its quality. Amid the deprived condition, it is difficult to expect the emergence of performers' innovation and creativity which can improve his/her performance quality (Puguh & Utama, 2018).

Those limited numbers of performers were bored with the role they had to play over and over again without any replacement. Since they 'have to' perform every day, the performers felt fed up, so

that there was not enough time to improve their skills and performance quality. It happened since as civil servants, they were tied down by obligation to go working every day according to their field. *Wayang orang* art-observers who had civil servant status had to go working every day and doing their profession, that was performing as *wayang orang*, whether they wanted to or not. Performing then became their duties as civil servants, treated the same as other civil servants, instead of as artistic expression which came from their heart as art-observers.

According to one informant, the regeneration process in limited way has actually been carried out. However, since the condition of Sriwedari *wayang orang* which is expressed as “*daya nanging during andayani*”, “*urip nanging durung nguripi*” (just about to survive but has not yet able to give life assurance), the regeneration goes very slowly. The expression affirms that being *wayang orang* art-worker is not an easy choice. On one hand, as an art-worker, one has to devote oneself entirely to the profession. On the other hand, appreciation for the chosen profession is still low, so as to make it difficult for one to support oneself as an art-worker. The low income that they get, about Rp200,000.00 per month and often late as it is, is indecent and incapable of supporting the life of Sriwedari *wayang orang* art-observers’ family.

Other than several aforementioned internal factors, some factors also hinder Sriwedari *wayang orang* art-worker regeneration process. There

is a misunderstanding that art-worker regeneration is the responsibility of Sriwedari *wayang orang* art-observers alone. While in fact, the problem belongs to every party concerned with the preservation and development of Sriwedari *wayang orang*, namely: art-observers, local government, university, and community in general. Regeneration is everyone’s responsibility. *Wayang orang* art-observers have limited authority in recruiting new observers/art-observers into *wayang orang* organisation. They actually are only executor of policies made by local government of Department overseeing Sriwedari *wayang orang* organization.

Other obstacle is related to communication between Surakarta Tourist Department and Sriwedari *wayang orang* art-observers which does not run well yet. As the managing department of Sriwedari *wayang orang*, the *wayang* art-observers thought that Tourist Department has not yet done its job optimally, the ones related to the organization development in general, and those related to preparing the art-observers in particular. Different perspective between Tourism Department and the art-observers in developing Sriwedari often obstruct the formulation of Sriwedari *wayang orang* future development. Such as on the problem of recruitment of new observers, since there is no clear regulation on the mechanism regarding outside art-observers who want to join; the requirement, rights and responsibilities, and others. Civil servant recruitment is obviously very limited due to limited civil servant formation limitation,

while the need for adequate number of performers is urgent. Also, there is a problem of Sriwedari *wayang orang* future development. There is not any development master plan nor strategic planning for the future development. Without any clear long term planning which is broken down into short and medium term activities, Sriwedari *wayang orang* development including its performers' regeneration are difficult to carry out. At present, there is only patchwork repair which does not solve the problem comprehensively and continuously.

DISCUSSION

Sriwedari *wayang orang* is quite old and well known by Surakarta community and by those of its surrounding area. At the beginning, *wayang orang* was a part of palace arts or great tradition, performed to support traditional ceremonies inside the palace. But, after *wayang orang* went out of the palace, that palace art changed into a popular and commercial art. The foundation of Sriwedari *wayang orang* is closely related to that change. Since the beginning of the 20th century, along with the establishment of Sriwedari Park, *wayang orang* became more popular since it was performed on an open stage - and then later in a closed stage (*proscenium*) - and was managed commercially. Along with the development of Sriwedari as the community centre of public entertainment, the *wayang orang* stage was visited by many. From that stage, emerged great artists who were capable of enchanting spectators.

Efforts to regenerate Sriwedari *wayang orang* art-observers are carried out in several ways such as internship (*nyantrik/magang*), in which young art-observers learned at older art-observers. Then, there is a term of *nunggak semi*, senior name is recruited by the junior who replaces him/her. Other way is by recruiting art-observers through bureaucratic work, by making the *wayang orang* art-observers as civil servants. To meet the needed number for an ideal performer, the head recruits art-observers and contract observers to be part of the group. *Wayang orang* next generation is from children *wayang orang* groups, art studios, and middle and high form of educations. The obstacles faced by the group are, among others: Sriwedari *wayang orang* group's limited authority in recruiting art-observers. Under the management of Tourist Department, *wayang orang* group becomes part of government bureaucracy, and the art-observers have to work according to their tasks as civil servants so that they do not have enough time to improve their artistic quality. Ideally, Sriwedari *wayang orang* group is led by a manager who has full authority to develop the group, including in recruiting or regenerating its art-observers.

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Trust and Loyalty among Islamic and Conventional Bank Customers in Malaysia

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to explore the dimensions of service quality and test an integrative model to study the influence of service quality, image, and trust on customer loyalty in the Malaysian banking sector. In this study, the service quality model is enhanced to improve the bank's image. Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) was used to test the proposed research model. The proposed model indicates that delivering high-quality service can result in achieving the well-known image; the result also shows a positive relationship between image and trust, and trust and customer loyalty in both Islamic and conventional banks. Therefore, based on the findings, service quality, bank image and trust are considered to be antecedents of customer loyalty. Bank image is indirectly related to customer loyalty through trust.

Keywords: Conventional bank, image, Islamic bank, loyalty, trust

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INTRODUCTION

Malaysia practices a dual banking system in which Islamic banking operates alongside the conventional banking system. Islamic banking products and services are similar to conventional banks, except their transactions need to be compliant with Islamic law. As results, the Islamic banks face competition with conventional banks in banking products and services. Bravo et

al. (2010), and De Leaniz and Rodríguez (2016) found that corporate image was the most effective means of differentiation in banking. However, most of the prior studies on banking industry have focussed service quality and customer satisfaction on customer loyalty (for example, Amin et al., 2013; Awan et al., 2011; Kashif et al., 2016). Our study adds to this literature by exploring the impact of service quality on bank image, trust and customer loyalty.

A firm's image consists of two elements, which are functional and emotional. The functional dimension refers to the tangible aspects that are easy to recognize and measure. Whereas the emotional aspect is related to the psychological characteristics that are manifested by individual experiences and attitudes toward the firm. Most researchers agree that image is an outcome of a process; therefore, corporate image is the consequence of a collective process by which customers compare and weigh the various attributes of companies (Bravo et al., 2009; Nguyen & LeBlanc, 2001). According to Kang and James (2004), an image is viewed as a filter in terms of a customer's perception of quality. Lee et al. (2011) stated corporate image was the end result of all interactions based on experiences, impressions, beliefs, feelings, and knowledge that individuals had about a company. Na et al. (1999) argued that image must include perceptions of customers and benefits gained from the product/service. Lai et al. (2009) found that service quality significantly influenced corporate image and subsequently affected customer loyalty.

Ladhari et al. (2011) indicated that service quality had a direct effect on bank image because the customer could be influenced by different service encounters.

This study proposes to measure service quality by applying five dimensions: empathy, tangibility, reliability and security, core product and Internet banking. These five dimensions can be grouped as functional components of the bank's image. The purpose of this study is to explore the impact of service quality on bank image, trust and customer loyalty. The proposed model implies that delivering high-quality service will enhance an image and improving customer trust and loyalty. Since Malaysia practices a dual banking system, it would be interesting to make a comparison of the service quality, corporate image, trust and customer loyalty between conventional and Islamic banks.

RESEARCH FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

The service quality conception includes both the service outcome (the result of a service production process) and service delivery process (how the outcome of a process is transferred to the client) (Lehtinen & Lehtinen, 1991; Parasuraman et al., 1985). Service quality is a comparison of service expectation and performance (Parasuraman et al. 1985). Previous studies agreed that service quality was a multidimensional construct; however, there was no concrete agreement with regards to the generic dimensions. Parasuraman et al. (1985, 1988) suggested five dimensions SERVQUAL

-tangibility, empathy, reliability, responsiveness, and assurance. Tangibility is defined as the physical attributes, equipment, environment, and cleanliness as a whole (appearance). Empathy refers to the capability of employees in understanding the special needs or feelings of customers and provides thoughtful and individualised attention to customers. Reliability refers to the ability of staff to deliver the services promised, independently, and accurately. Passion of staff to assist customers and rendering prompt services is known as responsiveness. Assurance describes customers' trust and confidence on the ability, knowledge, credibility, and competence of the employees.

Physical facilities, availability, adequacy of equipment, and the appearance of the bank's employees are viewed as important factors in terms of tangibility among banks' customers in Hong Kong (Lau et al., 2013), where some of them are unfamiliar with the e-banking system or prefer to walk-in to the branch. Besides, bank users in India (Ravichandran et al., 2010), Pakistan (Zafar & Khan, 2010), Bangladesh (Rahman, 2013) also ranked tangibility dimension as highly important to increase customer satisfaction and loyalty. However, the emergence of self-service terminals, such as Automated Teller Machine (ATM) and e-banking services, which are widely accepted among the bank users, have changed the banking scenario. Recent studies found that tangibility has now become less important as a major contributor to the increase in the level of customer loyalty (Alidadi & Nazari, 2013; Lo et al., 2010; Nupur, 2010; Shanka, 2012).

The second element in SERVQUAL model is empathy, where the employees

are aware of, and have concern, for the needs of customer, and the ability to solve problems immediately. Estiri et al. (2011) revealed that empathy played a vital role in influencing customer satisfaction with regard to the value of service quality provided by front line staff and supported by few researchers (Annamalah et al, 2011; Kamal et al, 2013; Shanka, 2012; Siddiqi, 2011). Many banks in Malaysia provides a special lane for the elderly, pregnant, and disabled customers, and some even extend this service to those who have come with young child, where a special counter is set up with staff assisting customers to fill-up the transaction form, and directly guide the customer to the relevant unit without having to wait for the queue number to reduce the waiting time. This inevitability increases the willingness of existing customers to revisit the same bank and also to attract new customers.

Research conducted by Kashif et al. (2015) proved that tangibility, followed by assurance, were viewed as the second most important factor in meeting customer satisfaction and increasing customer loyalty among bank customers in Malaysia. This finding is supported by Annamalah et al. (2011) where empathy and assurance were found to be the most essential requirements to improve customer satisfaction and develop customer loyalty towards retail banking services.

According to a research conducted by Kashif et al. (2015), reliability viewed as less important among Malaysian bank users as Asean culture is said to be polychronic

in nature. Their main concern is the people itself. Hence, there is a tendency to build lifetime relationships, instead of being task oriented and focus on one thing at a time. However, reliability has been identified as an influential component in determining customer loyalty in previous studies (Estiri et al., 2011; Kumar et al., 2010; Lau et al., 2013; Mistry, 2013). Recently, few researchers revealed that the main concern of e-banking system was the issue of security (Gupta & Bansal, 2012; Rahman, 2013; Yaya et al., 2011). Hence security is defined as personal safety and confidentiality of the customer of his or her possessions while participating in or benefiting from the service process (Johnston, 1997). Therefore, previous discussions lead to developing the following hypotheses:

H1: Empathy has a positive impact on bank image and reputation.

H2: Reliability and security has a positive impact on bank image and reputation.

H3: Tangibility has a positive impact on bank image and reputation.

Core Products

Interest rates, product prices, fees, and bank charges, known as content of a service may have a direct effect on customer satisfaction and recommendation to family and friends on the services offered by certain banks (Clemes et al., 2010; Khan et al., 2010). Past researchers evaluated perceived service value as the trade-off between price and benefits received. Hence, failure to fulfil the expectation of customer will lead to

decreased level of loyalty (Estiri et al., 2011; Rombe & Ponirin, 2014). Results generated from Amin et al. (2011) research discovered that non-Muslim Malaysian customers placed a high premium on a variety of products and profitability offered in determining switching intention. Besides business-to-customer circumstances, large corporate customers also rely on the core products provided by the banks as it normally involves larger amount of loan and a variety of transactions (Fragata & Muñoz-Gallego, 2010). Hence, banks should offer special benefits such as higher investment returns or longer loan payback period based on the needs and size of the company and the expected zero error record as a single mistake in any transaction can have a serious negative impact on the company. In addition to the traditional product portfolios such as saving accounts, current accounts, and investment accounts, innovative products are also important to increase the competitive advantage in the banking industry. Hence, the following hypothesis:

H4: Core products have a positive impact on bank image and reputation.

Internet Banking

In correspondence with customer's expectation, a new dimension of internet banking is gaining in importance in the banking industry. Besides tangible equipment like conveniently located ATM facilities, bank users rely on advanced technology to carry out banking transaction anytime or anywhere. According to a survey

conducted by Akdag and Zineldin (2011), the critical role of technology is in raising attention among banks because Turkish bank users ranked technology as the third attribute during selection after speed of services and safety issue. Therefore, bank should design different approaches to improve their technology delivery system in overall service quality. In addition, previous researchers mentioned that online service quality is based on five key dimensions, which are ease to use, website interactivity, customisation, assurance, and responsiveness (Butt & Aftab, 2012). Implementation of internet banking could effectively reduce waiting time and allow bank users to receive immediate updates with regard to their account information, and hence improving bank image and reputation. However, bank should focus more on security and privacy issue to build confidence of customers to continue using internet banking. A secure and effective banking image will increase customer's loyalty and confidence, thus to continue adopting internet banking service (Roche, 2014). Hence, the following hypothesis:

H5: Internet Banking has a positive impact on bank image and reputation.

Image and Reputation

Corporate image or reputation reflects the standard of product and service quality in the eyes of the public and is viewed as key factor in marketing strategy. Frequent visiting behaviour to certain banks relates to the superior service quality provided by the bank. A study on Ghanaian students'

loyalty to banking service revealed that besides satisfaction on overall service quality, bank image was ranked as the second consideration when selecting service provider (Narteh, 2013). Yavas et al. (2014) further investigated the moderating role of gender between image and customer loyalty showed there was no significant moderating effect of gender on bank image and customer loyalty level but they said extrinsic image of a bank was more influential than intrinsic image. For example, global impression of a bank is far more important than interpersonal relationship between front line staff and bank user. Thus, the following hypothesis:

H6: Image and reputation has a positive impact on customer trust.

Trust

Past researchers found that trust mediates the relationship between customer satisfaction and loyalty level towards certain banks. Reason being, some customers are unable to differentiate the products and services offered by the banks. Hence, trust plays an important role in determining the level of loyalty towards the service provider. Trust formed when customer believes that the bank will perform as promised (credibility trust) and have confidence in the employee's ability and courtesy (benevolence trust) (Yap et al., 2012). Jjan and Abdullah (2014) reported that trust in the banking sector increased the awareness on the importance of technology-related critical success factors. The quality of how bank manages operationally and ability to maintain its customers' confidential details are said

to build confidence of the customers, and hence increases the level of satisfaction. Moreover, few researchers said higher overall service quality will lead to higher level of trustworthiness and positively increases the level of customer loyalty. For that reason, banks must constantly improve the quality of their products and services for better reputation in order to attract new customers and retain existing customers (Amin et al., 2013; Gillani & Awan, 2014). Hence, the following hypothesis:

H7: Trust has a positive impact on customer loyalty.

Moderating Roles of Conventional Bank and Islamic Bank

Previous studies have shown that the five dimensions in SERVQUAL model cannot be applied to all banks worldwide due to the dissimilarity in customer characteristics, generation, religion, ethnic, culture, and country (Gupta & Dev, 2012; Mandal, 2015; Narteh, 2013; Rombe & Ponirin, 2014; Sangeetha & Mahalingam, 2011). Due to the growing importance of Islamic economies in the banking industry, comparison of Islamic bank and conventional commercial banks was recommended recently (Sangeetha & Mahalingam, 2011). Muslim is also the fastest growing religion in the world as reported by the Pew Research Center (2017).

From the beginning of year 2008 to 2012, Islamic bank has achieved 20% compound annual growth rate (Ernst & Young, 2013) and has been recognised as the third largest sharia-compliant assets with estimated US\$197b after Iran (US\$476b) and Saudi Arabia (US\$227b) (The Banker,

2013). In the Malaysian context, the largest player for both commercial and Islamic bank is Malayan Banking Berhad (Maybank) with total assets worth US\$161b by the year 2014; followed by Public Bank Berhad with a slightly lower pre-tax profit compared to CIMB Group. Public Bank Berhad was ranked as top 5 Asean banks with US\$6.68b in Tier 1 capital while CIMB Group has US\$5.10b in Tier 1 capital (The Banker, 2014). Top Islamic Financial Institutions, top 100 Asean banks and top 7 Malaysian banks are summarised as follows (Appendix 1 - 3).

Overall, Muslim customers of Islamic banks have a strong preference on Islamic banks and products (Ireland, 2018). Bank customers believe that Islamic financial institutions have greater accountability and risk mitigation, but research conducted by Amin et al. (2013) had increased awareness of the bank's top management where results showed that non-Muslim customers looked at the practicality aspect, which translated into the likelihood of switching to other Islamic bank or conventional bank if they were not satisfied with the bank's financial performance. Therefore, Islamic banks must continuously introduce attractive Islamic investment products to retain different groups or segments of customers.

Next, Taap et al. (2011) proved that there was a significant difference between conventional and Islamic bank in terms of perceived service quality among Malaysian bank users. Most of the Islamic bank customers are unhappy with the convenience dimension, i.e. limited ATMs, and followed

by the employees' level of competency. Hence, banks must focus on human capital development through training to enhance employees' knowledge on Islamic banking, and consequently increase the trustworthiness and confidence of customers towards products and services offered by the bank.

Furthermore, recent study also showed that by providing personalised consultation, understanding the special needs of customers, professional services, and well-furnished branch offices will increase customer satisfaction and ensure loyalty toward certain Islamic banks in Malaysia (Kashif et al., 2015).

Compared with conventional bank, image, and trust play an important role in influencing Islamic bank customers' loyalty level because bank users strongly believe that Islamic bank management will execute and operate all banking activities according to the principles of Islamic law so bank management should introduce loyalty program and extra benefit in appreciation of the trust and support from customers to ensure that the bank could achieve the established financial performance and successful with customers' repeat visiting behaviour in the future (Al-jazzazi & Sultan, 2014; Amin et al., 2013; Estiri et al., 2011; Kashif et al, 2015; Siraj & Sudarsanan, 2012). Therefore, further research is required to provide an in-depth understanding and knowledge of the different types of bank strategies to increase the competitive advantage within banking industry. Hence, the following hypotheses:

H1a: Types of bank (conventional and Islamic bank) moderate the relationship between empathy towards bank image and reputation.

H2a: Types of bank (conventional and Islamic bank) moderate the relationship between reliability and security towards bank image and reputation.

H3a: Types of bank (conventional and Islamic bank) moderate the relationship between tangibility towards bank image and reputation.

H4a: Types of bank (conventional and Islamic bank) moderate the relationship between core product towards bank image and reputation.

H5a: Types of bank (conventional and Islamic bank) moderate the relationship between Internet banking towards bank image and reputation.

METHOD

Measurement and Data Collection

Questionnaire was designed to collect data from regular conventional and Islamic bank customers in Klang Valley. Convenience sampling method was used as the target respondents are conveniently available outside the bank. Top Islamic and conventional banks were chosen. Customers walking into and out from the banks were approached. Around 900 questionnaires were distributed to different branches of the banks. A total of 748 responses were gathered for further analysis. All items were measured on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from 1 "strongly disagree" to 7 "strongly agree" To test which

causal relationships remain significant, the structural equation modelling procedure was used using AMOS 18.

For the current study, items related to tangible, reliability and security, and core product were adapted from Bahia and Nantel (2000), and Host and Knie-Andersen (2004). The measurement for the empathy dimension was adapted from Kumar et al. (2010) while the items for online banking were adapted from Kassim and Abdullah (2010). We argued that these factors have significant effect on bank image and reputation. The attributes of bank image were adopted from Keller (1993) and the items for trust were adapted from Singh and Sirdeshmukh (2000). Customer loyalty was adapted from Ladhari et al. (2011) and hypothesized as continuous patronage to the said bank for a certain period of time.

RESULTS

Demographics

The results showed that 48% of the respondents were males and 52% were females. The majority were between 20 and 40 years old. Among the respondents, 70% preferred online banking, 71% preferred using machines, and 67% favoured going to the counters to perform transactions. About 40% of the respondents have been with the same banks for 1-4 years, while 38% responded that they have been with their respective banks for 5-10 years and 19% said that they stayed with the same bank for more than a decade. With regards to the types of accounts they possessed, 93% of them have savings account, 48% have

current account, 18% have fixed deposit, and 54% took the loan facilities. 52% of them perform less than five transactions a month while 20% have between 6 to 10 transactions a month. 4% have 11 to 15 transactions a month. 65% of respondents indicated that they contacted their banks in the last 12 months with problems while 35% did not have any transaction in a year.

Data Analysis

The Cronbach's alpha coefficient for all dimensions exceeded 0.7, indicating high content consistency between the questions relating to each of the constructs. Confirmatory factor analysis was conducted through AMOS to test the measurement model and explain how the measured variables logically and systematically represent the constructs involved in a theoretical model. The results of assessment for model fit indices show four of the goodness-of-fit indices, that is the Chi-square (χ^2) value is 777.36, the χ^2 /df with a value of 2.967, the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) with a value of 0.959, and Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) with a value of 0.051 are within the acceptable level. However, three other assessments of goodness-of-fit indices, the Tucker Lewis Index (TLI), with a value of 0.950, goodness of fit (GFI), with a value of 0.924, and Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index, with a value of 0.898 are more than the 0.90 (Table 2), yield adequate model fit for the empirical data (Hair et al 2006). All loading of path estimates ranged between 0.60 and 0.90, and the signs of parameter estimation

were all in the same direction to measure specific latent variables. The result of variance extracted and composite reliability (Table 1) were calculated and revealed that the composite reliability on all constructs was greater than 0.80 and the output of average variance extracted (AVE) for all variable were higher than 0.50. Thus, these results prove the reliability and convergent validity of the data. Overall, the analyses

support convergent and discriminant validity.

Structural Model Testing

The structural model examined the influence of empathy, tangibility, online banking, core product and reliability and security on bank image and reputation. The influence of bank image on customer trust and loyalty were measured with this model. We tested the proposed structural model for overall model

Table 1

Composite reliability, correlation and square root of AVE

Construct	CR	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Empathy	0.808	0.823							
Reliability and Security	0.721	0.625**	0.679						
Tangibility	0.803	0.610**	0.565**	0.817					
Core Product	0.718	0.325**	0.260**	0.350**	0.697				
Online banking	0.931	0.570**	0.684**	0.584**	0.363**	0.854			
Image	0.822	0.579**	0.722*	0.562**	0.289**	0.700**	0.727		
Trust	0.897	0.552**	0.713**	0.594**	0.392**	0.694**	0.723**	0.897	
Customer Loyalty	0.893	0.583**	0.663**	0.554**	0.187**	0.625**	0.728**	0.777**	0.893

Notes: values on diagonal are square root of AVE; CR= Composite reliability; *: $p < 0.05$; **: $p < 0.01$

Table 2

Standardised estimates of structural model

	Chi-Square	Probability	χ^2/df	SRMR	TLI	CFI	NFI	RMSEA	GFI	AGFI
Structural model	1088.3	0.000	3.12	0.062	0.926	0.937	0.915	0.059	0.898	0.871
Measurement model	777.36	0.000	2.967	0.038	0.950	0.959	0.940	0.051	0.924	0.898

fit, and the results indicated acceptable fit of the data to the model. The results of assessment for model fit indices (Table 2) show that the data fit the model well with the value of Chi-square (χ^2) equal to 1088.3, $\chi^2/df = 3.12$, CFI = 0.937, RMSEA = 0.059, TLI = 0.926, GFI = 0.898, and AGFI = 0.871 (Hair et al., 2006).

The results revealed that there was a strong and significant relationship between reliability and security, and online banking towards bank image and reputation (Table 3). Empathy had significant relationship towards image and reputation. The effect of tangibility and core product and service was significant but not very strong. The influence of image and trust were positive and strong towards customer loyalty. The SEM analysis showed that all of the hypotheses were supported with significant variance explained; indicated that the proposed model was a useful instrument for testing bank image, customer trust to the bank and loyalty.

The results show that empathy, reliability, tangibility, core product and internet banking are able to explain 74% of the variance in bank image and reputation. In addition, there is a strong significant relationship between bank image and reputation towards customer's trust. Bank image was able to explain 84% of the variance in customer trust. In turn, customer trust predicts 71% of the variance in customer loyalty. These results confirmed the importance of empathy, reliability, tangibility, core product and internet banking as direct determinants of bank image which will affect customer trust and loyalty.

We examine the moderating effects of types of bank (conventional = 483 and Islamic bank = 265 customers) on the relationship between empathy, reliability and security, tangibility, core product, and internet banking towards bank image and reputation (see Table 4). The results confirmed that Islamic and conventional bank customers had different experiences,

Table 3

Hypotheses testing results

Constructs		Hypothesis	β	S.E.	C.R.	P	Support
Empathy	→ Image	H1	0.107	0.031	2.550	0.011	Yes
Reliability & Security	→ Image	H2	0.419	0.042	8.437	***	Yes
Tangibility	→ Image	H3	0.096	0.048	2.354	0.019	Yes
Core product	→ Image	H4	0.075	0.026	2.297	0.022	Yes
Online Banking	→ Image	H5	0.335	0.035	7.405	***	Yes
Image	→ Trust	H6	0.921	0.051	17.676	***	Yes
Trust	→	H7	0.845	0.051	18.583	***	Yes
Customer Loyalty							

Notes: B = Standardised Regression Weight, S.E. = Standardised Error, C.R. = Critical Ratio. ** < p-value 0.05 and *** p-value < 0.01

Table 4

Hypotheses testing results

Hypothesis	Type of Bank	β	S.E.	C.R.	P	Support
H1a	Islamic	0.211	0.076	2.953	0.030	Yes
	Conventional	0.104	0.031	2.550	0.011	
H2a	Islamic	0.573	0.042	8.437	***	Yes
	Conventional	0.310	0.039	6.461	***	
H3a	Islamic	0.035	0.025	0.295	0.768	No
	Conventional	0.104	0.073	1.104	0.270	
H4a	Islamic	0.144	0.063	2.624	0.009	Yes
	Conventional	0.001	0.032	0.401	0.688	
H5a	Islamic	0.335	0.035	7.405	***	Yes
	Conventional	0.409	0.057	2.970	0.003	

Notes: B = Standardised Regression Weight, S.E. = Standardised Error, C.R. = Critical Ratio. ** < p-value 0.05 and *** p-value < 0.01

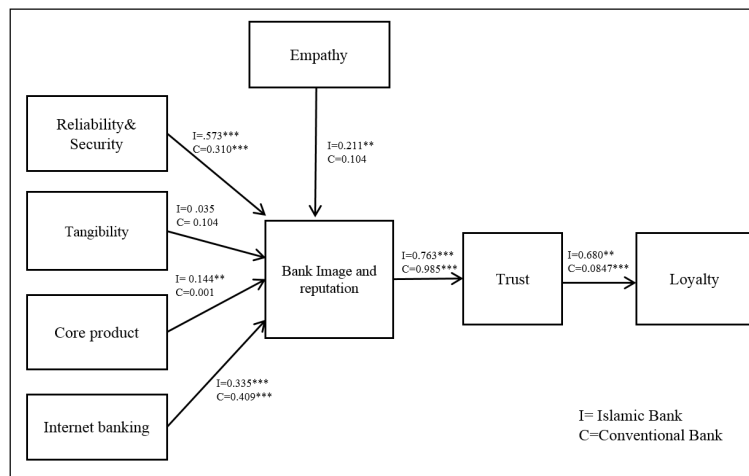


Figure 1. Summary of results

impressions, and feelings about the bank that they had account.

Empathy was a significant factor for the Islamic bank customers while the effect is not significant for the conventional bank customers. It suggested that Islamic bank customers put more emphasis on the behaviour of the employees in the bank. It

showed that these customers had more face-to-face interaction with the bank employees and its importance for them that how bank employees treat them.

Reliability and security of the bank were important factors among the conventional and Islamic bank customers although the effect was stronger for Islamic bank customers.

Islamic bank reputation influenced positively its customers' intention to use it (Kaabachi & Obeid, 2016). The issue of the security of the bank is important among all the customers since it is related to the safety and security of the customer. Tangibility is not significant factors for both groups of customers. This may suggest that nowadays all the bank have an acceptable level of cleanest, and infrastructure and most of the transaction can be accessed through internet banking and ATM therefore tangibility is not big concern for the customers.

Core product is a significant factor for the Islamic bank customers while it is not of significance to the conventional bank customers. This shows that the core product that an Islamic bank offers is important for their customer and can be one of the reasons that these customers prefer to have account with the Islamic bank. This may not be significant for the conventional bank customers because all the banks offer a variety of the services that they need and it is not hard to find what they want from the other bank. Internet banking is important for both groups, although the effect is slightly higher for the conventional bank consumers. Availability of information technology and facilities that bank can provide for the customer is more important for customers. Many customers are willing to do all the transaction online and prefer to not go to the bank for the transaction; therefore providing these facilities will affect them and will improve bank image and reputation. Surprisingly, the effect of bank image and reputation is higher among

the conventional bank customers compare to Islamic bank customers. It is highlighted that even though bank image and reputation is an important factor among them but there are other factors as well, which affect Islamic bank customers' trust and loyalty. Bank image and reputation have a strong effect on conventional bank customer's trust and loyalty.

DISCUSSION

Results indicated that service quality significantly enhances the bank image, trust and customer loyalty. The image had an indirect effect on loyalty through trust, and trust served as a medium that linked image and customer loyalty.

In a dual banking system, the banking sector, including Islamic banks, is becoming highly integrated and competitive; therefore, the services provided by the banks to their customers are crucial. The quality of services as the basis of customers' perceptions of the services provided could affect bank image. Our result was consistent with previous findings, and proposes that customer service quality evaluations are the primary cause of bank image. This suggests that customers will have a favourable image when the level of service quality is high. Ostrowski et al. (1993) examined airline service and argued that "*positive experience over time (following several good experiences) will ultimately lead to positive image*". Corporate image stems from all customers' experiences, and service quality is representative of these experiences. Hence, the perception of

service quality directly affects the perception of corporate image (Aydin & Ozer, 2005). Thus, customers' experience with products and services is deemed the most crucial element that influences his/her minds in regard to image.

The finding supports the notion that differences do exist for service quality, bank image, and trust toward customer loyalty across customers of conventional and Islamic banks. The result shows that Islamic banks customers have greater service quality perception towards bank image as compared to conventional banks customers. In practice, Islamic banks approaches are different from conventional banks because their operations are based on Islamic principles. In Islamic banks, all financial services are based on honesty, justice, trust and equity (Hoq et al., 2010). These principles would have an influence on customer perception towards image of Islamic bank. The dimensions of service quality, namely empathy and core product is significant and likely to improve Islamic bank image. However, for conventional banks, customers are not significantly concerned about the empathy and core product or service they received. This result suggests that customers of Islamic banks focus more on the banks understanding and concern for the needs of individual customers, bank's staff knowledge of Islamic products and their ability to answer customers' queries, service charges and types of Islamic financial services and products offers. When a customer positively evaluates a bank's commitment to conform

to the Shariah law, it influences his/her perceived assessment of the service quality of that bank and reputation with the service provider. However, if Islamic banks offer non-Shariah complaint products, bank image will be tarnished.

The findings of this study further reveal that the other two service quality dimensions such as reliability & security, and internet banking are significant determinants of the image of both types of bank. Reliability & security are the most important influencing factor of image, followed by internet banking. This implies that more reliable & secure bank offering will certainly contribute to a strong image. The reliability & security is related to the ability of the staff to deliver the service and to inspire feeling of security, and the ability of bank to perform the promised service accurately and without error. The high tech approach (internet banking) in the service delivery is also an important factor when assessing the level of the service quality provided. The possible explanation might be the fact that due to the convenience of internet banking and no queuing of services as customers' expectation compared to personal visit to bank. In these circumstances, modern-looking equipment of the banks and banks' physical facilities are not an important factor in the creation of perception of service quality for evaluating image.

Customer loyalty is also affected by corporate image. The role of corporate image was assessed during the formation of customer loyalty in the service sector, where there is an indirect and direct influence of

image on loyalty (Andreassen & Lindestad, 1998). Our result suggests that there is a significant direct relationship between bank image and trust, and indirectly affects their loyalty. Therefore, bank image is a very important factor for trustworthiness. The results of this study are consistent with previous findings that image has been identified as a major driver of trust (Flavian et al., 2005; Mukherjee & Nath, 2003). For example, Flavian et al. (2005) suggested that image played an important role in the formation of customer trust in the banks.

Within the banking industry, trust means that the bank is reliable, dependable, and practices integrity. The test results indicate that there is enough empirical evidence to state that trust significantly enhances customer loyalty in both Islamic and conventional banks. In this respect, Kaur et al. (2012) and Shainesh (2012) found that trust was acknowledged as an important indicator in developing customer loyalty. Our result also indicates that trust has a mediating role over an image-customer loyalty path. Therefore, as the reputation of bank gets better, customers will have a higher level of trust that in turn also increases customers' loyalty to the banks.

Overall, result indicates that image plays a role in building trust, and indirectly enhancing loyalty. The effect of image on trust and trust on customer loyalty is greater for conventional banks than for Islamic banks. This suggests that when customers believe that the image of conventional banks is delivering high-quality service, a favourable image would emerge and

reinforce customers' confidence in their bank, he/she will then trust the bank, and to sustain long term relationship with their bank. Furthermore, a favourable attitude in the form of image assessments would motivate customers to resist competitive offerings.

CONCLUSION

Most of the previous studies focused on the relationship between service quality and satisfaction in service industries. This study is different from previous study which examined effectiveness of high service quality and its effect on bank image and long-term relationship with customers. Since banking industry is highly competitive and banks are offering similar services and products, therefore building a strong image that is significantly different from other banks within the same industry is a fruitful investment.

Therefore, Islamic and conventional banks should not just focus on improving the relationship between service quality and customer satisfaction but should target on improving customers' perceptions of service quality to the extent that it will have a positive impact on the bank image. This approach will assist Islamic and conventional banks in maintaining/sustaining their existing customers and also in developing their banking image. This research is also in line with the Industrial Revolution 4.0 where banks need to be flexible enough to accommodate and personalise customers' experience as it is always costly to attract new customers.

This study is a preliminary attempt to explore the dynamic relationship among

service-related factors: service quality, image, trust, and customer loyalty. There are, however, limitations in the current study. This study focused on the banking industry only. Given the great diversity in the services industry, these findings may have to be tested in the different services provided in the industry. Most importantly, the results indicated that service quality may play an important role in producing a strong image.

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APPENDIX

Appendix 1: Top Islamic Financial Institutions

Top Islamic Financial Institutions – Malaysia Commercial Bank				
Rank	Institution	Sharia- compliant assets (\$m)	Total assets (\$m)	Full Islamic Banks (S) / with Islamic Windows (W)
1	Malayan Banking Berhad (Maybank)	30,380.80	161,826.00	W
2	Bank Rakyat (Bank Kerjasama Rakyat Malaysia Berhad)	25,902.00	25,902.00	S
3	CIMB Group Holding	19,263.50	110,221.00	W
4	BIMB Holdings	14,358.00	14,358.00	S
5	AMMB Holdings	10,637.10	41,528.20	W
6	Public Islamic Bank Berhad	958.10	958.10	S
7	Bank Pembangunan Malaysia Berhad (Development Bank of Malaysia)	8985.10	8985.10	S
8	RHB Capital	8871.2	61,830.50	W
9	Hong Leong Islamic Bank Berhad	7162.4	7162.40	S
10	Bank Muamalat Malaysia Berhad	6671.1	6671.10	S

Source: The Banker (2013)

Appendix 2: Top 100 Asean Banks Ranking 2014

Rank	Asean Rank	Bank	Country	Pre-tax Profit (USD\$m)
1	2	Oversea Chinese Banking Corporation (OCBC)	Singapore	4,053.81
2	1	DBS Bank	Singapore	3,763.89
3	3	United Overseas Bank (UOB)	Singapore	2,737.88
4	4	Malayan Banking Berhad (Maybank)	Malaysia	2,581.62
5	12	Bank Rakyat Indonesia	Indonesia	2,467.38
6	9	Bank Mandiri	Indonesia	2,109.71
7	10	CIMB Group	Malaysia	1,843.69
8	7	Siam Commercial Bank	Thailand	1,671.03
9	5	Public Bank Berhad	Malaysia	1,669.04
10	11	Kasikornbank PCL	Thailand	1,599.01

Source: The Banker (2014)

Appendix 3: Top 7 Malaysian Bank Brands with Strong Growth in ASEAN

2017 Rank	2016 Rank	Brand Name	2017 Brand Value (USDm)	2017 Brand Rating
90	101	Maybank	2,548	AAA-
108	110	CIMB	1,894	AA+
135	151	Public Bank	1,477	AA+
221	239	RHB Bank	627	A+
265	304	Hong Leong Bank	472	AA-
298	350	AmBank	392	AA
424	440	Bank Islam	233	AA-

Source: Brand Finance (2017)



The House of Wisdom (Bayt al-Hikmah), an Educational Institution during the Time of the Abbasid Dynasty. A Historical Perspective

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ABSTRACT

The era of the Abbasid Dynasty has been viewed by many historians as the Golden Age in Islamic history, during which several technological and educational advancements occurred. Education was regarded as a very fashionable and crucial element of the Abbasid society after the Caliphs realised the necessity of knowledge and wisdom to power the wheel of progress. This research historically analyses education in the reign of the Abbasid Dynasty that marked the beginning of one of the brightest ages in Islamic history, in particular and human civilisation in general. It investigates the role of one of the leading libraries in medieval times as well as the contributions of caliphs who had devoted their time and wealth to help develop the House of Wisdom. The study also explores the emergence of the educational institution, particularly Bayt al-Hikmah (House of Wisdom) that preserved the reproductive translation movement, the knowledge transmission and the scientific progress,

and in so doing, ensured the preservation of the knowledge and heritage of the ancient civilisations, contributing unprecedented discoveries to the western world which used these discoveries to progress. This study adopts a qualitative approach as its historical framework through which the authors analyse and investigate the development of the House of Wisdom (Bayt al-Hikmah) and its impact on similar libraries on the basis of credible and primary

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sources that marked one of the brightest ages of Islamic history. The historical basis of the research framework gathers relevant information about the House of Wisdom and some other related aspects.

Keywords: Abbasid dynasty, caliphs, education, house of wisdom, knowledge transmission, reproductive translation movement

INTRODUCTION

The Abbasid state came into power on the ruins of the Umayyad Caliphate (661–750 AD), when preachers from the Abbasids played a major role in the downfall of the Umayyad state, as generally agreed among historians. The establishment of the Abbasid state was done through a coup that was never carried out in Islamic history (al-Sirjāni, 2008); the Guided Caliphate (632-661) was founded based on the *Shūra* (consultation) Council, then the Umayyad state - in its inception – and emerged on the same basis after Hassan bin Ali (624-670 AD) (son of Ali) stepped down from the throne and was replaced by Mu'awiyah (602-680 AD). However, the Abbasid state decided to come into power through a military coup against the ruling authority without *Shūra* (consultation) from the Muslim majority, and through an uprising against the rulers of the Muslim Umayyad that was unprecedented in Islam. The Abbasid dynasty attained its most distinguished period of intellectual and political life soon after its establishment. The Caliphate reached its peak of greatness during the reigns of Hārūn al-Rashīd

(763-809 AD) and his son, al-Ma'mūn (786-833 AD). The Abbasid dynasty held a special place in popular imagination and was the most admired in Islamic history. The Abbasid Caliphate attained a degree of power, glory and progress that can be appreciated by studying its foreign relations, its court and aristocratic life in its capital of Baghdad, and also through the consummate intellectual awakening culminating in the al-Ma'mūn patronage, an awakening that was unprecedented in the history of Islam as a result of considerable foreign influences, namely from Indo, Persian, Syrians and the Hellenic tradition. In less than fifty years after Baghdad was established, the Arab world proudly possessed the major philosophical works of Aristotle, of the neo-Platonic commentators and most of the medical knowledge of Galen besides scientific works of ancient Persians and Indians. In a few decades, what took the Greeks centuries to develop had been assimilated and innovated by Arab and non-Arab scholars.

METHOD

This present study adopted a qualitative research approach on the basis of a historical framework through which the authors analyse and critique the progress of the House of Wisdom (Bayt al-Hikmah) and its impact on similar libraries utilising primary sources. The historical framework involved authors gathering relevant information about the House of Wisdom and its development not as merely a storehouse, but as one of

the institutions of higher education that appeared during the Abbasid dynasty.

Statement of the Problem

There have been several studies of the Abbasid House of Wisdom from a historical or pedagogical perspective. Al-Diyaji (1975) for instance, dealt with the House of Wisdom, its development and the caliphs' efforts to uphold the library's legacy. Another very important study on the same library was that of Khedr (1962), titled *Al Ma'mun and His Bayt Al-Hikmat*, a book which basically dealt with some financial and management aspects of the library as well as the tremendous support provided by the caliph al-Ma'mun, who had sent expeditions to collect important books and other notable books translated from other languages. What the researchers have found problematic in the studies on the House of wisdom, is the total neglect of the library's educational contributions to Muslim civilisation, and this study sheds some light on the library, not only as a storehouse of books but also a precious educational institution that saw the value of translated works that allowed the introduction new subject matter in its educational curriculum that boosted the quality of Muslim intellectual history.

Historians have argued that the first true academy in Islam which provided for the physical needs of its scholars and learners and developed into a model for later institutions of higher learning and education was the Nizamiyah (1065-1075), which was in the form of a theological seminary (*madrasah*), particularly emphasised studies

of Shafi'i rites and the Ash'ari system. The Qur'an and ancient poetry were the pillars of the study of humanities (*'ilm al-adab*), similar to what European universities did with the classics (Hitti, 1949).

De Lacy O'Leary (1872-1957), a British orientalist gave his support to the idea that Bayt al-Hikmah was established by Al-Ma'mun, and he revealed that Bayt al-Hikmah was not just a library but rather a school or an institution. He stated: "*the caliph Al-Mamun has founded a school he named Bayt al-Hikmah, and he made it an institution that embraces the translation of the Greek books*" (De Lacy, 1973). There are several aspects of the House of Wisdom as an educational institution, which are totally absent in the scholarly literature, this paving the way for a thorough investigation to shed some light on these aspects and to examine the educational value of the House of Wisdom itself.

Background on the Scientific Progress during the Period of Abbasid Dynasty

The Abbasid times witnessed a remarkable period of the translation movement (750-850AD) that made it possible for Arabic language to be used for the first time in scientific literature (Al-Diyaji, 1975). The movement was followed by an age of adaptation and creativity for the Abbasid thinkers, who not only had the opportunity to assimilate the ancient Persia and classical Greece but they also adapted their distinctive needs and ways of thinking. In medicine and philosophy, the intellectuals' independent work was less noticeable

than in astronomy, geography, alchemy or mathematics. In philology, linguistics, theology and law, the Abbasids carried on the ingenuity of Arab-Muslim thinking and research.

The Abbasid collective mind was the one that transmuted translations in no small degree over the course of centuries together with many innovative and new contributions which were transmitted to Europe by way of Spain, Sicily and Syria that formed the basis of the canon of intellectuality which was dominant in medieval European thought. And transmitting from a cultural history is as essential as original creations. After all, had the researches of Aristotle, Ptolemy, and Galen been lost to posterity and vagueness the world would have been as poorer and deprived as if they had never existed.

Abbasid Dynasty and the Progress of Education

The Abbasid state period witnessed an unprecedented intellectual awakening in various fields of education, ultimately it evolved through the mosques (*masjid*) which were the main institutions of teaching and learning the Islamic culture. Scientific circles and workshops were made inside the mosques since the education in early years of Islam was focused only on religious studies. When education had developed, scholars were able to organise and attend debates that were necessary not to educate people only but also to eliminate the threat of disorder known for Muslims as *fitnah* that emerged during those times. Those debates and educational circles were attempts to

avoid any disruption of the laws of God (Allah) Almighty and to take back the rights of the oppressed from oppressors and achieve justice (Al-Asfahānī, 2002).

For a child, home was where learning began. . As soon as the child could utter words and speak, it was the duty of the father to teach him “the word” or *al-Kalimah* in Arabic terms: *La ilaha illa-l-Lah* (there is no god except Allah). At the age of six the child was held responsible for the ritual prayer and thus marked the beginning of the child’s education (Al-Ghazālī, 2008).

Students of that time were taught Arabic grammar, biographies of prophets and more precisely the prophetic tradition or Hadiths relating to the prophet Mohammad. They were taught also principles of arithmetic and poetry. Throughout the entire curriculum, memory work was emphasised. Intellectually, students were given special care either by parents, teachers, or Caliphs themselves. Abu al-Faraj al-Asfahānī (967 AD) stated that deserving pupils in elementary school of Baghdad were proudly paraded along the street on camels while almonds were thrown at them. Sometimes the shower of almonds would tragically damage an eye of a young scholar (Al-Asfahānī, 2002). In certain cases, the scholars who had successfully mastered a section of the Qur’an were granted a whole or partial holiday.

Children from rich families had private tutors or preceptors (*mu’addib*) who gave instructions in religion, fine literature and the arts of composing verse. It was a common practice to hire foreigners as

instructors. As for aristocratic education, it may be idealistically determined from the instructions that were given by al-Rashīd (763-809 AD) to the tutor of his son, al-Amin (787-813):

“Be not strict to the extent of stifling his faculties or lenient to the point of making him enjoy idleness and accustom himself thereto. Straighten him as much as thou canst through kindness and gentleness but fail not to resort to force and severity should he not respond” (Al-Mas’ūdī, 2005).

In elementary school, the teacher was called *mu’allim*, sometimes also *faqīh* on account of his theological training and knowledge. There has been a higher concern when choosing the *mu’allim* in whom sometimes special characteristics must be acquired as in the book *al-Bayan* a quotation will demonstrate the *mu’allim* (educator) qualities, Al-Jāhiz had said that seeking advice from unwise teachers, shepherds, and those who sit much among women is not recommended. He had stressed the very high personal and intellectual qualities which should meet certain criteria in order for them to be hired to teach at institutions or at royal castles (Al-Jāhiz, 1998).

Teachers were clearly grouped into a loose form of guild and the master could award an approved certificate (*ijāzah*) to those students who satisfactorily passed the prescribed course and examination under his supervision. Al-Zarnūjī (1223 AD) who is best known for two scores of Arabic treatises on education, most of which survived in manuscript form, devoted a part to the high regard that students should hold to the

profession of teaching and to the teacher himself, quoting the adage attributed to ‘Ali the companion: “I’m the slave of him who has taught me even one letter” (Al-Zarnujī, 1943).

Knowledge was very sacred for Muslims which explains why education had developed during the caliphate times, the Umayyad period and particularly during the Abbasid Dynasty’s era when education had reached its peak, especially in the era of caliph al-Ma’mūn (786-833 AD), who developed and preserved the legacy of the House of Wisdom (Bayt al-Hikmah).

The Emergence of Institutions of Higher Education

The first prominent institution for higher learning in Islamic history was the House of Wisdom (*Bayt al-Hikmah*), that was founded in al-Ma’mūn’s caliphate. The House of Wisdom served not only as a translation bureau but also it functioned as an academy and public library and it contained observatory connected to it which sprang up during this time due to the spread of astronomy teaching and learning. Hospitals also made their first appearance at this period and served as centres for medical studies (Khedr, 1989).

Historians have argued that the first real academy in Islam which made provision for the physical needs for its scholars and learners and became a model for later institutions of higher learning and education was the Nizāmiyah (1065-1075 A.D) which represented a theological seminary (*madrasah*) more particularly for studies

of Shafi'i rite and the Ash'ari system. The Qur'an and old poetry formed the pillar of the study of humanities (*'ilm al-adab*) the same as European universities did with classics (Hitti, 1949).

It is worth noting that imam al-Gazālī lectured at Nizāmiyah School for four years (1091-1095 A.D). When he was introducing his *Ihya'* al-Gazālī combated the motion that the imparting of knowledge was the object of education and he asserts the necessity of stimulating the moral consciousness of pupils or students, therefore becoming the first author in Islamic world to bring the problem of education into organic relation with profound ethical system (Al-Ghazālī, 2008).

For the Abbasid higher institutions there was an emphasis on the science of tradition and memory work in their curriculum. It has been related that al-Gazālī (1058-1111 AD) earned his title of Authority of Islam (*hujjat al-Islam*) when he memorised 300.000 traditions. Ahmad ibn Hanbal (780-855 AD) stated that he knew by heart, 1000.000 traditions, similar anecdotes while al-Mutanabbi (965 AD), Abu-Tammam (845 AD) and Al-Ma'arri (973-1057 AD) were credited for their memorisation skills and continuous flow of information, traditions, and poems from memory (Shalabi, 1977).

Development of the House of Wisdom and Similar Libraries

The founder of the House of Wisdom during the Abbasid dynasty was Abu Ja'far al-Mansūr (714-775 AD), who amassed books on medicine, astronomy, engineering and

literature that had been translated during his reign. He also acquired publications on Hadith (prophetic tradition), history, Qur'anic sciences, storing his massive collection in a large room that eventually became the House of Wisdom (Al-Diyaji, 1975).

A new record says that Al-Ma'mūn (786-833 AD) was the one who named the place that contained this large collection of books as well as maps and manuscripts The House of Wisdom (*Bayt al-Hikmah*). According to Ahmed Amin the name was given because besides books on religion there were even more different documents and publications of foreign origin, whether translated or bought from other countries, including sizeable collection of books and documents on philosophy or wisdom (*hikmah*) (Amān-Allah, 1962).

The active translation movement during the Abbasid Dynasty period was carried out in different places such as public and private houses of wisdom, houses of scientific research, private libraries, mosque libraries, schools and institutions that were spread throughout the Islamic peninsula. These institutions were not specifically for translation and Arabisation of knowledge only but rather they were also centres of writing, publishing, reading, copying, and storage of books, transcripts, maps, etc. Amazingly, the Abbasids had created the first observatory in Islamic and human history, devoting a special building for the purpose of studying stars, planets, weather, etc. Of all these houses of wisdom, the ultimate house of wisdom was the one

that contained the previously mentioned stores, rooms and buildings on Baghdad the *Bayt al-Hikmah al-Baghdadi* or House of Wisdom (Ma'rūf, 1975).

Libraries have been commonly placed inside the mosques, writers' precious personal collections (mortmain) of their books for the public located in the mosque library and easily accessible to the public. It was an effective way for scholars then to help create awareness and spread knowledge. For instance, Al-Katib al-Baghdadi (1002-1071 A.D) classified his books to be *waqf* (free access) for students and scholars. The libraries were established by wealthy men or dignitaries as semi-public institutions which housed collections of books on logic, philosophy, astronomy, and sciences. Such libraries were used for meetings and for scientific discussions and debates. It has been reported that scholars had no difficulty in accessing even private collections (Al-Hamawī, 1993).

During the Abbasid era, bookshops also emerged as commercial and educational agencies. In 891 AD, al-Ya'qūbi confirms that the capital boasted over hindered book dealers all assembled along one street. Owners of the bookshops and the sellers themselves were literary men, calligraphers and copyists, for instance, Al-Hamawī (1179-1229 AD) started his career as a clerk for a book dealer, Ibn al-Nadīm (995 AD), also known as al-Warrāq was himself a librarian to whom we owe the remarkable and scholarly work, *al-Fihrist* (Al-Hamawī, 1993).

Libraries were the ancient's path to teaching knowledge, since purchasing books was very expensive at that time, people who had earned a level of reputation for knowledge and teaching established their own libraries or bookshops and they open the doors to others who were seeking knowledge with full or partial access as the Ptolemies did in Alexandria and the Abbasid with the House of Wisdom.

Bayt al-Hikmah was the first library to have a distinguished reputation in the Islamic world, it is fair to say that it was the first Islamic university that united scientist, scholars and students, becoming the first scientific centre that provided people with a huge collection of reading and scientific materials related to the, medicine, philosophy, and wisdom (*hikmah*) (Shalabi, 1977). The caliphs of the Umayyad dynasty as well as the Abbasids gave special attention to knowledge in general and to Arabic books in particular. They also spent a huge amount of their wealth to buy ancient books to be used as references for their children and other knowledge seekers (Abd-Allah, 1973).

The Abbasid paid much attention to knowledge (*Ilm*) and to book collection and during their reign many libraries were established (Abd-Allah, 1973). Therefore, *Bayt al-Hikmah* (House of Wisdom) was of great importance since it contained books of incredible value in every field of the sciences and in many different languages (Al-Diyaji, 1975).

The House of Wisdom and the Translation Movement

The House of Wisdom was administered by many people of different religions, races, ideologies and cultures. They were trusted managers, translators, and writers. Workers were headed by a director known as owner of the House of Wisdom (*Sāhib Bayt al-Hikmah*) (Khedr, 1989).

Following the emergence of Islam and the opening of Persia, Egypt and Syria in the seventh century, many schools that taught philosophy of the Greeks and other sciences were established in those countries. There are numerous records that confirm the Arabs' exposure to various medicines and medical sciences because they had come across them in the course of their trading and business activities which took them to various countries and various cultures. It has been reported that al-Hārith Ibn Kildah travelled to Persia and to Gundeshapur in search of medical knowledge; this same man who was not a Muslim was approached by the prophet to diagnose and treat Sa'ad bin Abi Waqqas when he was sick on the final pilgrimage (*hajjat al-Wada'*) (Al-Tlisi & Al-Dhwib, 2002).

When the Arabs settled in the open peninsula and took over the Greek cultural works, they were already inspired by the Islamic teachings on the sanctity of knowledge and openness to learn from people of other faiths. The Arabs resumed the process of teaching and learning. There was one way to acquire more knowledge and wisdom (*phalsafah*), which was to translate and copy the knowledge they

found into the Arabic language. So the challenge for the Abbasids was to benefit from the knowledge written in books, mud walls, statues and tablets of mud and stone in foreign languages like Sumerian and Assyrian (Ma'rūf, 1975).

The great interest that the Muslims showed for knowledge was not mere coincidence but rather it was like a religious mission for Muslims strive and acquire knowledge and use it for the common good. Among the reasons that stimulated the Arabs to translate and adapt the knowledge of the ancients were:

1. The desire to see the sciences and literatures of foreign nations, for instance, Khalid Ibn Yazīd Ibn Mua'wiyah (died 704 AD) was one of the Caliphs who spent much time and money seeking books of Greek chemistry and philosophy. Abbasid Caliphs such as al-Mansūr, al-Rashīd, and al-Ma'mūn also showed the same commitment to seeking knowledge of the ancients.
2. The development of religious debates in which Muslims in the Umayyad period started to hold seminars and councils in the mosques for debating, issues they faced such as fate and destiny and whether man is a restricted or will-given creature.
3. Eagerness to acquire philosophy and logic of the Greeks, the controversy and debates that were held between Muslims, Christians and Jews that stimulated the Muslim minds to use rationality and philosophy that the Christians and Jews used in debating therefore they had to study philosophy of the ancients and use it to defend their Islamic beliefs.

The translation movement had its roots in Islam as the first intellectual movement, it was because of the efforts made by Khalid ibn Mua'wiyah (died 704) who was nicknamed "The Wise Man" by the people of Imran (*hakim A'l Imran*). This man had an influential interest in and devotion to different sciences, so he brought many philosophers (*hukama'*) and he asked for top translators and had books in Greek translated into Arabic. His age witnessed first publication of the science of wisdom (Khalifa, 1941).

Many translators from the time of Abbasid were also contributors such as Yūhanna Ibn Masawayah (777-857 AD), who was responsible for the oldest systematic treatise in the field of ophthalmology extant in Arabic, and also a book entitled *al-Ashr Maqalat fi al-'Ayn* (the *Ten treatises on the eye*) that Hunayn Ibn Ishāq (809-873 AD) prescribed for his pupils. The book has recently been published in English translation as the earliest existing text-book of ophthalmology (Hitti, 1949).

The translation process was not monopolised by any scholar or librarian, but translators were selected according to their achievements and intellectual ability, which is why people of different faiths, cultures, and ethnicity (Christians, Muslims, Persian, Coptic...etc.) were gathered in the House of Wisdom when they co-existed and collaborated to the intellectual progress of the Abbasid (Al-Diyaji, 1975).

The period of al-Ma'mūn (786-833 AD) is considered the golden era of the translation movement and intellectual

achievement. The Abbasid caliph had spent a fortune on collecting books and rare manuscripts, while also sending expeditions to India and Constantinople to acquire books and reading materials for the capital. He even asked the Byzantine emperor for the Roman books that were in their houses and castles. Passion for wisdom by al-Ma'mūn made him write a treatise with kings of Rome when he required them to send to the House of Wisdom the most precious of their books on wisdom that could not be found elsewhere (Al-Diyaji, 1975).

A piece of astonishing information about the House of Wisdom during the Abbasid Dynasty period is that there were numerous services for people seeking knowledge and learning. Many services were provided free of charge because the Caliph himself was the one paying for everything needed or provided for students and scholars, and readers who came to the House of Wisdom to take advantage of the free access to the reading materials of ancient civilisations written in their native language, while readers even enjoyed perks offered to them during a specific time of the day for reading. Translation procedure for public or private social classes was free of charge as well since the Caliph was the sponsor of the translators. The Abbasid Dynasty also provided free ink and free paper for both scholars and students regardless to age, race or social status (Khedr, 1989).

Abbasid Caliphs and the House of Wisdom

The caliphs of the Abbasid era were

not only concerned about politics and governance, but some of them turned out to be increasingly interested in knowledge and the sciences. They summoned scholars to their castles, inspired them and financially supported them in their research. After the translation movement took place, the caliph had to manage the huge number of books he acquired and to allow people to have access to that valuable and extensive collection of knowledge on all sciences from different civilisations. Harūn al-Rashīd (763 809 A.D) had a major influence in founding the House of Wisdom (*Bayt al-Hikmah*) in Baghdad that became the centre of knowledge and teaching within the Islamic caliphate (Khedr, 1989).

Al-Rashīd was a strong supporter of the House of Wisdom and eventually the intellectual movement with all his efforts, determination, and wealth. He befriended scholars and asked for their presence inside the castle, and tens of scholars used to accompany him on his journeys. The House of Wisdom attracted the attention of some other caliphs. Throughout the years became the most influential educational institution in the history of Islam where all sciences met with one another within the same institution that turned out to be a distinctive university of the Abbasid caliphate, especially during the time of Al-Ma'mūn.

The Abbasid caliphs' concern for knowledge and sciences attained its peak during the time of Al-Ma'mūn (832 A.D). Historians have generally agreed that Al-Ma'mūn was among the most knowledgeable caliphs in the Abbasids

dynasty, and his contemporaries regarded him as one of the most influential, intelligent and wise rulers ever among all Muslim ruling dynasties. Some also stated that he was one of the eminent scholars of his time. After being assigned as Caliph in Baghdad, Al-Ma'mūn founded a Council of Science and Literature for discussions and debates held every Tuesday under the supervision and sponsorship of the caliph himself (Amān-Allah, 1962).

During the time of Al-Ma'mūn (833 A.D), the House of Wisdom witnessed remarkable progress and innovations even though the heart of the House of Wisdom began as a modest centre of wisdom founded by his father but in the reign of Al-Ma'mūn it grew into a large cultural and scientific institution. It comprised different halls for different functions, for instance, halls of translation, of copying and writing, reading, debating and also an open public library for those who were keen on seeking knowledge. This house contained treasures of the Arab Islamic culture and treasures of foreign cultures, basically Greek, Persian, and Indian (Shalabi, 1977).

Al-Ma'mūn's communications with Roman and Greek emperors resulted in the purchase of a considerable number of manuscripts and books from the Greek and Roman heritage due to his expeditions led by Al-Hajjāj ibn Yūsuf ibn Maṭar (786-833 A.D), Abu Yahya Ibn al-Batriq (796 – 806 A.D), and Yuhanna ibn Masawaih (777-857 A.D) to Asia Minor, Cyprus and others, and they successfully brought to the hands of the caliph a very valuable load of literature and

art that later was organised in the House of Wisdom in Baghdad. However, the packages were not given free to the caliph Al-Ma'mūn who paid a fortune to the emperors for them. The caliph himself appointed scholars and translators like Yahya Ibn al-Batriq and Hanin Ibn ishāq (809 – 873 A.D) and his son to look after the manuscripts and books that dealt with many subjects including philosophy, medical sciences, engineering, and astronomy (Salem, 1993) .

Al-Ma'mūn had spent generously on the translation process, paying a high monthly allowance to translators in the House of Wisdom, who also enjoyed some special privileges, for instance, Hanin ibn ishāq was rewarded the book's weight in gold for his translation. The House of Wisdom played a crucial role in the intellectual movement and consequently in the development of the Arab and Islamic culture and civilisation.

The caliph's contribution to the progress of intellectual revolution was not limited to his support for translating, debating and writing, but he also advised scholars to transform those sciences and data into technology. For instance, Al-Ma'mūn asked them to build an observer for the purpose of astronomy studies that was described by the Greek geographer Claudius Ptolemy in his book *Almagest*. Scientists of that era had successfully developed such observers in a number of Arab cities such as Baghdad and Damascus. The knowledgeable caliph had always insisted on learning the Greek heritage and culture that was highly and openly appreciated by the scholars who made strikingly scientific progress in the

time of the Abbasid during which marked the dawn of the golden age of Islam had (Al-Diyaji, 1975).

The reign of Al-Ma'mūn has been described as the prime age of scientific progress and intellectual development during the Abbasid era which made it a very exceptional era in the whole Islamic civilisation due to the interest, respect and support given to scholars by the caliphs, with the situation of scholars being best described by Ibn al-Jawzi who stated that when the king had knowledge of a scholar subsequently, a scholar becomes a king (Al-Jawzi, 1923).

From the year 132 AG of the Abbasid caliphs' rule over the Muslims until the year 656 A.H, they had followed a straight path towards knowledge and wisdom, through which they founded an educational system for their offspring so that they make them more wise leaders of the Muslim society. It was achieved by assigning very competitive preceptors and instructors who taught their children from infancy to an advanced age. One of the subjects taught was wisdom (Ma'rūf, 1975)

Historians like al-Ya'qūbi (292 A.H) the writer of *History of al-Ya'qūbi*, stated that the Abbasid caliphs that he mentioned in his book were very keen to teach their kids the subject of wisdom due to its valuable role it played in leadership, decision and policy making. Some Muslim scholars have considered wisdom a very independent science just like all other sciences. Unfortunately, we can barely see in our academic curriculum our children

being taught wisdom or the way to be wise. Actually, many scholars and academia have brought to light the subject of teaching wisdom in early education of children and even at university level (Al-Ya'qūbi, 1980).

Subjects Studied in the Abbasids' House of Wisdom

Islamic schools and institutions in the era of the Abbasids played a very crucial and constructive role in preserving the Arab and Islamic heritage and in introducing remarkable progress to the religious, literary and scientific studies that offered a great service to Islamic Culture.

There is no doubt that in the beginning of the Islamic schools, great attention was paid to religious studies as the foundation for pursuing all other sciences. This interest had a greater effect in developing religious subjects like Qur'anic studies, prophetic tradition, and Islamic jurisprudence. It also helped people to understand those subjects that paved the way for new scientific studies and interpretations. New literary subjects were introduced like grammar and linguistics. There was considerable interest to make progress in various studies to serve the heritage of Arabic literature (Ma'rūf, 1975).

The Islamic schools also had no less value in teaching mathematical sciences including algebra, accounting, statistics, and engineering. Furthermore, they were interested to teach rational sciences like logic and philosophy. Many Arabs and non-Arabs had the honour to teach the previously stated subjects, namely scholars who had

spent their time and fortune to learn different subjects and passed them to their students who later developed those subjects in valuable scientific research in all academic spheres (Amin, 1973).

Previewing the teaching curriculum in the House of Wisdom, it was highly and carefully selected in which many subjects were taught in philosophy (*hikmah*), medical sciences, mathematics, astronomy, biology, history, geography and music arts. During the time of Harūn al-Rashīd considerable attention was paid to the science of wisdom by translating books from different languages into Arabic, while lecturers were selected according to their achievements and area of specialisation and they were given great respect, highly paid and consulted by the caliphs in times of need due to their high intellectuality and wisdom (Majid, 1975).

Schools which taught religious and scientific studies had successfully contributed to the graduation of large number of students who had travelled throughout the peninsula to spread their knowledge and exchange it with other scholars. Many of them also were granted very honourable positions in school or government institutions in the Islamic world. The opportunity for the Muslims and non-Muslims to be admitted to different schools of different thoughts like the Baghdad, Basra, Cairo, Tunisia, Morocco or even Esfahan had a significant influence on the making of Islamic thought and strengthening human relationships. It also allowed the meeting of different minds and beliefs that together produced some very valuable ideas and works in the

field of science and literature. This was the major contribution of the Islamic schools in bringing together different human races, ethnicities, languages and religions (Amine, 1973).

The mixing of scholars and countries helped them understand one another's cultures and traditions and helped develop the Arabic language that had become the language of almost every aspect. Al-Andalusī had said that the religious unity had needed language and civilizational unity. Persians, people of Iraq, Levant and Egypt started to include their ancient knowledge in the new Islamic civilisation. Engaging in the translation movement also motivated caliphs of the Abbasids to incline philosophical studies. This interest helped some caliphs to encourage people to philosophise. Sā'id al-Andalusī mentioned in his book that when caliphate was given to Al-Ma'mūn, his ambitious personality sought to understand wisdom, and learn the philosophical sciences (Al-Andalusī, 1996).

Al-Ma'mūn was praised by O'Leary who said that since the caliph grew up reading Hellenistic culture, he was able to apply philosophical rules to some of the Islamic creeds and doctrines (De Lacy, 1973).

Baghdad, particularly the House of Wisdom, was the direction that attracted scholars from all around the peninsula, that contained the literary and scientific progress the Islamic state (*ummah*) had achieved, a progress which marked the civilizational superiority of that time embodied in the teachings of various

sciences such as philosophy, astronomy, medicine, mathematics, Greek, Persian, Indian languages as well as Arabic.

Study during the Abbasid era especially inside the House of Wisdom was not randomly held but there were some teaching methods that students and pupils had to go through before graduation. It is believed that education then has two stages:

1. Preparation level before entering the House of Wisdom:

1.1 From age 6 to 14 years: study was held at the house of the teacher or lecturer, small shops and Qur'anic schools, pupils learned and memorised the Qur'an, learning reading and writing along with grammar rules of the languages and practising the basics of accounting.

1.2 From the age of 14 to 18 years: held inside schools of mosques and circles, student learn at this age some religious sciences including jurisprudence (*fiqh*), interpretations, Hadith narrations, poetry, biographies, prophetic campaigns, and literary criticism.

2. Higher studies or study inside the house of wisdom:

2.1 Lectures system: held at one of the rooms of the House of Wisdom, some lectures were publicly attended but some others were meant only for some students at a certain level.

2.2 Debates and discussions system: also held in the House of Wisdom with a difference in the subjects being discussed. Major subjects that had been taught to higher education students were: mathematics, philosophical sciences, wisdom, astronomy,

natural sciences, medical sciences, geography, art and music (Khedr, 1989)

When students finish their studies, ultimately, they would receive a graduation certificate that proved their intellectual ability in one of the studied fields. If a student was among the top graduated another certificate would be awarded to him which allowed him to teach that particular subject. The responsibility of the awards was the lecturers' because they were supervisors of the level of a student (Khedr, 1989)

The scientific and intellectual progress of that era gave rise to adult education, consequently the level of literacy was very high for both men and women could learn and develop their educational skills. Adult education was systematically carried out everywhere for mosques in almost every Muslim town and city WHICH served as major educational centres. For instance, if any visitor came to a new city he could head to congregational mosque confident that he could be attending hadith lectures, as reported by al-Maqdisi when he was visiting al-Sus. This geographer and traveller of the tenth century in Palestine, Egypt and Syria had found several circles (*halaqāʾ*) or assemblies (*majālis*) that were led by faqīh Qurʾan leaders or scholars inside the mosques (al-Suyūti, 1964).

Many historians pointed out that the Imam al-Shafiʿi presided over such assemblies and circles (*majalis* and *hilaq*) at the mosque of ʿAmr at al-Fustat, when he devoted his time to teach various subjects every morning till his death in 820 AD. Similar assemblies in Sijistān were

mentioned by Ibn-Hawqal (988 AD) but he insisted that not only religious lectures were given but also linguistics and poetry were held in these assemblies. Every Muslim had free admission to the lectures in the mosques which remained until the 11th century that witnessed the expansion of new Islamic schools (Suyūti, 1964).

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

The House of wisdom had been a celebrated library, and until now it was a sound judgement to consider it an educational institution of higher learning established in Baghdad by the Abbasid leader Harun al-Rashid (r. 786 – 809) and granted an influential impetus under his son al-Mamun (r. 813 – 833). Researchers had always claimed that the Bayt am-Hikmah was a mere library and store-like place for Greek and Persian literature, however, our research provided an extensive account of this library that went beyond those claims, and was a place of higher education and learning.

The House of Wisdom was not limited only in Baghdad, but as it has been discussed, few years after its establishment, new institutions were founded and named after this centre of learning in Baghdad. It functioned as a hub of Islamic and non-Islamic studies, culture, and society. The fall of the Abbasids did not limit the inclusion of the house of Wisdom institution in people's lives. On the contrary, they possessed an incredible amount of freedom to pursue knowledge and scientific research. As a result, we found that the Umayyads in Spain, Samanids in Bukhara, Fatimid in

Cairo and others, they were all inspired by Baghdad's house of wisdom and they attempted to duplicate it even in their academic curriculums. Even though several higher education institutions were founded in the Muslim civilization, there is but little knowledge about them and no systematic studies of these cultural and educational institutions which thrived throughout the Muslim peninsula. Consequently, this paper has analysed the earliest and most influential educational institution in Baghdad, the paper also relied on dispersed information of Arabic and non-Arabic writings that dealt with numerous topics such as Muslim religion, education, history, geography and other related literary works. It has become evident that Buyut al-Hikmah (Houses of Wisdom) in Baghdad, Bukhara, Cairo or elsewhere, they altogether were an essential element of the Muslim cultural and educational life at those times. Buyut al-Hikmah indeed, were not a simple depositing houses for books, maps manuscripts, and they were not entrusted to regular personnel, on the contrary, Buyut al-Hikmah operated as clusters of knowledge and learning and it accumulated young and old men and women who were enthusiastic to study, teach and debate. Regrettably, the onslaught against Muslim institutions, mosques, libraries by external invasions was carried unceasingly within the Muslim terrains from Baghdad to Egypt and from Spain to Morocco.

CONCLUSION

As it has been discussed, The House of Wisdom, was not just a library or a book

storehouse, but was in fact an educational institution that played a distinguished role in the history of the Middle Ages for it was a bridge that disseminated knowledge of the ancient civilisations including the Islamic one to the west. It was a departure from modern sciences. There is consensus among historians that thanks to The House of Wisdom and other similar institutions that the continuity of human civilisation was preserved after the fall of the Roman civilisation. The House of Wisdom also marked the emergence of Arab thinkers and intellectuals.

As stated in the earlier pages of this paper, the scientific revolution of the Abbasids especially during the functioning years of The House of Wisdom and the movement of reproductive translation and transmission of knowledge have been reflected in the introduction of new educational institutions that came to existence as a result of the role of the house of wisdom that represented a universal institution or university collected and produced a huge collections of books, manuscripts, maps and other innovations and discoveries which have been considered by many western historians as backbones for European progress after the end of the Dark Ages. An era that was never dark in the Abbasids peninsula but rather they were ages of discoveries, and intellectual loftiness.

The research showed that the Abbasid Dynasty had much to offer for the human civilization of intellectual and scientific progress. Caliphs were giving the translation movement and the intellectuals a very

high level of respect and support that have been the key factors to getting hold of the Hellenistic, Indian, and Persian knowledge and philosophy. The Abbasids did not just work on the theoretical level of the knowledge they acquired, but rather they started practicing and implementing it achieving various philosophical, scientific, astronomical and medical developments.

Indeed, the House of Wisdom was not just a library or a book storehouse, but rather it represented a very distinguished educational institution that played a vital role in the history of the Middle Ages for it was one of the Institutions that bridged and transmitted the ancient civilizations including the Islamic one to the west and its renaissance.

The House of Wisdom had carried delivery of the sacred message of teaching and learning throughout the Abbasid Dynasty reign until the attack of the Mongol against the Abbasid Caliphate. When the Mongols (1218-1265 AD) threw in the river of Euphrates almost all the literatures and discoveries produced during the Abbasid Dynasty era. An event that marked the fall of Baghdad. Consequently, it marked the collapse of Abbasid Caliphate and resulted a disastrous effect on the Islamic civilizational heritage.

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Review article

A Philosophical Note on the Conflict between Irrational and Rational Tendencies in Legal Thought: Western and Islam Experiences

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ABSTRACT

Rational and irrational tendencies have competed vigorously in legal thought in both Western and Islamic traditions. In Western tradition, the competition took place within the internal rational natural law school, as indicated by the split of this school into the irrational natural law school and the rational natural law school. In Islam, similar competition divided Muslim jurists into the traditionalists (*ahl al-hadith*) and rationalists (*ahl al-ra'y*). Within the Western tradition, the conflict continues and no compromise appears, while in Islam, irrational tendencies and rational tendencies have reached certain compromises. This article, using philosophical approach, seeks to find out the factors causing the failure of such compromises in the Western tradition and the achievement of such compromises in Islamic tradition. This article concludes that the conflict within natural law is more substantial and it denies any effort of compromises as it concerns with the very nature of law and its authoritative sources, whereas in Islam, basically, the disputes are merely about the methodological aspects, i.e. the methods of inferring the law from its shared sources.

Keywords: *Ahl al-hadith*, *ahl al-ra'y*, natural law, rational and irrational tendencies

INTRODUCTION

The long history of Western philosophy of law has produced several contradictory legal schools. They came out as a result of long process to search and discover the true meaning of law with the basic question: “what is law?” (Ali, 2010; Darmodiharjo & Shidarta, 2004). Since then, no consensus is reached about the true meaning of law

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and other related basic presumptions. This question is responded differently by legal experts depending on their beliefs and background (Ujan, 2013). There are at least seven schools of law; natural law, legal positivism, utilitarianism, historical school, sociological jurisprudence, pragmatism, and legal realism (Rasjidi & Rasjidi, 2002).

The earliest school is natural law. It originates from the teachings of Stoic philosophy, a thought from ancient Greek philosophy which flourished in 300-200 BC. Stoic philosophy believes that the universe, including human beings, is essentially inspired by divine mind (*logos*). Natural law theory is then developed systematically by Thomas Aquinas (1225-1274 CE), a great philosopher and theologian of the Middle Ages. He is the father of natural law theory (Ujan, 2013). Aquinas believes that the universe is under God's command which means God's law is the ultimate law. Because God's reason is perceived as something eternal, not temporary, His law is also considered eternal (*lex eterna*). This divine eternal law is revealed to human beings through His words as recorded in the holy books, which Aquinas calls as the Book of Life (Ujan, 2013). Therefore, law should be sought from nature which is inherently in order. This school later was challenged by legal positivism (Rasjidi & Rasjidi, 2002).

However, before the positivism challenge, natural law was challenged by a new tendency, that uniquely also called itself natural law. The emergence of this new tendency divided natural law into irrational natural law and rational natural

law. While the former is exactly what has been explained before, the latter states that natural law originated from human reasoning. This latter opinion is championed by Hugo de Groot or Grotius (1583-1645). He asserted that the source of law is human reasoning and that any law which emerges from human nature cannot be altered, even by God (Rasjidi & Rasjidi, 2002).

Why did this rational natural law emerge and oppose irrational natural law? Firstly, there is a question concerning the means of finding that natural law which is eternal. Aquinas replied by stating that human beings have the capacity to know things, but not eternal things. Only blessed and selected human beings could understand the eternal things (Ujan, 2013). This very thought of Thomas Aquinas still influences the Church's thought until today (Ali, 2010).

Similar to what happened in Western history, the history of Islamic legal thought was once decorated by the tension between *ahl al-hadith* (lit: people of Prophet tradition) and *ahl al-ra'y* (lit: people of reason). The latter terminology refers to Muslim jurists who insert their personal opinion to Islamic law, which largely relies on revealed texts, with more emphasis on *Sunnah* (the Prophet's tradition). In Islamic history, the tension between *ahl al-hadith* and *ahl al-ra'y* is the only tension ever recorded in relation to Islamic jurisprudence. Both are "legitimate sons" of Islam (Nyazee, 1994). Simply put, both have the rights to be deemed as Islamic as it happens in the case of natural law theory in the Western legal perspective thought history.

This research compared both phenomena in relation to the search of the true meaning of law in the sense that Western tradition is essentially rational whereas Islamic tradition is basically text-heavy tradition (Nyazee, 1994). It employed the philosophical approach by borrowing the philosophy of knowledge's ontology, epistemology and axiology. Strictly speaking, this research compared the two traditions concerning the true meaning of law (ontology), methods of acquiring it (epistemology), and the purpose of law (axiology) (Anshari, 1987).

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Schools of thought that are discussed in this article, whether they come from the Western or Islamic tradition, have one major theme of searching the true meaning of law. If it is scrutinized, Western tradition discusses it in the discourse of philosophy of law, whereas Islamic tradition discusses it in *usul al-fiqh* (Islamic legal theory). These two disciplines (philosophy of law and *usul al-fiqh*) basically discuss legal material, with their own distinction. While Western discipline discusses secular subjects, *usul al-fiqh* in essence deals with divine subjects (Nyazee, 1994). Therefore, the employment of ontology, epistemology and axiology to compare these two traditions with the object of the essence of law and its related subjects is fully and scientifically accounted for.

Ontology is a branch of philosophy of knowledge which deals with the essence of everything. Epistemology is the discussion method and underlying assumption of a discipline. Axiology is the one dealing

with value and purpose of knowledge (Anshari, 1987). In this research, these three philosophical branches will be employed to compare the essence of law, its method and purpose as conceptualized by Western natural law and Islamic legal theory.

METHOD

This article employed the philosophical approach with its heuristic character, continuous thinking and actualization concerning the topic and avoiding routine and mechanical thinking. Instead, it opts reflective thinking to gain awareness about the urgency of the topic to reconstruct creative and dynamic thinking (Bakker & Zubair, 1990). In addition, this article employs symmetrical comparative between natural law (irrational and rational) and Islamic law (*ahl al-hadith* and *ahl al-ra'y*). It means that the two schools will be exposed after each opinion is thoroughly explained (Bakker & Zubair, 1990). Several other methods which correspond to philosophical approach will also be used in this article, namely interpretation, holistic interpretation, historical continuity, as well as comparison and description (Bakker & Zubair, 1990).

The exposition in this research will begin with discussion on the very nature of law according to natural law (irrational and rational) and Islamic law (*ahl al-hadith* and *ahl al-ra'y*) in the frame of ontology, epistemology and axiology. By doing so, similarities and differences will show up between them, which are the answers to the research enquiry. These answers will

discover why irrational and rational natural law in Western tradition have found no way to compromise yet, while the disputes between *ahl al-hadith* and *ahl al-ra'y* have arrived at shared juristic positions (Nyazee, 1994).

RESULTS

Ontological Perspective of Law

Natural law theories can be divided into authoritarian and individualistic, progressive and conservative, religious and rationalistic, as well as absolute and relative. For juristic consideration, the most important difference exists between natural law as the highest law which refuses the authority of any inconsistent positive law, and natural law as an ideal to which positive law must be in accordance with without influencing its legality (Bakker & Zubair, 1990). Natural law is a law which is suitable with the natural upbringing of rational human beings. The only quality of human beings is their rational capacity to reach and understand nature (Rasjidi & Rasjidi, 2002). A.P. d'Entreves (1902-1985 CE, as cited by Erwin, 2013) states that the idea of natural law is seen as a norm to determine right and wrong, as a pattern of good life, a life which is in line with nature. This idea gives a strong drive to reflection, postulates of existing institutions, and provides justification from conservation and revolution (Erwin, 2013). The idea about good and bad or right and wrong is the object of the philosophy of morality (Cahyadi & Manulang, 2007).

Concerning with the source of law, natural law is divided into two diametrically

opposite positions; irrational natural law and rational natural law. Irrational natural law believes that the law is deemed to be universal and eternal and is originated directly from God. Rational natural law believes that the source of universal and eternal law is human reasoning. It is viewed as distinct from divine order, so natural law emerges from human intellect. The proponents of this idea are Hugo de Groot (1583-1645 CE), Samuel Pufendorf (1632-1694 CE), and Immanuel Kant (1724-1804 CE) (Darmodiharjo & Shidarta, 2004).

Obviously different from what has been described above, Muslim legal theorists agree that the essence of law is God's law, although they also differ in terms of legal methodology. This difference resulted in the emergence of *ahl al-hadith* and *ahl al-ra'y*. *Ahl al-hadith* states that law is what is captured textually from *zahir nass* (apparent meaning) of the *Quran* and the *Sunnah*. For them, law is what is taken for granted from the sacred texts. It is certainly not within human reasoning, nor can be replicated by human intellect, nor has certain propose with which Islamic law may be evolved. Islamic law is irrational for there is not much room for reasoning in it. Humans are only obliged to read and understand Islamic law through textual meaning of the sacred *nass* (the *Quran* and the *Sunnah*). Therefore, they are silent about any legal cases for which they could not locate their textual evidences in the *Quran* and/or the *Sunnah*. They also believe that *sharia* (Islamic law) is much more authoritative than mere human opinions. *Sharia* originates from

the words of God which are always correct and consistent. *Ra'y* (reasoning) is merely human thought which is bound to errors and controversies. Any controversy will result in conflict, which is forbidden. The law is God's law, so it is not sought from human reasoning without Divine guidance in form of the *Quran* and the *Sunnah*. The only role of human reasoning in Islamic legal theory is to textually interpret Islamic law from the *Quran* and/or the *Sunnah* (Bik, 1971).

In contrast, *ahl al-ra'y* insists that *sharia* and law are within the reach of human reasoning. It has principles and basic values. The *Quran* contains essences of Islamic law by deriving '*illat (ratio legis)*' from the sacred texts which in turn are used to determine novel cases for which the sacred texts are silent. It is beyond dispute that Islamic law has been imprinted in the *Quran* and *Sunnah*, but its essence and underlying principles are within the reach of human reasoning. Therefore, in addition to ability to capture the essence and principles of Islamic law, human reasoning also plays a significant role in legal formation. Human reasoning detects *illat* which is the cause or motif underlying a law in Islam. This *illat*, based on the similarity of legal cases, then will be used as a platform to provide legality for novel cases for which the *Quran* and/or *Sunnah* are silent (Bik, 1971).

Epistemological Perspective of Law

Each school of natural law (both the irrational and the rational) has different legal methodology. Irrational theory argues that God is the source of law, therefore

law is found in His revealed texts. The revelation as *a priori* should be accepted as the only truth without any truth test. Strictly speaking, law is derived by interpretation of the texts, and the only authority to interpret the sacred texts is the Church (Cahyadi & Manulang, 2007).

In contrast, rational natural law theory insists that the source of law is human reasoning. So, law is derived through rational exercise. Using certain methods, human reasoning will produce and create law suitable with human understanding of justice. Reason becomes the only source which facilitates just law. Law is no longer the authority of a certain institution such as the Church, but of every human being who is capable of reasoning. In details, the two schools employ numerous philosophical methods to arrive at their goal, such as intuitive, scholastic, inductive, empirical, transcendental and dialectic (Bakir, 2007).

Turning to Islamic tradition, both *ahl al-hadith* and *ahl al-ra'y* agree that the source of law is God as revealed to His Prophet, Muhammad, in the form of the *Quran* and *Sunna*. However, they disagree on how to interpret these sacred sources. While *ahl al-hadith* emphasizes on textual approach and *qiyas* (deductive analogy) in deriving law from the sources, *ahl al-ra'y* develops rational methods in the form of *istihsan* (juristic preference) or *maslahah* (interest). In addition, both schools agree upon the authority of a third source, which is *ijma'* (consensus of Muslim jurists) (Zaydan, 1994).

Axiological Perspective of Law

In terms of axiology, natural law of both leanings firmly maintains that law has purpose that is justice. Justice becomes a concept that evolved along the history of natural law in which law is always equated with justice. Concerning this, Plato's conception on justice highly influenced legal theorists, including those of natural law. He conceptualized justice into three aspects as follows (Bakir, 2007):

1. Justice is a characteristic given to every human being
2. Justice helps man to coordinate and control their emotions in the effort to adapt with the surrounding.
3. Justice helps the community to live within nature optimally.

Aristotle then refined this idea and pointed out that justice should be understood in terms of equality. However, Aristotle made a significant differentiation between numerical equality and proportional equality. Numerical equality puts the human being as a unit. This is referred to as equality before the law whereas propositional justice deals with what are the rights, capacity, achievement, and so on (Darmodiharjo & Shidarta, 2004).

Furthermore, Aristotle goes on to differentiate between distributive justice and corrective justice. While the former applies in public sphere, the latter applies in private and criminal matters. Distributive justice principally is applied in the distribution of dignity, welfare as well as asset distribution

to all groups of human beings using equal or not equal means. Equalities should be treated equally. In contrast, inequalities should not be treated equally. Distributive justice will lead to proportion, which is in sharp opposition to unjust disproportion (Darmodiharjo & Shidarta, 2004).

Corrective justice is a concept in direct opposition to distributive justice. Corrective justice focuses on correcting a mistake. If in a contract mistakes are made, corrective justice tries to compensate for the victim. If a crime is committed, then the proper punishment should be applied to the perpetrator. Here, justice as in the previous case is in the middle of the two extremes. Injustice according to Aristotle's aforementioned classification has become intentional and non-intentional in modern sense when speaking about agreement and breach. Nonetheless, injustice will result in the disturbance of well-established equality. Corrective justice has the role to rebuild this equality and balance (Darmodiharjo & Shidarta, 2004).

What Aristotle says about justice is then adopted by Thomas Aquinas who later envisages two types of justice; general justice (*justitia generalis*) and specific justice. General justice is justice based on the written law which has to be obeyed for the sake of the public. This justice is also termed as legal justice, whereas specific justice is based on equality and proportionality (Darmodiharjo & Shidarta, 2004). Kusumohamidjojo (1999) divided this last type of justice into:

1. Punishing justice (*iustitia vindicativa*);
2. Distributive justice (*iustitia distributiva*);
3. Commutative justice, especially in trade (*iustitia commutativa*); and
4. Social justice in the politic of law (*iustitia socialis*).

Turning to the views of Islamic *ahl al-hadith* and *ahl al-ra'y*, initial observation does not clearly show their position on the purpose of law. Both schools seem not interested in discussing purposes of law. *Ahl al-hadith* argues that Islamic law is something irrational, beyond rationality, so human reasoning cannot capture the purpose of law. Thus, this school believes that there is no such thing as purpose of law. However, *ahl al-ra'y* asserts that there is something rational that can be captured by human reasoning. Likewise, the purpose of law can be traced. Still, *ahl al-ra'y* does not elaborate clearly about this purpose. In the history of Islamic legal thought, the concept of the purpose of law only emerges several centuries after the debates between *ahl al-hadith* and *ahl al-ra'y*. The two early proponents of the discussion are al-Juwayni (1028-1085 CE) and al-Ghazali (1058-1111 CE). They developed *maslahat* as the purpose of law. Al-Juwayni further made classification of *maqasid al-shari'ah* (purposes of Islamic law) to five levels: *daruriyat* (primary), *hajiyyah* (secondary), *makramat* (tertiary), *mandub* (recommended), and *kulli* (universally attainable) (Al-Raysuni, 1999).

These five types of *maqasid al-shari'ah* can be briefed into three types. According to Ahmad Imam Mawardi, al-Juwayni is the Muslim legal theorist who established the foundations of *maqasid al-shari'ah* by classifying it into *daruriyat* (primary), *hajiyyat* (secondary), and *tahsiniyat* (tertiary) (Mawardi, 2010). Al-Ghazali refined his teacher's concept before the arrival of the celebrated al-Shatibi who elaborated *maqasid al-shari'ah* in great detail (Ibrahim, 2008). In his book, *al-Mustasfa*, al-Ghazali related between *maslahah* with *maqasid al-shari'ah* as he says that *maslahat* consist all the measures taken to preserve the purpose of Islamic law (*maqasid al-shari'ah*), that is preserving the religion, life, intellect, offspring (dignity), and property. On the contrary, anything that harms them is considered *mafsadat* (danger), and any measure to stop harm is also considered *maslahat* (Al-Ghazali, 1997).

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The essence of law according to natural law theory is, it is a norm that originated from the order of universe so that it becomes universal and eternal. This theory was criticized and divided into two because of dispute over the source of law. While irrational natural law states that revelation is the source of law, rational natural law points to human reasoning. Meanwhile, according to the Islamic legal tradition of *ahl al-hadith* and *ahl al-ra'y* the source is always revelation. It is the law that is revealed by God to His Prophet Muhammad and compiled in the form of the *Qur'an* and *Sunnah*.

In terms of legal methodology, irrational natural law views that the source of law is God which is located in the written revelation in the holy book. The revelation has to be accepted as *a priori* as undisputed truth and without any form of truth test. Law is sought by interpreting those revealed texts by the rightful authority of the Church. While according to the rational natural law, any law is the product of human reasoning. Using certain methods, human reasoning produces just law. Reasoning becomes the only source of law which leads someone to find a just law. So, law is no longer authority of the Church because any person who properly uses his/her reason may find the law. In the Islamic legal tradition of *ahl al-hadith* and *ahl al-ra'y*, the position of the *Quran* and *Sunnah* as the source of law is paramount, so the essence of law is God's law. God is the only legal authority as He has revealed His commands in the form of the *Quran* and *Sunnah*. The difference between *ahl al-hadith* and *ahl al-ra'y* simply concerns interpretation methods. While *ahl al-hadith* is restrained in interpretation, *ahl al-ra'y* is considerably liberal.

From the axiological perspective, the natural law is consistent in stating that law has the purpose of justice. Justice becomes a concept which keeps evolving along the history of the natural law that justice and law are inseparable. Meanwhile, discussion about justice seems absent in *ahl al-hadith* and *ahl al-ra'y*. There is no such thing as the purpose of law. The only lesson from *ahl al-ra'y* which is similar to the natural law discussion is that there is something rational

in Islamic law and that the purpose of law is recognized.

It is apparent that the two leanings of natural law fail to agree on the authoritative source of law. This is a stark difference with Islamic legal tradition of both *ahl al-hadith* and *ahl al-ra'y* that agree with the revelation as the source of law. However, the two leanings of natural law agreed on the point that justice is the purpose of law as much as Islamic legal tradition of both *ahl al-hadith* and *ahl al-ra'y* agreed on the idea that *maslahat* is the goal of law. Surprisingly, a refined concept of *maslahat* actually is proposed by jurists with *ahl al-hadith* (read: irrational theory) leaning and it has been applied in Islamic legal development. However, *maslahat* is not everything, because revelation is the ultimate source of Islamic law. In principle, law originates from revelation and *maslahat* is used in such a way that revelation "tolerates".

The conflict between the two leanings of natural law seems to be more substantial because of concern about the essence and source. These factors have denied any effort of compromise or reconciliation, while more substantial reconciliation did take place between *ahl al-hadith* and *ahl al-ra'y*, that from the beginning have agreed that revelation is the source of law. It should also be noted that the tension between the two leanings of natural law is well-shadowed by the conflict between the Church and temporal authority, while the tension among schools in Islamic legal tradition occurred purely intellectual and not political.

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Case Study

**The Power of Word of Mouth to Establish Brand Positioning
(A Case Study of the House of Raminten as a Modern Style of
Angkringan Traditional in Yogyakarta, Indonesia)**

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ABSTRACT

Cities across Indonesia attract tourists for several reasons. Yogyakarta is among the main tourism destinations, known primarily for its culinary tourism. One of the famous *angkringan* cuisines in Yogyakarta is found in the House of Raminten. *Angkringan* is a Javanese traditional rice, side dishes, and beverages with definitely inexpensive price, and it is mostly familiar as street food. The House of Raminten is well-known for its eccentric *angkringan*. Recognizing the importance of the brand in the customer's mind, the management of the House of Raminten continuously to develop the restaurant's brand positioning namely modern style of *angkringan* traditional. For tourists, the House of Raminten is known through information from an individual to another or from an individual to groups. The information widely spreads because the restaurant management applies *gethok tular* or 'word of mouth' as a marketing strategy. This research aims to investigate the power of word of mouth as a strategy to establish brand positioning in the House of Raminten. The theoretical framework employs in this research is AIDA model consisting of

Attention (Awareness), Interest, Desire, and Action. This research employs qualitative method and case study approach. The results reveal that *gethok tular* or 'word of mouth' has an absolutely strong impact. The rapid consumer increase of the House of Raminten is caused by not only 'word of mouth', but also e-word of mouth and the establishment of brand positioning. Furthermore, this is also proven that the

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House of Raminten's consumers are mostly middle-class who use social media in their daily activities.

Keywords: *Angkringan*, brand positioning, culinary, the House Raminten, word of mouth

INTRODUCTION

Background

The culinary sector is one of the most promising business sectors across the world; its global pervasiveness of is not a momentary phenomenon. Since 2014, the government of Indonesia has seized such a phenomenon as an opportunity to make Indonesia as the world's favourite culinary destination for tourists. To encourage this program, the government establishes various schemes and organisations, and one of them is the Indonesian Creative Economy Agency or Badan Ekonomi Kreatif (BEKRAF) which focuses and optimizes Indonesian culinary industry. As a result, Indonesian culinary business significantly increases (Primadhyta, 2017).

Cuisine is one of attractions for tourists in several Indonesian cities, such as Yogyakarta. Yogyakarta Tourism Office in 2017 reported that Yogyakarta, known as a *Gudeg* city, has increased its tourist footfall. Yogyakarta's tourist footfall increased for 15-20% from the previous year. Tourists visit Yogyakarta for multiple purposes such as experiencing traditional cuisine of Yogyakarta. Since eating is an integral part of travelling, it is common that the tourists expect pleasurable experiences of

culinary. Culinary business in Yogyakarta grows rapidly, and it frequently encourages small street food stall to establish culinary restaurants. A street food stall or *angkringan*, in Javanese, is a particular characteristic of Yogyakarta. *Angkringan* is a food stall selling rice, side dishes and beverages with definitely inexpensive price. There are approximately 2000 *angkringans* in Yogyakarta (Utomo, 2015). *Angkringan* is a major tourist attraction in Yogyakarta. One of the most famous *angkringans* in Yogyakarta is the House of Raminten. This restaurant is known as a "*Nyentrik*" *angkringan* of Yogyakarta which means an eccentric food stall. Its traditional-modern concept (presenting a strong local ambience and shades of Javanese culture to the visitors) that distinguishes it from other *angkringans* around Yogyakarta.

The House of Raminten has been established for almost 9 years and has experienced a rapid increase in its number of visitors. Hamzah (HA), the founder of the House of Raminten, speaks about his growing business and says that since he opens this *angkringan*, he never significantly change the restaurant's concept. However, for market segmentation, the House of Raminten has become a symbol of restaurant with a traditional-modern concept that offers unique, antique and elegant ambience and cuisine with Javanese nuance. Afterwards, this concept becomes the House of Raminten's "brand" for its consumers. Strengthening brand positioning is one of efforts to continuously establish the House of Raminten's existence because the brand

distinguishes it from other restaurants. Consequently, the restaurant can compete in culinary business in Yogyakarta.

Gunawan (2013) stated that brand positioning functioned to build trust and customer's loyalty through excellence, uniqueness and brand differentiation. In order to reinforce the brand position in the consumer's mind, the marketers require (1) brilliant marketing communication strategies that can include all communication channels and (2) integration to facilitate management in disseminating these concepts.

The House of Raminten applies *gethok tular* or word of mouth as a marketing strategy. *Gethok tular* is an informal communication form, and it is usually interwoven through conversations of personal relationship. A message brought by the word of mouth is more easily trusted.

Sernoviz (2012) posited that there were five basic elements of word of mouth, and one of them was talkers. Talkers are communicators who are enthusiastic as well as connected with other individuals (such as friends, family, and co-workers). Afterwards, the House of Raminten uses to apply *gethok tular* as its strategy by accident.

Formulation of the Problem

This research attempts to investigate the significance of word of mouth in the establishment of brand positioning the House of Raminten.

The Purpose of Research

The purpose of this research is to explore the potential of informal communication for marketing and brand positioning.

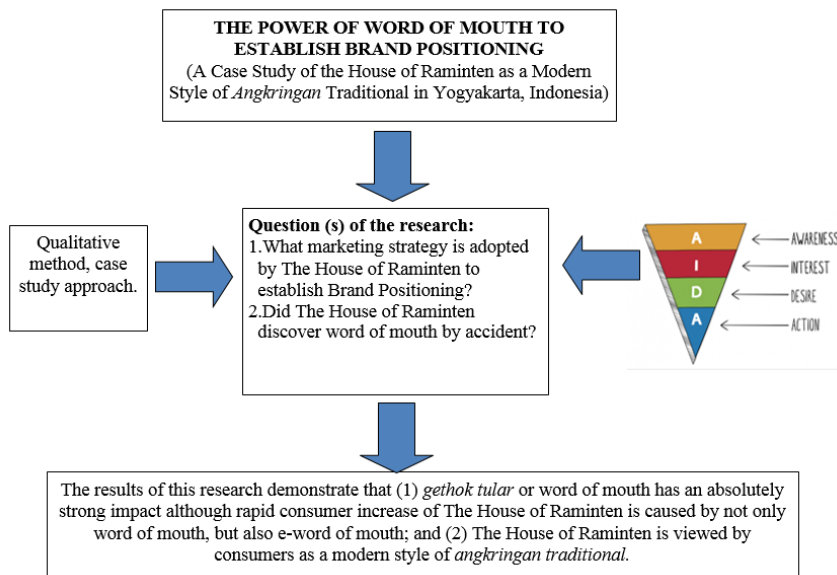


Figure 1. Theoretical framework

RESEARCH METHOD

Denzin and Lincoln in 1998 stated that qualitative research emphasized accurately untested and unmeasured process and meaning in terms of quantity, numbers, intensity or frequency (as cited in Ahmadi, 2014). A qualitative researcher emphasizes the nature of reality in social construction, intimate relations between researchers and subject learnt, and situational obstacles that form inquiry. Case studies are analysis of persons, groups, events, decisions, periods, policies, institutions or other systems that are studied holistically by one or more methods (Ahmadi, 2014).

Data Collection Technique

This research employed three ways collection techniques: in-depth interview, documentation, and data validity. The three techniques enabled the researchers to gain comprehensive information and necessary data to analyse the significance of word of mouth the techniques were classified.

Based on the acquisition's method, this research classified data into:

1. Primary Data

Umar (2011) defined primary data as data collected in the first source. Primary data include data collected from in-depth interview or questionnaire. In this research, the data or direct information were collected by employing a set of technique. This technique includes:

a. In-Depth Interview

Primary data were collected through in-depth interview. An in-depth interview is a data collection technique through

direct and face-to-face question-answers. The researchers interviewed Hamzah (HA) as the owner of the House of Raminten, Lisa (LI) as a Manager of the House of Raminten and three customers of the House of Raminten, namely Dienni, Nur, and Satria. The researchers only selected three customers because they already represented the interview's results.

b. Observation

Observation is interpreted as an activity to observe directly without any mediators and object, to investigate closely an object's activity. This technique requires researchers to observe an object directly or indirectly, as stated directly or indirectly (Kriyantono, 2008). The researchers conducted field observation on July 7-9 2017. The researchers focused the field observation in the House of Raminten, Kotabaru, Yogyakarta.

2. Secondary Data

Secondary data is data collected from books, written material or results of relevant previous studies. Secondary data possibly collected through literary analysis of documents and documentation. The researchers mostly gained secondary data from e-journals related to word of mouth and brand positioning. The researchers gained all previous studies from www.academia.edu, Google Scholar, and e-journals related to the researchers' topic.

Data Analysis

Patton defines data analysis a process to arrange data sequence some patterns, categorize and discuss data (Moleong,

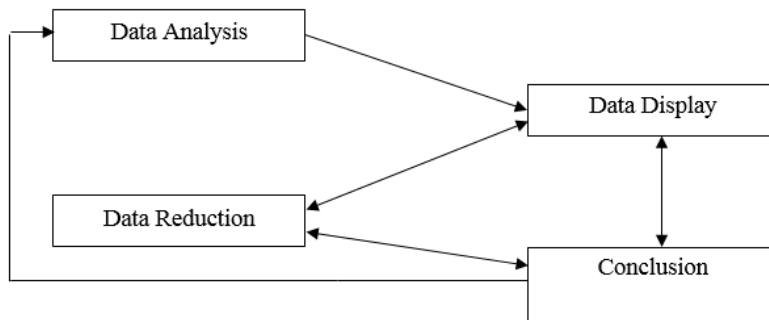


Figure 2. Interactive model of Miles and Huberman

2004). Patton Data analysis process starts from all existing data of collected by various techniques, such as in-depth interview, field observation, and literary study. In qualitative method, data can be collected from various sources by using various data collection techniques (triangulation data). According to Miles and Huberman (1984), Figure 2 states that data analysis consists of three steps data reduction, data display, and conclusion (Sugiyono, 2008).

RESULTS

The House of Raminten as a Modern Style of *Angkringan* Traditional

In early 2008, the House of Raminten discovered a transformative concept. This concept largely based on the current's market behaviour. In the first year, the Restaurant appeared as a simple *angkringan* with general *angkringan* frequenters as its target audience. However, in 2009, The restaurant focused its target audiences on 17-35 year-old consumers by introducing herbs as a healthy beverages consumed by women but also by others facing health

problems. Hamzah, the owner and founder of the House of Raminten, positioned herbs not only as a healthy beverage but also a delicious beverage that was possibly consumed and enjoyed by family. Unfortunately, the business of traditional herbs did not last long, as pra conducted by a team of the House of Raminten indicated, Yogyakarta's tourism grew rapidly, and thus in 2010 the House of Raminten introduces a traditional-modern concept expanded its market segmentation, not only for the teenager customers but also for all target audience.

Traditional-modern concept implemented in interior design or atmosphere landscape of the House of Raminten refers to three keywords: uniqueness, antique, and elegance. These three words can represent the House of Raminten's atmosphere. It is likely that the customers are presented with strong local ambiance and shades of Javanese culture starting from exterior design to interior design. The front part of the House of Raminten's building I decorated by a picture of a woman wearing

Javanese-traditional dress with hair bun. Meanwhile, the interior design is traditional, in which the building is designed with unique and traditional architecture with *kereta kencana*, *dokar*, and statue. Furthermore, *alunan gamelan* (Javanese traditional music) is played to give more senses of Javanese. Javanese nuance is reflected by not only the restaurants decoration, but also staff's uniforms. They wear *kemben* (Javanese cloth), vest, and *jarik* (Javanese shawl). These elements add more uniqueness of the House of Raminten.

The uniqueness is also highlighted on the House of Raminten's menu which is considered *nyentrik* (eccentric). The restaurant's special menu is '*Sego Kucing*', a small portion of rice, similar to a cat's eating portion, with some dishes like *tempe*, *teri*, or *sauce*. In general, the House of Raminten uses *angkringan* in a modern and elegant concept. Finally, all the applied concepts enable the restaurant to compete in culinary business. This statement is in line with Aaker who states that brand positioning is a part of identity and value proposition (as cited in Saggar et al., 2011). In building the House of Raminten, Hamzah never uses commercial media to announce and introduce the House of Raminten to public. He argues that the House of Raminten's promotion is conducted by customer's experiences after visit the restaurant in Yogyakarta. In other word, each customer is a potential promoter who powerfully convinces others to visit.

Word of mouth communication plays an

important role in the success of the House of Raminten. Word of mouth, is supported by frequency of utilization, number of people, the sender of information, and number of information (Casielles et al, 2013). Zeithain stated that word of mouth was a source of information before growing interest in buying (as cited in Vignilia & Buhalis, 2016). Customers possibly inform their friend, peers, relatives and or other about the existence and concept of the House of Raminten in Yogyakarta, such as through a message. When the message is received it creates more expectation for the House of Raminten. This statement has been proven by the researchers by interviewing the House of Raminten's customers. Most of the House of Raminten's customers are local and foreign tourists who schedule their visit to the House of Raminten. They obtained information about the House of Raminten from recommendation of their friends, peers, or relative or from the internet.

The customers argue that the House of Raminten new brand of traditional-modern restaurant. It indicates that the House of Raminten has created a new in the customer's mind even before they visit it. They recognize the House of Raminten as a representative of Javanese culture combined with shades of modernity. This concept is the main attraction for the customer. Through this concept, the researchers can assume that the word of mouth strategy is definitely suitable because the House of Raminten has successfully built a marketing brand focusing on the image of the brand in customer's mind through communication

process. This statement agrees with Bhat and Reddy (1998) who stated that positioning was not about what was done for a product but how to position in consumers' mind through communication process (Sehrawala, 2015).

The Power of Word of Mouth to Establish Brand Positioning

Word of mouth is one of strategies informally used by marketers. In this system, a marketer is not the central point of information about products. Word of mouth involves customers or visitors as promoters to attract other customers or visitors, by creating reviews or recommendations to friends, peers, relatives, or other acquaintances either face-to-face or virtually. This indirect intervention means that the marketers cannot control the message which might be either negative or positive.

Since word of mouth message is uncontrollable by marketers, they must be able to use word of mouth as beneficial phenomenon to prepare a unique concept, qualified product, and excellent services. Positive word of mouth on a brand is created brand for a product is definitely important; because it can represent the quality of a product. Furthermore, brand enables customers to compare the difference it from its competitors. Brand or labelling should get a position in costumer's mind. That means when a product is mentioned quickly, customers can recognize or identify the characteristics it. Brand Positioning in customers' mind means making inherent, and creating meaning. Meanwhile, brand's

concepts offer pledge and benefits for consumers. Thereby creating customers high expectations and position and the essence summary of the brand are available.

A strengthening of brand positioning through word of mouth particularly for the House of Raminten has effected for a long time. Word of mouth plays a significant role in brand positioning of the House of Raminten in Yogyakarta. Many visitors who come based on of their friends' testimony. This means that consumers' perception is formed through the word of mouth.

Sernoviz (2012) argued the effectiveness of word of mouth could be represented through this research, talkers were visitors who delivered value or concept that offered by the House of Raminten through the word of mouth. Recommendations from previous visitors can persuade other potential customers. They can only experience services of the House of Raminten directly visiting. After visiting the House of Raminten, these potential customers will become a promoter for other new consumers. This phenomenon acts like a never-ending chain in which visitors are potential promoters.

To retain the brand position in visitor's mind, the House of Raminten needs to continuously evaluate customers' perception of its *angkringan's* concept. Moreover, in more competitive culinary businesses, consumers are encouraged and treated to try new products. The House of Raminten's traditional-modern concept represented in its atmosphere is promoted to public through word of mouth technique. This result agrees with the statement of Kotler and Kevin

(2012). Word of mouth communication can provide input for visitors to visit *angkringan* in the House of Raminten based on the communicator's suggestion. The success of word of mouth technique in establishing the House of Raminten's brand positioning cannot be separated from the maturity of the House of Raminten's strategy.

A major role of word of mouth in creating brand positioning in the consumer's mind in the House of Raminten is encountered from their characteristic's contribution. Word of mouth is the passing of information from one person to another through oral communication, which could be as simple as telling someone the time of day.

Yu and Tang said that word of mouth's characteristics namely attractiveness and usefulness can also affect consumers (Virvialite et al., 2015). A message of attractiveness and usefulness applied by the House of Raminten can increase the role of word of mouth. An interesting scene of diverse messages, the role of messages strongly determines consumer's perception of a product. Attractiveness is found in nonverbal messages representing the House of Raminten's position in consumer's mind. The messages include atmosphere and services depicting traditional and unforgettable-modern concepts. Meanwhile, usefulness is presented infrequency, the number of costumers, information receivers, and information.

The word of mouth's characteristics can persuade people to buy and strengthen brand positioning in consumer's mind as long as the marketers understand or meet the

expectations. More in discussing concerning the characteristic of the interesting message, marketers in this situation called as the House of Raminten's management represented by services and atmosphere transmitted by communicator as recommendations with a clear's message that the concept of the House of Raminten described as traditional modern's concept. Another strong characteristic of word of mouth is frequency of users. In this case, users as consumers become communicators (talkers) giving the recommendation (topic). Therefore, customers who visit the House of Raminten frequently more likely give recommendation to others. It is also important to consider whether of the House of Raminten is informed through individual-to-individual or individual-to-group, face-to-face, or media-use-communication (tools). *Gethok tular* or word of mouth has a very strong impact through rapid visitor increase.

Modern marketing theory can be shown in AIDA model or called as an innovative marketing model based on AIDA (Li & Yu, 2013, Table 1). It is a basic movement of marketing and advertisement resulted from the perception of customers. It was initially developed by Elmo Lewis in 1898. AIDA refers to Attention, Interest, Desire, and Action respectively. Li and Yu (2013, Table 1) define AIDA as an acronym used in marketing and advertising that describes a common list of events that possibly occur when a consumer engages with an advertisement.

Table 1
State of The Art (SOTA)

No	The Researcher(s)	The Title of Research	The Result of Research
1	Li and Yu (2013)	An innovative marketing model based on AIDA : A Case from E-Bank Campus Marketing by China Construction Bank	This research shows a new model that greatly improves marketing efficiency of e-bank services from CCB at university market, and it also unfolds a new perspective in marketing of the enterprises.
2	Trusov et al. (2008)	Effects of word of mouth versus traditional marketing: finding from an internet social networking site	The research VAR model shows that word of mouth referrals have substantially longer carryover effects than traditional marketing actions.
3	Jalilvand et al. (2011)	Electronic word of mouth: challenges and opportunities	The advantages of information technology and the emergence of online social network site have changed the way information is transmitted, and they have transcended the traditional limitation of Word of Mouth.
4	Wijaya et al. (2016)	Exploration of Culinary Tourism of Indonesia: What do The International Visitors Expect?	The results reveal seven new emerging factors expected as relating to staff quality, sensory attributes, food uniqueness, local services-capes, food authenticity, food familiarity, and food variety.
5	Kozinets et al. (2010)	Networked Narratives: Understanding WOM Marketing in Online Communities.	This new narrative model shows that communal word of mouth does not simply increase or amplify marketing messages.

(1) A - Attention (Awareness): attracting customers' attention, the House of Raminten persuades customers and potential customers by offering uniqueness of atmosphere and dishes. Strong ambience in the House of Raminten can attract consumers to visit.

(2) I - Interest: raising customers' interest by focusing and demonstrating advantages and benefits (instead of focusing on features, as in traditional advertising). The concept of the House of Raminten as a traditional-modern *angkringan* successfully encourages potential customers to come. This is proven by length of the queues of people who want to eat in this restaurant.

(3) D - Desire: convincing customers of their desire to satisfying products or services

The House of Raminten continuously improves all aspects including food variety, and atmosphere. The House of Raminten never uses commercial media to announce and introduce itself to public. Based on the needs of AIDA model, the aim of marketing is to attract the attention of potential customers arise their interest and desire, and finally buy the products.

(4) D - Desire: convincing customers of their desire to satisfying products or services

The House of Raminten continuously improves all aspects including food variety, and atmosphere.

(5) A - Action: leading customers towards taking an action and/or purchasing the House of Raminten never uses commercial media to announce and introduce itself to public. Based on the needs of AIDA model, the aim of marketing is to

attract the attention of potential customers arise their interest and desire, and finally buy the products.

The House of Raminten's consumers know the restaurant from not only word of mouth but also from e-word of mouth. It is proven as the House of Raminten's consumers are medium-class who use the social media in their daily activities. Today, people are organized in social networks and can take action together. They can discuss isolated instances of bad customers' experience and place them in context. Thus, they express concerns and dissatisfaction more loudly than they could. Moreover, they can challenge business activities and people in power (taking parts). In a digital environment, the voice of few people can inspire and reach many. The facilitated (and constant) flow of information among different social networks makes the voice of each customer stronger. This triggers customers to be critical. In fact, people who share positive emotion tend to have more followers (tracking).

It is important to note that brand positioning in consumers' mind appears through expectations of visitor's recommendation. Brand positioning can be strengthened when many people are talking about that brand. Communicators recommend that the House of Raminten as a culinary icon in Yogyakarta represent Javanese culture and indirectly persuade consumers to try this culinary restaurant in Yogyakarta.

Pre-observation reveals that the House of Raminten conducts several steps before

applying word of mouth strategy as it medium promotion. The first step is deciding traditional-modern concept of the brand. The restaurant management selects AIDA Model. The traditional-modern concept as well carrying several factors and these extracted factors similar with research's result by Wijaya et al. (2016, Table 1). There are seven expected factors by international visitors to explore Indonesian culinary tourism. The first factor is staff quality which contains five items of: communicative staff, knowledgeable staff, responsive staff, friendly staff, and good description of dishes. The second factor is sensory appeal that articulates five items related to: food smells appealing, clean dining place, the use of fresh ingredients, food tastes good, and a pleasant ambience. The third factor is food uniqueness that connects this factor to unique way of cooking the food, unique way of eating the food, and unique way of presenting the food. The fourth factor is local service capes that consist of three items: dining place represented of local culture, unique local décor, and dining place providing a welcoming sense of local culture. The fifth factor is food authenticity that emerges from the correlations of three items: authentic taste, authentically spicy, and exotic food, and demonstrates a close link with the authenticity aspect. The sixth factors is food familiarity I which there are two items contributing to the emergence of this factor: flavour modified for taste and the use of familiar ingredients. The seventh factor is food variety that emerges from the correlation of two items: local beverages in the destination and wide range of available food.

After determining the House of Raminten's brand, the next stage is finding a concept distinguished from its competitors. The role of word of mouth occurs after marketers apply that stage; the content of message from communicator can represent the concept set by the marketers. On the result of interviews and observations shows that *gethok tular* or word of mouth has a very strong impact although rapidly increase of the House of Raminten's consumers is caused by not only word of mouth but also by e-word of mouth. This statement is proven by the fact that the House of Raminten's customers are middle-class society who uses social media in their daily activities.

DISCUSSION

Public trust word of mouth more than commercial advertising on television, radio, newspaper, and magazine because word of mouth comes from personal experience that is free from any company's interest. Zeithaml et al. stated that word of mouth or oral communication was one of factors influencing consumers' expectations (Shi et al., 2016). Yu and Tang stated that the characteristics of word of mouth communication were vividness, usefulness, and ability to affect consumers' intention to acquire goods (Virvialite et al., 2015). This research recommends that next researchers who are interested in investigating Javanese culture or cuisine can explore word of mouth in a conventional way. In fact, the House of Raminten becomes more popular because of e-word of mouth usually called as electronic word of mouth, such as Facebook,

Instagram, website, and BlogSpot. This fact is similar to a research's result of Jalilvand et al. (2011, Table 1). The next researchers will extend the focus the investigation in this area.

CONCLUSION

In Indonesia's culinary industry, word of mouth concept is not something new. High competition puts pressure for marketers to create creative strategies starting from planning to proper use of media with the purpose of creating awareness. Many culinary industries implement word of mouth to establish brand positioning. It can be seen in various areas; culinary industry uses customer's experience as material recommendation.

This condition is not openly delivered by business owners. However, the best services and excellent interior design all can encourage customers to tell about their experiences to other potential customers. It can be concluded that *gethok tular* or word of mouth significantly impacts on the business of the House of Raminten although its rapid consumer increase is caused by not only word of mouth but also e-word of mouth. Furthermore, it is proven that the House of Raminten's consumers come from medium-class society who daily accesses social media.

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Predicting Turnover Intention among Inbound Call Center Workers in the Philippines

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ABSTRACT

The need to understand factors that predict turnover intention among call center workers is crucial and necessary to boost the performance, productivity and profitability of call centers. To identify the factors that initiate, sustain, and aggravate this behavior, the present study utilized a predictive design aimed at investigating turnover intention among call center agents within the call center industry in the Philippines. Self-report surveys were used to collect data drawn from 212 inbound call center agents in Metro Manila. Multiple regression was used to test whether job demands, job control, salary, burnout and social support predict turnover intention. The results indicated that three predictors accounted for 65% of the variance ($R^2=0.43$, $F(4,207)=38.33$, $p<0.01$). The results of the regression indicated that job control ($\beta=0.16$, $p<0.05$), salary ($\beta=-0.17$, $p<0.05$), and burnout ($\beta=0.66$, $p<0.05$) predicted turnover intention. On the other hand, results for social support ($\beta=0.05$, $p>0.05$) and job demands ($\beta=-0.06$, $p>0.05$) were not significant. To examine whether other variables interacted with job demands and social support in predicting turnover intention, turnover intention scores were subjected in a three-way analysis of variance on two levels of job demands (high, low), two levels of social support (high, low), and two levels of job control (high, low). Main effect for job demands [$F(1, 208)=14.744$, $p=0.00$, $\eta_p^2=0.07$] was significant. The researchers discuss the practical implications and future research directions.

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INTRODUCTION

Call centers have emerged as an organizational phenomenon, which has drawn increased research attention into the human element of the working environment. Despite being known as an efficient resource for organizations in handling customer relationship at a significantly lower cost, call center jobs are regarded as one of the most stressful careers across the globe which puts the employee at a high risk of strain because of the unique combination of emotional and psychological demands (Holdsworth & Cartwright, 2003). Evidently, turnover continues to be one of the persistent problems in call center industries despite consistent global growth in numbers and therefore needs special attention (Sawyer et al., 2009).

Employee turnover intention can be disruptive for effective operational performance of knowledge-based industries like call centers due to the transfer of human capital; resulting in shortage of skillful workers and loss of business to competitors, and, above all, damage to the reputation of the company. The steady growth of turnover rates also entails high costing since companies make large investments on the recruitment, selection and training of new hires. Because of the important and serious implications of turnover, it has received substantial research attention from researchers who have focused on identifying and understanding its causes with particular emphasis on the human service industry.

A majority of existing studies on turnover intention have primarily focused on growth opportunities and fairness rewards

without considering the potential influence of emotional demands of the job and the role of psychosocial factors. To bridge the gap in the current literature, this paper explores the roots of intention to quit by expanding upon earlier conclusions and taking into account emotional demands as a determinant of turnover intention and the role of social support in buffering the influence of job-related variables on turnover intention.

This study contributes to human resource management research and occupational stress literature because it examines how interpersonal networks in a collectivistic culture can impact a worker's intention to quit. This study also adds to current understanding of turnover intention in the call center industry, where social support is perceived to be of primary importance among employees.

In this study, the researchers argue that interpersonal networks both inside and outside the organization, job demands, burnout and salary are related to the extent to which a call center employee harbors turnover intentions. Moreover, the researchers seek to replicate prior findings involving the call center working conditions by examining if job conditions in the call center setting are characterized by reduced control and decreased task complexity and skill variety, as has been revealed in previous studies.

The researchers envision that the findings may lead to improved understanding of the antecedents of turnover within the call center industry. Findings can guide the development of policies and procedures

that create better work environments that maximize opportunities for call center agent's buy-ins.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Development of Research Model

The Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) Model of Burnout is an alternative model of worker well-being that incorporates a wide range of working conditions into the analyses of organizations and employees (Demerouti et al., 2001). Even though every work setting may have specific predictor variables for well-being, these factors can generally be divided into two crucial dimensions: job demands and occupational resources.

Job demands are aspects of the job that require sustained physical and/or psychological effort or skills. These are therefore linked to certain physiological and/or psychological costs. Job resources, on the other hand, are features of the job that facilitate positive outcomes ranging from, but not limited to achievement of goals, personal growth, learning and development.

The JD-R model suggests that job demands and occupational resources initiate two different psychological processes, which consequently determine organizational outcomes. When both job demands and resources are high, high strain and motivation are to be expected. When both are low, absence of strain and motivation is to be expected. This model provides plausible explanations as to why a worker may decide to leave a company.

Existing literature reported that the competitive environment in the workplace results in discrepancy in terms of job demands

and job resources. High job demands require additional effort to achieve work goals and therefore, exhaust employees' mental and physical resources. This leads to the depletion of energy of employees, resulting in strain known as the health impairment process. This imbalance has an immediate effect on employee engagement, which guides worker attachment to work.

In contrast, job resources foster employee engagement and mitigate the negative effect of job demands. Research suggest that job resources particularly have motivational potential when job demands are high (Aziz, 2009). Importantly, several studies have shown that job resources may buffer the impact of job demands on stress-reactions (Aziz, 2009, Yusof & Noor, 2010).

In this study, the researchers incorporated emotional demands to adapt to human service work since research showed the relevance of examining both emotional and psychological demands for jobs within the human service role (De Jonge et al., 2000).

The Call Center Industry

Worker turnover continues to be a big challenge in the call center industry. Previous research had indicated that withdrawal tendencies were visible in occupations that combined a significant interpersonal element with high levels of role or job stress.

Turnover Intent

Price (1977) defined job turnover as the withdrawal of employee from the current position to seek for another job in another organization. It is a cognitive indication of

the behavioural decision to actually quit (Jacobs & Roodt, 2008). It was adopted based on the fact that actual turnover is most significantly influenced by the intentions (Armitage & Connor, 2001). It is also a coping strategy for workers to get away from their current work situation (Petriglieri, 2011). Measuring the relationship between employee turnover and its predictors is very challenging due to the privacy and confidentiality issues of company records and unavailability of the respondents who leaves the organization. Because of this, intention to quit is being employed for most of the literature as an alternate and reliable means to measure actual turnover.

A large volume of literature examining turnover has established a strong negative effect on organizational performance and high cost, which is associated to the recruitment and selection of new hires, training and development due to replacement of tenured employees with inexperienced ones and overtime payments to reduce staffing shortages (Alexandrov et al., 2007). Losing highly skilled employees are problematic to organizations since it may greatly affect performance operations such as service delivery.

Hidden costs may include low morale of the remaining workers since they are left to suffer with additional work load and mandatory overtime caused by increased turnover, thereby creating a gap in the worker's resources which further leads to absenteeism amongst the remaining workers. It makes them develop a negative attitude towards their company. This observation

is confirmed by a study by Sparrow (1996) who reported that hardworking employees were more likely to be negatively affected by the increased work generated by inflated turnover.

Burnout

A certain level of stimulation (i.e. job demands) is beneficial, but higher levels of job demands may turn into a stressor and subsequently lead to burnout. Hochschild (1983) claimed that burnout was one of the potential outcomes in performing emotional labor. It is a general term for chronic stress in the helping profession that describes how work environment alters a worker's true feelings about themselves and their job (Schwab, 1983).

Burnout is a risk factor in call centers since it has been recognized to be particularly prevailing in job conditions where constant human interaction is required in the job role (Milner et al., 2007). De Croon et al. (2004) suggested that feelings of burnout and frustration at work resulted to high likelihood of turnover and absenteeism. Certainly, in service-oriented positions, particularly call center jobs, both absenteeism and employee withdrawal are incredibly high (Dollard et al. 2003).

Job Demands and Job Control

Whilst there are limited research available concerning call centers, supporting evidence on critical psychosocial risk factors that underlies employee turnover are growing. Stress has been identified as the main reason

behind such negative occupational outcomes as high turnover and absenteeism in the call center industry (James, 1998).

Call center jobs are regarded as one of the most stressful careers across the globe, which put the employee on a high risk of strain because of a unique combination of emotional and psychological demands (Holdsworth & Cartwright, 2003).

Although call center workers do not show visible facial and bodily gestures, they are required to perform emotional labor by managing their tone of voice, controlling their emotions and empathizing with difficult customers to successfully carry out their work role and maintain the organizational standard of quality service that is in accordance with the service-oriented value that the customer is always right (Lewig & Dollard, 2003).

Front line jobs just like that in a call center setting often feature Taylorism, which focuses on strict division of labor. The use of standardized information and script for effective and efficient service delivery frequently leads to a work environment with reduced job autonomy, and poor levels of job scope and employee discretion (Hutchinson et al., 2000).

Inbound jobs particularly create a work environment with reduced complexity, poor variability, and limited control since call duration was imposed (Isic et al., 1999). They reported that high levels of repetitiveness was one of the most frequently cited reasons for turnover among call center workers.

Excessive job demand from the management often results in stress, which is detrimental to employee welfare, has also been considered as an antecedent to high rates of employees' intention to quit and subsequently actual turnover (Karatepe et al., 2012; Yusof & Noor, 2010).

A study in the German context by Isic et al. (1999) which involved 250 call center agents from 14 different call centers revealed that call center agents reported greater psychosomatic complaints and poorer work situations relating to task variety and complexity and reduced job control controlling for gender, age and educational attainment.

Deery et al. (2002) suggested that monotony in the day-to-day task and the partly reduced autonomy of employees due to use of call flows and frequent usage of script, which was worsened by a lack of career growth, would definitely lead to the conclusion of quitting the job (Taylor & Bain, 1999).

Social Support

Social support has been found to be a catalyst of sustaining specific psychological behaviors. The extant literature found social support to promote intention to donate blood (Jaafar et al., 2016) and to empower informal caregiving professionals (Aun & Mohd, 2016). In call centers, the case may not be very different. Call center industries have been seen as an exceptional workplace for social relationships despite their remote job nature. Call center agents belong to teams

which does not only operate to increase job efficiency but also serves as a great venue for workers to share knowledge and create groups for socializing during leisure time.

It is assumed that social support affects attitudinal outcomes (e.g. job satisfaction) and work-related outcomes (e.g. worker engagement, organizational commitment and turnover intentions) because it provides help and reduces uncertainty, anxiety and stress when workers are faced with problems and crises.

In occupational settings such as the service industry, where interaction can be intense, workers are likely to find support from their colleagues and the social setting in order to develop a feeling of control over their work. Perceived support, the thinking that help is available if needed, is believed to buffer against stress, by reducing the intensity to which work situations are perceived as threatening and by further increasing the use of effective coping strategies, which in turn reduces distress (Holahan et al., 1995).

Social support by supervisors and colleagues helps workers to appreciate their own value and competencies and enables them to cope with upcoming demands and difficult situations. This helps workers to maintain their motivation (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). The extended model argues that the most adverse consequence of highly demanding jobs on health and well-being was presumed to be more likely to jobs with reduced occupational control and poor social support.

Salary

Salary is of obvious importance in the workplace in terms of satisfying an employee's economic needs. The company's reward system is a strategic tool for organizations to drive positive organizational outcomes; that is to align the interest of workers and management to motivate performance behaviors (Awang et al., 2013; Aziz, 2009; Lawler, 1971, 1990; Milkovich & Newman, 2008), making it critical for workers to feel satisfied with the salary.

Folger and Konovsky (1989) pointed out that salary level significantly affected an employee's organizational commitment, which in turn, had a significant effect on turnover intention. Levine (1993) indicated that employees with relatively higher salaries were less likely to quit, and their organizational commitment level was higher. Rosse and Miller (cited in Janssen et al. 1999) found that dissatisfaction with work-related aspects like salary, career growth and job content were particularly associated with increased turnover intention.

Statement of the Problem and Hypothesis

One of the biggest challenges faced by call centers nowadays is the management of employee turnover. This research aims to examine the predictive power of the Job Demands-Resources Model (JD-R), and the role of social support on turnover intention among call center workers. This study seeks to address this question: 1. Does social support, job demands, salary, job

control and burnout predict turnover intent? The researchers hypothesize that highly demanding jobs, with low decision latitude, inadequate compensation, high levels of burnout, and minimal social support predict greater turnover intention.

METHOD

Research Design

The study used a predictive research design to evaluate underlying theories and causal links between the factors that contributed to turnover intention among inbound call center workers. This research design was found to be appropriate since the purpose was to test whether social support, job demands, salary, job control and burnout influence turnover intention.

Participants and Sampling

Babakus et al. (1999) suggested that it was relevant to identify inbound agents from outbound workers since they might experience higher levels of work-related stress due to more repetitive tasks and poor autonomy. Given this, survey data were drawn from 212 inbound call center agents based in Metro Manila who were recruited from the largest call center company in the Philippines.

These workers handle incoming customer calls and are responsible for analyzing customer problems regarding credit card bills, reservations, technical support and other company products and services. Quota sampling technique was employed to collect the data. In this study,

respondents were predominantly females (63.68%) combined with males (36.32%), coming from customer service (58.02%), sales (28.30%), technical support (8.96%) and others (4.72%).

Measures

Quantitative data were collected through online survey instrument. The survey instrument contained four sections namely sections A, B, C, and D which comprised job demands-resources questions, pay satisfaction questions, burnout questions and turnover intention questions respectively.

Iso-Strain Scale. The researchers developed an Iso-Strain Scale used to measure job demands, job control and social support. The test takers were asked to rate how much each of the items is true for them about their job role. Each items were rated on a 5-point rating scale ranging from 'not at all true' (1) to 'very true' (5). Cronbach's alpha coefficients were acceptable for the global score ($\alpha = 0.87$). Cronbach's alpha for the three constructs were 0.79 for job control, 0.72 for job demands and 0.90 for social support.

Job demands, consisting of 10 items, was measured by two types of job-related aspects: quantitative demands and emotional demands. Job demands (e.g. "My job requires frequent overtime") were the environmental stressors, including the pacing of work, time pressures and difficult unexpected work tasks, while emotional demands (e.g. "I display emotions I don't really feel for work") were operationalized

in terms of emotional labor or the extent to which a worker has to display particular emotions in accordance with job requirement and the worker's exposure to emotionally demanding situations.

Job control was measured by 10 items focused on two aspects: skill discretion (e.g. "I do the same tasks every day") and decision authority (e.g. "I can freely use personal judgment at work"). It was operationalized as worker's execution of tasks and the degree to which he can exert potential control or influence over the task.

Social support was assessed using 17 items and included emotional and instrumental support provided to the worker by his co-workers (e.g. "I get to share meaningful conversations once in a while with my workmates"), supervisor (e.g. "My supervisor provides regular feedback of my performance") and family (e.g. "My family has been there for me whenever I feel down because of work").

Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI). Burnout was measured using the Maslach Burnout Inventory. It adopted a Likert-type scale ranging from 'never' (0) to 'daily' (6). It included a total of 22 items representing emotional exhaustion (9 items), depersonalization (5 items), and reduced personal accomplishment (8 items). Cronbach's alpha for the three dimensions are as follows: 0.88 for emotional exhaustion, 0.78 for depersonalization and 0.81 for personal accomplishment (Maslach & Jackson, 1986).

Pay Satisfaction Scale. The Pay Satisfaction Questionnaire (PSQ) developed by Heneman III and Schwab (1985) was adapted to measure salary satisfaction. It adopted a Likert-type scale ranging from very dissatisfied (1) to very satisfied (5). It included a total of 12 items representing pay level and pay raises with the reliability coefficient (α) = .89.

Turnover Intent Scale (TIS). This study utilized a self-report questionnaire to measure turnover intention since previous literature suggested that it is the best predictor of actual turnover (Houkes et al., 2001). Greater scores on the turnover intention scale would indicate higher intention to quit current employer. Turnover intention was assessed using the 15-item questionnaire of Jacobs and Roodt (2008) which demonstrated a reliability of Cronbach's alpha coefficient 0.91. To improve the reliability of responses, turnover intention was measured after the suggested timeframe of six-month period (Muliawan et al., 2009) after being hired for the position.

Data Analysis

The analysis of the variables studied was involved descriptive and inferential statistics. The researchers performed multiple linear regression analysis to determine if job demands, job control, salary, burnout, and social support predict turnover intention.

To test the hypothesis, an online survey was conducted, from which the researchers drew conclusions via descriptive and inferential statistics. Data from the survey

was analyzed through multiple correlation analysis, multiple regression analysis and three-way ANOVA. Before analysis, data were carefully scrutinized through data screening, and missing values were treated using the mean scores.

RESULTS

Job Demands, Job Control, Salary, Social Support and Burnout as Predictors of Turnover Intention

Multiple regression analysis was used to investigate the effects of the independent variables on the dependent variable. The independent variables (social support, job demands, job control, salary and burnout) were regressed to the dependent variable (turnover intentions).

Table 1 summarizes the results of the regression analysis. The results indicated that the predictors explain 65% of the variance ($R^2 = 0.43$, $F(4, 207) = 38.33$,

$p < 0.01$). Findings indicate that job control ($\beta = 0.16$, $p < 0.05$), salary ($\beta = -0.16$, $p < 0.05$) and burnout ($\beta = 0.66$, $p < 0.05$) predicted turnover intention. On the other hand, social support ($\beta = 0.05$, $p > 0.05$) and job demands ($\beta = 0.35$, $p > 0.05$) do not show significance as predictors at 0.05 level.

Examining the Interaction Effect of Job Demands-Control-Support Model

To examine if another variable interacts with the insignificant predictor variables (job demands and social support) in determining turnover intention, turnover scores were subjected to a three-way analysis of variance having two levels of job demands (high, low), two levels of social support (high, low) and two levels of job control (high, low).

Main effect was analyzed first to determine if job demands, social support, and job control are associated with the outcome variable, turnover intention.

Table 2 shows that the main effect for job demands [$F(1, 208) = 14.744$, $p = 0.00$, $\eta^2 = 0.07$] was significant. On the other hand, main effect for social support [$F(1, 208) = 0.97044$, $p = 0.33$] and job control towards turnover intention was found to be insignificant [$F(1, 208) = 3.2361$, $p = 0.07$].

Figure 1 illustrates the relationship between job demands and turnover intention, showing that there is a positive relationship between the two variables. Turnover intention was higher among respondents who had high job demands whereas, low turnover intention was observed among respondents who had low job demands. Table 3 shows the results for the interaction

Table 1
Regression for social support, job demands, job control, salary, burnout and turnover intention

Regression Statistics				
Multiple R				0.65
R Square				0.43
Adjusted R Square				0.41
Standard Error				0.82
Observations				212
	Beta	B	T	p-level
SS	0.05	0.09	0.74	0.46
JD	0.35	-0.12	-0.93	0.06
JC	0.16	0.23	2.05	0.04*
Salary	-0.16	-0.19	-2.57	0.01*
Burnout	0.66	0.8	9.06	0.00*

Note: * $p < 0.05$

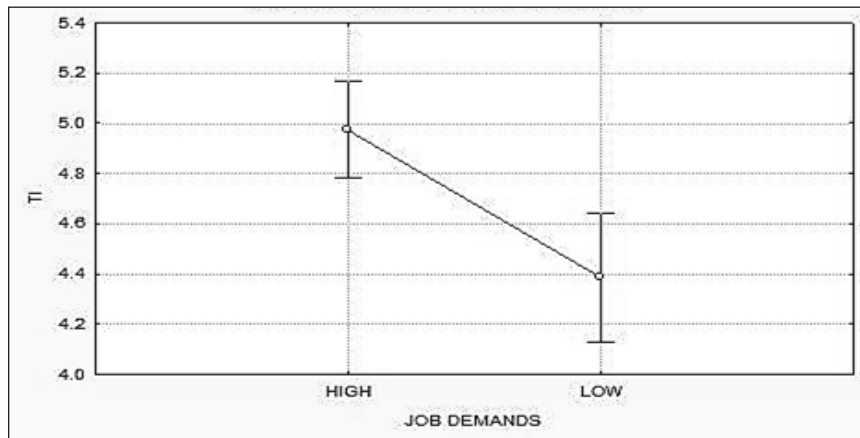


Figure 1. Relationship between job demands and turnover intent

Table 2

Results for the main effects of the predictor variables to the outcome variable

	SS	df	MS	F	p	η_p^2
Intercept	3120.79	1.00	3120.79	2968.75	0.00	0.93
SS	1.02	1.00	1.02	0.97	0.33	0.00
JD	15.50	1.00	15.50	14.74	0.00*	0.07
JC	3.40	1.00	3.40	3.24	0.07	0.02
Error	218.65	208.00	1.05			

Note: * $p < 0.05$

Table 3

Interaction of job demands, job control and social support towards turnover intention

Variables	SS	df	MS	F	p	η_p^2
	2578.47	1.00	2578.47	2687.73	0.00	0.93
SS	2.48	1.00	2.48	2.59	0.11	0.01
JD	2.03	1.00	2.03	2.11	0.15	0.01
JC	6.06	1.00	6.06	6.32	0.01*	0.03
SS*JD	7.02	1.00	7.02	7.32	0.01*	0.03
SS*JC	0.00	1.00	0.00	0.00	0.98	0.00
JD*JC	6.24	1.00	6.24	6.50	0.01*	0.03
SS*JD*JC	0.43	1.00	0.43	0.45	0.50	0.00
Error	195.71	204.00	0.96			

Note: * $p < 0.05$

effects of job demands, job control and social support towards turnover intention.

The interaction effect for job demands and social support [Current effect: $F(1, 204) = 7.3226$, $p = 0.01$], along with the joint

effect of job demands and job control was shown to be significant, $[F(1, 204) = 6.50$, $p = 0.01$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.03]$.

Figure 2 suggests that individuals with high autonomy and low level of job demands

reported reduced turnover intention. On the other hand, combination of high and low demands with reduced control resulted in high turnover. Contrary to prediction, workers in highly demanding jobs scored high on turnover intention despite increased in job control.

Figure 3 shows the interaction between social support and job demands, indicating that respondents who had high and low level

of job demands combined with reduced social support were associated with greater turnover intention. Meanwhile, respondents who had low job demands and increased social support were associated with low intentions to quit. Surprisingly, respondents with increased job demands, despite having high social support reported high turnover intention.

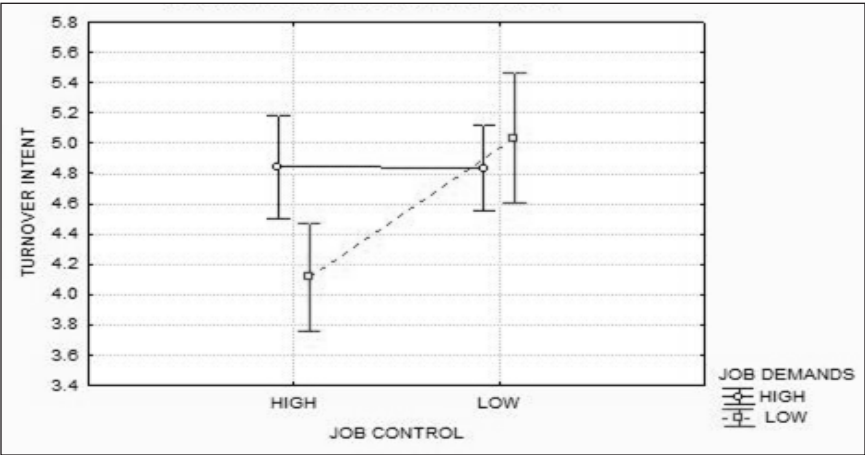


Figure 2. Interaction between job control and job demands towards turnover intent

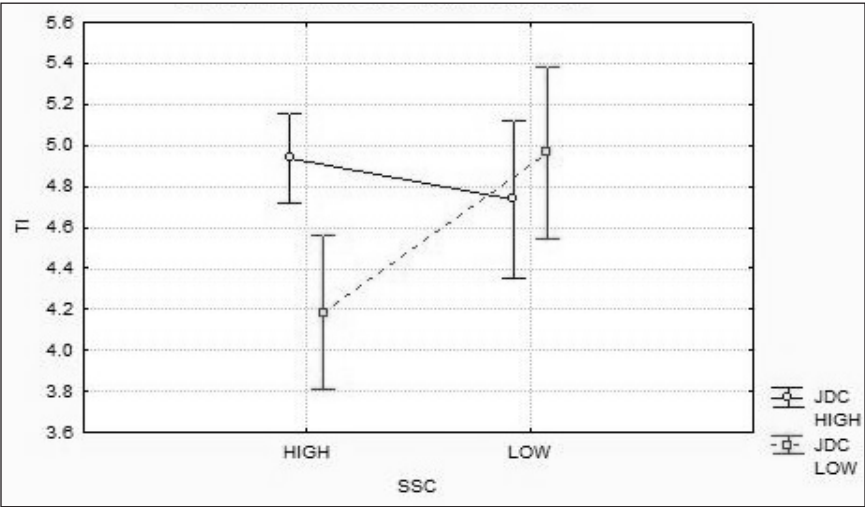


Figure 3. Interaction between social support and job demands towards turnover intent

DISCUSSION

Employee turnover intention can be disruptive for effective operational performance of knowledge-based industries like call centers. Since then, studies sought to uncover and resolve this problem. The present study examined whether social support, job demands, job control, salary and burnout predict turnover intentions among inbound call center workers by employing the Job-Demands-Resources model as theoretical background, an extended model of Job-Demands-Support model.

Regression of Social Support, Job Demands, Job Control, Salary and Burnout to Turnover Intention

Results revealed that salary, job control and burnout predict turnover intention among inbound call center workers. Indeed, salary affected worker's attitude and behavior towards job as posited by Folger and Konovsky (1989) who explained that salary significantly affected the worker's organizational commitment, thereby, influencing turnover intention. Nowadays, the common trend in the call center industry among agents is to leave their jobs, and transfer to another company for better pay. Levine (1993) also affirmed the findings that employees with relatively greater pay were less likely to quit, and their organizational commitment level was higher. Rosse and Miller (cited in Janssen et al. 1999) found that dissatisfaction with job related aspects like salary, career growth and job content were associated with increased turnover intention.

Existing literature have confirmed that call center jobs are regarded as one of the most stressful jobs across the globe because of a unique combination of emotional and psychological demands (Holdsworth & Cartwright, 2003). They are repeatedly exposed to work overload; and although they may not need to show visible facial and bodily gestures, they are required to perform emotional labor by controlling their emotions, managing their tone of voice, and empathizing with difficult customers to successfully carry out their work role and maintain the organizational standard of quality service that is in accordance with the service-oriented value that customer is always right (Lewig & Dollard, 2003).

Hochschild (1983) claimed that burnout was one of the potential outcomes in performing emotional labor. De Croon et al. (2004) suggested that feelings of burnout and frustration at work results in high likelihood of turnover and absenteeism. Certainly, in service-oriented positions particularly call center jobs, both absenteeism and employee withdrawal are incredibly high (Dollard et al., 2003).

Existing literature also demonstrated that job autonomy leads to positive employee attitudinal outcomes (Parker & Wall, 1998). Job control is the degree to which the job provides substantial discretion over various job aspects. Inbound jobs particularly create a work environment with reduced complexity, poor variability, and limited control since call duration was imposed (Isic et al., 1999). Lack of job autonomy puts upward pressure to anxiety, emotional exhaustion, and burnout resulting to reduced

organization commitment. This means that if a worker is given less freedom to complete a task according to his preferred method, the emotional exhaustion tends to be higher, thus, results to calling it a quits among call center workers.

The Job Demand-Control Model and the Job Demand-Control-Support Model

The Job Demand-Control model postulated that high job demands combined with reduced job control produced job strain. Karasek's (1979) model hypothesized that the most unfavorable consequence of occupational strain were present on highly demanding jobs with limited work control. Known as the strain hypothesis, job control prevents or buffers the negative outcome of overwhelming work demands on well-being.

With the realization that occupational social support may facilitate achievement of work goals and may assist in the coping of job demands, the model was further enriched by Johnson and Hall (1988) with the inclusion of social resource dimension. The buffer hypothesis model argued that the highest risk of poor health and wellbeing were expected on highly demanding jobs with low social support.

Interaction Effects between Job Demands and Social Support

As shown in the results of the multiple regression, highly demanding job conditions did not by itself gave rise to turnover intention unless put together with minimal

social relations which can then trigger off intent to quit as revealed by the results of the analysis of variance.

The findings demonstrated that social support and job demands interact to affect turnover intention and the strength of their association is more powerful for individuals with minimal social support available (Karasek & Theorell, 1990). Three of the interactions found were in the expected direction - high turnover was brought about by low social support combined with either high or low job demands and low turnover ensued from increased social support with minimal job demands.

In the current study, results affirmed that social support buffer hypothesis for combinations of reduced job demands and both levels of social support, thereby, confirming that the absence of social support greatly affects work demands in predicting turnover intention. Results suggested that social support has different effects on high and low levels of job demands.

The fourth combination, however, was found to be contrary to predictions. Results from the sample of inbound call center workers described a situation in which favorable social support intensified turnover intention, particularly when the job demands are high.

Surprisingly, instead of protecting individuals from the strains, social support actually strengthened these strains. This conclusion seemed to conform Beehr's (1985) belief of reverse buffering, in which high levels of social support may lead to a positive relationship between job stressors and individual strains.

Reverse buffering suggested that social support may not act to buffer the effects of job stressors on individuals. It argued that social support received may not mitigate the negative impact of job stressors, but may even worsen these harmful consequences on individuals.

Moreover, it was pointed by Kaufmann and Beehr (1986) that the content of the supportive communication might play a significant part in identifying the nature of the buffering effects. They argued that, although positive supportive communications might reduce strain, communication of a negative nature might operate to intensify strain. For example, communication from colleagues may persuade the individual that things are as bad as or even worse than they seem since support providers validates the authenticity of the stressed employee's bad feelings towards the discriminating organization, thereby, increasing the negative feelings of the worker (LaRocco et al., 1980).

As reported, social support may be advantageous to a worker, but this may not hold true at all times. In some cases, it played a damaging role to individual well-being depending on its appropriateness. Findings suggest specific conditions under which each kind of effect is likely to be observed.

Interaction Effects between Job Demands and Job Control

The results of the multiple regression analysis also revealed that job demands alone cannot predict turnover intention. Previous studies established that job demands are not

necessarily negative but eventually may turn to be an occupational stressor particularly when completing work demands require an individual to apply high effort which exhausts employees' mental and physical resources (Bakker et al., 2003). This in turn, leads to the reduction of energy of the worker which guides attitudinal outcome. This is in line with previous literature arguing that too much challenge caused by increased job demands may transform stressor to burnout particularly if combined by reduced job autonomy (Demerouti et al., 2001).

CONCLUSION

The results of this study among inbound call center workers in the Philippines showed that job control, salary and burnout predicted turnover intention. It can be inferred that the high likelihood of turnover intention among inbound call center workers can be attributed to uncompetitive salary, increased feelings of burnout and poor job control.

The study revealed that highly demanding job conditions itself did not inflate turnover intention unless put together with minimal social relations which can then trigger off the decision. As reported, social support may be advantageous to a worker, but this may not hold true at all times. In some cases, it played a damaging role to individual well-being depending on its appropriateness.

Furthermore, the study found that job demands are not necessarily negative but eventually may turn to occupational

stressors, affecting intent to quit among workers, if combined with poor job control. Combination of increased job demands, and lack of job autonomy put upward pressure to turnover intention among inbound call center workers. This means that giving inbound call center workers less freedom to complete a highly demanding task according to their preferred method is likely to inflate their intent to quit the job.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Practical Implications

Critical assessment of the current study has practical value as it helps the call center industry understand what particular factors initiate, sustain and aggravate turnover intention among call center workers.

Interventions may primarily be directed at the work situation or the coping capacity of employees to reduce burnout. Job demands can be addressed at an organizational level through group meetings that foster the search for more efficient and effective methods of working to improve skills and performance.

Workplace practices should be aimed at eliminating, reducing, or transforming stressors through work redesign; that is, by improving skill content and task variation and increasing employee involvement in decision-making. The management can reduce the use of scripts, give employees more control over their schedules and break times, and involve employees in the design and review of performance targets.

Moreover, the management should increase the practices of performance-reward system in the future to inculcate performance culture and promote a more supportive climate. The company could also establish an internal promotion policy for job enrichment to facilitate challenging and interesting work.

Academic Implications

Studies of the “matches” between workers needs and support received and the negative effects of social relationships and of support giving. Research efforts should also focus on the various types of positive and negative social interactions and how these may vary across age-groups. Future studies should refine theoretical models that guide how different sources of support can be matched with particular stressors and strains.

Personal characteristics (e.g., age, gender, education, tenure) should be further explored. This may provide meaningful perspectives of how individual similarities and differences affect turnover intention.

Other research designs should be used to collect data and describe the patterns of change and the direction and magnitude of causal relationships between variables of interest. Future studies may employ an explanatory sequential mixed-method design that will analyze and integrate data on two levels, first using quantitative method followed by qualitative approach to gain a better understanding and fully capture the work elements in call center agent’s decision to leave their job.

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The Effects of Practice in Mind (PIM) Training on Performance Strategies used by Professional University Football Players

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ABSTRACT

Practice in Mind (PIM) Training is a combination of imagery and physical training program which consists of seven PETTLEP components (i.e. Physical, Environment, Timing, Task, Learning, Emotion, Perspective). The imagery content in PIM training program also integrates the facilitative imagery direction and stimulus – response propositions other than motivation, visual and kinesthetic directions. This study was conducted to determine the effects of PIM training on strategies used by the professional university football players during practice and competition condition. The experimental design was used and participants consisted of 21 players aged 19 to 30 years ($M=22.95$, $SD= 2.79$), with different years of experience. All represented UiTM FC football club and took part in the Malaysia premier league 2015. They were engaged in twelve days imagery – physical practices. All players completed the Test of Performance Strategies Questionnaires two days after the first game and six weeks after the first assessment. The results showed that the problem – solving strategies like imagery and relaxation increased after twelve days of PIM training during practices condition. Additionally, during competition condition, players showed some increment in using imagery, goal setting, self-talk and activation method.

The present study recommends using PIM training or for the whole league season. The need of team psychologist to train and help coaches to improve skills performance and psychological states of the players needs further investigation.

Keywords: Competition, football players, performance strategies, PIM training, practice

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INTRODUCTION

The effectiveness of imagery training for individuals and team sports has been reported in previous studies (Malouff et al., 2008; Munroe-Chandler et al., 2008; Ramsey et al., 2010). In imagery training, a number of factors such as facilitative and debilitating imagery directions may influence individual performance. Other effective tools for imagery training in sports include modality and imagery perspectives (Farahat et al., 2004; Morris et al., 2005; Vealey & Greenleaf, 2006; Weinberg & Gould, 2003), and visual and kinesthetic, which were noted to be the most important sensory modalities (Farahat et al., 2004). In order to make athletes use imagery effectively, they have to combine all the perspectives and modalities that allow them to gain much information about a movement experience (Morris et al., 2005).

One study found that a systematic imagery training program known as Practice In Mind (PIM) had improved the performances of golfers in terms of golf putting (Mazlan, 2014, 2015), self-efficacy (Mazlan, 2016a), and moods (Mazlan, 2016b). PIM-training is a six-week imagery-physical training program that consists of seven PETTLEP components: physical, environment, timing, task, learning, emotion, and perspective. The components were derived from the functional similarity between imagery and physical performance of a motor task (Holmes & Collins, 2001). The imagery content in the PIM training program also integrates facilitative imagery

direction and stimulus-response propositions other than motivation, visual, and kinesthetic directions. Previous researchers found that PIM training had helped to improve shooting performance among netball players (Nur Asmidar & Mazlan, 2016; Nur Asmidar et al., 2016) and kick performance among rugby players (Fared et al., 2016). The training also helped to increase the rugby players' self confidence and reduced their anxiety level (Fared et al., 2016).

Different match location and different performance are other issues raised by sports researchers. As previous researcher found team sports used different psychological strategies during competition condition (Ismail, 2019). For example, football is an open sport with challenges that vary in different conditions (Arvinen-Barrow et al., 2007; Coelho et al., 2007). Therefore, different types of cognitive and motivational imagery are needed by soccer players depending on their situational circumstances and mental abilities (Williams et al., 2003). Soccer is also a sport that requires intense training and competitive structure, implying thus that a psychological work for the sport must adapt to the particular circumstances of a soccer team or club (Dosil, 2006).

Sport psychologists have seen psychological skills trainings having positive influence on football players (Thelwel et al., 2006). In one study, Mazlan and Mustaza (2014) identified possible differences in the use of performance strategies by UiTM FC football players during the 2014 Malaysia premier league season. The researchers found that compared to the

midfielders and strikers, the defenders and goal keepers used goal setting strategies more often during practice condition. In competition, the midfielders and strikers used emotional control strategy more often than did the defenders and goal keepers. The study thus recommended the necessity of psychological skills training to equalize all the performance strategies for each position, whether in practice or in competition. However, little is known in regard to which psychological skills training is suitable to improve the psychological states of players. How imagery may help soccer players to use different performance strategies still needs to be investigated. Therefore, this study was attempted to identify the effectiveness of PIM training on the performance strategies used by football players during practice and competition conditions.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Participants

Twenty-one football players aged 19 to 30 years ($M = 22.95$, $SD = 2.79$) participated in this study with varying years of playing experiences. All of the players represented UiTM FC football club and took part in the Malaysia premier league 2015.

Measure

The approval to conduct the study was obtained from the Ethics Committee of the Faculty of Sports Science, Universiti Teknologi MARA. All the players involved in this study had moderate imagery ability

(visual and kinesthetic) as measured by Movement Imagery Questionnaire-Revised, Hall and Martin (1997). Initial meeting was conducted with the coaches to discuss the tactical and technical aspects of each position of the sport. Subsequently, specific task imagery scripts (goal keeper, defender, midfielder, and striker) were developed based on the coaches' decisions.

The participants completed the Test of Performance Strategies (TOPS) questionnaire two days prior to the first game and six weeks after the first assessment during the competition season of 2015. The questionnaire consisted of two scales—practice and competition—with a 64-item self-report instrument (Thomas et al., 1999). The practice subscales are self-talk (maintaining a positive internal dialogue), emotional control (controlling emotions under pressure), automaticity (performing with little conscious effort, automatically), goal-setting (setting personal, specific goals), imagery (visualizing sport performance), activation (maintaining an optimal level of arousal), relaxation (practicing to remain calm under pressure), and attentional control (focusing attention effectively). Similar subscales were determined for the competition condition except for attentional control, which was replaced with negative thinking (thoughts of failure). A Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.89 was recorded, and finally, descriptive statistic and paired *t*-test were performed to compare the different performance strategies used by the players after the training program.

Procedure

An experimental study was conducted to identify the effects of the PIM training program on the performance strategies used by the football players during practice and competition conditions. The football players were only engaged in twelve days of imagery (physical practices) (Mazlan, 2014, 2015, 2016a, 2016b). All the players completed the Test of Performance Strategies (TOPS) two days after the first game (first assessment) and six weeks after the first assessment. During the initial meeting, the participant underwent an imagery ability test on Movement Imagery Questionnaire-Revised (Hall & Martin, 1997; MIQ-R) to evaluate their kinesthetic and visual imagery ability before they engaged with the imagery program (Mazlan, 2014, 2015, 2016a, 2016b). All the players scored 16 and above and had suitable levels of movement imagery ability (Mazlan, 2015, 2016a, 2016b). Next, all the players completed twelve days of the PIM training program individually. They were asked to perform 10 imagery practices and 10 physical practices as per procedure in PIM training program (Mazlan, 2014, 2015, 2016a, 2016b). Overall, the imagery practices covered 5 minutes for each player including the physical practices.

PIM Training Intervention. During the introduction phase, the researchers explained the objective of the training program and its application in specific task (to score goal for striker position) of football players. The PIM training was conducted two days after

the first game (first assessment). The players first completed the sessions with their coaches to recall all the tactical possessions as a goal keeper, defender, midfielder, and striker. The coaches provided the researchers with specific possession situations during an actual football match. The players were asked to recheck their own imagery script by applying all senses to experience a perfect tactical and technical performance, consistent with the PETTTLEP components in the PIM training program (Mazlan, 2014, 2015, 2016a, 2016b). The specific task imagery script included motivational and cognitive elements of imagery functions providing to each player's position tasks. Each player was encouraged to reread and modify his own imagery script with careful monitoring by coaches. The content of imagery also must include all the seven components of PETTTLEP imagery and facilitative imagery direction together with stimulus-responses propositions imagery (Mazlan, 2014, 2015, 2016a, 2016b). All the players were asked to take a deep breath and relax and practice 10 imagery practices (without ball) at the field, and they were taught to visualize a real match based on the script content during the practical phase. They were advised to select their best teammate for passing and receiving during attacking and defending other than visualizing the selected opponent players. They were also asked to perform the actual physical practices (with ball) as suggested in the PIM training program (Mazlan, 2014, 2015, 2016a, 2016b).

RESULTS

Descriptive statistics for performance strategies during practices and conditions are presented in Table 1 and Table 2. A paired sample *t*-test was conducted to evaluate the effects of the PIM training on the performance strategies used by the players during practice and competition conditions. Statistically significant increase was noted in the imagery method scores from first assessment ($M = 13.85$, $SD = 1.79$) to second assessment during practice condition [$M = 15.55$, $SD = 2.14$, $t(19) = 3.15$, $p < 0.05$ (two-tailed)]. The mean increase in imagery scores was 1.70 with a 95% confidence interval ranging from 0.73 to 2.83. The eta squared statistics (0.33) indicated a large effect size. The relaxation method scores also increased from first assessment ($M = 12.05$, $SD = 2.42$) to second assessment [$M = 16.75$, $SD = 1.80$, $t(19) = 5.94$, $p < 0.001$ (two-tailed)]. The mean increase in relaxation scores was 4.70 with a 95% confidence interval ranging from 3.04 to 6.36. The eta squared statistics (0.63) indicated a large effect size.

During competition, the activation method scores increased from first assessment ($M = 14.40$, $SD = 1.88$) to second assessment [$M = 17.25$, $SD = 1.74$, $t(19) = 5.71$, $p < 0.001$ (two-tailed)]. The mean increase in activation method scores was 2.85 with a 95% confidence interval ranging from 1.81 to 3.89. The eta squared statistics (0.61) indicated a large effect size. The self-talk method scores increased from first assessment ($M = 13.00$, $SD = 2.66$) to second assessment [$M = 15.65$, $SD = 1.81$, $t(19) = -2.90$, $p < 0.05$ (two-tailed)]. The mean increase in self-talk method scores was -2.65 with a 95% confidence interval ranging from -4.56 to -0.74. The eta squared statistics (0.72) indicated a large effect size. Meanwhile, the imagery method scores increased from the first assessment ($M = 15.45$, $SD = 2.37$) to the second assessment [$M = 14.00$, $SD = 1.95$, $t(19) = -2.29$, $p < 0.05$ (two-tailed)]. The mean increase in imagery method scores was 1.45 with a 95% confidence interval ranging from 0.12 to 2.78. The eta squared statistics (0.35) indicated a large effect size. Finally, the self-

Table 1

Comparison of performance strategies used by the football players during practices after 12 days of PIM training program

Measure	First assessment		Second assessment		<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
	M	SD	M	SD		
Activation	13.85	1.73	13.65	2.25	0.317	0.755
Attentional control	13.05	2.35	12.60	1.57	0.604	0.553
Automaticity	13.05	1.96	12.20	1.32	1.704	0.105
Emotional control	11.75	2.61	12.95	2.72	-1.32	0.202
Goal setting	13.15	1.98	12.90	1.68	0.412	0.685
Imagery	13.85	1.79	15.55	2.14	3.157	<0.05
Relaxation	12.05	2.42	16.75	1.80	5.936	<0.001
Self-talk	15.75	1.41	16.00	1.41	-1.75	0.096

talk method scores increased from the first assessment ($M = 18.20$, $SD = 1.23$) to the second assessment [$M = 15.75$, $SD = 2.17$, $t(19) = 3.69$, $p < 0.05$ (two-tailed)]. The mean

increase in imagery method scores was 2.45 with a 95% confidence interval ranging from 1.06 to 3.84. The eta squared statistics (0.40) indicated a large effect size.

Table 2

Comparison of performance strategies used by the football players during competitions after 12 days of PIM training program

Measure	First assessment		Second assessment		<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
	M	SD	M	SD		
Activation	14.40	1.87	17.25	1.74	5.714	<0.001
Negative talk	12.45	.99	12.75	1.25	-0.767	0.453
Automaticity	10.35	2.56	9.75	1.74	0.739	0.469
Emotional control	11.10	3.01	11.70	2.29	-0.632	0.535
Goal setting	15.75	2.17	18.20	1.82	3.696	<0.05
Imagery	14.00	1.95	15.45	2.37	2.286	<0.05
Relaxation	14.25	1.94	13.50	1.73	1.617	0.122
Self-talk	13.00	2.65	15.65	1.81	-2.903	<0.05

DISCUSSION

The findings in this study showed that during practice, the use of imagery and relaxation strategies was increased from the first assessment to the second assessment. However, other performance strategies also need to be considered as important strategies that can be used by the football players. Meanwhile, during competition, the players used imagery, activation, self-talk, and goal setting, the use of these problem-solving methods increased after 12 days of training. This finding may explain the football study that found there were some positions on the pitch which showed differences in the performance strategies used during the league season.

CONCLUSION

The main purpose of this study was to identify the advantage of using the PIM training or imagery-physical practices on performance strategies (mental skills) used by the football players during practice and competition conditions.

The present study supports the effectiveness of using the imagery script with stimulus and response propositions when emotion elements are involved during performance (Ramsey et al., 2010), for example, the effectiveness of facilitative imagery direction together with stimulus and response propositions scripts in the PIM training program (Lang, 1979). As shown in the study, the players also practiced in similar environments like playing in an actual match (voices from the crowds and teammates), which may have caused them

to feel like they were playing in an actual condition. As found in previous studies, when athletes similarly performed as in an actual environment with their own technique helped to improve performance and psychological variables of athletes (Gregg & Hall, 2006; Mazlan, 2015, 2016a, 2016b).

It was also interesting to note that the effectiveness of the PIM training supported the previous sport studies, where it could be practical for team sports athletes (Nur Asmidar & Mazlan, 2016, Nur Asmidar et al., 2016; Fared et al., 2016). In particular, the imagery scripts of football players on the field helped to increase the use of problem-solving strategies (self-talk, imagery, goal setting, and activation) by the players.

This study, however, opens up a number of potential studies. For example, the present study used a 12 days period to measure the players' performance after the intervention training. Therefore, there is a possibility that the study might have missed some players' input because some of the players may have played in only a few matches. Therefore, future studies should measure players' performance throughout the league matches. Since previous researcher found team sports used difference psychological strategies during competition condition (Ismail, 2019). The present study also used small sample sizes without including randomly sampled participants. As contended by Baumgartner and Hensley (2005), any study that involved only one group would

have many definite weaknesses. The present study seems to reduce the generalizability of the results. Hence, experimental research designs that involve the comparison of two groups are recommended for future research because such studies offer better control (Baumgartner & Hensley, 2005). It is also possible that the players' specific position (striker vs. defender) and strategies used when competing at home or away match may have had effects on psychological states. Future research thus should examine this issue particularly to investigate the effects of PIM training on football performances. In addition, specific skills including penalty kick and goal save performance can also be considered as performance measurements of football players.

In conclusion, this finding suggests that the PIM training program was used effectively by the football players to increase their psychological performance strategies. However, the present results may differ from other studies due to the difference in sample, study design, number of matches, and duration of the intervention. Future studies thus should focus on those mentioned above in order to ascertain the effectiveness of the PIM training on football players' psychological states and skills performance.

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Homestay Owners' Perspective of Economic Sustainability of the Registered Malaysian Homestay

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ABSTRACT

The main economic issues faced by the registered Malaysian homestay program are the issues of competition from unregistered homestays, local community employment and the tourism multiplier effect of homestays. This research investigates the relationship between destination competitiveness, employment and multiplier effect and homestay sustainability from the homestay owners' perspective. The objective of this study is to measure homestay sustainability using destination competitiveness, employment, and the multiplier effect. Survey questionnaires were given to the 254 homestay owners using cluster sampling method. To analyze the data, Partial Least Square (PLS) approach to Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) was used. The findings of this study confirm the significant relationships between destination competitiveness and multiplier effect with homestay sustainability. The most important finding is that the homestay owner confirms that the unregistered homestays are not a threat to the competitiveness of the registered homestay program. Secondly, registered homestays do have the multiplier effect and provide a steady financial overflow to the homeowners' and the other stakeholders within the local community. The findings also suggest no significant relationship between employment and homestay sustainability.

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INTRODUCTION

The Malaysian homestay program was officially launched in 1985 as a government initiative to fulfill the Government's

rural development and tourism agenda (Pusiran & Xiao, 2013). The agenda of the government for the tourism industry and rural communities was two-fold; to eradicate poverty and create job opportunities for the local rural communities. Thus, the Malaysian homestay program is a rural tourism initiative developed with a two-prong objective; firstly to generate income to the operator in the rural area; and secondly to promote Malaysia as a tourist destination (Pusiran & Xiao, 2013).

Historically, the Malaysian homestay program can be traced back as early as the 1970s at Kg. Cherating Lama in Pahang, where a local lady by the name of Mak Long took in long staying drifters/hippies and provided breakfast, dinner, and accommodation within her humble house (Amran, as cited in Pusiran & Xiao, 2013). Small rural villages are otherwise known as 'kampongs' followed suit this arrangement to gain the benefits of the influx of domestic and international tourists who were looking for a different travel experience to learn and experience culture through homestays. The first official Homestay programme began in the east coast state called Pahang in 1988 named Desa Murni Homestay which consists of five villages namely as Desa Murni Sanggang, Desa Murni Sonsang, Desa Murni Kerdau, Desa Murni Ketam and Desa Murni Perangap (Pusiran & Xiao, 2013). Today, villages that wish to venture into the homestay business needs to be officially registered with the Ministry of Tourism, Arts, and Culture [MOTAC] and adhere to a set of guidelines. The homestay guidelines stipulates that a minimum of 10 homes within either one or several

neighboring villages need to combine efforts to host groups of tourist to their homestay (MOTAC, 2015).

In a registered Malaysian homestay, tourist would experience daily living with their host's family. Apart from living with the hosts in their homes, outdoor and cultural activities are organized to allow tourists to experience the village lifestyle. The activities that are usually organized for the groups of tourist include rubber tapping, paddy planting, and harvesting, fishing using traditional methods along with experiencing cultural and culinary delights unique to each destination like cooking demonstrations, playing traditional games and participating in dances and mock wedding ceremonies.

To develop the homestays, the Malaysian Government undertook various efforts to ensure the success of the homestays. In 1995, under the National Plan for Rural Development, the government took key measures in developing the homestays in term of funding and training (Liu, 2006). The Ministry of Tourism, Arts, and Culture (MOTAC) provided funding to grow and expand the Malaysian Homestay programme with the condition that rural residents take on the responsibilities as homestay coordinators, owners, operators, and suppliers (Liu, 2006). All homestay owners have tourism and hospitality training coupled with educational awareness programs on ways to take advantage of the existing natural resources, cultural and heritage assets within the community to become a tourism product.

Preceding the APEC Tourism Charter in 2000, the Rural Tourism Master Plan

2001 was formulated and in 2006, the ninth Malaysian Plan incorporated homestay tourism product as an official mechanism to boost rural tourism (Pusiran & Xiao, 2013). Further government funding was provided totaling RM40 million from 2006 to 2010 (Pusiran & Xiao, 2013). A second stimulus package of RM10 million was also allocated to upgrade the homes and the facilities offered. The third injection was from the Ministry of Rural and Regional Development totaling RM6.7 million for infrastructure development of the rural communities (Pusiran & Xiao, 2013). This support was intended to boost this tourism component to local and international tourists.

With the extensive government support, the number of operators grew steadily from the years 2006 to 2008 and plateaus from 2009 onwards. The average growth rate of this program since 2006 as indicated in Table 1, is 12.3% over the 10 year period

from 2006 to 2015 (Ahmad et al., 2014; Che Leh, & Hamzah, 2012; Kayat, 2008; MOTAC, 2015; The Star Online, 2013).

The growth of the homestay program was also promising in terms of tourist arrivals and receipts. Table 2 displays homestays' positive growth in terms of a number of tourist arrivals and receipts from 2006 to 2015. The average contribution of total tourism receipts to the Malaysian GDP for the years 2008 to 2014 is 12.4% (Department of Statistics Malaysia, 2014). The homestay accommodation components' contribution towards the Malaysian GDP is 0.03% (Department of Statistics Malaysia, 2014) which indicates that this is a product that contributes positively to the tourism industry. The government has projected that homestays will contribute 5% of total tourism revenue by 2020 (Bhuiyan et al., 2013). With strong support from the government, homestays should be a sustainable tourism

Table 1

Number of homestay operators in Malaysia from 2006 to 2015

Year	Number of Operators	% Change
2006	1939	
2007	2533	23
2008	3034	17
2009	3283	7
2010	3005	-9.25
2011	3211	6.4
2012	3424	6.2
2013	3431	1.8
2014	3519	2.6
2015	3653	3.8
Average change		12.3

Source: Ahmad et al. (2014), Che Lah et al.(2012), Kayat (2008), MOTAC (2015), and The Star Online (2013)

Table 2

Tourist arrival and receipts to Malaysian homestays

Year	International	Domestic	Total Arrivals	Total Receipts
2006	14,458	24,507	38965	\$2,065,980
2007	21,368	51,055	75562	\$4,923,433
2008	23,117	68,416	91533	6,252,213
2009	31,523	130,038	61305	10.9m
2010	49,126	147,346	196,472	12.4 m
2011	59,657	195,324	254,999	15.7m
2012	65,835	259,423	325,258	18.55m
2013	62,847	288,107	350,954	21.5m
2014	71,034	296,439	339,360	21.7m
2015	64,599	280,538	345,137	25.2m

Source: Bhuiyan et al. (2012), Economic Planning Unit (EPU) (2013), Jamal and Othman (2011), MOTAC (2012, 2015), Performance Management and Delivery Unit (PEMANDU) (2013)

component that contributes economically to the tourism industry. The focus of this paper is to determine the significance of the relationship between three specific economic sustainability measures which are destination competitiveness, employment and multiplier effect to homestay sustainability.

Homestay and Tourism Economic Sustainability

Tourism economic sustainability is commonly measured using direct and indirect revenue and financial measures (Weaver & Lawton, 2010). Direct economic measures include tourism arrivals, tourism receipts, taxation revenue, contribution to GDP, profits, the rate of return to operators, gross operating surplus, contribution to gross value added, and contribution to net benefit. Indirect revenue measures include the ongoing circulation to income

within the destination or the multiplier effect, employment, regional development, revenue leakages and domestic sectoral linkages (Roberts & Tribe, 2008; Weaver & Lawton, 2010). In a study by Roberts and Tribe (2008) indirect economic measures identified within small tourism enterprises in Tobago included management training, access to finance, business performance, financial leakages and sectoral linkages and the quality and quantity of employment. For the purpose of this research, three specific measures or indicators have been selected to measure the economic sustainability. The reason these indicators have been selected is to determine the extent that the three identified issues surrounding the program that affect homestay sustainability. Destination competitiveness is intended to measure the issue of competition from unregistered homestays. Employment is

intended to measure the extent of local community employment and multiplier effect is to ascertain the overflow of the economic benefit of homestays to the local village.

Destination Competitiveness

The first issue is the competition between the registered and unregistered homestay operators. Registered homestays are licensed formally by MOTAC and unregistered homestay operators are homes that are self-acclaimed 'homestay' and have not been registered with MOTAC. These unregistered homestays do not offer the "live-in" with the hosts coupled with the cultural activities as offered by the registered homestays (Guttentag, 2013). In addition, the unregistered homestay operators have a strong internet presence (Guttentag, 2013). Globally, the advent of unregistered homestay began with the influence of Internet-based companies like Airbnb and Couchsurfing from the United States that allows ordinary people to offer tourism accommodation without being registered for business as a cheaper and more easily accessible alternative to the registered homestays (Guttentag, 2013). Similar issues were evident with the rise of the Online Travel Agents (OTAs) that caused the decline of traditional travel agents who lost a major portion of their market share to the OTAs (Guttentag, 2013). Thus, the strong internet presence of the unregistered homestays alongside the registered Malaysian homestays creates competition between the Malaysian

homestay and unregistered homestays. To measure the extent of this competition, destination competitiveness was used as the first indicator.

Destination competitiveness is the ability of the organization to maintain its market position and share and to improve it over time (d'Hartserre as cited in Dwyer & Kim, 2003). A competitive destination is superior in its appeal and experience offered to tourists in comparison to other destinations (Dwyer & Kim, 2003). Crouch and Ritchie (1999) state that 'what makes a tourism destination truly competitive is its ability to increase tourism expenditure, to increasingly attract visitors, while providing them with satisfying, memorable experiences, in a profitable way. Destination competitiveness also enhances the well-being of destination residents and preserve the natural capital of the destination for future generations and is related to the economic prosperity of the residents (Buhalis, 2000; Crouch & Ritchie, 1999; Dwyer & Kim, 2003).

Based on the Calgary Model, destination competitiveness can be assessed based on four elements (Crouch & Ritchie, 1999; Dwyer & Kim, 2003). These elements include natural and artificial resources (comparative advantage or core resources), tourism infrastructure (competitive advantage or supporting factors), destination management, and qualifying determinants (Crouch & Ritchie, 1999; Dwyer & Kim, 2003). Hong (as cited in Pulido-Fernandez et al., 2014) added the elements of destination policy and planning and development.

The first element that determines destination competitiveness is a comparative advantage or a destinations' climate, scenery, flora, and fauna. For example, the comparative advantage is evident in Homestay Pachitan, Negeri Sembilan which is a rubber plantation located at the sea mouth. In contrast, Homestay Gopeng, Perak which is close to Kampar River and Tempurung Cave offers the scenery of the river and cave unlike other homestays (Liquid Design Studio, 2015). The second element of destination competitiveness is the destinations' competitive advantage or infrastructure. Examples include hotels, attractions, transport, network, festivals and events, quality of management, the skill of workers, government policies and more (Dwyer & Kim, 2003). The competitive advantage or the supporting advantage of most registered homestays is the availability of the supporting facilities namely common hall or 'balai raya' and the display of the cultural heritage through cultural events and cultural games and sports, unique to each homestay village. In addition, tourist to homestays attest to the friendliness, welcoming and local community participation in the activities and events (Jamal & Othman, 2011). The third element of destination competitiveness is destination management that includes activities to enhance the appeal and quality of the comparative and competitive advantages of the destination while working within the qualifying determinants like location, overall costs, and safety (Dwyer & Kim, 2003; Enright & Newton, 2004).

These efforts are entrusted to the homestay committee and national and state level MOTAC and the state level Homestay Associations.

The quality of management also determines destination competitiveness. The quality of management refers to leadership style of the homestay coordinator or committee assigned to take leadership (Dwyer & Kim, 2003). The leadership skills of the homestay coordinators, homestay owners, and the training and support provided by MOTAC on ways to upkeep a home and serve customers in a hospitable manner all contribute to destination competitiveness.

Profitability is also an element that determines destination competitiveness. Profitability can be assessed from tourist arrival and receipts at the macro scale. At the micro scale, an illustration of profitability at one homestay named Homestay Pelegong, Negeri Sembilan is depicted in Table 3 and Table 4. The profit for the association or the homestay committee treasury account was RM300. The profit was for 20 guests for one night and two days stay at the price of RM110 per person. The profits obtained equated to 14% of the total earnings (RM300/ RM2200). From the individual homestay owner perspective, reported profits of RM17 based on the price of RM40 and costs of RM 23 (Kayat, 2010). Each operator will typically have 1 to 3 guests per visit resulting in profits of RM17 to RM 51 per visit (Kayat, 2010).

The competitiveness of the Malaysian homestay is determined using comparative advantage, competitive advantage, and

profitability as measures. Past literature had established that destination competitiveness had a significant impact on economic growth in less competitive destinations (Webster & Ivanov, 2013). Cucculelli and Goffi (2016) had revealed a significant relationship between economic sustainability and small destination competitiveness. Dwyer and Kim (2003) also reported the relationship between destination competitiveness

and economic prosperity. Past findings indicated the significance in the relationship between destination competitiveness and the economic dimension. The significance in the relationship between destination competitiveness and homestay sustainability increased the likelihood of Malaysian homestays being a sustainable tourism component.

Table 3

Costs and profits to the association (20 Visitors)

Receipt from 20 pax guests (RM110 per pax, one night and two days stay)	RM2,200
Less: Payment to operators = RM40 x 20 pax x 1	RM800
Less: Welcome drink	RM50
Less: Morning tea	RM50
Less: Transportation	RM30
Less: Cultural show	RM650
Less: Village tour	RM100
Less: Management	RM220
Profit to the Association	RM300

Note: Adapted from Kayat (2010)

Table 4

Costs and profits to the individual operator (1 visitor)

Receipt from a guest	RM40
Less: Costs of meals, electric & water	RM23
Profit to individual operator	RM17

Note: Adapted from Kayat (2010)

Local Community Employment

The second issue is the employment opportunities for the local community and reduction in the unemployment rate in the rural communities. Employment as an indirect economic indicator is defined as job creation as well as equal employment for the local people and the poor (Wanhill, 2000).

Employment was measured by the number of jobs created to reduce the unemployment rate. Small businesses had the potential to reduce unemployment within nations (Wanhill, 2000). Homestays are small tourism business that has been initiated by the government to employ rural communities solely dependent on agriculture or farm-

based industry. Indirect employment was also evident as homestay owners hired locals to assist in the caretaking of the homestay, cooking and cleaning, transporting guests and acting as tour guides (Kannegieser, 2015; Kayat, 2010). Tourists would also create employment opportunities for small-scale local handicraft, food and traditional medication producers as the tourist would seek to purchase local souvenir items (Kayat, 2010). Past literature by Bhuiyan et al. (2012) indicated that Malaysian homestays were mostly managed and operated by the homestay owner and family members. Five out of the ten homestays surveyed in the research conducted had 1 to 2 employees. In contrast to this finding is the success of the Miso Walai Homestay, Sabah that created 206 tourism-related jobs and 34 homestays operator jobs for the local community in 2012 (Mohamad & Hamzah, 2013). With higher employment opportunities, the positive impact of local community employment is maximized.

Multiplier Effect

The third issue is the extent of the overflow or tourism multiplier effect of the program in providing economic benefits to the village. Homestay multiplier was defined as the amount of money leaving or entering the tourism destination as each sector within a destination was assumed interdependent (Weaver & Lawton, 2010). Small tourism businesses have higher income multiplier effect in contrast to larger businesses (Incera & Fernandez, 2015; Liu & Var, 1982; Roberts & Tribe, 2005). Thus, tourist

spending will directly resulted in positive economic impacts (Roberts & Tribe, 2005). The multiplier effect of homestays was the amount of tourist dollar spent to consume the products at homestays and the monies retained within the homestays rather than leaving the homestays. The entire community within the village was able to benefit by either becoming a host or a tourism supplier. The first round of indirect impact was when the payment was made by the tourist, items were purchased by the operator, and wages were paid to employees. The second round of impact was when the operators purchased supplies for their use (Weaver & Lawton, 2010).

A case study on Kampung Pelegong Homestay program by Kayat (2010) resulted in low leakage or high multiplier effect as the income generated from tourists was paid to helpers within the community. In a recent study by Shahudin et al. (2017) the findings revealed the homestay multiplier effect of homestays within the state of Selangor in Malaysia was 1.57 for Type 1 Output Multiplier and 2.19 for Type 2 Output Multiplier. Studies on multiplier effect for rural economies indicated a multiplier range value between 1.12 to 1.35 and 2.00 to 3.40 for medium to large industrialized destinations (Weaver & Lawton, 2010). These results indicated the change in the output due to the increase in tourist expenditure and the expenditure circulates within the homestay with little leakage outside (Cooper et al., 2008; Shahudin et al., 2017).

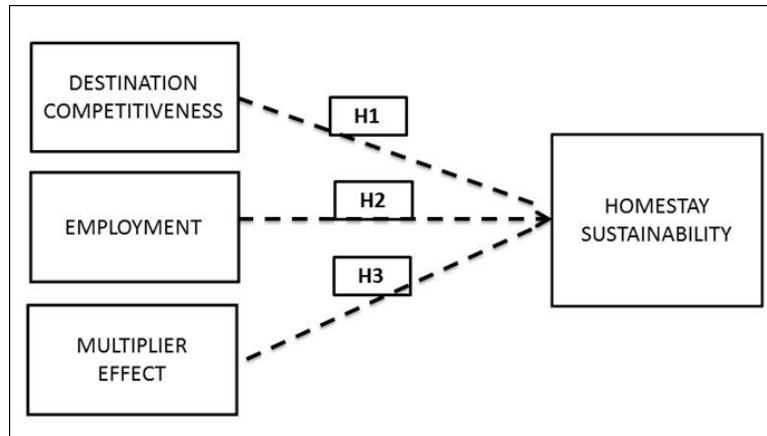


Figure 1. Conceptual framework

The three issues; competition from unregistered homestays, employment, and the multiplier effect form the independent variable for this study. The dependent variable used in this research is homestay sustainability. The definition of homestay sustainability was derived from the theory of development and concepts of sustainable tourism. The theory of development focused on human improvement processes that reduced the gaps between the rich and the poor globally. The concept of sustainable tourism was the application of the theory of development to the tourism industry. This concept held a holistic view considering four dimensions; economic, institutional, environmental, and sociocultural (EIES) dimensions in minimizing negative EIES impacts and maximizing positive EIES impacts for the future generation (Butler, 1999; Weaver, 2006; World Commission on Economic Development [WCED], 1987). However, for the purpose of this research, homestay sustainability was defined as the application of sustainable

tourism to the homestay sub-component to minimize the negative economic impact and maximize the positive economic impact of homestay activities to meet the tourism development needs of the present tourism stakeholders without compromising the ability of future generations of tourism stakeholders' to meet their own needs. Based on the literature reviewed (Hall, 2011; Holladay & Powell, 2013; United Nations Environmental Programme and the World Tourism Organization [UNEP & WTO], 2005; Weaver & Lawton, 2010), suitable indicators used to measure homestay sustainability includes socio-economic development, leadership competence, environmental and local culture and heritage conservation and level of stakeholder participation. Figure 1 is a diagram of the conceptual framework for this study.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

This research employed a quantitative method driven by the desire to test the correlation between the predictor and

outcome variables to result in numeric data for statistical testing. Data was collected from 354 homestay owners from the states of Negeri Sembilan, Perak, Johor, and Kedah. Within the 13 states in Malaysia, using probability cluster sampling method, the seven (7) states of Johor, Negeri Sembilan, Perak, Kedah, Pahang, Terengganu, and Sarawak were the intended homestay clusters to be researched. Each cluster was labeled zero or one and the states labeled zero were the states selected for the researcher to visit. There were distance, costs, and time limitations in data collection from the states of Pahang, Terengganu, and Sarawak.

Data was collected using a survey questionnaire. The survey questionnaire was adapted and adopted from the UNWTO Sustainable Tourism for Development Guidebook (UNWTO, 2013) and numerous past literatures. Pre-testing of the survey questionnaire was conducted on 30 participants and based on the results pre-test results, the survey was further refined. To access the reliability and internal consistency of the survey questionnaire, the resulting data of the pre-test was subject to internal consistency measures using the Cronbach Alpha tool in SPSS. The pre-test Cronbach Alpha was found to be between 0.628 and 0.896. Klein (1998) stated that a value above 0.7 was reliable. Sekaran (2003) stated that a Cronbach's Alpha close to one, indicated higher internal consistency reliability. The Cronbach Alpha was re-analyzed for each variable. After the questionnaire had been amended. The post-test questionnaire

showed reliable Cronbach Alpha results above 0.8 for most items.

The refined survey questionnaires were administered and posted in advance to the homestay coordinators for the homestay owners to self-administer. The researcher then visited the homestays within a 2-week period for data collection, a semi-formal interview, and observation of the homestays. The statements in the questionnaire were answered using a 5-point Likert scale. A 5-point Likert-scale rating was chosen over a 4,6,7,8, or 11-point Likert scale because a 5-point Likert scale was commonly used, resulting in a better variance, lower response bias, statistical power, Type I and Type II error rates and estimation of significance or effect sizes in multivariate testing in comparison to the four-point Likert scale (Eutsler & Lang, 2015). Although a 7 or 11-point Likert scale is ideal for behavioral research (Eutsler & Lang, 2015; Leung, 2011) the majority of respondents with secondary school education is likely to respond more accurately to a simple 5-point Likert scale rather than a 7-point Likert scale.

Using cluster sampling, the questionnaire was administered to the homestay owners. The population size is 3653 homestay owners. The required minimum sample size totals 119 homestay owners determined through the use of G*power analysis tool (Hair et al., 2014). Power analysis is the assessment of the effect size for each regressing analysis using power tables created by Cohen (1988) or Green (as cited in Goodhue et al., 2012). To derive

the minimum sample size, the alpha was set at 0.05, power at 0.95 and the number of predictors that affected the dependent variable was three independent variables. The result yielded a minimum sample size of 119 samples intended for this research (Hair et al., 2014).

In addition, for structural equation modeling analysis, there are several rules of thumbs. The commonly used method is the "ten times rule" or "five times rule" which states that the sample size should be ten times or five times the number of incoming paths to the construct with most incoming paths (Chin & Newsted as cited in Goodhue et al., 2012). For this study, the sample size based on the "ten times rule" was 30 sample respondents and for the "five times rule" was 15 respondents. These rules were accepted in the field of information systems and social science if there was high reliability of measurement items and strong effect size (Goodhue et al., 2012). Therefore, a minimum sample size of 119 homestay owners was adequate for a population size of 3653. The total respondents for this study were 254 which were above the minimum sample size.

The data collected was then analyzed using a four-step data analysis method. This process includes: (1) getting the data ready for analysis, (2) getting a feel for the data, (3) testing the goodness of data, and (4) testing the hypothesis. The process of getting the data ready for analysis includes the process of data coding, entry, and editing, the process of data screening. Data were coded and entered using SPSS. Coding

of data was done after the pre-testing to ease the data entry process. Coding of the questions or variables was conducted using alphanumeric values. The answers were coded based on the values on the five-point Likert scale. After entering the data into SPSS, data editing was performed to detect errors in the data entry process. Acceptable level of missing data according to Cohen and Cohen (1983) was 10% that was likely to be problematic in data interpretation from the studies. Hair et al. (2014) differed in stating that if the missing data exceeded 15%, observations were removed from the data file. Hair et al. (2010) recommended the use the hot deck case substitution, regression methods for missing completely at random (MCAR) data and model-based method for missing at random (MAR) missing data when the missing data was between 10% to 20%. The missing data values in this study ranged from 0.4% to 13.8% and were rectified using the Expectation Maximization (EM) method using SPSS. The EM method can accommodate both non-random and random missing data processes and data with a high percentage of missing data. In addition, it is also the best representation of the original distribution of values with the least amount of bias that ensures generalizability (Hair et al., 2010). The rectification was easily achieved with the EM method.

The second stage in the data analysis process is to get a feel of the data. This study conducts the descriptive assessment of the main variables for a basic understanding of the data, involving the mean and standard

deviation of each variable using SPSS. The results of the assessment were based on the average mean values. Average meant values of zero to one indicated strong disagreement with the statements, 1 to 2.999 indicated disagreement with the statements. Average meant of 3 to 5 indicated agreement to the statements in response to measuring homestay sustainability.

In the descriptive assessment in Table 5, the first indicator measured was destination competitiveness. From the perspective of the homestay owners, they were confident that the homestays were a competitive destination with the highest mean score of 4.299. Homestay owners agreed that registered homestays were preferred over unregistered homestays. The second highest mean of 4.220 was the homestay owners' response to homestays offering a unique product for the tourists. Homestay owners agreed that the infrastructure was sufficient and the profits of the program were attractive

with a mean of 3.976 and 3.642. Thus, from the perspective of all of the 254-homestay owners, most respondents agreed that homestays were a competitive destination.

The second indicator for the economic dimension was employment. Homestay owners agreed that the employment opportunity had increased and every age group in the community had benefits with job employments with a mean of 4.028. Homestay owners agreed that employment opportunity in the village had increased because of the homestay program with a mean of 3.813. However, most homestay owners disagreed with the fact that the jobs created were primarily for women with an average of 2.614. The standard deviation for this response was higher than all other responses.

The third indicator measuring the economic dimension is the multiplier effect. Homestay owners agreed that the money collected from tourists was paid to

Table 5

Descriptive assessment destination competitiveness, employment, multiplier effect and homestay sustainability from the homestay owners' perspective of homestay sustainability

Indicator	Item	Stakeholder	Homestay Owners		
			N	Mean	Std. Dev.
Destination Competitiveness	ED1	Homestay programs offers natural or man-made attractions that is unique	254	4.220	0.469
	ED2	Homestay programs have infrastructure to support its main tourist attractions	254	3.976	0.694
	ED3	Homestay programs gets attractive profits	254	3.642	0.872
	ED4	Registered homestay is preferred over unregistered homestay	254	4.299	0.545

Table 5 (Continued)

Indicator	Item	Stakeholder	Homestay Owners		
			Descriptive Statistics	N	Mean
Employment	ED5	Employment opportunity in the village increases because of the homestay program	254	3.813	0.833
	ED6	Every age group is employed within the homestay program	254	4.028	0.644
	ED7	The jobs created are primarily for the women in the village	254	2.614	1.010
Multiplier effect	ED8	The revenue generated from the homestay program benefits the community	254	4.000	0.576
	ED9	The money collected from tourist is paid to the homestay owners	254	4.189	0.730
	ED10	The supplies purchased for the homestay program is from local village vendors	254	3.874	0.677
	HS1	The homestay program has improved the social and economic status of all involved	254	3.964	0.612
Homestay Sustainability	HS2	The homestay owner, government, tourist and local community has positively benefited from the program	254	4.142	0.506
	HS3	The homestay program was managed properly	254	4.188	0.520
	HS4	Leaders motivate their subordinates to think beyond their self-interest	254	4.032	0.622
	HS5	Homestay preserves the environment from pollution and degradation	254	4.163	0.520
	HS6	Homestay preserves the local culture and heritage for the future generation	254	4.335	0.521
	HS7	Stakeholders feel empowered in decision making and policy implementation of homestays	254	3.941	0.629
	HS8	Stakeholder are actively participating in decision making and policy implementation of homestays	254	3.984	0.518
	HS9	The homestay program will continue for the next generation	254	4.291	0.481

the homestay owners and revenue from the homestay program benefited the community with mean averages of 4.189 and 4.000. The leakage to the community resulted in an average of 3.874, in which homestay owners agreed that the supplies purchased for the homestay program were from local village vendors. Thus, the monies generated were spent within the community suppliers confirming the multiplier effect of the homestay program.

The dependent variable; homestay sustainability had resulted in homestay owners in agreement to all of the statements related to homestay sustainability. The highest mean average of 4.335 was in response to whether homestays preserved the local culture and heritage for the future generation. All homestay owners agreed with this statement. The statement with the second highest mean average was 4.291, in which most homestay owners agreed that the homestay program would continued for the next generation. The third highest mean was on the on the issue of leadership competence and if homestays were managed properly resulting in a mean of 4.188 as most homestay owners believed that homestays were managed correctly. The lowest mean was the statement on whether stakeholders feel empowered in decision-making and policy implementation with a mean average of 3.941, where homestay owners agreed to this statement. Thus, this indicated that from the perspective of the homestay owners, there was a significant relationship with homestay sustainability.

In summary, the homestay owners agreed that the registered Malaysian homestays were a competitiveness destination, homestays create job opportunity for every age group, and there was the multiplier effect of the revenue generated that benefited the community and the homestays owners. Therefore, about the research objective and research question, the assessment from the perspective of homestay owners using mean values indicated significance between the destination competitiveness, employment and the multiplier effect and homestay sustainability.

The next stage of data analysis was to use SEM-PLS test and confirmed the hypothesis. PLS-SEM is a suitable tool for data analysis because it is flexible with no stringent rules in terms of the requirement for multivariate normality of data, sample size, reflective constructs, and strong theoretical knowledge about the model tested (Hair et al., 2014). The hypothesis was developed based on the problems identified and research question. Structural Equation Modeling(SEM) was employed to examine the significance of the following hypothesis :-

H1: There is significant positive relationship between destination competitiveness and homestay sustainability

H2: There is a significant positive relationship between employment and homestay sustainability

H3: There is a significant positive relationship between multiplier effect and homestay sustainability.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Prior to testing the hypothesis, the goodness the measures assessed by confirming construct validity and reliability (Ramayah, 2015). Construct validity determines if the survey used fits the theories applied in the creation of the survey instrument (Sekaran, 2003). Table 6 and 7 are both intended to determine construct validity and reliability. Firstly, to determine construct validity, the

loadings need to be assessed to determine if items were significant. Hair et al. (2014) stated that items with a loading that was higher than 0.4 on two or more factors had significant loading and construct validity. The results in Table 6 below, items ED7 and ED10 were below the cutoff value of 0.4, indicated that these construct were insignificant.

Table 6

Results of measurement model from the homestay owner perspective before removal of items with low outer loading

Construct	Measurement Item	Loading	CR	AVE
Destination Competitiveness	ED1	0.831	0.731	0.417
	ED2	0.540		
	ED3	0.457		
	ED4	0.691		
Employment	ED5	0.536	0.587	0.386
	ED6	0.784		
	ED7	0.106		
Multiplier Effect	ED8	0.784	0.639	0.410
	ED9	0.746		
	ED10	0.240		
Homestay Sustainability	HS1	0.535	0.863	0.415
	HS2	0.662		
	HS3	0.605		
	HS4	0.673		
	HS5	0.716		
	HS6	0.741		
	HS7	0.589		
	HS8	0.562		
	HS9	0.681		

Construct validity was further assessed through the results of the convergent and discriminant validity. Table 6 and Table 7 reflects the convergent validity results by item loading, composite reliability (CR) and average variance extracted (AVE) before and after the removal of items with a low outer loading value.

The convergent validity as displayed or the extent a measure correlates positively with alternative measures of the same construct was depicted in the factor loading in Table 6 and 7. In addition to the factor loading that was assessed in Table 6, the AVE value measured the variance captured by the indicator relative to the measurement error (Hair et al., 2014). The recommended value for the AVE should be greater than 0.5 to justify using a construct. The AVE value reported in Table 6 is below 0.5 for all the constructs, thus the constructs with low loading were eliminated one by one

to increase the AVE value. In Table 7, the result of eliminating the constructs with low loading had enabled the remaining constructs to reach the cutoff value of 0.5. When the AVE value is above 0.5, the remaining construct explains more than half of the variance of the indicator and on average less errors remain in the items than the variance explained by the construct (Hair et al., 2014). Thus, the factor loading and AVE results in Table 7 indicated that the assessment of convergent validity for the remaining constructs as statistically significant.

Discriminant validity was the extent to which a construct was truly unique from other constructs by empirical standards. To assess discriminant validity, the Fornell-Larcker criterion results was used to determine discriminant validity. The results from SEM-PLS indicated that the square root of each indicator was loaded more strongly on

Table 7

Results of measurement model from the homestay owner perspective after removal of items with low outer loading

Construct	Measurement Item(s)	Loading	CR	AVE	Discriminant Validity
Destination competitiveness	ED1	0.796	0.773	0.533	Yes
Employment	ED6	0.718	1.000	1.000	Yes
Multiplier effect	ED8	0.671	1.000	1.000	Yes
Homestay sustainability	HS2	0.656	0.864	0.516	Yes
	HS3	0.671			
	HS4	0.732			
	HS5	0.798			
	HS6	0.768			
	HS9	0.680			

its own construct than the correlation with the other constructs as displayed in Table 8. This result indicated discriminant validity was established. Thus, the constructs used were valid and statistically significant.

Reliability or the consistency of the instrument used in the event the instrument is re-used to a homogeneous group of respondents (Hair et al., 2014). The results of composite reliability (CR) in Table 9 indicate a threshold value of 0.6 which is above the acceptable level of reliability. The table also listed the measurement items used after removal of items with low outer loading values in which three of the constructs are single item measures. The

overall assessment of validity and reliability of each construct had resulted in each construct demonstrating significant validity and reliability. The next stage of assessment was the assessment of the structural model. Figure 2 represents the assessment of the structural model from the homeowner's perspective.

The first step in assessing the structural model was to access collinearity as reflected in Table 10. The results of the VIF for the structural model were below 5.00 indicated no issues of multi-collinearity or misleading results for the structural model (Hair et al., 2014).

Table 8

Discriminant validity of first-order constructs from the homestay owner perspective

	DC	EM	HS	ME
DC	1			
EM	0.373	1		
HS	0.417	0.198	0.718	
ME	0.205	0.352	0.311	1

Note: Values on the diagonal (bolded) represents the square root of the AVE while the off-diagonals are correlations

Table 9

Results of reliability test

Construct	Measurement Item(s)	CR*	Loading	Number of items
Destination competitiveness	ED1	0.773	0.796	1 (4)
Employment	ED6	1.000	0.718	1 (3)
Multiplier effect	ED8	1.000	0.671	1 (3)
Homestay sustainability	HS2, HS3 HS4, HS5 HS6, HS9	0.864	0.656	6 (9)

Note: Final item numbers (initial numbers)

Table 10

Collinearity assessment

Construct	VIF
ED1	1.000
ED6	1.000
ED8	1.000
HS2	1.370
HS3	1.512
HS4	1.900
HS5	2.242
HS6	1.655
HS9	1.423

The second step was to access the structural model path coefficient. Figure 2 of the PLS-SEM structural model results for homestay owner group's results in a R^2 value of 0.227 which indicates that 22.7% of the variance in homestay sustainability is explained by the three constructs of destination competitiveness, employment, and multiplier effect. Destination

competitiveness has the strongest relationship with homestay sustainability followed by multiplier effect. A closer look suggests that from the homestay owner's perspective, as reflected in Table 11 that presents the path coefficient (β) and significance for the structural model of the 254-homestay owners. Thus H1 and H3 was supported but H2 was not.

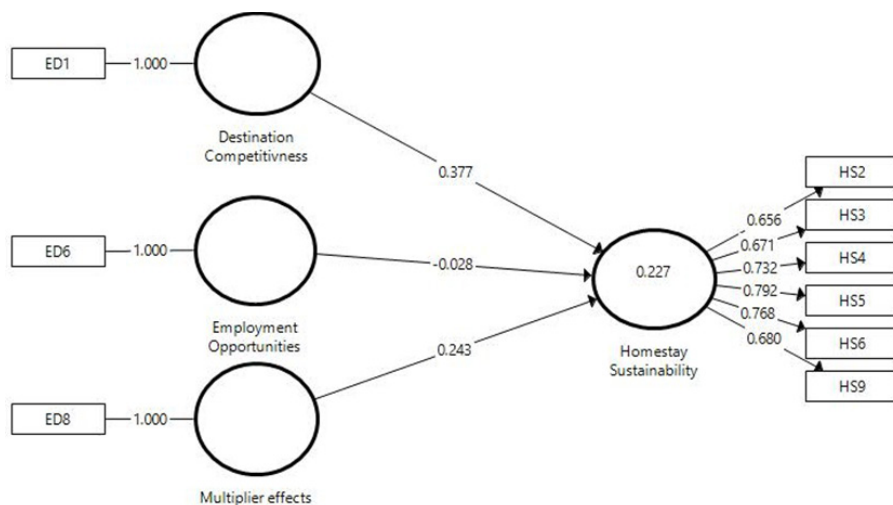


Figure 2. Structural model path coefficient of homestay owners

Table 11

Path coefficients and hypothesis testing for homestay owner

Hypothesis	Relationship	Beta (β)	Standard error	t-value	Decision	R ²
H1	DC→HS	0.381	0.062	6.085	Yes	0.227
H2	EM→ HS	-0.024	0.073	0.387	No	
H3	ME→ HS	0.242	0.057	4.241	Yes	

Note: Test of significance at :-

*** $p < 0.01$, t-value is greater than 2.33** $p < 0.05$, t-value is greater than 1.645* $p < 0.1$, t-value is greater than 1.28

The PLS results in Table 11 displays that from the perspective of homestay owners, there a significant positive relationship between destination competitiveness ($\beta = 0.381$, $p < 0.01$) and multiplier effects ($\beta = 0.242$, $p < 0.01$) and homestay sustainability. Overall, H1 and H3 of the study was supported from the perspectives of the homestay owners indicating the higher the values from destination competitiveness and multiplier effect, the higher the degree of homestay sustainability. However, H2 was not supported from the perspective of the homestay owner ($\beta = -0.024$, $p > 0.01$), indicating an insignificant or negative relationship between employment and homestay sustainability.

Past research by Bhuiyan et al. (2013), Pulido-Fernandez et al. (2014), and Roberts and Tribe (2008), that had established a relationship between the economic dimension and tourism sustainability. Research findings by Webster and Ivanov (2013) suggested destination competitiveness had no statistically significant impact on the economic growth in competitive destinations but had significance

in less competitive destinations. This finding was further supported by Cucculelli and Goffi (2016) that there was a relationship between economic sustainability and small destinations' competitiveness. Dwyer and Kim (2003) also suggested destination competitiveness results in economic prosperity. Thus, the descriptive analysis and hypothesis findings of this study from the perspective of the homestay owner view are consistent with the literature in that the economic indicator destination competitiveness significantly relates to homestay sustainability as homestay are less competitive and are small destinations in comparison to other larger tourism components in Malaysia.

Past literature by Bhuiyan et al. (2012, 2013); Che Leh and Hamzah (2012); Kumar et al. (2012), and Mohamad and Hamzah (2013) confirmed that employment opportunities had increased with homestays. However, the hypothesis findings of this study suggest that employment is not significantly related to homestay sustainability. The descriptive analysis and hypothesis findings of this study provide more insight than

past literature because the insignificant relationship was due to the number of people employed in most homestay programs were small and insignificant. Most homestays programs comprised mainly of the village committee and homestay owners. Past literature by Bhuiyan et al. (2012) indicated that Malaysian homestays were mostly managed and operated by the homestay owner and family members and five out of the ten homestays surveyed in the research conducted had 1 to 2 employees. Thus, in 2016, the recorded numbers of homestays were 3800 and the number of jobs created would range between 3800 to 7600 jobs for the entire homestay program in Malaysia (MOTAC, 2016). The total number of job created by the tourism industry in 2016 was 3.2 million jobs (Department of Statistics Malaysia, 2017). Thus, the homestay program in Malaysia contributes to 0.2% of employment to the tourism industry which was an insignificant value.

Finally, the descriptive analysis and the third hypothesis about significance in the relationship between multiplier effect and homestay sustainability, the findings of this study concurred with past findings by Kayat (2010) and Shahudin et al. (2017). The multiplier effect had a significant relationship with homestay sustainability. These results translated to low leakage outside the local village and increased opportunities for ancillary business to support the homestay program. Thus, revenue and profit generated from the program were retained within the village as revenue generated was used to pay local

suppliers and the cultural showed and tour organizers (Kayat, 2008).

CONCLUSION

This study concludes the significance in relationship between two of the three indicators tested against homestay sustainability which includes destination competitiveness and multiplier effect. The significance in relationship between destination competitiveness and homestay sustainability indicates that homestays are a viable and beneficial to homeowners in spite of the current competition from the unregistered homestays. Secondly, the significance in relationship between multiplier effect and homestay sustainability indicates there is minimal financial leakage outside of the local village or positive multiplier effect to the local community. There is no significance in relationship between employment and homestay sustainability because the employment opportunities provided by the homestay program is insignificant compared to other tourism components namely retail and food and beverage that creates most of employment within the tourism industry.

This finding is important to the stakeholders who are directly impacted economically which includes the homestay owner, government and local residents for the future development of Malaysian homestays. For the homestay owner, registered homestays should intensify their competitiveness. In the process of intensifying competitiveness, the homestay committee and the homestay owners in

collaboration with the state level Homestay unit would need to identify the unique comparative advantages of homestays. Comparative advantages that appeal to tourists, motivates tourists to return to the Malaysian homestay (Dwyer & Kim, 2003) which is the friendliness, welcoming and local community participation in the activities and events (Jamal & Othman, 2011). If the homestay program in Malaysia can manage this comparative advantage of the homestay component, more tourists would be attracted to Malaysian homestays. In addition, federal and state level marketers of the homestay product should focus their promotional efforts on the sociocultural aspects of friendliness, welcoming and local community participation. In addition, the multiplier effect is proven and all stakeholders' have benefited economically from the homestay program as the monies generated is circulated within the community as opposed to outside the community.

Thus, the homestay owners' efforts are not in vain and have a positive outlook with potential to increase the total tourism arrivals, receipts and the average contribution to the GDP. Further area of research includes using testing the relationship between other economic indicators like regional development, revenue leakages, and domestic sectoral linkages with homestay sustainability.

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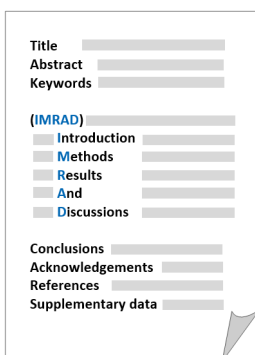
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Newspapers

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Newspaper article – without an author	... ("Internet pioneer", 2007) ...	Internet pioneer to oversee network redesign. (2007, May 28). <i>The Canberra Times</i> , p. 15.
Article in an newsletter	... ("Australians and the Western Front", 2009) ...	Australians and the Western Front. (2009, November). <i>Ozculture newsletter</i> . Retrieved from http://www.cultureandrecreation.gov.au/newsletter/

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Conference / Seminar Papers	Insertion in Text	In Reference List
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Online	... (Tester, 2008) ... Or Tester (2008) ...	Tester, J. W. (2008). The future of geothermal energy as a major global energy supplier. In H. Gurgenci & A. R. Budd (Eds.), <i>Proceedings of the Sir Mark Oliphant International Frontiers of Science and Technology Australian Geothermal Energy Conference</i> , Canberra, Australia: Geoscience Australia. Retrieved from http://www.ga.gov.au/image_cache/GA11825.pdf

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