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Contents

Engaging with Graduate Attributes through Encouraging Accurate Student Self-Assessment <i>Lawson, R. J., Taylor, T. L., Thompson, D. G., Simpson, L., Freeman, M., Treleaven, L. & Rohde, F.</i>	3
A Historical Survey of Ethnic Conflict in Nigeria <i>Ray Ikechukwu Jacob</i>	13
Does Diversification Affect Capital Structure and Profitability in Pakistan? <i>Muhammad Azeem Qureshi, Waqas Akhtar & Muhammad Imdadullah</i>	30
The Meaning, Strategies and Application of the Value Creation as a Profit Model <i>Fanbin Zeng</i>	43
The Relationship between Sources of Moral Authority, Political Attitude and Authoritarianism <i>Ali Teymoori, Wan Shahrazad W. S. & Arash Heydari</i>	50
Poverty Alleviation through Corporate Social Responsibility in Niger Delta, Nigeria <i>Bede Obinna Amadi & Haslinda Abdullah</i>	57
Culturally Inclusive Practice: A Case Study of an International Student Support Initiative at an Australian University <i>Jianli Wang</i>	68
Perception and Attitudes toward Terrorism in a Muslim Majority Country <i>Kamarulnizam Abdullah, Rizal Sukma, Ma'ruf Jamhari & Mazilan Musa</i>	77
Overview of Multiple Calculating Methods for Land Expropriation Compensation Standard --- A Case of Arable Land in Nanyang, Henan Province, China <i>Xiaoshan Hu & Ruiping Ran</i>	90
The Preposition (<i>fi</i>) in the Horizontal and Vertical Axes as Used in the Taizzi Dialect: A Cognitive Approach <i>Turki Mahyoub Qaid Mohammed, Imran Ho-Abdullah & Tan Kim Hua</i>	99
Re-building the Concept of Nation Building in Malaysia <i>Suhana Saad</i>	115
The Relationship between Organizational Structure and Organizational Justice <i>Amir Babak Marjani & Fateme Tohid Ardahaey</i>	124
Impact of SMEs on Employment in Textile Industry of Pakistan <i>Anwar Ali Shah G. Syed, Naimat Shah, Khalid Hussain Shaikh, Muhammad Munir Ahmadani & Faiz. M. Shaikh</i>	131
Malaysian Graduates English Adequacy in the Job Sector <i>Gopala Krishnan Sekharan Nair, Rozlan Abdul Rahim, Roszainora Setia, Norhayati Husin, Elangkeeran Sabapathy, Nur Amalia Abd Jalil, Razifa Mohd Razlan, Razita Mohamad, Shahidatul Maslina Mat So'od, Nurul Izatee Md Yusoff, Nor Madiah Mohamed & Norhafiza Abu Seman</i>	143
Is There a Place for Cyberethics? A Conceptual Look at the Effects of Cybertechnology on Ethics and Communications in Cyberspace <i>Seyed Mahmood Farjami</i>	148
Ideas in Science Fiction: Probing Contemporary Contexts through Science Fiction Texts <i>Shahizah Ismail Hamdan, Ravichandran Vengadasamy, Noraini Md Yusof & Ruzy Suliza Hashim</i>	153
The Impact of Culture on Performance Appraisal Reforms in Africa: The Case of Uganda's Civil Service <i>Gerald Kagambirwe Karyeija</i>	159

Contents

The Practice of Sustainable Tourism in Ecotourism Sites among Ecotourism Providers <i>Norajlin Jaini, Ahmad Nazrin Aris Anuar & Mohd Salleh Daim</i>	175
Rapid Urbanization as a Source of Social and Ecological Decay: A Case of Multan City, Pakistan <i>Ghulam Yasin, Sumaira Sattar & Farhan Ahmad Faiz</i>	180
Fiscal Policy, Labour Productivity Growth and Convergence between Agriculture and Manufacturing: Implications for Poverty Reduction in Cameroon <i>Tabi Atemnkeng Johannes & Aloysius Mom Njong</i>	190
A Framework of Business Process Re-engineering Factors and Organizational Performance of Nigerian Banks <i>Kabiru Jinjiri Ringim, Mohd Rizal Razalli & Norlena Hasnan</i>	203
Marital Happiness of Married Couples in the U.A.E Society: A Sample from Sharjah <i>Husein Mohammad Al-Othman</i>	217
Establishment of Harmonious Ecological Culture in University Campus <i>Yanhua Liu</i>	225
Effect of Behavioural Family Therapy on Juvenile Delinquents' Relationship in Ahvaz Correction Centre (Iran) and Role of Age on the Process <i>Azar Rafiee, Mahmood Baratvand, Eghbal Zarei, Abdolrahim Asadollahi & Jahangir Kalantar</i>	230
Analysis of the Real Situation of Teaching Reading Comprehension to First Year Students at the Department of English Language and Literature at Al-Zaytoonah Private University of Jordan <i>Basel Al-Sheikh Hussein</i>	237
To Learn Democracy in Competitive Democratic Election and Learn to Safeguard Democratic Rights of the Party Members --- Review and Reflection on the First County-level Competitive Direct Election Experiment among Party Representatives of the Communist Party of China (CPC) <i>Zhimin Lei</i>	252
A Comparative Study of Organizational Climate and Job Satisfaction in Public, Private and Foreign Banks <i>Niaz Ahmed Bhutto, Minhoon Khan Laghari & Falah-ud-Din Butt</i>	259
Problems in Remote Accounting Processing of Construction Enterprises and Their Solutions <i>Xuanjie Liu, Zhigang Cheng & Fengyu Liu</i>	268
Examining the Effect of Amanah Ikhtiar Malaysia's Microcredit Program on Microenterprise Assets in Rural Malaysia <i>Abdullah- Al- Mamun, Joseph Adaikalam & Mohammad Nurul Huda Mazumder</i>	272
Brief Analysis of Establishment of Effective English Classroom Teaching Model <i>Dingmin Wu</i>	281
Politics of Power Acquisition and Decision-Making Implementations by Manipulation: The Paradigm of Nigeria Leadership <i>Ray Ikechukwu Jacob</i>	285
Manipulation in Poetry Translation <i>Mei Zhang</i>	297

Engaging with Graduate Attributes through Encouraging Accurate Student Self-Assessment

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Abstract

Self-assessment can be conceptualised as the involvement of students in identifying assessment criteria and standards that they can apply to their work in order to make judgements about whether they have met these criteria (Boud, 1995). It is a process that promotes student learning rather than just grade allocation. However, self-assessment does not have obvious face validity for students; and many students find that making an objective assessment of their work difficult (Lindblom-ylanne, Pihlajamak & Kotkas, 2006). Previous business education research has also found that self-assessment does not closely reflect either peer or instructor assessments (Campbell, et al., 2001).

The current study aimed to explore: (a) the relationship between self-assessment grading and teacher assessment; and (b) the effect of self-assessment in engaging students with graduate attributes, in order to explore the tenets of self-assessment. This process of self-assessment was investigated through application of an online assessment system, ReView, to encourage more effective self-assessment in business education. Data collected from two groups (student and teacher) demonstrated that: (1) initial self-assessment results between the teaching academics and the students' self-assessment, were significantly different with students overestimating their ability on every criterion; (2) however, the variation diminished with time to the point that there was no significant difference between the two assessments; and (3) students' awareness of the graduate attributes for their degree program increased from the beginning to the end of the subject (Note 1).

Keywords: Self-assessment, Graduate attributes

1. Introduction

This study (Note 2) focused on developing an approach to engage academics and students with graduate attributes in the business curriculum using self-assessment to assist with the process. It has long been acknowledged that assessment is a key driver in student learning (Ramsden, 2003). Assessment defines what students regard as important, how they spend their time, and how they come to see themselves as students (Brown, Bull & Pendlebury, 1997). Therefore, one way to change student learning is through methods of assessment designed to facilitate these changes (Lawson & Fazey, 2000) and explicitly articulated to students so that their perceptions of the assessments are accurate (Biggs, 2003). In all forms of assessment there are two key stages: firstly, an appreciation of the criteria and standards required for succeeding in an assessment task, and secondly, the ability to make a judgement about whether work meets these criteria and standards. This ability to make accurate judgements can be demonstrated through self-assessment, which can be described as, "the involvement of students in identifying standards and/or criteria to apply to their work and making judgements about the extent to which they have met these criteria and standards" (Boud, 1991, p.5).

One of the core purposes of education is to develop students' capacity in to make judgements about their own work. Such self evaluation is needed both to enable effective study, so that students can focus on the most important aspects of their work they need to improve, and secondly for students to build their skills. Although self-assessment is critical in learning, and it is natural for students to self-assess, it is usually completed in a random, unstructured fashion and as such is not effectively aligned with formal assessment procedures and therefore does not directly impact on student performance (O'Donovan, Price & Rust, 2008).

When self-assessment is fostered in a manner that facilitates both the understanding of criteria and standards, as well as accurate self-judgement, then it contributes to a variety of central goals of university education (Boud, 1995). A person who has the capacity to make good judgements about their work will be able to know how their work can be improved. It can also create awareness of the scope of practice and when they will need to refer to and involve others, as well as recognising areas for further development. Development of the ability to realistically assess one's own performance and taking responsibility for decision making relates to autonomous learning, which is a skill for lifelong learning, as well as improving the student's level of understanding in the course being studied (Black & Wiliam, 1998). Unless students are able to make effective judgements about the quality of their own work beyond their university degree, the assessment to which they are subjected within their degree programs is not sustainable (Boud et al, 2010).

The benefits of students capable of demonstrating effective self-assessment has been documented in many studies of self-assessment (see Falchikov and Boud 1989). It is recognised that high achievers tend to

underestimate performance and low achievers over-estimate performance. However, Boud, Lawson and Thompson's (2011) data suggests that students who are both accurate estimators (mid-range performers) and those who tend to underestimate their performance (high performers), improve their academic performance over successive tasks. However, over-estimators, who tend to be poor performers, do not appear to learn how to improve their performance over time.

Students often struggle to engage with the standards expected of them and the meaning of the criteria when they self assess. These difficulties can arise if understanding the criteria is downplayed by the educators; when engagement with these factors of assessment involves considerable critical thinking, a skill that students need support in developing; if the student's lack ability to manipulate criteria in ways which allow them to be applied to their work; and due to difficulties learners have in articulating standards and criteria without prior learning and experience (Boud, 1995). Despite of these challenges, students are keen to better understand assessment standards (O'Donovan, Price & Rust, 2001). However, evidence suggests that many students are confused about what is being asked of them and often resort to guessing as a way of interpreting assessment standards (Hinnett 1995; O'Donovan, Price & Rust, 2008).

Students are more capable of making a judgement about the standard of their work. Carlson and Smith-Howell (1995) found that oral presentations could be graded validly and reliably by inexperienced and relatively untrained peer and self markers. Campbell, Mothersbaugh, Brammer and Taylor (2001) also established high reliability between academics and self-assessors for holistic grades but when asked to score disaggregated performance, there was a substantial difference between the scores for the content element. Falchikov and Boud (1989) argue that self-assessing is still valuable even when there are discrepancies in judgement saying, "even in the absence of significant agreement between student and teacher, self-assessment can provide potent feedback to the student about both learning and educational and professional standards" (p.427).

Self-assessment is viewed as an important part of students' learning. However, difficulties students face with understanding criteria and standards and the problems that occur with some elements of judging performance against these standards point to a need to develop practices that can foster effective learning experiences using self-assessment. These practices should acknowledge that business education is changing, and the role of the lecturer is moving from expert/judge to coaches/facilitators who aid students in being able to identify the criteria and standards for assessment so that they can be self critical (Gopinath, 1999). In this respect including self-assessment processes can impact on teaching.

Faculty members often express dissatisfaction over grading procedures, which are often seen as largely subjective and requiring considerable care to balance perceived student expectations of their grades with what the instructor believes they deserve . . . Sharing the assessment process with the students can potentially be attractive as well as efficient and can release faculty time for more educationally worthwhile pursuits (Gopinath, 1999, p.10)

The project outlined in this paper attempted to bridge the gap in understanding of graduate attributes by embedding these attributes into teaching through alignment of assessment criteria and provision of feedback on these attributes, fostered by the use of self-assessment. Graduate attributes are often mentioned in curriculum documentation but the effective integration of these into developmental approaches in the classroom has proven to be somewhat elusive. In concert, the consistent alignment of graduate attributes with assessment processes is not widespread across the higher education sector (Chalmers & Thomson, 2008). Institutional support for the development and assessment of graduate attributes has been inconsistent and not without its problems (Hoban, Lefoe, James, Curtis, Kaidonis, Hadi, Lipu, McHarg, & Collins 2004). Barrie (2004, p. 261) claimed that, "it is apparent that Australian university academics charged with responsibility for developing students' generic graduate attributes do not share a common understanding of either the nature of these outcomes, or the teaching and learning processes that might facilitate the development of these outcomes." Attempts to integrate graduate attributes into teaching and assessment have met with responses ranging from reluctance and resistance to full adoption (Rust, O'Donovan & Price, 2005).

Academics' resistance is understood in terms of their expectations that assessment is based only on discipline-specific content and that assessment of 'additional' attributes is a distraction or unnecessary extra work (Thompson & Treleaven, 2008). Also "business lecturers do not value the development of their students' profession-specific skills or knowledge creation capacity as highly as the development of their theoretical knowledge. Therefore in general academics have been less motivated to adopt social constructivist teaching methods" (Hanson & Sinclair, 2008 p183).

Graduate attribute engagement and assessment was facilitated through use of an online system, ReView. The aim was to use self assessment to assist the students' learning process in making the connections between graduate attributes and assessment. To achieve this aim a social constructivist approach to graduate attributes was adopted, (Rust, O'Donovan & Price, 2005; Kember & Leung, 2005) whereby assessment processes, criteria and standards were framed within an active engagement and participation of both students and their business educators. Using the approach (1) the relationship between student self-assessment grading and teacher grading; and (b) the effect of using self-assessment in engaging students with graduate attributes, were explored.

2. ReView: An Online Marking & Self-Assessment System

ReView (Note 3) facilitates the development of self-assessment in learning processes, by engaging academics and students in a deeper understanding of assessment criteria in relation to graduate attributes, and providing a mechanism to guide students through making judgements about their work using these criteria.

The initial steps of using an online software system incorporate a systematic 'review' procedure whereby assessment criteria are linked to graduate attribute categories and the criteria are clearly worded to ensure the qualities, knowledge and skills that are valued in student performance are explicit. Through this process, academics have the opportunity to clarify and demonstrate an unequivocal alignment of assessment tasks to learning objectives and graduate attribute development across subjects and levels of a program of study.

This initial step was designed to make assessment criteria more transparent to students to aid their understanding of the expectations of their assessment tasks. Students are able to view these assessment criteria before submitting their work and can visually see how the criteria align to the graduate attributes through the colour and shape coding system (see Figure 1).

<Insert Figure 1 Here>

The next step engages the student with making judgements on their performance in relation to the assessment criteria. Students are prompted to self-assess their work for each of the criteria using a sliding grading scale for each criterion divided into fail, pass, credit, distinction and high distinction categories (See Figure 2).

<Insert Figure 2 Here>

Academics mark assessments directly online using ReView's data sliders in a similar fashion to the student self-assessment process. After entering their assessments, the academics are able to see how students self-assessed their work (see Figure 3). Where there is a large variation between a student's self-assessment and the academics' grading, the academics are able to use this difference between the student's assessment and their own as a guide for feedback.

Students were then able to access the academics' gradings for each criterion and overall, as well as the written feedback for the assessment task via their personal student view. In this view the students were able to examine the academics' assessment of their work in comparison to their own self-assessment.

<Insert Figure 3 Here>

A: Selectable list of students (obscured here for ethics de-identification),

B: Colour-coded symbols next to the criteria represent one of five attribute categories in this particular university example,

C: Data 'sliders': The black bar is the academics' slider. Triangles on the top edge of the data sliders are students' self-assessments (done prior to academics marking and not visible until academics have marked),

D: 'Total' data slider: the black bar can be dragged causing the marks and bars on other criteria to move in proportion for benchmarking purposes.

3. Methodology

The study (Note 4) involved 239 undergraduate student participants studying a second year economics subject in an undergraduate business degree. These students volunteered to complete the pre and post survey and to self-assess their work using ReView.

3.1 Self-Assessment

The subject was developed by two academics and consisted of four assessment tasks. The first two assessments were scaffolded so that the skills and knowledge developed for task one were built on for the second task. This meant that the feedback from task one could be directly applied to student performance in task two. ReView was used for online marking and student self-assessment in these first two tasks. The third and fourth tasks were

exam based and so ReView was not used for these assessments. The students were introduced to how the assessment criteria for first two assignments related to the graduate attributes using the colour code system in ReView.

The students were encouraged to self-assess for each criteria using ReView prior to submitting their assignments. They were then provided with feedback on their performance which was directly aligned to the assessment criteria. In order to encourage attention to this feedback and grading markers for the assessment were published in ReView two days before the student's percentage marks were released. This meant that students were able to compare how they had self-assessed their work in relation to the academics (see Figure 3), whilst seeing the feedback comments alongside. This process of self-assessing at submission, receiving feedback and then receiving the academics mark was then repeated for the second assignment. The data collected on the students' performance from both the self-assessment scores and academics marks for the two assessments were then analysed.

3.2 Engagement

The methodology also included the administration of a pre and post questionnaire to the students. The initial questionnaire that was given to students during the first week of the subject was to obtain information on student awareness of graduate attributes before the subject began. This questionnaire contained items about the students' awareness of the subject content; understanding of graduate attributes; perceptions of self-assessment; recognition of what was required to achieve a high distinction. The post subject survey was administered at the end of the subject when the student had submitted and received feedback and academics marks for their first two assignments. It was used to measure the graduate attribute awareness at the end of the subject, asking for views on what elements impacted on any changes of awareness. This post subject survey also further explored how engagement with the graduate attributes had aided the students' learning.

4. Results

4.1 Self-Assessment

The initial task logged in the online software system showed a significant difference between the academics assessment and the students' self-assessment ($t(238,1)=-2.411$; $p=0.017$), with students overestimating their ability on every criterion. This variation diminished with time and by the second task there was no significant difference found between academics and student marks (see Figure 4). This indicates that students aligned their expectations and standards to the standards applied by the academics as a result of the self-assessment and feedback system.

<Insert Figure 4 Here>

Although student and academics marks vary in the initial task, with students overestimating their grades, the data does predominantly follow the same pattern (see Figure 5) with significant reasonably strong correlations found in the results for each of the criteria between the academics and student scores ($r= 0.518 - 0.614$; $p<0.01$). This means that although students are not necessarily accurate in rating their ability they are able to judge which criteria they have performed better in than others. These correlations, although not as strong, were found again for each criteria in the second task ($r= 0.305 - 0.334$; $p<0.01$) (see Figure 6).

<Insert Figure 5 Here>

<Insert Figure 6 Here>

Figure 6: Graph to show the relationship between students and academics marks over each criterion in task two

4.2 Engagement

The pre subject student survey indicated that students' graduate attribute awareness was very low at the beginning of the subject. There was a reported increase in the number of students who were familiar with graduate attributes by the end of the subject. The impact of the activities in this subject in aiding students to understand the assessment criteria was evident from the post subject survey questions relating to the assessment. The students reported they were able to clearly see how the assessment criteria linked to the graduate attribute, emphasised by the colour coding system (79.6%) and that this meant that the assessing criteria was easier to understand (76.4%). This increased understanding the criteria would have aided students in their ability to understand and respond to their criteria referenced feedback.

The impact of the self-assessment process made an impression on the students' understanding of what was expected of them in relation to the assessment criteria and the level that was required. As a result of completing

the subject, a reasonably large proportion (60.7%) reported they would like the opportunity to self-assess in all their subjects of study.

5. Discussion

The aim of this study was to develop an approach to teaching and learning that would aid students in understanding assessment criteria and standards, in order to be able to accurately make judgements about their performance for the assessment criteria. An online system, ReView, provided a structured environment for self-assessment. By aligning assessment criteria to graduate attributes; providing a self-assessment mechanism for students and a platform for feedback which is linked to each assessment criteria; an opportunity to compare self and teacher marks for assignments was created. The academics were encouraged to establish integrated learning objectives with the assessment criteria through their interaction with the ReView system. This meant that subjects were constructively aligned between their graduate attributes and the assessment tasks and provided a structure for students to both identify and recognise the connections between the way they were being assessed and the objectives of both the subject and the degree in general.

The study found that students' marks could be better aligned with academics' scores through support in understanding expectations and progressive exposure to self-assessment. This phenomenon could be explained in several ways. The students were more experienced in self-assessing by the second task. The students understanding of the criteria and standards could have also improved as the subject progressed. The opportunity to compare their self assessment scores with the academics in the first task would have provided an opportunity for the students to understand the standards expected more clearly. Additionally, the feedback, which was linked to the criteria, provided for the first assignment would have contributed to the students understanding of the criteria and standards. This feedback was released before the actual scores and students' attention to the feedback was higher, thus this might have elevated the impact. This is supported by the post implementation data where students reported that the ReView system helped them to gain a better understanding of the criteria and standards expected within the assessments.

These results show that with support students can gain a better understanding of the assessment criteria and standards involved in assignments and as a result they are able to make sound judgements about the level of their work, which according to previous research (see for example, Boud, 1995; Black & Wiliam, 1998; Boud et al, 2010; Falchikov and Boud 1989; Boud, Lawson & Thompson, 2011) impacts on student performance at the time and post-graduation.

The correlation analyses showed that for the first task, even though the students overestimated their performance, the marks they awarded followed the same pattern as the academics. This relationship showed that where students' self-assessment marks indicated a higher achievement in a criterion, the academics marks also showed that these as stronger components of the student's work. This mirroring pattern was evident for all the criteria in both the first and second assessment tasks. This indicates that students do have a self-awareness of how they are performing, that is where their strengths and weaknesses are, but until they have a benchmark to gauge from gaining a true understanding of the standards expected, they are uncertain how to accurately score in these criteria. The important support to give to students therefore is not only in making judgements about the elements of their work but how to rate these in line with the expected standards for the assessment.

When reviewing the impact of this process on students' engagement with the graduate attributes for their degree. The pre and post questionnaire results showed that student's awareness increased over the duration of the subject. The colour coding helped to make the links between the assessment and the graduate attributes clearer, which meant the assessment criteria was easier to understand. This simple step was seen to make a difference in students' understanding of how assessment criteria align with graduate attributes and can be implemented easily in any assessment design.

6. Conclusion

The results from this study show the ability of students to be able to understand criteria and standards for assessing, and so are able to make valid judgements on their work, a skill which is beneficial to both academics and learning in the educational setting, and beyond into the workplace. Although this study implemented the online system ReView to foster this development in a highly aligned structured fashion, it is important to note that it is the design of the assessment that is the key to these developments and not restricted to self-assessment using ReView. The important elements that need to be considered in designing assessment tasks are: to provide opportunities for students to understand the criteria and standards; to make the relationship between criteria and graduate attributes explicit; to include feedback that relates to the specific criteria, as well as focusing feedback on the criteria where there are large variations in gradings between academics and students; to design scaffolded

assessments that build on the knowledge and skills of the previous task; and to allow numerous opportunities to practice self-assess.

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Notes

Note 1. The word 'subject' is used to represent an individual unit of study within a degree program.

Note 2. This project derived from work on an Australian Teaching and Learning Council (ALTC) funded project.

Note 3. ReView evolved from an innovative approach, originating in the Faculty of Design, Architecture and Building at University of Technology, Sydney

Note 4. Ethics clearance was obtained for this study from the University Ethics Committee.



Figure 1. ReView Screenshot: Example of Colour Coding for Graduate Attributes

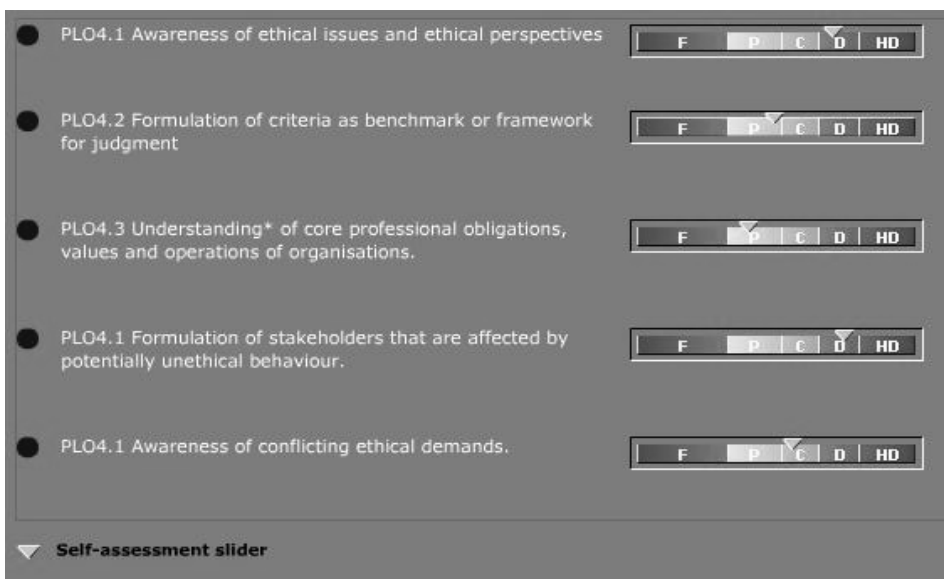


Figure 2. Students self-assessed (triangle markers) prior to the academics marking the work

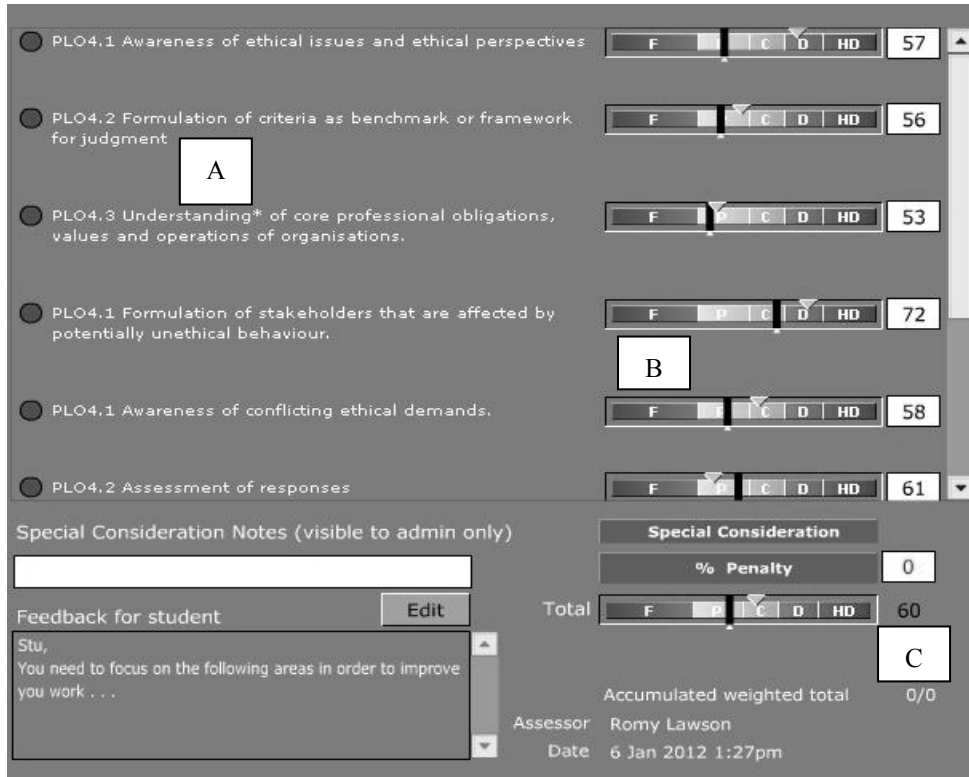


Figure 3. Academics' view of a marking screen from a subject of study

- A: Colour-coded symbols next to the criteria represent one of five attribute categories in this particular university example,
- B: Data 'sliders': The black bar is the academics' slider. Triangles on the top edge of the data sliders are students' self-assessments (done prior to academics marking and not visible until academics have marked),
- C: 'Total' data slider: the black bar can be dragged causing the marks and bars on other criteria to move in proportion for benchmarking purposes.

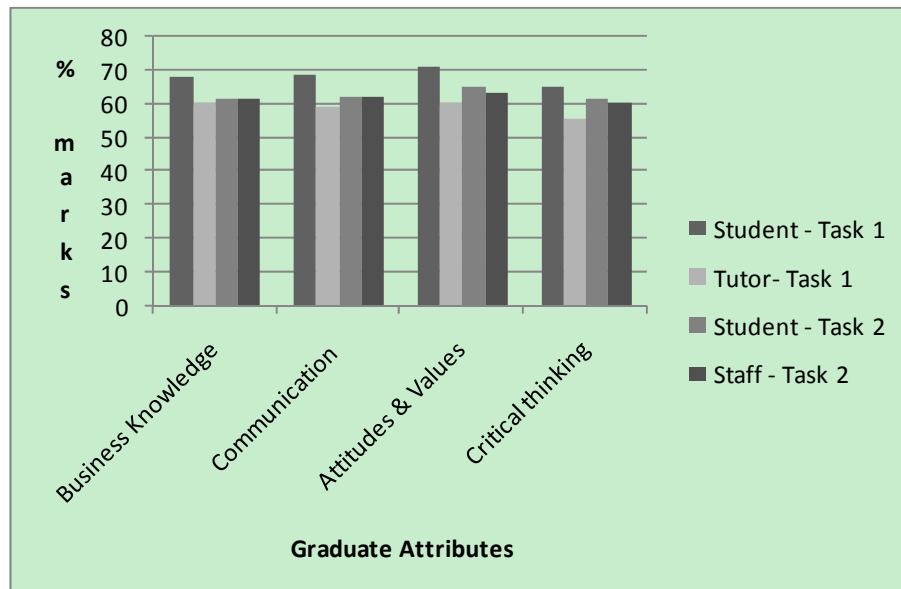


Figure 4. Graph to show the differences in the average student and academics marks over the two assessment tasks

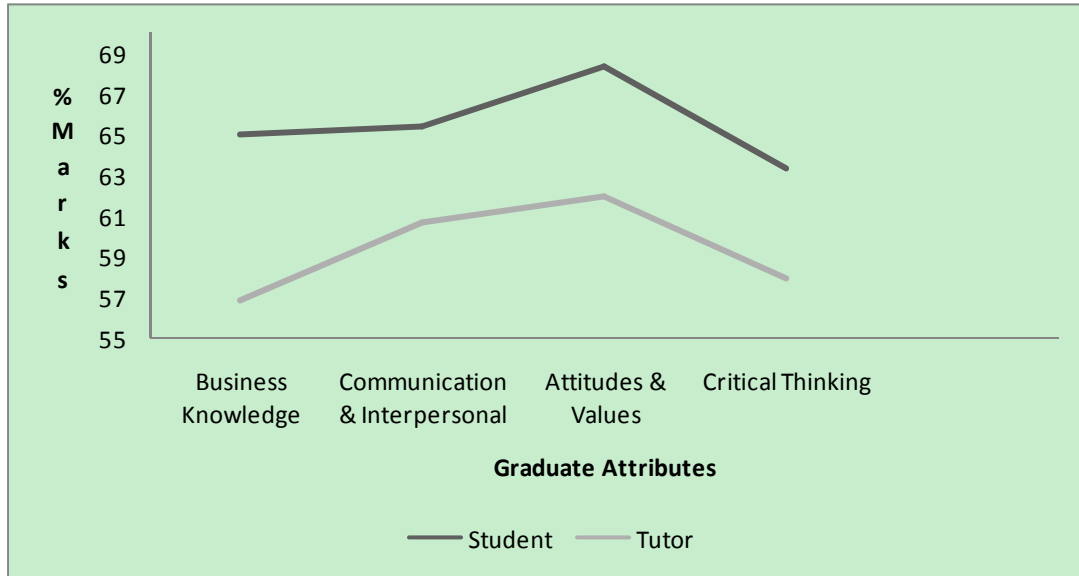


Figure 5. Graph to show the relationship between the average student and academics marks over each criterion in task one

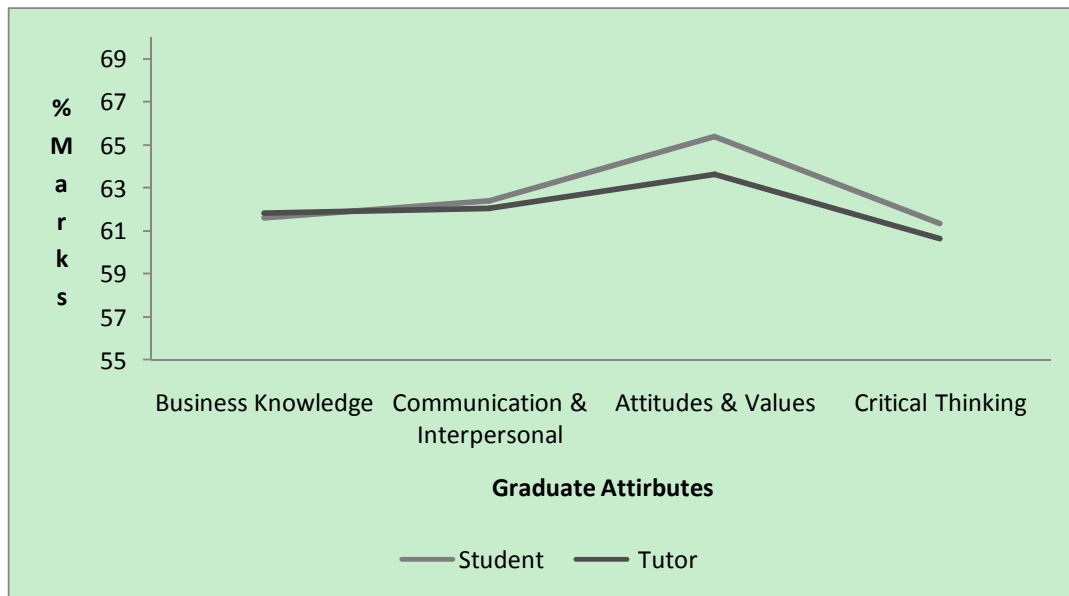


Figure 6. Graph to show the relationship between students and academics marks over each criterion in task two

A Historical Survey of Ethnic Conflict in Nigeria

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Abstract

This article focused on the historical survey of ethnic conflict in the Nigerian society and its scope is vast in a way that it stresses the country's ethnic conflicts beginning from the Pre-colonialism state down the post-colonialism. The main objective of this article is to explore deeper analyses on politics, ethnic conflict and its causes in the multi-cultural society like that of the giant of Africa and the consequences therefore. The approach used in this study is consistent with the general research question on the educational meaning of politics in comparison to the modern politics as experiencing among the political leaders and parties; in responding to the question, a data from a published author is quoted as sample report in answer to the situation in the country. Finally, the article also elaborates on how to manage ethnic conflict amidst of differences and plural society like in the case of the said nation.

Keywords: Ethnic conflict, Colonialism, Ethno-politics, Nigeria, Leadership

1. Introduction

The origin and history of ethnic conflict (societal wars and violence) can be traced from eternal (internal) state rivalry to external (physical). And its root cause is not very far from power competition and decision making over economic resources and other important human factor, like position. The implementation process has always involved more than one or two persons. In general concept, the author of this work traces conflict back to the first and early Patriarchal of human history and ever since then, there has been an increase (in various dimensions) of Conflict in the face of human world. Some are personal (internal) conflict, family, community, group, intellectual, state, national and international in nature, to mention but few.

In conforming to this idea, Badawi (2006) in his statement titled "World Apart" stated thus, "indeed the greatest discord today is among the descendants of Abraham. These are the people of the book, the followers of Judaism, Christianity and Islam, who had in fact shared a common beginning in the religion of Abraham". In shading more light in the above statement, Badawi statement goes far beyond religion, rather, he was tracing one of the earliest source of conflict which Badawi mentioned the off-springs of the said Abraham. Even before Abraham, there had been conflict, so it is as old as human history down to the Abrahamic period, to ancient kingdoms, Dukes, and Kings.

In about 88 B. C., King Mithriadates VI of Pontus invaded Roman territory in Asian Minor. He advised Asian debtors to kill their Roman creditors. Happy to reduce their credit card bills, the Asians massacred 80,000 Romans. Ethno-political conflicts have greatly shaped our present world and of course have its structural phenomenon, (William Easterly, 2001). For instances, the conflict we now call Israeli and Palestinian war, has been an ever-lengthening sort. The Assyrian, Babylonian war, by King Nebuchadnezzar of the hanging Garden in history, the Persia war, Alexander the Great (the Macedonian mad man in history), the German war of Adolf's Hitler, the Roman wars, narrowing all these down, we came to the horn of African continent which seem to be an epidemic field of conflicts of diverse kinds till date. The giant-lion of African continent, just like the origin of conflict is said to have stated very old in human history, even so in the case of Nigeria, which can be traced to the colonial period of history. Conflict takes different sizes and shapes with diverse reasons and purposes. Majority of the conflicts takes time before their escalation and at such, could have been transformed right at their respective early stages.

The history of ethnicity and ethnic conflicts in Nigeria is also traced back to the colonial transgressions that forced the ethnic groups of the northern and southern provinces to become an entity called Nigeria in 1914. In the case of Nigeria situation, disturbing history of colonialism, this generated hatred and conflict among different ethnic groups. The task of addressing this seed of conflict planted by the British has been a complex one. After weakening the former diverse kingdoms, Emperors, etc now called Nigeria and reordering the groups' politics, the colonial powers failed in nation building and providing for the people's basic needs. Hence, unemployment, poverty increased and with these, conflict over scarce resources. The Southern and Northern protectorates were also being amalgamated into a nation. Thereafter, the merging of different colonies into one country called Nigeria was forcefully done without the people's consent. This was a major seed of conflict that is still troubling Nigeria today.

This article is focused on the historical incidents of ethnic conflicts in within Nigeria societies, the cause of the conflicts and perhaps, the government actions towards ethnic conflict in the country. In conclusion, this paper will explore into decision-making (by the elites and those in authority) process has contributed immensely in generating the syndromes of conflict in the said state.

2. Colonialism and Ethnic Conflict

The then British colonial policy was autocratic and it denied the people's participation, basic needs, equality and social well-being and thus led to conflict. For instance, the separation of governments which Colonial administration introduced in the North and the South were designed to lead to growing ethnocentrism. This era of provincial development, though were relatively peaceful, and yet their built on the future foundation of an unending conflict, which has been experiencing in the country till present. Notwithstanding, the "indirect rule" administration in Nigeria by Lord Fredrick Lugard, the chief administrator, was inappropriate decision-making tool for managing tribal tensions and hatredness in the colony. According to some scholars' views, the system not only reinforced ethnic divisions, "it has complicated the task of welding diverse elements into a Nigerian nation" (Coleman, 1958:194; Nnoli, Okwudiba 1980:113). This implementation and method governance distanced ethnic groups from each other by the way Lugard gave power to the traditional rulers who corruptly abused and misused it in the villages to amass wealth, land and establish patronage networks, which, seconded and encouraged in the long run, tribalism and nepotism. The segregation of the Nigerian colony was also reinforced by the colonial laws that limited the mobility (Afigbo, A.E., 1989; Okonjo, I.M., 1974) of Christian Southerners to the Muslim North, created a separate settlement for non-indigenous citizens in the North, and even limited the purchase of land outside one's own region. Prejudice and hatred became the order of the day in the provinces as different ethnic groups started looking at each other suspiciously in all spheres of contact. Unequal and differential treatment of ethnic groups was responsible for the intense competition in the society. It created disparity in educational achievement and widened the political and economic gaps between northern and southern Nigeria. This was as a result of decision making implemented wrongly by the authorized power in the then leadership.

To elucidating the popular concepts and theory of some scholars of decision making theory, in comparison to the above dramatic experience of leadership, which the primary approach is associated with such scholarly authorities as Richard Snyder (1960), Herbert Simon (1967), Joseph Frankel (1974), Carl Bindblom (1988) and Aaron Wildersky (1985). This argues that all human activities are founded on decisions. In other words, behind or underlying every human endeavor is a decision or some decisions taken by concrete person or persons. Thus, understanding human activities would generally demand the determination of underlying decision or decisions that triggered off the activity or activities. Decision, therefore, constitutes the basic unit in the analysis of human actions. A critical survey into the primary settings of what is called and known as present Nigeria will in no doubt, observe decision making process and implementation as the core root of evil seed sown among and in the heart of Nigerians which of a truth has kept germinating deaths, lost and destructions of properties, displacements, etc in the said Society. Lion of Africa, devouring her preys. The giant lion of Africa against her preys! During this period, there was significant scarcity of all goods, "evident in the economic social and political areas of life. It affected employment, education, political participation and the provision of social services to the population." (Nnoli, 1980:87) The lack of such "basic needs" always gives elites the ability to mobilize groups for intense competition, employing ethnocentrism to achieve their goals. In 1947, a colonial constitution divided Nigeria into three political regions: East, West and North. The North, which was predominately Hausa-Fulani, was the largest and eventually the most populous region. The Igbos dominated the East and Yorubas the West. With the three major ethnic groups in dominance, the minority groups (Osaghae, Eghosa 1991; Rotimi Subaru, 1996) rebelled and Nigerians started fighting for ethnic dominance as the nation marched towards independence. The creation of the three ethnic regions did not take into account the needs of

the ethnic minority groups for autonomy and self-determination. Instead, they were lost within the majority. This development was based on the "bogus theory of regionalism...That one should be loyal to and protect the interest of one's region to the exclusion of the others," (Osaghae, Eghosa, 1989:443). An administration that endorses segregation for its people does not have the unity of the country at heart.

In conclusion, many analysts have contended that understanding the factors behind the spate of ethnic conflicts in Nigeria must begin with the appreciation of how the country involved in line with this perspective Coleman (1995:41) had noted that the unity and disunity experienced in independent Nigeria is a reflection of the form and character of the common government imposed over the collection of cultures that made up Nigeria by the colonial power. Extending his contributions, Coleman observed that stable countries are born from similarity of culture, language or a sentiment or desire of the people concerned to come together as one under a common authority, alternately, a single powerful group cultures. According to the authors, in the case of formation of Nigeria,, the British colonial power forced various ethnic groups together without establishing conditions for the emergence of common value among the people. The implication of the loose integration was that the various cultures, Igbos, Yorubas and Hausa-Fulanis saw themselves as competitors instead of one people. And without such partial and wrong decision making implementation, there wouldn't have arise such negative feeling and tensions among the ethic groups. So decision making process has a greater hands in the prevailing condition of the present Nigerian's ethnic conflict which had been causing the lost of uncountable lives and deaths, not to talk of displacements, destructions of properties and valuable substances, etc in the mentioned country.

2.1 Ethnic Conflict since Independence

The years between 1952 and 1966 brought change in the political culture of the country, transforming the three regions into three political entities. Thus, the struggle for independence was reduced to the quest for ethnic dominance. At this time, ethnic and sub-ethnic loyalties threatened the survival of both East and West, while the North was divided religiously between Christianity and Islam. It was a period of politicized ethnicity and competition for resources, which worsened the relationships between ethnic groups. There was a high degree of corruption, nepotism and tribalism. The national interest was put aside while politicians used public money to build and maintain patronage networks. Since independence, the situation in Nigeria has been fraught with ethnic politics whereby the elite from different ethnic groups schemed to attract as many federal resources to their regions as possible, neglecting issues that could have united the country. The anarchy, competition, and insecurity led to the demise of the first republic. Military intervention culminated in the gruesome ethnic war from 1967 to 1970, when the mistreated Igbos of eastern Nigeria, called Biafrans, threatened to secede from the federation. The Igbos' grievances were because they were denied of their basic human needs of equality, citizenship, autonomy and freedom, (Burton, 1992). Wherever such basic needs are denied, conflict often follows as the aggrieved groups use violent means to fight for their human rights.

Ethnocentrism in the country and evidenced corruption of the electoral and political process led in 1966 to a number of revengeful military coups in the country. The first military coup was in January when a collection of young leftists under Major Emmanuel Ifeajuna and Chukwuma Kaduna Nzeogwu led a coup, it was partially successful; the coup brought about the death of some notable figures such as the former Prime Minister, Abubakar Tafawa Balewa, Premier Ahmadu Bello of the Northern Region and Premier Ladoke Akintola of the Western Region. Though they could not set up a central government, therefore, President Nwafor Orizu was then pressured to hand over government to the Nigeria Army under the command of General J.T.U. Aguyi-Ironsi. Later, another counter coup by another successful plot, which were primarily supported by the Northern military officers and those Northerners who in favor with the NPC. This time, it was planned and carried out by the Northern officers and gave Lt. Colonel Yakubu Gowon to become head of state. This series of coups led to an increase in ethnic tension and violence. The Northern coup, which was mostly motivated by ethnic and religious reasons, the result was a bloodbath of both military officers and civilians, especially those of Igbo extraction. The violence against the Igbo increased their desire for a demand of their own autonomy and protection from the military's wrath. By May 1967, the Eastern Region had declared itself an independent state calling themselves "Republic of Biafra" with Lt. Colonel Chukwuemeka Odumekwu Ojukwu as the leader, (Murray, 2007).



New head of state Lt. Col. Odumegwu Ojukwu in Enugu shortly after the declaration of independence and formation of the new state of Biafra, June 10 1967 takes the oath of office.



Biafran Flag

The Civil war started when Nigerian, both Western and the Northern joined in attacking Biafra, the South eastern on 6 July, 1967 at Garkem signaling the beginning of the 30 month war that ended in January 1970, (Murray, 2007). Estimates in the former Eastern Region of the number of dead from hostilities, disease, and starvation during the 30 month civil war are estimated at between 1 million and 3 million, (Metz, H. C. 1991).



A child suffering the effects of severe hunger and malnutrition as a result of the blockade. Pictures of the famine caused by Nigerian blockade garnered sympathy for the Biafrans worldwide



A Biafran doctor hands out cups containing the daily ration of powdered milk to a line of children at a refugee camp in Anwa, Biafra, Aug. 5, 1968.



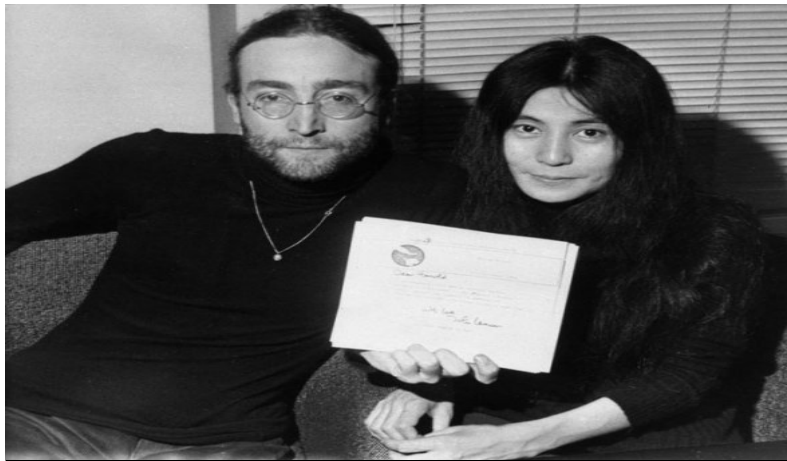
A young mother bosom feeds her five-month-old baby boy while holding her starving four-year-old daughter, near Anwa, Biafra, Aug. 5, 1968. The daughter died a few hours later



Biafra Declaration 30th may 1967



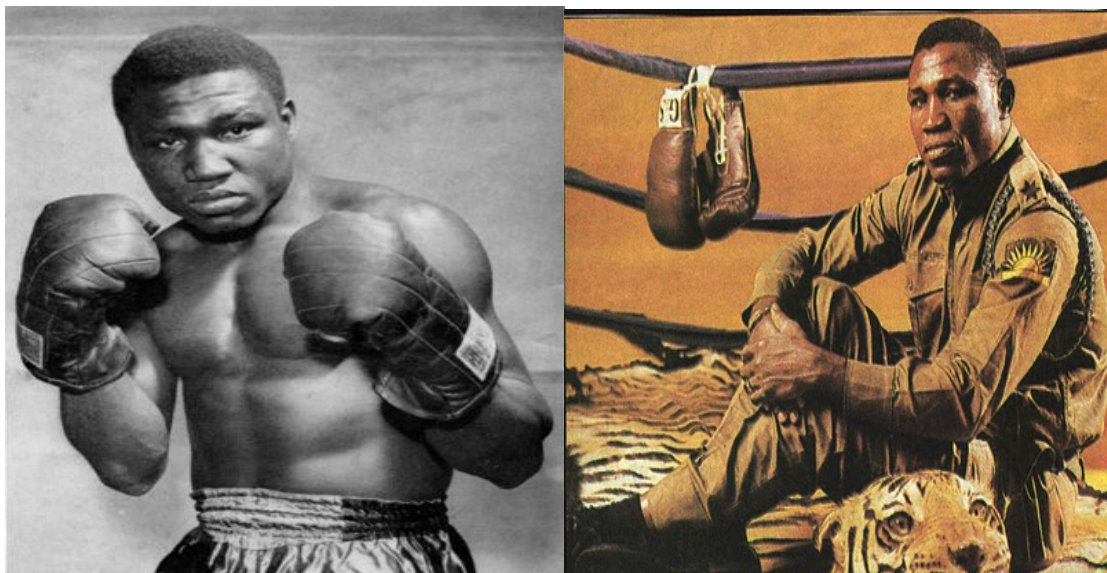
Col. Odumegwu Ojukwu at Nigerian-Biafran peace talks in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia where the Emperor Haile Selassie is chairman of the committee Aug 5 1968



John Lennon & Yoko Ono displaying letter from Lennon to British PM Harold Wilson, Nov. 25, 1969. The letter explains John Lennon's reasons for returning his Order of the British Empire, OBE medal - British support of America in Vietnam & involvement/support of Nigeria against Biafra



Igbo Victim of the civil war, Biafra, Nigeria, July 1968



Dick Tiger developed a portfolio of investments before the outbreak of his homeland's civil war. Supporter of the Biafran secession, Tiger's propaganda and financial support of this cause cost him much. Tiger was appointed CBE by Her Majesty Queen Elizabeth II, but he returned his insignia as a protest for what he perceived as a lack of support by Great Britain to the Biafran cause.



Refugees fleeing Federal troops



Biafra Refugee Camp



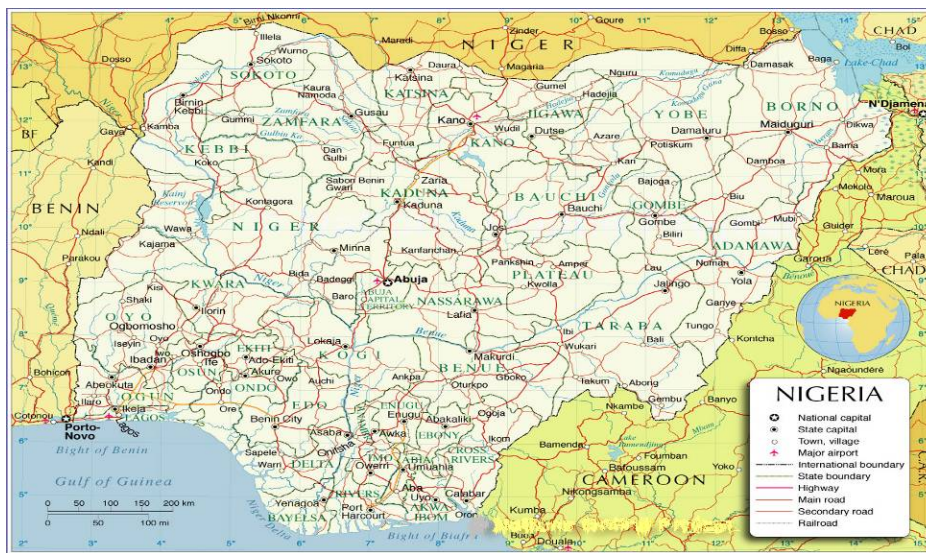
Aba General Hospital Massacre by Nigerian Forces with Nigerian Napalm Bomb on July 12, 1968.



A victim of the war. The Hausa tribe (North Nigerians) massacred a great number of the Igbo tribe (East Nigerians) who were living in the north. The country suffered a severe civil war (1967 - 1970)

(Photos Sources): Biafra: The Nigerian Civil War in Pictures.
<http://www.nairaland.com/nigeria/topic-582396.0.html>

Nigeria is divided into 36 states and one Federal Capital Territory, which are further sub-divided into 774 Local Government Areas (LGAs).



Map of Nigeria with 36 States and Capital

(Sources): http://www.nationsonline.org/oneWorld/map/nigeria_map2.htm

At the beginning there were only 3 States, of which there were only three at independence, reflect the country's tumultuous history and the difficulties of managing such a heterogeneous national entity at all levels of government. Because of its multitude of diverse, sometimes competing ethno-linguistic groups, Nigeria prior to independence has been faced with sectarian tensions and violence. This is particularly a major issue in the oil-producing Niger Delta region, where both state and civilian forces employ varying methods of coercion in attempts gain control over regional petroleum resources. Some of the ethnic groups like the Ogoni, have experienced severe environmental degradation due to petroleum extraction. Since the end of the civil war in 1970, some ethnic violence has persisted. There has subsequently been a period of relative harmony since the Federal Government introduced tough new measures against religious violence in all affected parts of the country. In 2002, organizers of the miss world pageant were forced to move the pageant from the Nigerian capital to London in the wake of violent protests in the Northern part of the country that left more than 100 people dead and over 500 injured. The rioting erupted after Muslims in the country reacted in anger to comments made by a newspaper reporter. Rioters in killed an estimated 105 men, women, and children with a further 521 injured taken to hospital.

2.2 Politics, Politician's And Ethnic Conflict

While the politicians tried to cope with the colonial legacy that lumped incompatible ethnic groups together into one country, the military elites staged coups, making a mockery of democracy in Africa's most populous and promising country. The corruption, ineptitude and confusion that marked the military era plunged Nigeria into economic problems, poverty, and ethno-religious conflicts until the 1990s. In Nigeria, where politics still follow ethnic lines, there is always disagreement about the rules of the game. The military intervened because they viewed the civilian leaders as inept and indecisive. However, the southerners distrusted the military regime because they felt it was trying to maintain Hausa-Fulani hegemony in Nigeria. On June 12, 1993, Chief Moshood Abiola, a Yoruba from southwestern Nigeria, won Nigeria's presidential election, but his presidency was annulled by the military regime. In retaliation, southern Nigerians began to form militant organizations to protest unfair treatment and demand a democratically-elected government. During the authoritarian rule of General Sani Abacha, a Muslim from the North, Southerners increasingly feared political marginalization and demanded an end to the Hausa-Fulani domination of the political arena. This development signified the weakness of the government and their lack of effective mechanisms to manage ethnic conflict in Nigeria. Adding to the ethno-religious conflict in Nigeria was the Yorubas' boycott of the 1994 constitutional conference arranged by General Abacha's regime. The conference was meant to resolve the national debate over ethnicity.

Inspired by the pan-Yoruba militant groups, the Afenifere and the Oduduwa Peoples Congress (OPC) in southwestern Nigeria threatened secession and intensified violent protests across the country.

Ethnic conflicts in Nigeria continued through the democratic transition. Olusegun Obasanjo, a civilian, has been president for several years. However, conflict continues to escalate, as various ethnic groups demand a political restructuring. The federal structure has developed deep cracks and demands urgent action to mend it. But what is most worrisome is the religious dimension of ethnic competition for power and oil wealth in Nigeria. The multiple ethno-religious conflicts in the northern cities of Kano, Kaduna, Jos and Zamfara spring from the introduction of Muslim Sharia courts, and the South's demands for autonomy. The continuing conflict is an indication that Nigeria lacks effective mechanisms to manage ethnic conflicts.

3. Causes of Ethnic Conflict among the Children of Giant Lion of Africa

Some scholars have suggested that competition for scarce resources is one of the common contributory factors to ethnic conflicts, especially in almost some parts of Africa. In multi-ethnic societies like Nigeria, ethnic groups violently compete for property, rights, jobs, education, language, social amenities and good health care facilities. Okwudiba Nnoli (1980) emphasized on the empirical instances linking socio-economic factors to ethnic conflict in Nigeria. Another scholar, J.S. Furnival, cited in Nnoli (1980:72-3), that "the working of economic forces warrants for tension between groups with competing interests." According to Gurr's (1970), relative deprivation theory offers an explanation based on an ethnic groups' access to power and economic resources. This is closely associated to Horowitz, (1985), that group worth is based on the results of economic and political competitions.

According to Lake and Rothschild, (1996) ethnic conflict is a sign of a weak state or a state embroiled in ancient loyalties. In this case, states act with bias to favor a particular ethnic group or region, and behaviors such as preferential treatment fuel ethnic conflicts. Therefore, in critical or difficult political situations, the effectiveness of governance is dependent on its ability to address social issues and human needs. A number of factors have conspired to induce and exacerbate conflict in Nigeria. Thus, from the theoretical expositions analyzed above, the causes of conflict in the country can be explained from many perspectives. These perspectives include, Poverty and unemployment, Failure of the government security intelligence and law enforcement agencies in bringing the culprits to book, Northern Nigeria's tradition for carrying out Jihadist Islam, The imposition of Sharia Law in some northern parts of the country, Lack of understanding of what the Islamic faith preaches and Indigene and Settler Controversy.

Emerging findings suggest that one of the reasons why religious violence persists in the country, mostly at the north, is the menace of poverty and unemployment among the teeming youths. Poverty is provoked by unemployment. Poverty also is a plague affecting most teeming youths in many parts of the country. Thus, in the midst of plenty, the phenomenon dehumanizes them as seen most in the Almajiri Institution as the only succor for survival. This group constitutes the vast majority that are always used to ignite fanaticism and in the end unleashing terror and mayhem on the other ethnic groups whom they see now as being the cause of their plight. This situation sometimes may be ignited because of the degree of frustration which may also determine the degree of aggression usually unleashed on the society, especially the Christians and others perceived to be non sympathetic to their plight.

Another factor that provokes conflict in the Nigeria is that the culprits that mastermind these dastardly and abominable acts in the regions go unpunished and escape unhurt. Successive administration, like military and civilian, since independence has always paid lip service and deaf ear to bringing the perpetrators to book. Moreover, numerous religious uprising, especially in the northern part of the country with its attendant consequences in the socio-economic and political development in the country has been appealing to the leaders of the country. This is premised on the fact that Nigeria has been ruled majorly by the north and the emerging leaders see the situation as a means of bridging the development gap between them and the more prosperous south. Emphasis are not lacking as there was no political will on the part of the leadership to bring to book the perpetrators of the Maitasine riots of the 1980s; Kano Riots of 1991, Sharia Riots of 2000, the Jos Mayhem of 2004 and 2010 respectively. As a result of government's insensitivity of the problem under reference, the culprits that were arrested were later released in the law court for lack of evidence.

Following closely on the problem of leaving the perpetrators of violence to go unpunished and the weak institutional mechanisms to check these abuses was apathy and failure of security and intelligence agencies to live up to expectation in confronting the challenge. From a survey conducted, most of the security agencies including the police and the army usually brought in to quell these crises have performed woefully to the disappointment of many Nigerians who had clamored and hoped on it to bring the culprits to book. It is

interesting to note that these security agents even collude and conspire with the culprits. As a result, they have been caught napping when these crises erupts.

Moreover, conflicts in the country, like for instances, the northern part of the are also caused by the religion's tradition for carrying out jihad in the course of one's life. Thus, the extent of fundamentalism and radicalism among the adherents of the faith in other countries has been appealing to those in northern part of the country. Under this arrangement, fighting and violence attracts much premium and becomes institutionalized. It is gratifying to note that the Islamic incursion into the country through the north by Uthman Danfodio left in its wake the consciousness of aggressive and militant radicalism unparalleled in the annals of history of the country. In its posturing, the faith dignifies and sanctifies violence as an act of faith, as a demonstration of sustaining devotion to its tenets and virtuous way of relating with infidels and people of other faiths in the country. The Islamic mentality views with dismay any other religion in the country and in order to enhance its relevance and reverence other religions must be conquered, subdued, and its adherents converted to the faith and if possible by force.

Another major cause of conflicts in the northern part of the country which has remained a reoccurring decimal and a standard in Nigeria's body politic is the introduction and imposition of Sharia Law in some northern states in the country. From all intents and purposes, this imposition is a legality and against the secularity of the nation as enshrined in the constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria. In Nigeria, this imposition was greeted with widespread violence, riots and clashes. This, has, however, created a situation of suspicion, hatred and antagonism between Muslims and non-Muslims in the country. The imposition of Sharia increased fanaticism and irredentism on the side of most Islamic adherents and gave legitimacy to Islamic fundamentalism. This was done ostensibly to create appeals and sustain devotion to Islamic tenets, as introduction of the Sharia Law became attractive to almost all the northern states in the country with its disastrous consequences.

Other reason why conflicts arise in Nigeria is because of the fact that most people lack understanding of what the Islamic faith preaches. The average Moslem faithful believes that he or she will have an easy passport to heaven if he succeeds in killing an unbeliever in the course of propagating the faith. This is premised on the firm belief of the Islamic code for sanctifying hatred, intolerance and bloodshed. As far as this belief system is still endemic in the life of the average Moslem in the country, and their leaders continue to preach these messages, institutionalizing violence will continue to be the order of the day in the northern parts of the country. Following the above as one among the causes of conflicts in the Nigeria is the controversial indigene and settler question in some states in the North-Central parts of the country, notably Plateau and Benue States respectively. The scenario pitched the Moslem Hausa and Fulani and there host communities into confrontation with each other. The former claims that it has a legitimate right to exist and graze its cattle and as a result can settle in any place in the country and claim ownership of it; the later claims that it must be in accordance with their dictates as the bonafide owners of the land. The result was the exchange of violence and mayhem unparalleled in the annals of history in the country. However, accusing fingers were pointed at the leadership of the two faiths and the insensitivity of government of the day was exposed.

3.1 Implications of ethnic Conflict

Ethnic conflict has its tragic constant in human history, and can be widely heard over the Medias. It has peaceful political dimension even more in publicized violent dimension. Its effect is great in the areas like, economic development. Its consequences affect the capital income of any country, growth, and economic policies and no wonder one can easily understand the explanation of that of African poor growth performance. Ethnic conflict also produces poor substantial government leadership and services. African is example of these mentioned factors, (William Easterly, 2001).

Indeed, the researcher observed that most residents expected the government to take sides with the perpetrators of ethnic conflicts so long as such persons identified with the Muslim cause. For a long time, the government could not, therefore, take appropriate steps that would stem the tide of ethnic conflicts. The appreciation of increasing negative impact of ethnic conflicts especially in the area of loss of political influence in relation to the South compelled the Northern elites to stamp their legs on the ground and adopt stiff measures against instigators of ethnic conflicts in the North. The government for the overall interest of the North overlooked the question of religion. The researcher observed that appeared that most of the ordinary persons in the North had gotten the awareness of the fact that ethnic conflict in the North was detrimental to the North. This is reflected in the high degree of support which most Muslim residents in the North gave to government measures against instigators of ethnic influence, notwithstanding any claim to religious motive. Indeed, there seemed to be a general agreement and the people that there was every need to avoid the occurrence of ethnic conflicts in the North thus; a year could

pass with ethnic conflict in the North. This contrasted with the situation in the past when there was not less six events of ethnic conflict registered in the North annually.

The war which pitched the Igbos against the rest of the country led to the loss of numerous lives and properties (Madiebo, 1984:77) largely speaking, ethnic conflicts in Nigeria have resulted in many negative consequences in the country. Basically, ethnic conflicts have resulted in political instability. As a phenomenon, political instability has itself connoted a number of implications for the country. For instances, there has been a state of uncondusive atmosphere for taking and effecting viable decisions making and actions by the leaders. Under a condition of instability the people and the leadership are distracted by pursuing their self-fish ambitions and embezzlement of national cake and resources. Again, the existence of political instability arising from ethnic inclination and marginalization has been discontinuity in policies and programmes. The series of policy discontinuity registered in the country have successfully undermined the attainment of socio- economic advancement for the country. Analysts, generally, agree on the relevance of policy continually for the attainment of socio-economic development. At some point, newspaper reports, carried stories of abandoned programmes and projects all over the country. Each incoming regime tended to ignore ongoing programmes started by the previous regime. This results in wastage of resources. Official corruption has continued to the climax as a result of ethnicity and conflicts and each ethnic group have sought to cover up for their members who were involved in acts of official corruption. Indeed, many policies and programmes in Nigeria have fallen prey to embezzlement of public funds. Attempts at apprehending and prosecuting culprits have often intensified ethnic conflicts in the country. The various problems arising from persistent ethnic conflicts in Nigeria and the north in particular, have led to a number of pertinent questions. Why most of these brutal and bloody ethnic conflict always from the northern regions?

There have been many penned write-ups by various scholars who look ethnicity as a cause of many conflicts in Nigeria. Handelman (2000) stated, intertribal conflict has on a number of occasion's sparked great violence in Africa. Countries such as Nigeria, Ethiopia, Rwanda, Burundi, Uganda, Sudan and Zaire have been torn apart by civil wars that have been largely of particularly ethnic based. McCormick (2001) notes that, ethnic divisions are more important to understanding Nigerian society than social or labor divisions because Nigerians differentiate themselves less by class or occupation than by ethnic group. This phenomenon (variously labeled ethnicity, ethno nationalism or tribalism) involves adherence or loyalty to a particular region or tribe, a sense of exclusivity and discrimination against people from other regions or tribes.

According to Then and Wilson (1996), the source of ethnic conflict, weather it is between a major groups, or between larger groups and smaller minority groups, is not found in bigotry and prejudice The real heart of ethnics conflict in Nigeria is that hostility derived not from ethnic differences but from competition between different peoples for wealth and power. Politicians from each group seek to obtain greater political power and economic benefits for their own people rather than seeking the good of united Nigeria. In this contact, the most important to Nigerian development is the linkage between ethnic groups and political parties. Ethnic based interest groups and parties impeded political development and national unity by engendering mutual mistrust, but, on the other hand, the affiliation of ethnic groups with political parties tended to transfer ethnic conflict into nonviolent arena of political interaction (Roth and Wilson 1976).

4. Managing Ethnic Conflict And Differences in Nigeria

A number of suggestions are quite pertinent in managing ethnic conflict in the said society one among the practical steps to abating the matter is to see the need for a constitutional conference in the country under civilian rule. Though last time it ended reaching no consensus, but in the case of another meeting, the best would be to hold it regionally by each region. At the end of the whole regional meetings, the decisions will be gathered together for special but few nice and responsible selected personalities to finally draw conclusion based on the submitted decisions from each region, having in mind to favor all the regions instead of partiality against over others. In doing so, it would give the citizens the opportunity of rebuilding Nigeria with a view to formulating rules that would remove such biases that encourage ethnic inclination in the people. The conference would remove the negative impacts of colonialism, thus establishing or instituting a genuinely stable Nigerian, where each ethnic group would receive equitable share of resources from the Nigerian polity. This is the core area where our early independence fathers' failed; instead they were after their respective and united ethnocentrism and visions.

The national institutions like the NYSC, among other integrating institutions should be encouraged. People from different ethnic groups should be encouraged to get together or mix-up as frequently as possible. Exchanging programmes in education and, other areas should be encouraged by the Federal government, in any concrete action in implementing such things it would go a long way in reducing ethnic bias and tension, creating an understanding

that will abate ethnic conflict among the people. The federal government should work very hard towards enthroning equity in distribution and sharing of national resources. If this is done, bickering would be reduced and ethnic conflicts would be minimal, see Parties to the conflict table below.

5. Conclusion

Nigeria from 1960 until now has been experiencing, ethnic divisions, confrontations, re-occurring conflicts both in politics, economy, leadership, religious, and class and so on. Nigeria's political crisis keeps degenerates the more (Bradshaw York and Wallace Michael, 1996; 86). The table below shows few major conflict statuses, the parties involved, place, date, cause and the result effects, from 1963 to 2008 in Nigeria.

Ethnicity emergence of Nigeria federalism has without measure caused feelings of ethnic identity and as a result; rejection became the basis of distinguishing individuals in the cities and at the national level (Nnoli, 1976: 14). It is phenomenon that each ethnic groups in Nigeria belief is that they can only receive help from members of their ethnic group alone (Sillo, 1999: 1). The recent bloody conflict that was named "*Christians and Muslims*" conflict at Jos, take for instance is a repeated evidences of what I called fact or colour, which resemble the truth, but not really the root (truth) of the escalation of the action (the war). The truth behind the action was that some cow reared men took their cows into the farms of another group which destroyed the crops in those other people's farm, and when the owners of the farms came and was both angry, being hurtled because of their labored farms and crops been selfishly destroyed by other groups cows, in return against such unreasoning malpractices was the conflict. By reasoning, who will not agree that cows can destroy crops sown in any particular farm?

Critically, if view in the right perspective, could such minor incident cause so many blood shedding and finally lost of lives to such an extent, the whole world can noticed? Why and how should such unusual trespass and individual wicked behavior be taken to be "*Christians' and Muslims*" conflict? In education and it's ramification, does politics means injustice, assassinations, killing, violent actions, corruptions, etc., as it is being experiencing in the modern politics among the political leaders' and parties so called? In view of the above questions, let us take a look on the report below:

"A new journey begins for Nigeria after incumbent President, Goodluck Jonathan was re-elected and sworn in as President over the weekend. However, from the trappings of the recent past, that journey seems to be on the same path of corruption, government ineptitude, official sleaze and waste and general hopelessness. Virtually everywhere you look on the Nigerian polity, all you see is how governance should not be done. If you expect that the new administration of President Goodluck Jonathan will usher in the much needed drive towards fast paced development and economic liberalization, then you expect too much. We see no reason how a man who has been at the helm for the better part of the last one year will suddenly do things differently now, simply because this term is his "personal mandate". It does appear so though, as given the fact he said he would not be seeking a second term, then you'd expect an all out style of governance without fear and prejudice. There would be no need to satisfy the powers that be as he wouldn't be in need of them again for any re-election purposes. If there is any man who owes Nigerians a huge debt, it is Goodluck Jonathan. Despite the PDP's notoriety, they came out in their numbers to vote for him. Most of these voters said something in the line of "I am not voting for PDP, I am voting for Jonathan", this despite the fact that Jonathan on the ballot paper was the symbol of an umbrella and the acronym PDP. In Nigeria, reason is always beyond reasoning. Words are bandied and used as if Nigerians were its creator. Well, they voted PDP and Jonathan won in a free and fair election. The question is whether Jonathan will stand by the masses now he has what he asked for. He has a lot to do. Outgoing Governors have handed over some 48 hours or so early. The two term Governor of the South Western State of Ogun, Gbenga Daniel is as we speak somewhere in the United Kingdom having handed over to the new government well ahead of schedule. Fully cognizant of his imminent arrest for corruption and his immunity, he chose to outrun justice early while justice cannot yet run after him. A man whom the people of Ogun state trusted with their future eight years ago as he promised them an agenda for a secured future, would not even wait to be cheered (or booed) out of office as he chose to leave in the cloud of suspicion and the fear of his own demons. Jonathan has the responsibility of making sure people like Gbenga Daniel, Alao Akala of Oyo state, Ikedi Ohakim of Imo state, Alhaji Ibrahim Shekarau of Kano state and their ilk face the wrath of the law. The fact that some eight or so past Governors of previous regimes still walk around as free men does not encourage one's optimism on this front. Chief Olusegun Obasanjo whom many will credit for Jonathan's rise to power spent some \$16 billion in his bid to help make electric power outages history in Nigeria, but the history about that is how much of the money went into private pockets (including his) and how he left the problem of electricity generation far worse than he met it. Jonathan has promised to ensure Nigerians enjoy more electricity. In the run up to the elections, this looked a believable promise as the supply of power rose to unprecedented levels

-something which the president was quick to refer to in his bid for the people's mandate, only for that to suddenly change soon after the elections. He needs peace in his home town region of the Niger Delta to achieve anything meaningful with Nigeria's chaotic power supply and he has been able to achieve something close to that so far. The short term will determine how far that pregnant peace will hold. I had told sitting Nigerian ministers in Abuja at a World Bank organized Nigerian village square meeting on the need for a total overhaul of the educational sector. They agreed, but things have gone from worst to disastrous since then. Institutional strikes that keep University students at home for long stretch of months remain the norm. This along with the National Youth Service Corps top the mess that is the educational sector Goodluck Jonathan will need to tidy up. To understate how much the government valued the life of a Nigerian graduate, they gave a whopping \$32,500 (N5,000,000) to the families of deceased Corps members killed in the aftermath of the president's electoral victory. It was easier for the government to gather some young Nigerians together at a Lunch with the president worth N70,000,000 to discuss issues the president knows too well having been a University lecturer. Much has been written about that ill-fated Lunch, so there would be no need to highlight that mess here. However, a ray of hope exists. The success story of Lagos is a pointer to the fact that Nigeria can change. President Jonathan does not inspire confidence when he speaks, but that will not matter if his works as president inspire Nigeria to its rightful place of greatness. He sees God in his rise from sheer poverty to the presidency; President Goodluck Jonathan will certainly call for the divine in his quest to tidy up Nigeria. His story inspired Nigerians to vote for him, one can only wish his works will inspire Nigeria to greater good" (Japheth J. Omojuwa, 2011).

In summary to the context of this paper, another question is what would be the achievement of the present government or leadership in terms of making living favorable to his fellow citizens, especially, in the area of ethnic conflict management and over the daily needs of his people? Eyes are watching, knees are praying and, hearts are discerning and observing actions.

Parties To The Conflict

Date	Place	Element	Cause	Effect
1963 - 1964	Kano and Kaduna	The Elites	Secession from the elites against traditional rulers/Kings	Bloody death of both the elites, traditional rulers/King etc
1966 - 1970	Nigeria Civil War	Igbo and Hausa	Biafra demanding self-determination in a state which could protect the lives and properties of its Citizens. The <i>secession</i> of the former eastern region of Nigeria as a sovereign state, "Biafra."	Military casualties estimated over 100,000; Death as a result of starvation from Half a million to 2 million, (John P. Mackintosh et al. 1966:498-501, John de St. Jorre, 1972).
1992 & 1999	Ketu & Mile 12	Yorubas & Hausas	Traditional Market Union leadership tussle, (Sillo, 1999: 1)	Mayhem lives and many Properties lost.
June 1999	Bodija Market in Ibadan	Hausa & Yoruba	Hausa man who was a cattle rarer and a Yoruba man who was allegedly knocked down by Hausa man's cattle – became an intense quarrel between Hausa-Fulani cattle rarer & the Yoruba traders.	Eye Witness Stated: Casualties of 10 people lost their lives; 24 vehicles burnt & 130 shops were burnt.
July 1999	Shagamu Lagos	Yorubas & Hausas	Long standing political rivalry; Land ownership & Observance of the rituals of a traditional Oro festival of Yoruba people	

1999	Kano	Hausa - Fulani	Planned revenge for the losses incurred at the Sagamu Violence. One Kano ethnic indigene, Alhaji Dangote, a prominent Lagos businessman who brought the Sagamu survivors in trailers back to Kano, on getting to Kano, the returnees reportedly recounted a glory picture of their Kiths and Kin. This was said to have caused anger and bitterness to the people of Kano who descended on the Yoruba's who dwell in Kano.	Lives and countless of Properties were destroyed.
2002 - 2003	Kano & Kaduna	Muslim & Christian	Ethnic tension, etc. over the introduction of the Sharia Law which provides for corporal punishment, amputation of limbs, and decapitation.	In 1999 to 2004, a total Estimation of over 50,000 people killed in violence, while a total of 800,000 others displaced.

Sources: (a) Globe and Mail, 23 February 2000, BBC News, October 7, 2004),

(b) Amnesty International, 23 November 2004,

© IRINnews.org, October 11th, 2000. * The table only shows the major conflicts.

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Does Diversification Affect Capital Structure and Profitability in Pakistan?

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Abstract

Diversification has become a common strategy of corporate risk management along with availing other potential benefits. The intent of this study is to identify and analyze the nature of relationship that exists between diversification and capital structure as well as profitability in Pakistan. For this purpose we use the 10 years' (2000-2009) data of all the companies of chemical and food sector listed at the Karachi Stock Exchange (KSE). We find that the diversified firms are more profitable. Using independent variables of firm size, growth and tangibility the results show that whenever significant, the relationship is associated with greater amount of debt held by the firms.

Keywords: Capital structure, Profitability, Diversification, Pakistan

1. Introduction

Diversification; whether it be a product, business, or regional; has become a common strategy of corporate risk management along with availing other potential benefits. Consequently, we observe a proliferation of research relating diversification to the various components of the firm. However, most of these have been in the developed economies' context and we find paucity of such a research in Pakistani context. We propose to fill this gap with this study to help understand the phenomenon in Pakistani context and facilitate comparison with the research done in other countries.

Capital structure and profitability are two very essential components that reflect the firm's sustainability potential in the long-run. A number of studies depict capital structure as a dependent variable which is affected by various independent variables, such as profitability, growth opportunities, debt and non-debt tax shield, firm size, tangibility, ownership concentration and many others (DeAngelo & Masulis, 1980; Harris & Raviv, 1991; Jensen & Meckling, 1976; Myers, 1984; Qureshi, 2009; Sheikh & Wang, 2011). Moreover, various researches conducted on the effect of diversification on capital structure and performance evolved different schools of thought leading to the emergence of theories such as Coinsurance Theory (CT), Transaction Cost Theory (TCT), and Agency Theory (AT). Some argue that diversified firms need to have greater debt to maximize firm value (Kaplan & Weisbach, 1992), which finds its empirical support as well (Li & Li, 1996). However, negating these findings others find out that there is no association between leverage and diversification and many of the benefits

associated with diversification are not in fact achieved (Comment & Jarrell, 1995). Considering the classification of diversification into related and unrelated, some observe that the firms having related diversification have lower debt ratio than specialized firms, whereas unrelated-diversified firms have higher debt level (La Rocca, La Rocca, Gerace, & Smark, 2009). Some others suggest resolutions to the conflicts along with identifying limitations of the earlier conflicting theoretical and empirical studies by further differentiating the diversified firms.

In the Pakistani context we attempt to identify and analyze the relationship between diversification and capital structure as well as profitability. We classify the diversification variable further as product diversification and geographic diversification. We intend to shed light on whether the firms really benefit from diversification in a developing economy, and also provide a platform for future research of similar orientation. Moreover, we intend to see which of theories identified hold in this context. We limit this study to the firms to two sectors of Karachi Stock Exchange (KSE); Chemicals and Food; due to problems associated with the data availability.

Along with the introduction in this section we organize this study as follows: we present theoretical framework with the help of review of relevant literature in section 2, we describe methodology in section 3 and present analysis and results in section 4, and in section 5 we present our conclusions. We provide references at the end.

2. Theoretical framework

To ground this study, we use the three fundamental approaches; CT, TCT and AT; that discuss the relationship between diversification and capital structure.

The CT refers to reduction of operating and financial risk of the firm operating in businesses whose streams of rents are imperfectly correlated (Lewellen, 1971). Coinsurance effect relates to the firms engaged in unrelated diversification strategies (Bergh, 1997; E. H. Kim & McConnell, 1977). Primarily diversification is expected to reduce the risk faced by the firm and its lenders making it more sustainable in unfavorable conditions. A reduced volatility of firm revenues and profits leads to increased debt capacity of the firm (E. H. Kim & McConnell, 1977).

The TCT relates the type of firm's excess resources and the nature of diversification. The firms possessing excess of related specialized resource will tend to go more towards related diversification and those with excess of unrelated/unspecified resources will go towards unrelated diversification. The nature of its diversification trajectory will dictate its financial decisions including the capital structure. High assets' specificity increases credit risk, making credit costly and such firms generally go for equity financing (Kochhar, 1996).

Severance of ownership and management in the firm creates the principal-agent problem resulting in agency cost to reduce the organizational performance (Jensen and Meckling 1976). The AT advocates the role of debt taken by the firm and its consequent committed cash outflows to limit imprudent managerial decisions such as higher spending on non-productive expenses as well as value-decreasing investments (Jensen, 1986). Considering diversification as value decreasing (Berger & Ofek, 1995), this theory advocates negative relationship between diversification and debt.

The construct diversification was initially considered as the degree of heterogeneity of output of firm from the point of view of the number of markets served by that output (Gort, 1962); and the strategic management perspective grounds diversification in terms of product and market diversification (Ansoff, 1958). Product diversification implies the range of products in which the company is operating (La Rocca, et al., 2009). In order to develop theoretical framework we will review a number of studies that have investigated the relationship of different types of diversification with capital structure, firm value and profitability.

2.1 Product diversification

Contrary to the commonly eulogized elicitation, researchers observe the product diversification to be negatively related to firm value where the loss generally decreases in case the diversification is in related industry (Berger & Ofek, 1995). But recently a U-shaped curvilinear inverse relationship is documented between product diversification and profitability (K.H. Kang et al. 2010). Further, simultaneous occurrence of product and international diversification results in increase in leverage, but this relationship does not necessarily hold when considering international and product diversification separately (Chkir & Cosset, 2001). Moreover, diversification across product lines is at best unrelated to leverage after controlling for geographic diversification, asset turnover and firm size; it may be negatively related to leverage in some instances (Singh et al., 2003).

2.2 Related and unrelated diversification

To resolve some of the conflicts and contradictory findings of the earlier studies which considered diversification as single indivisible variable that may yield biased results, the recent researches consider the diversification as related and unrelated. They observe lower leverage and preference for equity financing in the related diversified

firms that are based on business synergies as compared to their specialized counterparts, and high leverage in unrelated diversified firms based on financial synergies (La Rocca, et al., 2009). Additionally, the firms diversifying through acquisitions are more likely to use public sources of financing while the firms accentuating internal development of new businesses depend primarily on private sources of financing (Kochhar & Hitt, 1998).

It is generally observed that the nature and availability of the resources to the firm may define the nature of its diversification trajectory. The tacit locked-in position of the firm due to specialized assets is more likely to facilitate related diversification and the firms possessing high levels of specialized and inflexible intangible assets attempt to transfer these resources across related businesses. The operational synergies across businesses leading to related diversification; and financial synergies leading to unrelated diversification help increase firm value (Chatterjee & Wernerfelt, 1991). Further, related diversification provides more opportunities to increase firm value than unrelated diversification (Hitt & Ireland, 1986).

2.3 International diversification

It is argued that the multinational corporations (MNCs) are likely to have higher leverage as they have lesser default risk due to their operations diversified in multiple countries (Eiteman et. al., 1998). However, contrary to this theorized relationship empirical studies observe the MNCs and their subsidiaries use lesser debt as compared to their domestic counterparts but gradually the leverage of MNCs increases with the increase of their foreign involvement (Burgman, 1996; Chen, Cheng, He, & Kim, 1997; Fatemi, 1988; Michel & Shaked, 1986; Qureshi, 2009). Moreover, there is no significant relationship between international diversification and firm performance (G. Qian, J. Li 2002; D.M. Brock, T. Yaffe 2008). However, some observe a positive but complex relationship between diversification and performance (G. Qian in 2002). But others argue that diversification whether it is industrial or geographic results decrease in firm performance (Y.S. Kim, I. Mathur; 2008).

We present in Table 1 below the identified relevant variables of diversification, their proxies and probable relationship with leverage.

<Insert Table 1 Here>

2.4 Other variables affecting capital structure

The literature (La Rocca, et al., 2009) suggests that there exists a likely interaction between diversification variables and other variables like non-debt tax shield, ownership concentration, tangibility, firm size, and growth opportunities to affect corporate profitability and capital structure. Following (La Rocca, et al., 2009) we consider profitability and capital structure as dependent variables, and diversification as well as non-debt tax shield, ownership concentration, tangibility, firm size, and growth opportunities as independent variables to identify and analyze their relationship.

3. Methodology

The relevant literature proposes different methods to classify the firms as diversified and specialized, as well as related and unrelated diversified. But in Pakistan owing to lack of SIC coding we classify the firms as diversified and specialized on the basis of their product portfolio; whether the firm produces a single or multiple products; and markets; whether the firm sells only in domestic markets or domestic as well as export market.

We consider the firms from food and chemical sectors in our sample, and collect the related data from various sources including online publications, KSE, and the State Bank of Pakistan for 10 years spanning from 2000 to 2009. A total number of 74 companies of Chemicals and Food sectors listed at KSE make up our sample. We consider product and geographic diversification as the two dimensions of diversification. However in the Pakistani context where most of the firms are related diversified, we classify them into just two categories of diversified and specialized. Table 2 depicts the variables included in this study and their respective proxies along with the reasoning.

<Insert Table 2 Here>

We use the following functional form to model the relationship of capital structure with the diversification and profitability along with moderating variables.

$$\text{Capital structure} = f(\text{diversification} + \text{profitability} + \text{firm size} + \text{tangibility} + \text{growth}) \quad (1)$$

We apply regression to the organized data to find the respective relationships among the included variables. First, we apply the procedure to all companies of both sectors combined and then to each sector separately.

Table 3 depicts the descriptive statistics which indicate that almost half of the firms in the sample are diversified with respect to product and the rest are not diversified. On the other hand 39% of the firms are geographic diversified measured as whether or not the firm has export sales along with local sales. The volatile markets and economic conditions facing Pakistan reflect volatility in growth statistics which is also observable in debt ratio.

<Insert Table 3 Here>

4. Analysis, results and their discussion

Table 4 presents correlation among all variables included in the study. We observe a strong positive correlation between product diversification and return on assets as well as the debt ratio, while a strong negative correlation with the degree of tangibility. Further, there exists positive correlation of geographic diversification with firm size, growth and debt ratio and return on assets depict a strong negative correlation with tangibility.

<Insert Table 4 Here>

4.1 Capital structure

Taking debt ratio, a proxy for capital structure, as the dependent variable and rest of the variables (Table 4) as independent for all the firms of the two sectors the regression results in $R^2=0.327$ and a p-value of 0.00 showing a strong relationship of the independent variables with the debt ratio. Moreover, taking 5% significance level Table 5 exhibits that product diversification has positive relationship with debt levels indicating that decrease in corporate risk due to product diversification leads to increased capacity to take debt related risk, and thus provides support to the CT. The negative relationship of return on assets with the debt levels validates the pecking order theory (POT) and this finding also supports the findings of earlier studies in Pakistani context (Qureshi, 2009; Sheikh & Wang, 2011). Moreover, tangibility exhibits a significantly positive effect on the debt levels which depicts the collateral value of these assets but our finding negates an earlier study in Pakistani context (Sheikh & Wang, 2011), this divergence may be because of our choice of sample which is limited to only two sectors while that study uses the entire manufacturing sector.

<Insert Table 5 Here>

4.2 Profitability

Table 6 shows the regression results of profitability, return on asset as its proxy, as dependent variable and rest of the variables taken as independent. Taking 5% significant level this table suggests that product diversification has positive effect on profitability but geographic diversification does not show a significant effect on the profitability. Firm size positively affects profitability, perhaps because larger the firm size greater is its bargaining power in the market. Further, tangibility has negative effect on the profitability; inefficient use of fixed assets may be a plausible explanation of this finding. Moreover, debt ratio also shows a negative relation with profitability indicating that the profitable firms use their cash flows to pay off their debt.

<Insert Table 6 Here>

After the overall analysis for the two sectors, we now present the analysis of each sector in the following paragraphs.

4.3 Capital structure – Chemical sector

Analyzing the relationship of the capital structure (Table 7) with different variables we find that geographic diversification has a strong positive effect on debt ratio. As explained above it seems that the firms in this sector consider the geographic diversification as risk reducing strategic move that creates room for debt related capacity to take risk. On the other hand, return on assets has a strong negative relationship with the capital structure which conforms to POT as well as earlier studies in Pakistani context. Collateral value of fixed assets, labeled as tangibility is positively related to the capital structure negating an earlier study (Sheikh & Wang, 2011).

<Insert Table 7 Here>

4.4 Profitability - Chemical sector

Table 8 depicts the regression results of profitability as dependent variable which suggest that product diversification has a positive effect on the profitability. But the tangibility has a significant negative impact on the profitability which clearly indicates that most productive assets of this sector are non-fixed assets such as patents, trademarks, etc. Moreover, growth also contributes positively to the profitability negating an earlier study in Pakistani context (Sheikh & Wang, 2011).

<Insert Table 8 Here>

4.5 Capital structure - Food sector

Table 9 presents the relationship of capital structure of the firms of food sector with firm size, ROA and tangibility that are the most effective variables to determine the debt ratio. Firm size has a strong negative effect on capital structure. The plausible explanation could be that larger firms command not only goodwill but also have lesser informational asymmetry in the market place and consequently are likely to have more confidence of the market participants resulting in better chances to issue equity. Profitability demonstrates a strong negative relationship with the debt ratio, *a universally observed corporate regulation* which provides internal equity financing as a first choice rather than issuing external equity or taking debt. We observe a strong positive effect of tangibility on debt ratio indicating the use of collateral value of fixed assets to raise debt financing.

<Insert Table 9 Here>

4.6 Profitability - Food sector

We depict the regression results of food sector in Table 10 which demonstrates the relationship of independent variables with profitability as dependent variable. Product diversification and debt ratio emerge as the most effective contributors to determine profitability in this sector; the earlier having a positive impact whereas the latter having a negative impact.

<Insert Table 10 Here>

4.7 Analysis with respect to firm size

Since we do not observe any deterministic relationship of firm size with capital structure and profitability, we divide the whole sample into three distinct categories with respect to size; large, medium and small firms; and apply regression on each group separately. In the following paragraphs we discuss these results.

4.7.1 Capital structure of large firms

Table 11 shows that three independent variables yield a significant effect on capital structure of large firms: geographic diversification has a positive relationship; profitability shows a negative relationship; and tangibility depicts a positive relationship with debt. These findings reinforce the argument given in previous sections that diversified firms having large amount of fixed assets hold greater capability to get debt at lower cost from the lending institutions; and profitable firms tend to use their cash flows to pay off debt.

<Insert Table 11 Here>

4.7.2 Capital structure of medium firms

As far as middle sized firms are concerned, Table 12 shows that another variable growth has become prominent variable in affecting the capital structure of these firms which has a strong negative impact on debt of the companies. The growth firms generally do not want to share the advantage of growth with the lenders. Rather they issue common stocks to raise money and share the increased worth of the company with the shareholders. A consistently strong negative relationship of return on assets with the debt again conforms to POT.

<Insert Table 12 Here>

4.7.3 Capital structure of small firms

Table 13 depicts that most of the independent variables show insignificant relationship with debt ratio of small firms. Only geographic diversification shows a strong positive impact on the debt ratio. The firms exporting their products have significantly higher debt than the ones doing business locally.

<Insert Table 13 Here>

4.7.4 Profitability of large firms

Taking profitability as dependent variable and all the other variables as the independent variables, Table 14 shows that only product diversification and tangibility have a strong effect on the profitability of large firms. The earlier holds a strong positive relationship and the latter shows a strong negative effect. This result for product diversification coincides with the result obtained from the collective analysis of the data. Tangibility also shows the same relationship with the profitability.

<Insert Table 14 Here>

4.7.5 Profitability of medium firms

Table 15 presents profitability of the medium sized firms. We find that debt ratio has a strong negative impact on the profitability of these firms the same relationship we observe in section 4.7.2.

<Insert Table 15 Here>

4.7.6 Profitability of small firms

We find a positive relationship of profitability of small firms and their product diversification which we present in Table 16.

<Insert Table 16 Here>

5. Conclusion

From the above empirical analysis several important patterns emerge that we summarize below:

First, the coinsurance theory and the transaction cost theory are supported by the results as the firms having product and geographic diversification have greater amount of debt as compared to the non-diversified firms. Second, the pecking order theory is consistently validated in almost in all cases.

Tangibility positively affects the debt ratio. Considering the profitability, product diversification positively affected the profitability, the diversified firms earning more on average. Same was the effect of size of firm on the earnings, larger the size greater the average profitability. Similarly debt and tangibility have negative relationships with the profitability

Firm size; classified into three categories, small, medium and large; affects firms' capital structure as well profitability. Geographically diversified large firms having high tangibility have positive impact of their profitability and they use their lesser operational risk to secure higher debt in their capital structure. Moreover, the growing medium sized firms do not share the expected benefit of growth with their creditors and avoid debt as the strong negative relationship of growth with debt ratio depicts. Furthermore, product diversification helps small firms not only to improve their profitability but also helps them raise their debt capacity.

The diversified firms; producing and exporting multiple products; have a greater capacity to bear debt due to their stability in any adverse situation which may cripple whole of the firm if it is specialized. The firms which are geographically diversified are also more profitable may be because of better product leading to greater product acceptability in the different markets. The results show a universal negative relationship between profitability and debt.

Our results may be interpreted considering its limitations which include: i. We use a sample of only two sectors due to data availability problem but increasing the sample size may yield better insights regarding the topic under discussion; ii. We classified the firms based on their product and/or geographic (market) diversification but we emphasize the need of developing a criterion of diversification similar to SIC to better classify the companies systemically.

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Table 1. Diversification variables, their proxies and relationships as found in the literature

Variables	Proxy	Identified relationship	References
Related diversification	SIC (Standard Industrial classification codes) are used.	Negative relationship with debt	(La Rocca, et al., 2009)
Related diversification	SSIC(Singapore Standard Industrial classification) codes, product segments were classified as related if they contained the same first three digits of the SSIC	Negative relationship with debt	(Lim, Das, & Das, 2009)
Diversification	Two proxies used: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Herfindahl index(HERF) ▪ Entropy Index (ENTROP) 	No significant relationship found between diversification and debt level	(Menéndez-Alonso, 2003)
Diversification of MNCs	Degree of multinationality MUL measured by the ratio of foreign taxes to total taxes.	Positive relationship with debt	(Chkir & Cosset, 2001)
Related Diversification	Using group sales and corporate sales	Negative relationship with debt	(Su)
Related Diversification	Entropy indices used to calculate the variable	Negative relationship with debt	(Kochhar & Hitt, 1998)
Unrelated Diversification	SIC codes are used.	Negative relationship with debt	(La Rocca, et al., 2009)
Unrelated Diversification	SSIC codes, product segments were classified as unrelated if they did not contain the same first three digits of the SSIC	Positive relationship with debt	(Lim, et al., 2009)
Unrelated Diversification	Using group sales and corporate sales	Positive relationship with debt	(Su)
Unrelated Diversification	Entropy indices used to calculated the variable	positive relationship with debt	(Kochhar & Hitt, 1998)

Table 2. Variables included in the study

INDEPENDENT VARIABLES		
Reasoning for taking a particular proxy	Variables	Proxies
Lack of any system to grade the diversification level of Pakistani firms we classify the firms using product diversification criterion: firms producing single product as specialized and those producing more than one product as diversified.	Product diversification	Single or multiple products
Those firms which have been exporting in the record were included as geographically diversified and others selling their products locally were classified as specialized	Geographic diversification	Exporting or not
Fatemi, A. M. (1988), Alonso, E., 2003, D. Aoun and A. Heshmati, 2010	Size of firm	Log of Total assets
(La Rocca, et al., 2009)	Tangibility	Fixed assets/Total assets
Alonso, E., 2003	Growth	$\frac{\text{Sales}_t - \text{Sales}_{t-1}}{\text{Sales}_{t-1}}$
(La Rocca, et al., 2009), (Harris and Raviv, 1991)	Return on assets	EBIT/Total assets
DEPENDENT VARIABLES		
(La Rocca, et al., 2009), (Qureshi, 2009), and many others	Debt ratio	$\frac{\text{Total liabilities}}{\text{Total liabilities} + \text{Total equity}}$
(G. Qian, J. Li, 2002,) (La Rocca, et al., 2009), (Harris and Raviv, 1991)	ROA(for profitability)	EBIT/Total assets

Table 3. Descriptive statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Pro-diversification	74	.00	1.00	.5135	.50323
Geo-diversification	74	.00	1.00	.3919	.49151
ROA	74	-15.00	31.55	5.5195	10.71950
Size of firm	74	1.21	4.37	2.9835	.56205
Tangibility	74	.05	.87	.4858	.20270
Growth	74	-8.49	108.85	18.0319	15.46606
Debt ratio	74	.08	9.99	1.4851	2.08284
Valid N (list wise)	74				

Table 4. Correlation among the variables

Two variables showing correlation		Sig level	Value	Relationship
Product diversification	Return on assets	.000	.470	Strong positive
Product diversification	Tangibility	.000	-.458	Strong negative
Product diversification	Debt ratio	.017	.277	Positive
Geo diversification	Size of firm	.010	.299	Positive
Geo diversification	Growth	.046	.232	Positive
Geo diversification	Debt ratio	.025	.260	Positive
Return on assets	Tangibility	.000	-.490	Strong negative

Table 5. Capital structure as dependent variable

R		R ²	Regression sum of square	Residual sum of squares	Significance level
.572		.327	103.566	213.123	.000
Regression			Sig. level	beta	Relationship
Independent variable	Dependent variable				
Product diversification	Debt ratio		.000	.521	Positive
Geographic diversification	Debt ratio		.015	.272	Positive
Profitability	Debt ratio		.012	-.329	Negative
Tangibility	Debt ratio		.039	.263	Positive

Table 6. Profitability as dependent variable

R		R ²	Regression sum of squares	Residual sum of squares	Significance level
.659		.434	3643.132	4745.136	.000
Regression			Sig level	Beta	Relationship
Independent variable	Dependent variable				
Product diversification	Return on assets		.001	.402	Positive
Size of firm	Return on assets		.023	.228	Positive
Tangibility	Return on assets		.016	-.279	Negative
Debt ratio	Return on assets		.012	-.277	Negative

Table 7. Chemical sector - Capital structure as dependent variable

R	R²	Regression sum of squares	Residual sum of squares	Significance level
.732	.536	132.409	114.791	.008
Regression		Sig level	Beta	Relationship
Independent variable	Dependent variable			
Geographic diversification	Debt ratio	.008	.463	Positive
Profitability	Debt ratio	.044	-.408	Negative
Tangibility	Debt ratio	.071	.330	Positive

Table 8. Chemical sector - Profitability as dependent variable

R	R²	Regression sum of squares	Residual sum of squares	Significance level
.771	.594	1261.746	863.584	.000
Regression		Sig level	Beta	Relationship
Independent variable	Dependent variable			
Product diversification	Return on assets	.051	.293	Positive
Tangibility	Return on assets	.039	-.289	Negative
Growth	Return on assets	.013	.343	Positive

Table 9. Food sector - Capital structure as dependent variable

R	R²	Regression sum of squares	Residual sum of squares	Significance level
.737	.543	8.928	7.502	.000
Regression		Sig level	Beta	Relationship
Independent variable	Dependent variable			
Size of firm	Debt ratio	.046	-.308	Negative
Profitability	Debt ratio	.002	-.540	Negative
Tangibility	Debt ratio	.017	.362	Positive

Table 10. Food sector - Profitability as dependent variable

R	R²	Regression sum of squares	Residual sum of squares	Significance level
.797	.635	2317.371	1330.774	.000
Regression		Sig level	Beta	Relationship
Independent variable	Dependent variable			
Product diversification	Return on assets	.002	.396	Positive
Debt ratio	Return on assets	.002	-.432	Negative

Table 11. Capital structure of large firms

R	R²	Regression sum of squares	Residual sum of squares	Significance level
.618	.306	121.125	195.565	.000
Regression		Sig. level	beta	Relationship
Independent variable	Dependent variable			
Geographic diversification	Debt ratio	.014	.272	Positive
Profitability	Debt ratio	.059	-.254	Negative
Tangibility	Debt ratio	.024	.281	Positive

Table 12. Capital structure of medium firms

R	R²	Regression sum of squares	Residual sum of squares	Significance level
.764	.446	26.980	19.207	.008
Regression		Sig. level	beta	Relationship
Independent variable	Dependent variable			
Growth	Debt ratio	.021	-.487	Negative
Profitability	Debt ratio	.029	-.476	Negative

Table 13. Capital structure of small firms

R	R²	Regression sum of squares	Residual sum of squares	Significance level
.821	.558	79.127	38.352	.002
Regression		Sig. level	beta	Relationship
Independent variable	Dependent variable			
Geographic diversification	Debt ratio	.000	.732	Positive

Table 14. Profitability of large firms

R	R²	Regression sum of squares	Residual sum of squares	Significance level
.767	.451	2051.953	1436.648	.007
Regression		Sig. level	beta	Relationship
Independent variable	Dependent variable			
Product diversification	ROA	.013	.827	Positive
Tangibility	ROA	.034	-.493	Negative

Table 15. Profitability of medium firms

R	R²	Regression sum of squares	Residual sum of squares	Significance level
.750	.563	800.378	621.791	.012
Regression		Sig. level	beta	Relationship
Independent variable	Dependent variable			
Debt ratio	ROA	.029	-.501	Negative

Table 16. Profitability of small firms

R	R²	Regression sum of squares	Residual sum of squares	Significance level
.740	.547	1626.517	1347.097	.021
Regression		Sig. level	beta	Relationship
Independent variable	Dependent variable			
Product diversification	ROA	.070	.449	Positive

The Meaning, Strategies and Application of the Value Creation as a Profit Model

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Abstract

To designate the value creation of the news products, it is necessary for the media to take into account its stakeholders. In the future, the core requirement of the media is to satisfy the personalized needs of the audience. Correspondingly, this profit model is called value creation. The value creation refers that the media provide the products to satisfy the personalized needs of the audience, which can improve the audience's paying willingness and increase the media's revenue. There is a priority among the five strategies of the value creation: to provide specialized information products> to provide exclusive information products> to reuse the news through cross-media> to improve the producing and disseminating speed of the news products>to increase the number of the news products. Such a profit model has been applied and the media has gathered some experience.

Keywords: Value creation, Profit model, Personalized needs, Paying willingness

1. Introduction

Value creation refers to the organization of how to determine and management creates value for shareholders and successful operations and realizes the organization of the value of the main process. Media to determine the value of the news product creation, will in the process of achieve added value considering the stakeholders. The so-called "stakeholders" is to point to a certain interest relationship with the enterprise of the individual or enterprise groups, may be within the enterprise (such as employee), also may be enterprise external (such as supplier or pressure groups). According to Robert skin carter (1989) point of view, and media stakeholders including media owners, audience, advertisers and media staff, social five aspects, the different stakeholders need different value creation, its specific as follows: (1) the media owners of which the goal for the preservation of the organizational assets, high return on investment, asset value added. (2) The audience of which the goal is lower prices for higher quality media products and services. (3) Advertisers of which the goal is a lower price to maximum target audience. (4) Media people of who the goal is to professional status and reasonable compensation. (5) Society of which the goal is to provide a thinking and discussion of the platform, so that it can maintain social order and promoting the development of society.

Media development history shows the different historical period of service stakeholders order is different:

1.1 party media stage

The so-called political party media, refers to belong to party group, from political obvious mainly is the propaganda of the party policies and related activities of the media. In the late Qing dynasty before when such as to promote a claim, the gardens of a sino-foreign jamie smell", "the strong journal" and so on, these newspapers have strong political color and political sex. Party media period, important is propaganda media worker's political views, and to participate in social and political life, and for propaganda target audience, work in order to convince the audience accept news media claims, media owners won't or little account of the value of the assets, basic without advertising, therefore, party media for media workers create the highest value, and for society and the audience to create higher value for advertisers and media owners create general value.

1.2 The popular media stage

Mass media, originating from the industrial revolution countries successively appeared after the middle of face the society issued cheap newspapers. Along with the radio, TV after the development, become a kind of most ordinary people to the media. Mass media phase is to take in the content product market and advertising market to sell the profit pattern of dual, and with the development of the media, its increasingly rely on advertising revenue, such as in 1956, the newspaper of the advertising revenue only accounts for 71% of total revenue, into the 20 the century, is 82% (Robert G. Picard, 2002), the rapid development of advertising revenue as media owners an important guarantee of earnings. This stage, the audience for media attention that though, but its purpose is to create in the audience circulation or viewing (to) rate, the consideration is most of the audience usually need to, not different between audience individual requirements. For this, the popular media for advertisers and media owners create the highest value, for audience, social and media workers create general value.

1.3 public media stage

Public service media refer to the society for the purpose of media, such as the British broadcasting corporation is a funded by the government but the independent operation of public media. Public media from the audience funds directly supply, don't rely on advertising; The program independent of any interest group includes the government; Show consideration a few audience, especially the social hard attend to the needs of the special audience; The contents of the program do not pursue a ratings but pursue program quality, however, this one phase of the program also only consider the overall interests of the public, it doesn't consider different audience individual requirements. Visible, public media for society to create the highest value, for audience, media workers create higher value for advertisers and media owners create general value.

The development history of media from the above three main stages to see, the media are not the personalized needs of the audience in the most important place, so difficult to really important for audience, in order to change this situation, will create a personal media stage, as the future development direction.

1.4 The future of media--personal media stage

Personal media stage, refers to the audience is the personalized needs of services as the core of the media, but such an audience, and not the past think of passive, large-scale and even the mob, but on different crowd of change, from different groups of people who demand. Media provide products into the audience go in the life, and maintain contact with the audience, create real value for audience. Personal media stage based on democratic participation in theory, its main ideas have (Guo, Qingguang, 1999): (1) Any personal and social group's people have known, the right of the right of communication through to the media, the use and the close and accept media services, the right. (2) The media should be mainly for the audience and the media organization, advertisers, publicity home exist; (3) the social from all walks of life should have their own media; (4) Small, two-way interactive involvement and the media conform to social ideal. Because consider the audience and the individual interests, audience of media willingness to pay increase, will also drive advertising to quality, and increase the interest of the owners in an advertisers and media. Visible, personal media for audience to create the highest value, but also for the audience, advertisers and media workers, and media owners create higher value.

2. The connotation of value creation profit model

So, and personal media stage corresponding is a kind of what kind of profit model? At present, most of the media is based on content product market and advertising market the dual product market media mode profits (chart 1), in the content products in the market, media as a sale to provide information to the audience and the audience is to provide money and (or) time for media, of course, not all media products all need money exchange with the audience, but it is all media products need customer with time the scarce resources to exchange. In the advertising market, on the surface, to sell his media space or time to advertisers, but really the right to sell the audience to media to advertisers. Advertisers to money and media exchange. And here the audience of the right of the approach of the measure for the first market according to measure and essence is the quantity and quality of the audience, and often in the audience as a measure of the media contact time index. Along with the development of the media, relying too much on advertising market for advertising revenue has become the most media mode of operation, is a part of this kind of dual product market profit model of the core. However, relying too much on advertising media attention to the market in the number of lay particular stress on audience and audience of media product payment time, and lack of audience personalized needs attention, lack of the reader to pay money to the attention of the media products, eventually leading to the media products and audience of the products of the pre-paid the lack of money.

For the average consumer goods for, enterprise concern is for the goods from the consumer of the will of the pay money, this psychology in microeconomics called on willingness to pay. The audience's willingness to pay for the product is refers to the highest willing to pay the price, if its willingness to pay higher than the actual price, then the audience is willing to buy a consumer goods, if its willingness to pay less than the actual price, the audience will give up to buy a consumer goods. In binary product market profit mode, with the advertising market income compensation, the media often with low price and even free media products to attract an audience, so that, even if the audience's willingness to pay is not high, but as long as the price is greater than the actual and the audience will buy this media products. Media also through this strategy expanded audience get more time audience, eventually in the advertising market is profit. However, this strategy often makes the media ignored audience of media products willingness to pay, making it difficult to provide real high quality, meet different audience psychology demand the product, therefore, we should reform the traditional binary product market profit model, a kind of value innovation to create the profit pattern of out. The so-called value creation profit model, refers to the media to provide service audience the personalized needs of products, the media products can help to improve the audience willingness to pay, increase media content in product market in the income, finally off current media excessive rely on advertising revenue this a profit model.

The new value creation profit model to meet the personalized needs of the audience for the core, in order to improve the audience willingness to pay for breakthrough, not only for the audience for value creation, still can give the media in other stakeholders media owners and advertisers, media workers, social value creation. One of the principle as follows: media people through the production service audience the personalized needs of the products, thus get the audience recognition, and further increase the audience willingness to pay and increase the time contact media, the audience increased willingness to pay the content of the media products income, and meet the needs of the economy of the media owners, meet the audience the personalized needs of media products to increase the audience the increase of utility, the effectiveness of each audience increased social utility is actually increase, and the media time increase audience contact prompted the advertisement effect of the increase of advertisers. The profit pattern of value creation can be the following figure 2 to say:

3. Value creativity profitable mode choice of the strategy

How to value creation, the media can choose five kind of strategy, however, these strategies and not for all the stakeholders can create the value of the same size, different strategy its specific performance is different, the following one by one to analysis:

3.1 Increasing the number of news product

For the audience for, because different audience have different characteristics, with news of the increase in the number of products, and in the audience of diminishing marginal utility law under control, the audience the increase of total effectiveness is first increased and then decreased, the turning point that is marginal utility for zero place, also is the most large utility. Therefore, the audience increase in the number of from news for utility increase can't keep pace with the increase of the number of product news speed and, eventually, because of the information products to increase excessive audience given the overall utility reduced. In addition, although the increase of the excess of the news product may give some small parts of the audience brings about certain utility, but, but to most of the other audience brought to the mass information disposal of the negative utility. As Abraham Maslow's, (Abraham h. Maslow) pointed out that "we can seek knowledge, to reduce the anxiety, and we also can avoid knowledge, and to reduce anxiety (Abraham H. Maslow, 1963). And if news product the quantity is too much, the hard to avoid is prosperous, some news product and is not people required information, and some even is not accurate information, bad information, false information so that more will lead to the value of the assessment of the audience of the decline. To advertisers, it increases the number of news product did not increase the value, but lower value, this is because the audience in order to avoid contact with too much information, do not be willing to pay for more news product time or money, the result makes advertisement hard to get close to the target audience, achieve the purpose to persuade advertising. For media owners for, advertiser's value to the fall in the marginal investment income drop appeared, and its value is also on the decline. For media workers for, increase the quantity of products and news can't improve the quality of the news, but increases media workers the investment of time and energy, too much wasteful consumption make it difficult to creative production news high-quality goods, and also reduced the value of media people. Of course, in the information society, increase the number of news product is often considered an increase information method; therefore, for the society as a whole, increase the quantity of products can give news from the higher value.

3.2 Improving the production and dissemination of news product speed

For the audience for, improve the production and dissemination of news product speed is undoubtedly increase

its value so that the audience can understand the change of the world around them, but also want to see is, the speed of the news product but could damage the news the veracity and reliability of products, and improve the production and dissemination of news product speed and can't necessarily bring high value to the audience. In addition, the speed of the news product to different audience value is different, and news product related audience of the speed is demanding, but other audiences are not necessarily, for example, Iraq suicide bombings news reports of the speed to the life of the people in Iraq and is closely related with its people have important value, but for others but not necessarily. So, to the whole audience for, in the guarantee the accuracy, under the premise of the news product production and dissemination of the speed of its value is first increased and then decreased, so promote news product production and transmission speed can only give the audience the increased value of bring part. For advertisers for, the speed of the news product enhancement, and can't affect its close to the quantity and quality of the audience, so the value of no effect. And for media owners for, the speed of the news product has become a common phenomenon, it can't directly to the way the media obviously increase income, so can think is no influence on the value. For media worker, is improve the production and dissemination of news product speed to facilitate its spread the news for the first honor and profit, however, too much speed, is likely to lead to media workers to focus on publish short news or not complete the news, this reduces the professional level of the workers of the media, and finally make it loses relevant professional award, so its value belongs to the part of the decline. Of course, for the society as a whole, and improve the production and dissemination of news product speed can make the information society the operation speed, but too quick to the accuracy of the information that decline as the value added a discount, so also just bring the increased value of part.

3.3 Using cross media repeated use news product

In recent years, the news agency attached great importance to use cross media repeated use news product, I wish that could produce scope economy. This strategy is based on the use of the fusion of the media technology, such as the newspaper publisher is committed to providing through various media (including network, cell phones, etc) provides news and information, because "smart publishers know, their survival depends on whether it can at any time, any place contact to the audience" (Martha L. Stone, 2006). To the audience for, use cross media repeated use news product and can't increase its value, because cross media repeated use the spread of news product, make the audience in different media sees the same product news, results in its value dropped. To advertisers for, use cross media repeated use news product, ads are also attached to launch of, and help to increase the number of the target audience to visit and frequency and the advertisement effect for is convinced the favorable, as repeated can increase the effect of persuaded, but too much repetition will backfire, therefore can only is to promote the increased value of the part. The owner of the media for cross media repeated use news product can increase income, share the cost, and along with the news product the repeated use of the increase of value and the degree in increasing. For media workers for, use cross media repeated use have good news product, because it can spread their reports, improve their profile, but of a repetition of also can make its reach a bottleneck. For society, and use cross media repeated use products also have some good news, because it can be more widely to spread the information, but the repeated use make the final value of the rise to a certain degree of stopped, therefore, the use of cross media repeated use of news media workers and social products for all to be part of the value added.

3.4 Providing exclusive news product

Exclusive news, and that is "people I have no" information, or with a unique the content of the news. For the audience, it provides exclusive news media products, can help in gaining advantage in the life, or make the economic benefits, so as to increase its value. To advertisers, it provides exclusive news media products can increase for the audience close, increase its some value, but because the number of exclusive news product after all is less, so its advertisers to add value is trivial, can be called value is not affected. For media owners, it provides exclusive news product, because the economic value of scarcity lead to higher, so as to increase the income, and then to the media owners, but in reality, this advantage is limited, as the exclusive products provide income often is limited, and thus belong to part of the value added. For media workers, provide exclusive news product can increase its value, because it can create an internal and professional incentive, such as for journalism awards, etc. To society, from short-term said, exclusive news can and other different media news operation distinguish with exclusive news media get sustainable development. But, in the long term, because of its exclusive and weaken the widely to provide information for the society of social benefit, so as to reduce the value of the whole society, so the exclusive products to the community, it is to belong to part of the value added.

3.5 Providing professional news product

Professional news products are for specific industries, special field of the special conditions, special

phenomenon, special requirements, and professional cover news. Due to the use of high value, professional news than general news can produce more of the exchange value. For the audience, it professional news especially personalized professional news, the work and life has to have the help very much, so it can increase its value. To advertisers, its professional news with clear population statistics of the audience, although the number of single professional news and not many more, but the precise to advertisers to target audience, to increase its value. The owner of the media for professional news can provide high added value for audience of news, so that the audience increased willingness to pay, and then increase the income of the media, and to increase the value of professional journalism. For media worker, is professional news also increased its value, because professional news by expert knowledge for production, and is interested audience produce professional content, which get the strong professional rewards, and increase its value. For the society as a whole, the increase of professional journalism can make the information society the quality improvement, but if each individual choice of professional news too scattered, can reduce social should share the cultural values and knowledge, can also lead to its value to society's down, so can only called value part increased.

These five strategies for all the stakeholders to provide different results can the following table 1 to reflect:

We can see from table 1 that increasing the quantity and improve the product news news product production and in the rate of spread and do not increase the overall value of all the stakeholders, while using cross media repeated use news products to the part of the stakeholder value has increased, provide exclusive news product and special news product can greatly enhance the value of stakeholders. If these five strategies for sort of words, the priority is as follows:

Provide the special news product > provide exclusive news product > use cross media repeated use news > improve news product and in the rate of spread > increase the number of news product.

Therefore, the media in value creation profit model strategy should be first selection preference in the strategy before choosing one.

4. The application of value creation profit model

The profit pattern of value creation in the media application practice of need to pay attention to the following questions: first, the profit pattern of value creation is through the production to meet the personalized needs of the audience media products as the means, in order to improve the audience willingness to pay for the key, but not unilaterally to take charge of the media form can be achieved. In addition, the media product charge will be to lose other would not pay for the cost of the audience's contact, and advertising revenue the influence. For example, the New York times from online in May 2005 started "times of hits" (Time Select) column charge, this column is mainly columnist articles, in the second quarter of 2007, online edition "times Select" subscriber per month in as many as 220000 people, but on August 8, 2007 times the company announced the cancellation charge system, here's why on the surface, the number of online readers are not beyond its commercial expectations, advertising is no this follow-up, but actually it's "times of hits" and not really can satisfy the audience the personalized needs of media products.

Secondly, in the traditional media environment, and meet the audience the personalized needs of media products relying mainly on market segments, however, due to the scale of the economic constraints, such a product production is difficult to realize, in media mergence environment, with the aid of the Internet and digital, meet the audience the personalized needs of media production possible and reality. For example, December 8, 2009 associated Press news, the New York Times, the Washington post and Google Company hand in hand to produce new products: Living Stories (fresh story). Specific means is provided by Google technology platform, will the New York Times and the Washington post news consolidation and according to news events divided into different projects, so in every news project, users can see continuously updated news. "Fresh story" change the news to present the way, it will all content polymerization to a dynamic web pages, and on the basis of different news to organize information (as a by the New York times and the Washington post news automatically generated project page). The system is also will be the last time the content of the attention according to the audience to his interest news to the latest news. "Fresh story" provides a new form of interaction with the news, reports of high quality and the audience wants to see the news to be automatic presented to him (Gao, Jinping, 2010). The development of technology that meet the audience the personalized needs of media production of become more easily.

Finally, in the current media production to meet the personalized needs of the audience to realize media products, increase the products and provide the special news exclusive news product supply will increase the willingness to pay the audience. For example, in 2007, the Wall Street journal website has become the world's largest paid subscription news sites, with 980000 online subscribers. This is mainly thanks to the Wall Street journal website

financial news it easier for the reader to create "value", the service in their financial management, investment decision-making reference, this is the other media cannot provide professional news product. In short, the profit pattern of value creation of the reality that the value of the audience application value for the purpose, thus promote other stakeholder value added (this article published in the international press, 2011), please indicate the reprinted).

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Table 1.

	audience	advertiser	owner	Media owner	society
Increase the number of news product	↓	↓	↓	↓	↑
Improve the production and dissemination of news product speed	↗	—	—	↘	↗
Use cross media repeated use news product	↓	↗	↑	↗	↗
Provide exclusive news product	↑	—	↗	↑	↗
Provide the special news product	↑	↑	↑	↑	↗

↑=increase; ↓=decrease; ↗=increase partly;
 ↘=decrease partly; —=no effect

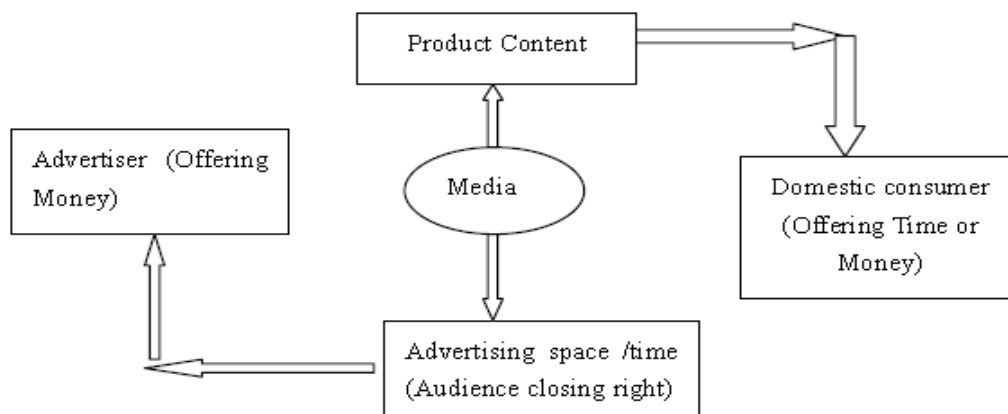


Figure 1. Two products market profit model

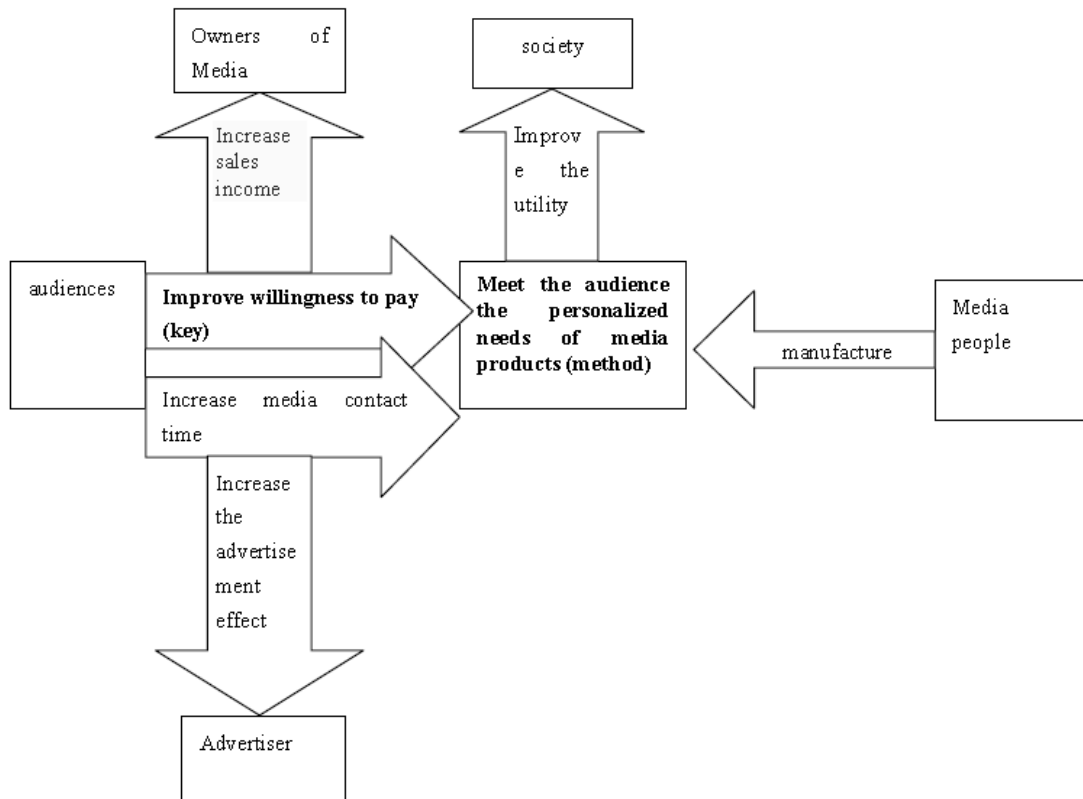


Figure 2. The profit pattern of value creation

The Relationship between Sources of Moral Authority, Political Attitude and Authoritarianism

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Abstract

Individuals with different political attitudes attribute their political tendencies to different sources of moral authority. This study aimed to investigate the relationship between moral authority sources, political attitude and authoritarianism. A total of 128 subjects from two universities participated in this study by completing the Moral Authority Test-Revised (MAS-R) and the Authoritarianism Scale. Respondents were also asked regarding their political tendencies. Findings showed no significant difference of political attitudes in attribution to different sources of moral authority and authoritarianism. There was however a significant relation of authoritarianism with external source of moral authority, but not with principle and self interest sources. This implies that authoritarians relied on external source of authority figures in moral judgment rather than one's own interest or principle issues. The findings were discussed in terms of the characteristics of the sample and sociopolitical sphere of Iran.

Keywords: Moral authority sources, Political attitude, Authoritarianism, External source, Principle source

1. Introduction

The political approaches of individuals are varied in a wide range of issues, but usually they are brought to a contradictory continuum which is usually labeled differently across nations. The continuum of left and right in some of the western countries or conservative and liberalism in United States is an example of the extreme sides of the continuum. The differences of these two extreme political ideologies have always been the focus of psychosocial research specifically from their personality and morality viewpoints. However, results of previous studies have not always been consistent. For instance, the relation of political tendencies with morality has been contradictory and it is not clear whether individuals with different political ideologies are different from each other in their sources of moral authority.

From the moral reasoning point of view, conservative political attitude (right-wing orientation) is found to be associated with lower level of moral reasoning. In contrast, liberals (left-wing orientation) have shown higher maturity in their morality (Candee and Kohlberg, 1987; Emler et al., 1983; Haan et al., 1968; Kohlberg and Candee, 1984; Raaijmakers and Hoof, 2006). Conversely, from another point of view, it has been found that conservatives have a wide range of moral spectrum while liberals have a limited number of moral foundations.

Graham et al. (2009) said that liberals mostly endure the harm/care and fairness/reciprocity foundations of morality while conservatives use five foundations of morality which are harm/care, fairness/reciprocity, in-group/loyalty, authority/respect, and purity/sanctity. Skitka and Bauman (2008), on the other hand, demonstrated that the conservatives and liberals are not different in their political engagement, they stated that "the effects of moral conviction on political engagement are equally strong for those on the political right and left" (p. 50).

In another study, Leeuwen and Park (2009) found that the liberals put the priority of their judgment to the "individualizing foundations (harm/care and fairness/reciprocity)". Conversely the conservatives' judgments are based on respect to the authority and loyalty principles. Based on the evidences of the political ideology and morality relations, Emler et al. (1983) asserted that strong association of political tendency with morality refers to their mutual origin and overlapping domain.

In Raaijmakers and Hoof's (2006) study, a direct association between political ideology and moral reasoning with human rights was found, and results showed that "moral reasoning affects general moral thought (assessed by the human rights questionnaire), just as political psychology does" (p. 634). In fact, the research on Free Speech Movement (FSM) can be considered as a turning point and the beginning of debate on the differences of individuals with different political ideologies in their morality. Free speech movement has mostly been cited as the relation of moral judgment with moral action in which students who have higher stage of moral reasoning are more likely to engage in moral action (Candee and Kohlberg, 1987; Kohlberg and Candee, 1984).

Haan et al. (1968) studied sociopolitical behavior, family background, and personality of the students who were arrested at the University of California (because of their demonstrations as FSM supporters) and other groups of students. They found that the students who were at the postconventional level of moral reasoning were more supportive of free speech movement, less religious, politically liberal, and personally autonomous; they have grown up in more educated liberal families compared with the conservative subjects. Also, students with high level of morality have more concern with political-societal activities. This is consistent with findings by Thomas et al. (1999) who found that individuals with conservative political tendency are more in conventional stage of moral reasoning and liberals are more in post conventional stage of moral judgment.

Iran is a very special case from political point of view. With a long history of civilization, it has a royal government for nearly 2500 years. The governments have always considered themselves as owners of the country and the people. The government has the right to decide about every affair and people should obey. Manifest characteristic of such government was that their legitimacy was basically not from the people. Downfall of the dictatorship government has not led to elimination of dictatorship system but was replaced with another dictatorship. Change of the government from one to another has always come along with sedition, riot, revolutions, and civil or external wars which led to anarchy, chaos, despoliation and destruction. Thus, autocracy has a deep root in the social structure of Iran. Unfortunately, intellectuals and political thinkers of Iran have always sought the root of authoritarianism in political elites and they viewed the dictatorship as a political phenomenon. It should be noted, however, authoritarianism is also a social problem, besides political and psychological aspects, which caused the continuity of authoritarianism and totalitarianism. This explanation makes authoritarianism a serious problem with which its characteristics and its effects with other factors within Iranian community should be scrutinized.

In particular, it has been frequently concluded that morality is associated with authoritarian personality. For instance, following powerful individuals and fulfilling their expectations is one of the traits of authoritarians. From political viewpoint, the authoritarians favor the right wing and they are conservative in their political spectrum than other parties (Altemeyer, 1998; Jost et al., 2003; Tarr and Lorr, 1991; Todosijevic and Enyedi, 2008). Morality of an authoritarian person is indeed oriented to directions in which obedience to authority figures and keeping the requirements of powerful individuals have priority on individuals' own will (Van IJzendoorn, 1989; Cockroft, 1995). Van IJzendoorn (1989) stated that "authoritarian personality is supposed to result from problematic moral development" (p. 38). However, in another study, he (1997) did not find significant association between authoritarianism and morality. Napier and Jost (2008) considered four characteristics for authoritarian people based on the literature which are conventionalism, moral absolutism, obedience to authority, and cynicism. However, they found that authoritarianism was strongly associated with obedience to authority and cynicism in lower socioeconomic status but not with morality of lower social class. It seems that authoritarian people rely on authority figures while making a decision and judging a moral issue. They would not be capable of ascribing to principle source of moral reasoning as obeying authority and following expectations of others can fit well with heterogenous morality (Van IJzendoorn, 1997).

This study was undertaken to find out what are the differences of individuals with different political attitudes in ascribed sources of moral authority. Besides that, this study was conducted in Iran in which this issue has been given little emphasis. The relation of authoritarianism with conservative political tendency and morality has been addressed and studied previously but in the Western context. More precisely, there is little scientific information about both political issues and authoritarianism in Iran. Three main objectives of this study are: (1) to examine the moral authority sources, authoritarianism and political tendencies of respondents, (2) to examine the relationship between authoritarianism and moral authority sources, and (3) to examine the differences of moral authority sources among the conservatives and reformists.

2. Method

2.1 Participants

A total of 128 undergraduate students from two different cities of Semirrom and Abade in Iran participated as respondents in this study. Age of subjects ranged from 17 to 24 years old with the mean age of 20.41 and standard deviation of 1.51. Fifty eight of the subjects were male and 68 were female and two of them did not mention their gender. The ethnic distribution of the subjects was 90 Fars, 20 Turk, 5 Lur, 2 Kurd, 9 other ethnics, and two did not mention their ethnicity.

2.2 Instruments

The research instruments consisted of two standardized instruments and one part that requested respondents' background information. The instruments were:

i. The Moral Authority Scale Revised (MAS-R)

Moral Authority Scale Revised (MAS-R) was developed by White (1996, 1997) based on the psychodynamic approach of Henry (1983). MAS-R assesses individual differences in attribution to sources of moral authority. It does not assess the different levels or adequacy of individuals' morality, rather it assesses the degree of attribution to different sources of influence during moral decision making. In other words, MAS-R is willing to capture the information about "who or what" and to what extent these sources have an influence on moral judgment of individuals.

White offered six socio-moral questions that respondents should answer in either "yes/ no/ can't decide" and then it is followed by open-ended questions which asked why the respondent believes in that way. The subjects are asked to rate the influence of each source on their judgment about the moral question in a 10-point Likert-format scale from "0-No Influence" to "10-A Powerful Influence". Five sources of moral authority are listed by White in Moral Authority Scale as follows: family, media and teacher or educators, society welfare, equality, and self interest sources. The Moral Authority Scale-Revised has showed good psychometric properties. MAS-R has test-retest reliabilities for the subscales ranging from .75 to .93 (self interest = .88, family = .93, educators = .93, society's welfare = .75, equality = .82) over a period of four weeks and very high internal consistencies as well ranging from .95 to .98 (self interest = .96, family = .98, educators = .97, society's welfare = .95, equality = .95) (White, 1997). MAS-R showed to have convergent and discriminant validity as well. The convergent validity was between the stages of Defining Issues Test (DIT) and relevant sources of moral authority such as positive correlation of society welfare and equality sources with stage 5 of DIT, and self interest source with stage 2 of DIT. In addition, the discriminant validity has been found between the MAS-R and Vision of Morality Scale (White, 1997). The Moral Authority Scale was translated and validated in Persian by Teymoori et al. (in press). The translation was done by back translation method.

ii. The Authoritarianism Scale

After reviewing famous scales in this field, Heydari et al. (2012) chose items from authoritarian scales of Adorno et al. (1950) and Altemeyer (1998) that were in accord with socio-cultural and political spheres of Iran. Because of specific socio-cultural and political context of Iran, they left some aspects of scales by obligation such as the items of F scale measuring politically and culturally sensitive issues which were thought to cause bias in participants and decrease the reliability of the responses. Heydari et al. (2012) finalized 12 items for the authoritarianism scale. An example of the item is "People should obey their superiors whether or not they think they are right", "Obedience and respect for authority are the most important virtues children should learn". Answers of items are on a 5-point Likert scale from 5 (strongly agree) to 1 (strongly disagree). The scale has a reliability coefficient of 0.88.

iii. Political attitude and demographic information

The demographic questionnaire consisted of questions of age and gender. Respondents were required to show their political tendency as well. Based on the politically active parties in Iran, participants were asked to indicate their political tendencies according to the following scale: very reformist, neither reformist nor conservative, somewhat conservative, and very conservative. Reformist beliefs are similar to the liberals and the conservative party is similar to the right wing political attitude.

3. Results and Discussion

The first objective of this study was to examine the moral authority sources, authoritarianism and political tendencies of respondents. Results of descriptive statistics in Table 1 show the mean and standard deviation of moral authority and authoritarianism. Table 2 presents the distribution of the individuals at each of the political attitude. (see Table 1 and Table 2).

Respondents obtained very high authoritarianism scores with the mean of authoritarianism tendency was more than half of the possible maximum score of the scale implying seriousness of this problem. Accordingly, Ji and Suh (2008), by comparing Korean students with Americans, stated that Asian countries have more authoritarian submission and aggression. In fact, they found that Korean students were more compliant to authority, more aggressive to out-group and less conservative in their social beliefs in comparison with American students. Results showed that a total of 30.5% respondents categorized themselves as very reformist and another 37.5% categorized themselves as neither reformist nor conservative. Results also showed the low number of participants in both "somewhat conservative" and "very conservative". This may be explained by the socio-cultural factors which may explain the negative bias of the participants to the direct political questions due to the specific political sphere.

Dean (2004) believed that the authoritarian characteristics were still evident in some individuals who have desperate need to rely on authority figures, supportive of strong leader, and have right wing political tendency. She stated that the authoritarian tendency would increase if the authoritarian individuals' security was threatened. This was clearly explained by Oesterreich (2005) since he considered authoritarian reaction as a "flight into security" because it occurred in a form of individuals' basic response to anxiety, stressful situation, uncertainty, and insecurity (Oesterreich, 2005, p. 282). This proposition was confirmed in Iranian society as well as in Heydari et al.'s (2012) study which found significant relation of anomic feeling with authoritarianism and also the authoritarian was predicted significantly by anomie of the individuals.

The second objective of the study examined the relationship between moral authority sources and authoritarianism. As shown in Table 3, authoritarianism has significant relation with external source of moral judgment ($r = .18, p < .05$). The more authoritarian individuals were, the more attribution was given to external sources of moral judgment namely family, peer and educators or media sources. Authoritarianism, however, was not related to self interest ($r = .07, p > .05$) and principle source ($r = .07, p > .05$) of moral authority. (refer Table 3).

The significant relation of authoritarianism, as a sound characteristic of the right wing, with external source of moral authority is consistent with the literature. This finding is in alignment with authoritarianism definition that is following the authority expectations and authority figures. Accordingly, the finding is consistent with Van IJzendoorn's (1989, 1997) and Cockroft's (1995) propositions about authoritarian characteristics while it is inconsistent with Napier and Jost's (2008) in which they found no significant relation of authoritarianism with morality in lower socioeconomic status. However, they did consider the moral absolutism as one of the authoritarian characteristics. Van IJzendoorn (1997) stated that the authoritarian's morality was like heterogenous morality, and authoritarianism relation with external source of moral judgment confirmed Van IJzendoorn's proposition. It is noteworthy to mention that the authoritarianism was not related to the self interest and principle source of moral judgment. The lack of authoritarians' relation with self interest and principle source is another indicator of their obedience to authority figure and priority of others' expectation to ones' own.

The third objective was to examine the differences of moral authority sources and authoritarianism according to political attitudes. ANOVA analysis was conducted to see whether different political attitudes have significant differences in their attribution to moral sources and authoritarianism. There were no significant differences among the different political attitude in attribution to external, $F(3, 109) = .45, p > .05$, principle source, $F(3, 110) = .28, p > .05$, and self interest source, $F(3, 110) = .35, p > .05$ and even in authoritarian individuals, $F(3, 105) = 2.06, p > .05$. The results are shown in Table 4. (refer Table 4).

The hypothesis of the research that examined the differences of conservative and reformists in ascribed sources of moral authority and authoritarianism was not confirmed and individuals with different political ideology or without any political affiliation did not show any significant differences in their moral authority and

authoritarianism. This result is contradictory with the results of previous studies (Raaijmakers and Hoof, 2006; Leeuwen and Park, 2009; Emler et al., 1983; Graham et al., 2009; Haan et al., 1968; Kohlberg and Candee, 1984; Candee and Kohlberg, 1987). However during the validation process of the MAS-R, White (1997) found that different political affiliations varied in attribution to society welfare, equality and educators sources of moral authority in which those subjects in either left wing or right wing were associated with more attribution to society welfare source than those of without any political tendency. In addition, she found that left wing was related with more attribution to equality source than the group of no political attitude.

One possible explanation for inconsistency of the findings in the current study with findings of White (1997) might be due to the differences in sources of attribution. In other words, there could be other sources that conservatives and reformists were different in like religion source, culture and traditions, institutional sources, individuality or collectivism, or authority. This implies the cultural differences among participants of the two studies which refer to differences of the Eastern and Western culture. Whether the conservatives and reformists are different in attribution to sources that were just mentioned needs to be examined in future studies.

The lack of authoritarianism relation with political attitudes might be interpreted in the context that criticizing and opposing the current situation cannot be due to democratic nature of individuals. Reformist party in Iran cannot be called as a pure democratic party, rather it is a movement against the current situation of the country which does not necessarily have democratic demands. Manifestation of reformism phenomenon in Iranian society had twisted with populism in 1376 (or 1997). Implicitly, it can be concluded that being reformist in Iranian community does not necessarily define a person as an anti-authoritarian. Interestingly, many of those who call themselves as reformist, in their familial and interpersonal relationship and social attitude, are completely authoritarian.

4. Conclusion

There are some limitations in this study. First, it was conducted in small cities and the universities which were not active in political issues. If the sample was taken from bigger universities especially the ones that are really active in political issues and also have politically active student communities, the results might differ dramatically since the differences of individuals with different political affiliations are more sound.

Finally, based on the socio-political sphere of Iran, it seems that besides asking the explicit question from participants, political attitude would be better captured by implicit way of asking the political tendency like the pessimistic view to authority, economic dimension of political ideology, freedom of expression and so forth. Authoritarianism as an alternative scale of right wing in the current study gave more consistent result with the literature due to its relation with external source of moral authority.

With a glimpse to the history of Iran, it can readily be seen that many of the movements which came to authority with slogan of criticism and reformation of the current situation fall into totalitarianism and authoritarianism (like constitutional revolution in 1279/1901). This is because the agents and proponents of these movements were authoritarian but apparently did not admit it. The differences in ideologies of conservatives and reformists are not sound. In other words, the advent of reformist party was just an objection to the current situation and it does not spring from a deep and distinct ideology. Therefore, non-significant relation of political attitude with authoritarianism in one hand and moral authority in the other seems to be due to the nature of political parties especially the reformist party.

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Table 1. Means and standard deviation of the moral authority subscales and authoritarianism

	Moral Authority			Authoritarianism
	Principle	External	Internal	
Mean	84.7541	72.0164	37.8443	36.2373
Std. Deviation	16.35268	16.93643	9.19038	5.13689

Table 2. Descriptive analysis of the political attitude

	N	%
very reformist	39	30.5
neither reformist nor conservative	48	37.5
somewhat conservative	23	18
very conservative	9	7
Missing	9	7

Table 3. Correlation of authoritarianism with self interest, external, and principle sources of moral authority

	1	2	3	4
1. Authoritarianism	-			
2. Self interest	.07	-		
3. External morality	.18*	.49**	-	
4. Principle morality	.07	.60**	.33**	-

Table 4. Results of ANOVA differences of moral authority sources and authoritarianism based on political attitude

Variable	Sam of Squares	Df	MS	F	Sig.
External Source				.45	.71
Between Groups	393.81	3	131.27		
Within Groups	31603.26	109	289.93		
Total	31997.08	112			
Principle Source				.28	.83
Between Groups	224.13	3	74.71		
Within Groups	28679.31	110	260.72		
Total	28903.44	113			
Self Interest Source				.358	.783
Between Groups	90.03	3	30.34		
Within Groups	9319.22	110	84.72		
Total	9410.25	113			
Authoritarianism				2.06	.10
Between Groups	163.74	3	54.58		
Within Groups	2776.44	105	26.44		
Total	2940.18	108			

Poverty Alleviation through Corporate Social Responsibility in Niger Delta, Nigeria

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Abstract

Failed government's policies aimed at developing the Niger Delta region left it one of the poorest regions of Nigeria; and necessitated agitations by the communities for oil multinationals to step in to fill this development gap. Through the company's corporate social responsibility, Shell Petroleum Developing Company – the Nigerian subsidiary of Royal Dutch Shell has demonstrated commitments to the reduction of poverty in the region. The paper examines some of the company's poverty alleviation projects in the region. Using a qualitative approach, drawing on relevant secondary data and content analysis the paper argues that Shell has contributed immensely to the development of local communities in its areas of operation and also contributed to the economic growth of Nigeria. However, given the vast majority of the region's population living in poverty, the paper advises that government should complement the efforts of Shell both in the region and across the country using massive wealth generated for the government by the oil company.

Keywords: Corporate social responsibility, Poverty alleviation, Niger Delta, Shell petroleum developing company, Corruption

1. Introduction

Despite being rich in natural resources, the prevalence of poverty is very high in Nigeria, with over 70 percent of the population surviving on less than US\$1 per day, meaning that most Nigerians are living in excruciating poverty (Omideyi, 2009). This soaring incidence of poverty is in sharp contrast to the country's position as a prominent petroleum producing country in the continent. Over 90 percent of Nigeria's external revenues are derived from crude oil exports; yet this huge profit has yet to improve the deplorable human condition and misery index of the oil producing communities (Orogun, 2009). Idemudia (2007) argued that neglect of basic services in the Niger Delta in past years by successive Nigerian governments enshrined poverty in the region.

Over the years, Nigeria has adopted several poverty alleviation programmes, aimed at alleviating or eradicating poverty; yet, the nation's oil wealth has done little to improve the life of the poor population due to corruption, political instability, weak administration, poor macroeconomic management, and bad governance (Oshewolo, 2010). Consequently, poverty has remained a pervasive problem in the Nigerian society, and with a much more devastating dimension in the Niger Delta region where unemployment, underdevelopment and squalor are stacking realities of daily living for most of the people (Chukuezi, 2009). This development gap has led to the reliance on the oil multinational companies (MNCs) by their host communities to step in and fill this wide development gap. Despite their contribution to the development of society, governments at all levels in Nigeria and the political elites continue to apportion blame on the MNCs for the poverty situation in the region; with such culture of blame inciting the community members into believing that the MNCs are massively exploiting

them, while giving too little or nothing in return to them in the form of development (Ite, 2005). This has occasioned community protests, agitations and conflicts in the region.

The paper critically evaluates corporate social responsibility (CSR) programmes of Shell Petroleum Developing Company (SPDC) aimed at developing local communities of the Niger Delta area of Nigeria. It argues that SPDC has contributed enormously to local community development as a way of addressing poverty, but their efforts are constrained by factors which are political and social.

2. Theoretical framework

The paper is guided by the triple bottom Line theory. The theory is most suitable to the paper, having been extensively used in several related studies. It illustrates the MNCs' involvement in community development as a responsibility to the community based on stakeholders' relationship that benefits host communities and business.

The quest for a tripartite win for the economy, society, and for the environment led to the development of the triple bottom line (Elkington, Emerson & Beloe, 2006). The reason behind the triple bottom line paradigm is that a corporation's ultimate success should be measured not just by the traditional financial bottom line, but also by its social/ethical and environmental performance. This idea confirms the established fact that firms have a variety of obligations to stakeholders to be socially and ethically responsible. It was John Elkington, a US business strategist who coined the term, and having it widely accepted following publication of his 1998 book, *Cannibals with Forks: The Triple Bottom Line of 21st Century Business* (Elkington, 1998). Triple bottom line, abbreviated as "TBL" or "3BL", is becoming more prevalent across disciplines, mostly in management, consulting, investing, and NGO circles; and has been embraced by many eager to give social and environmental agendas more prominence in the face of globalization. The concept of triple bottom line has been embraced and promoted, and major corporations such as AT&T, Dow Chemicals, Shell, and British Telecom, have used 3BL terminology in their press releases, annual reports and other documents; so have scores of smaller firms (Norman & MacDonald, 2003).

The concept of TBL, also known as "people, planet, profit" or "the three pillars" requires that a company's business practices should be beneficial to stakeholders rather than shareholders. In this case, a stakeholder refers to anyone that is influenced by the actions of the firm, either directly or indirectly. And the business entity should be used as a vehicle for coordinating stakeholder interests, instead of maximizing shareholder (owner) profit. Illustrating further the concept of triple bottom line theory, the California Accountability Project (CAP, 2002) believes that an obligation to CSR presupposes a corporation's reformulation of its mission in terms of TBL, that is, financial, social and environment. And that together with the shareholders, the company has a plethora of stakeholders that are affected by the company's operations, including employees, investors, consumers and local communities; as such, TBL calls for effective policies, procedures, and systems that will enhance the company's accountability to stakeholders and the general public.

In the realm of community development, a commitment to TBL is a unique approach that addresses community challenges. Corporate social responsibility embodies the prospects of dealing with the host communities and consequently addressing the development challenges of the region. Placet, Roger, and Fowler (2005) contend that CSR would ensure sustainable development with its three main goals of environmental stewardship, social responsibility, and economic prosperity for everyone involved. And that environmental stewardship and social responsibility, when pursued, will boost realizing the third goal, economic prosperity for the company. Thus, the thrust of TBL notion is that companies operate ethically responsible to the society and the physical environment in which they operate (Eweje, 2006).

3. Situating the Niger-Delta region, Nigeria

The Niger Delta is defined both geographically and politically. The former comprises of states in the South-South geo-political zone, namely, Delta, Bayelsa, Rivers, Akwa Ibom and Cross River States; while the political Niger Delta extends to the neighboring oil producing states of Ondo, Abia and Imo, for reasons of administrative convenience, political expedience and development objectives (UNDP, 2006). It is an oil rich region; and the oil generating an estimated \$600 billion since the 1960s for the government (Amnesty International, 2009). The current potentials of the region in terms of oil and gas deposits alone is estimated at about 34 billion barrels and about 160 trillion cubic meters of gas reserves (Powell, Marriott & Stockman, 2005). The Niger Delta is one of the most important wetlands and marine ecosystems in the world after the Mississippi and is the largest in Africa (Nseabasi, 2005). It consists of a number of ecological zones, which range from sandy coastal ridge barrier to low-land rainforest; teeming with bird, marine life, giant ferns and towering mangrove plants, the creeks and swamps.

A major aspect of the region is its general state of underdevelopment, underemployment, extreme poverty, and lack of proper and adequate infrastructure. Failed and abandoned development projects, meant to improve the material living conditions of the people characterise the rural regions of the area, while economic and social rights, such as the right to an adequate standard of living, remain unfulfilled (Maxted, 2006). The United Nations Development Programme describes the region as suffering from “administrative neglect, crumbling social infrastructure and services, high unemployment, social deprivation, abject poverty, filth and squalor, and endemic conflict” (UNDP, 2006). The majority of the people of the region do not have adequate access to clean water or health-care. Their poverty and its contrast with the wealth generated by oil is a classic example of the paradox of poverty amidst plenty.

4. Government’s development efforts in the Niger Delta

As stated earlier, various governments in Nigeria have initiated development programmes with a view to reducing poverty in the Niger-Delta region; unfortunately, the outcome has been appalling due to corruption, misapplication of development resources, and bad governance (Osuntokun, 2000). Some of these government agencies charged with alleviating poverty in the region include the Niger Delta Development Board (NDDDB), the Niger Delta Basin Development Authority (NDBDA), the Oil Mineral Producing Areas Development Commission (OMPADEC), and the Niger Delta Development Commission (NDDC). The last two are examined in this paper, as they represent the most notable official responses to the development challenges of the area.

4.1 Oil Mineral Producing Areas Development Commission

OMPADEC was established in 1992 by the Federal Government in response to the need for the region to receive some developmental gains, and alleviate the social, economic and environmental problems caused by oil exploration (Okonta & Douglas, 2001). Consequently, three percent of federal oil revenue was allocated to the Commission to address the development needs of the area. Despite its novel goals, and after raising the spirit and hopes of the people, the vast majority of the people did not benefit from its activities as most of its projects had little to do with poverty reduction. OMPADEC was criticized for its wastefulness, inefficiency, massive mismanagement and corruption. For instance, Sanya (2006, cited in Omotola, 2007) noted that OMPADEC embarked on projects worth \$500 million in its first three years of existence; but the bulk of money for supposed completed projects was paid out to contractors whose addresses could not be traced. Frynas, (2001) also noted that in September 1998, Eric Opia, the sole administrator of the institution was sacked for his inability to account for N6.7 billion, then worth US\$80 million.

Furthermore, the manner with which the agency was established and the political motives of its sponsors is believed to have contributed in jeopardizing its task of developing the Niger Delta. While Obi (2001) believes that the military regime at the time established OMPADEC as a public relations gesture to calm the brewing crisis in the area, Okonta and Douglas (2001) noted that several community leaders in the region dismissed the agency as another white elephant project establishment to lure them into a false sense of contentment, believing that something is being done to redress past wrongs.

When OMPADEC was scrapped in 1999, several abandoned or unfinished projects were left behind, and huge debts were owed. Among other things, it lacked a master plan where its objectives, focus and strategies should be defined. Azaiki (2003) argues that the commission lacked an integrated development plan that made provision for sustainable development programmes, project assessment, and long-term project planning that incorporated enforcement, monitoring, servicing, and maintenance mechanisms required to achieve its developmental goal. The Federal Government of Nigeria, in its Niger Delta Regional Development Master Plan 2001, also acknowledged that reliable information on the total amount the OMPADEC received from the federation account was never found; while at the same time admitting that the commission suffered from lack of focus, inadequate and irregular funding, official profligacy, corruption, excessive political interference, lack of transparency and accountability, and high overhead expenditure. Thus, the inefficiency and corruption led to the failure of OMPADEC as it failed to abate discontent and restiveness in the region.

4.2 Niger Delta Development Corporation

To address the wave of agitations and demands of the communities, the federal government in December 2000 set up the Niger Delta Development Commission (NDDC), with the mandate “to conceive, plan and implement projects and programmes for the sustainable development of the Niger Delta area and to undertake infrastructural development in the region” (NDDC, 2001). A further mandate of the commission included formulating and implementing programmes and a master plan aimed at promoting a rapid sustainable development and transformation of the Niger Delta region in such areas as education, employment, health, water supply, electricity, housing, transportation, telecommunication, urban development, agriculture, fisheries and industrialization

(Azaiki, 2003).

As part of its vision to improve the lives of the people of the Niger Delta region, the NDDC designed a master plan, which not only aimed at the socio-economic development of the area, but also political and environmental development. The master plan comprised a chain of well defined development objectives, policy and project proposals and implementation guidelines, which are required to facilitate the region's growth and development. Five major components of the master plan include, environmental protection and sustainability, economic, community, institutional and infrastructural development. Curbing youth restiveness in the region and improving the living condition of were also planned by the commission, aimed at providing mass employment through the diversification of the region's economy (NDDC, 2004).

In over a decade of its existence, NDDC, no doubt, has recorded some progress, given the number of projects it has implemented in the region in various sectors; however, the commission has not fully lived up to expectations as evident in the poor infrastructure in the area. Omotola (2007) argues that some of the projects which the NDDC boasts to have commissioned and completed may be fictitious, exaggerated, or handled in manners inimical to the advancement of public interest. Part of the reasons for the ineffectiveness of the commission includes the structure of the organization, which not only limit and cripple the commission, but also hinders it from having accesses to both political and economic powers that should have facilitated the commission's objectives. The commission lacks the necessary powers to function efficiently. For instance, it is under the direction, control, and supervision of the president. And not only is it administered by the president, it has a status of an advisory kind that can only make policy proposals (NDDC Act, 2000).

Another factor that militates against the success of the NDDC is funding. The approved funding formula requires the federal government to contribute 15 percent of the 13 percent oil revenue allocations allocated to the nine states, while the oil companies contribute 3 percent of their annual budget. 50 percent of funds due to the member states from the ecological fund are also allocated to same NDDC fund. Unfortunately, there is evidence that the commission does not receive all the allocations as approved, which has made it difficult for it to transform the region (Akinwale & Osabuohien, 2009). As such, little progress has been made in the area as evident in the continued dire condition of the people. Corroborating this stance, Saliu and Omotola (2007) maintain that the NDDC has not bequeathed significant improvement in the welfare of the Niger Delta people due to corruption, occasioned by the composition of the Commission, which allows for financial misappropriation; and feared that the condition of the region will continue to deteriorate if the situation continues unabated. The NDDC, as stated by Emmanuel, Olayiwola and Babatunde (2009) has not lived up to its mandate of providing sustainable development to the region, because poverty has continued to strike on the people of the area, while funds meant for the eradication of the region's poverty are embezzled by those at the affairs of the state.

5. Understanding Corporate Social Responsibility

Corporate social responsibility (CSR) as a concept is not new. Steiner and Steiner (2006) traced the concept to the philanthropic work of business owners, John D. Rockefeller and Andrew Carnegie, who offered millions of dollars to social causes. They argued that the concept of CSR was first introduced in 1954 in Howard R. Bowen's book entitled, *Social Responsibilities of the Businessman*; where the author stated that managers have an ethical duty to consider the wider social impacts of their decisions, and warned that the corporations that fail to encourage the broad social contract should cease to be regarded as being legitimate. There is no universally accepted single definition of CSR (Whitehouse, 2006). The concept is broad, and is split into various themes and sub concepts, as such being incorporated by various disciplines, ranging from public policy to environmental science, which has increased the body of literature and interpretations of the concept (Carroll, 1999). Although CSR, as aforementioned, was historically thought to concern only the idea of philanthropy, it is now established that CSR has developed into an umbrella term (Whitehouse, 2006). The term now encompasses such concepts as business ethics, corporate citizenship, corporate accountability, sustainability, socially responsible investing (Ingle, 2008), and corporate community involvement (Nwankwo, Phillips, & Tracey, 2007; Seitani & Ryan, 2007).

While Paul and Siegel (2006) define CSR as the advancement or promotion of some social good; Wood and Jones (1995) uphold that CSR is the duty for business to address social, environmental, and economic demands from stakeholders. The divergent views of the term, according to Masaka (2008) were in part due to varied social issues and societal expectations across international contexts. He however insisted that, despite the body of interpretations of the concept, a common feature across a number of definitions that scholars have proposed on the concept of CSR is the general belief that, beyond the quest to maximize corporate profits, corporate

organizations play a crucial role in solving society's problems (Masaka, 2008). The notion of CSR, which used to be associated with corporate philanthropy, now comprises everything from charitable contributions and social investment to the direct integration of the vulnerable populations into a corporation's regular business practice (Gutierrez & Jones, 2005). Worthy of note also is the fact that while some authors believe that CSR-based policies and programmes were initially employed by the companies in the mid-twentieth century to ward-off criticisms of their social and environment practices (Gutierrez & Jones, 2005; Micklethwait & Wooldridge, 2005), others argue that lots of organizations are adopting CSR as an approach to reduce the negative social and environmental impacts of business as well as to maximize the positive impacts of their investments, especially in developing countries (Blowfield, 2005; Zadek, 2001).

Against the backdrop of various definitions of CSR, and the several activities that the concept has been used to describe, it suffices to think of the concept as an umbrella term used to describe a variety of beliefs and practices (Blowfield & Frynas, 2005). The rationale and assumptions behind the corporate social responsibility discourse can be summed up as follows: (1) corporations *should* think beyond making money and pay attention to social and environmental issues; (2) corporations *should* behave in an ethical manner and demonstrate the highest level of integrity and transparency in all their operations; (3) corporations *should* be involved with the community they operate in terms of enhancing social welfare and providing community support through philanthropy or other means (Banerjee, 2008). These views capture the quintessence of CSR as conceived by the advocates of the concept, which demands that corporations should play a vital role in solving society's problems. According to Lépineux (2005), such supposition is based on the notion that the interest of business and the rest of society are inextricably connected; and that corporate actions are required to support the economic and social wellbeing of the people who constitute society. It is imperative, therefore, to have a community-based approach to CSR in which corporations play an active role in initiating social policies and community development projects (Lertzman & Vredenburg, 2005; Lund-Thomsen, 2005).

6. Multinational Corporations and Corporate Social Responsibility

The need for CSR is more prominent in the developing countries than in developed countries because development projects and other social infrastructure are lacking in most of these countries, and most of the time they are not provided by the government. Under these circumstances, MNCs tend to come under heightened requirements and expectations to fill those gaps (Baughn, Bodie, & McIntosh, 2007). On their own part, the MNCs acknowledge that the support given to CSR in recent years has become a constant action in corporate environment – such that companies use various communication channels like their official websites, annual reports, or other promotional materials to promote the activities of CSR, in order to give credence to the fact that the community's life and sustaining social causes are part of the significant activities that they perform.

In China, for instance, multinationals have been supportive to their host communities in several ways, with a significant part of their poverty assistance being educational aid, which itself accounts for 30 percent of all social responsibility activities, as against environmental protection and disaster relief which account for approximately 20 percent each (Samsung Economic Research Institute, 2006). The CSR activities are aimed at improving the level of education in economically underdeveloped areas, so that residents will be able to equip themselves with improved conditions of living. For example, through their CSR, Coca cola has supported the Project Hope, which is a program to support youngsters in poverty-stricken areas around China since 1993, and has maintained a strong network of schools, ranging from primary schools to universities (Samsung Economic Research Institute, 2006). The educational aid, which later incorporated youth education and vocational training are geared towards raising the educational level of the communities in view of fostering local talents and increasing potential customer base.

Many researchers have acknowledged the importance of CSR for MNCs operating in developing countries, especially, the desire to attract foreign investment and jobs as a development strategy. The Global Environmental Management Initiative (GEMI, 1999) believes that developing countries recognize that MNCs investment not only provides imminent economic benefits, but also provides a crucial foundation for economic prosperity. The United Nations (1999) therefore enjoins the developing countries to achieve the necessary political and economic environment that attracts foreign direct investment (FDI); and stresses that countries lacking in FDI have economies that are heavily dependent on government regulations and controlled by inefficient state-operated monopolistic enterprises, with attendant incidences of extreme poverty, repressed human rights, and excessive environmental damage. Lodge (2006) observed that the MNCs involvement in CSR is crucial to global poverty reduction, especially in the developing countries, because poverty reduction requires systemic change, and MNCs are the world's most efficient and sustainable engines of change; offering opportunity for people who are convinced there is none; building roads and hospitals and other infrastructure.

MNCs mostly get involved in CSR in countries where governments are negligent of their duties of raising the living standard of the people or lack the ability to do so. In such countries, even the financial assistance provided to such countries, and meant to help the neediest citizens most often aggravates their condition by sustaining the corruptions of such governments that contributed to their misery, by incurring huge debts for the states. In such inefficient countries, many multinationals, apart from making the profits upon which their survival depends, have often stepped in to address the people's needs. For instance, Nestlé and Unilever in India, Coca-Cola in Venezuela, Intel in Costa Rica, and Land O'Lakes International in Albania, just to mention but a few. Their initiatives not only provide jobs and raise incomes; they also improve education and give individuals motivation to pursue it (Lodge, 2006).

7. The Case of Shell in the Niger Delta

The Niger Delta is host to a list of oil multinationals such as SPDC, Chevron/Texaco, ExxonMobil, Total, Agip and their subsidiary contracting companies (Orogun, 2009). For the purpose of this paper, only the CSR programmes of SPDC in the Niger Delta are examined. SPDC is the pioneer multinational oil company in the Nigerian oil industry and has remained the biggest and leading oil company in Nigeria ever since. The company accounts for 40 percent of Nigeria's oil production, and 55 percent of the country's hydrocarbon reserve base. SPDC's business in Nigeria is centered in the Niger Delta, both onshore and adjoining shallow offshore areas where it operates in oil mining lease area of around 31,000 square kilometers. It has more than 6000 kilometers of pipelines and flow lines, 87 flow stations, 8 gas plants and more than 1000 producing wells. As a corporate citizen, Shell has for a long time been committed to the development of the communities in the Niger Delta. According to Ite (2005), Shell's initial form of community engagement dates back to the 1960s when the company supported efforts aimed at improving the livelihood of the mostly rural communities of the region. Shell has continued to demonstrate commitment to CSR by been involved in programmes aimed at poverty alleviation in the Niger Delta. The company affirms that its operations strategy contributes to local development, first, 'through efficient and ethical standard of its business activities, in such a manner that is beneficial for both the host countries and communities; and the second is through investment that is far beyond philanthropic grants to actual technical and financial support for local development initiatives' (SPDC 2004).

8. Findings

This section evaluates the oil company's development interventions on poverty reduction in the Niger Delta. Some of the projects executed in the region are discussed under three subdivisions, namely, healthcare services, educational initiatives, and youth development initiatives.

8.1 Healthcare Services

In order to provide healthcare to their host communities, Shell has demonstrated concern for the health of the people of Niger Delta. This was inspired by the company's understanding that provision of qualitative healthcare cannot be a responsibility of government alone. Involvement in eradicating malaria is one of the ways the company's CSR is impacted in the host communities. Malaria increases the incidence of poverty as it affects the nation, community, family and individuals. The need for action on this preventable disease would no doubt reduce poverty and promote development. In achieving this, SPDC, in partnership with Africare initiated the Africare Malaria Health Integrated Project, designed to reduce childhood and maternal morbidity and mortality in the Niger Delta through malaria control initiatives (AFRICARE/SPDC, 2009). As declared by Dr Julius Coles, president of Africare, addressing the health needs of the people of the Niger Delta remains an underlying foundation for development of the region (Charity Wire, 2003).

Through the Malaria Health Integrated project of SPDC, Africare has, since 2003, been implementing the roll back malaria programme in 54 communities of the Niger Delta. In order to boost capacity in achieving the objective of this programme, the company provided capacity building training for some 1,074 public and private health care workers for malaria prevention and treatment; while forty seven non-government organizations (NGOs) and faith based organizations (FBOs) received grants to engage in malaria control programmes in the communities through awareness programmes, distribution of drugs and insect treated mosquito nets (SPDC, 2004).

Similarly, under the Niger Delta AIDS Response (NiDAR) project designed by SPDC, a selected list of hospitals across five member states of the region is providing high-quality HIV/AIDS services to the patients. To achieve this, SPDC works closely with communities, national and state agencies involved in the control of AIDS, Health Ministries at both the federal and state levels, and Family Health International (FHI) – an international NGO in the implementation of NiDAR. In partnership with FHI, SPDC completed in 2008 the \$2.2 million Niger Delta HIV/AIDS response project, with the company's share being \$1.55 million. This prototype scheme trained, in its

first year, 2008, more than 240 healthcare providers, tested and counseled more than 4,000 people and treated more than 1,350 pregnant women to prevent mother-to-child transmission of the disease, and enrolled 730 people for HIV/AIDS treatment (SPDC, 2009). The project was to be managed from 2009 by the state-run HIV programme. It is worthy of note that 10 more hospitals were added to the NiDAR project in 2010, thanks to the success of the scheme, which is geared towards providing comprehensive HIV/AIDS care, treatment and services to more people in the region.

In order to bring healthcare closer to the people, Shell built three new community health care facilities in 2008; bringing the total number of Shell-supported healthcare facilities in the Niger Delta to 32. The facilities are staffed by more than 800 government-employed community health personnel. Some of the achievements of this gesture is that in 2008 alone the facilities treated more than 80,000 people, and helped to deliver more than 1,800 babies; while 40,000 people attended the health outreach programmes, which provided a range of services including health education, vaccinations, eye-testing, treatment of malaria and minor ailments, the distribution of mosquito bed nets, HIV screening and de-worming of more than 5,000 school children (Shell, 2009). In 2009 also, the facilities treated more than 265,000, helped to deliver more than 2,000 babies; and reached more than 114,000 through their health outreach programmes. In 2010, SPDC and the government of Rivers State commenced the first community-based health insurance program in Nigeria, involving the private sector, government and community, aimed at improving healthcare delivery in the communities (SPDC, 2011).

In the aspect of immunisation, SPDC partners with government in the delivery of routine immunisation through clinic based services in a certain group of supported health facilities as well as community based outreach activities. The company has a policy in their community health services policy to work as partners with host communities, government at all levels, local and international organizations, in order to improve the overall health of the host communities. One of the underlying principles for the company's interest in immunisation has been to impact on the vulnerable members of the community and those at risk, through health activities and programmes. And to make sure the goal of immunisation which ultimately is the eradication of polio is achieved, Fakunle (2010) stated that SPDC supported over 113 communities on immunisation services between 2004 and 2009; and provided logistics such as boats, land transport and stipends to immunisers during National Immunisation Days, reaching over 4.3 million children under five years old in the communities.

8.2 Educational Initiatives

SPDC is a major contributor to social investment; and educational initiatives are a critical part of their investment. The company's educational initiatives entail assisting host communities to provide sustainable and qualitative education that ultimately reaches all the people. It is the company's belief that education is a long-term investment with an equally long gestation period, and should be one of the best legacies to bequeath to individuals, groups and society. Against this background, SPDC, in partnership with NNPC, Total and Agip runs an annual scholarship programme, to support undergraduate students in Nigerian universities. The scholarship is of two categories, namely National Merit Award (NM) and Areas of Operation Merit Award (AOM). While the former is open to the larger Nigerian undergraduates, the later is exclusively for students from communities in which the SPDC operates. Similarly, the company runs another scholarship programme for the secondary schools across the states that constitute the Niger Delta. According to the company, the Secondary School Scholarship scheme is to help students pay through school, as well as enhance academic achievement in host communities.

As most rural schools in the oil producing areas have problems attracting teachers, the company sponsors teachers in 57 community schools. Eweje (2006) noted that educational programmes of Shell in the Niger Delta comprise not only the provision of teachers paid directly by the company and the building of classrooms, but also the payment of special rates to teachers to encourage them to go and teach in remote rural areas where governments are inactive. This is an expression of concern and commitment to the educational needs of their host communities.

8.3 Youth Development Scheme

Realizing that the youth are the hope of the future, SPDC made the reduction of unemployment among the youth a major priority for Shell Conglomerate in Nigeria, through their youth development initiatives. The Niger Delta youths, who have, over the time disrupted the oil business as an expression of their dissatisfaction, have gained real job opportunities through vocational training and job creation programmes, courtesy of Shell. The scheme, which is managed in partnership with local NGOs, has continued to offer skills acquisition training to the youths, such as in welding, sewing, auto mechanics, electrical work, computer technology, hairdressing, building, baking, soap making, plumbing and fitting. Shell stated that under the SPDC joint venture with other stakeholders, more

than \$2.3 million was spent in 2009 to train 306 youths, in such skill areas as welding, pipefitting and carpentry, enterprise and leadership development, and conflict management. This was against the background that training can help young people acquire the skills they need in life.

Another way that SPDC has improved the lives of the youth is through their global LiveWIRE, which is a community investment programme that aims to help young people explore the option of starting their own business as a real and viable career option. In Nigeria, LiveWIRE programme, which is funded by SPDC and Shell International, seeks to add value to existing Shell's local policies and other initiatives providing support for the development of young people and their economic future. For example, the company's partnership with Nigerian telecom giant, Globacom, provides small-scale business management training, and assists people in setting up mobile phone enterprises. Since its inception, the LiveWIRE scheme has trained many Nigerian youths, including youths of the Niger Delta, giving them support to start their own small businesses. The ultimate aim of the scheme is to encourage and support youth development, specifically to help them become interested in setting up businesses and working for themselves.

Under the LiveWIRE project, SPDC is also partnering with USAID Nigeria and the International Institute of Tropical Agriculture (IITA) in an \$11.3 million project over five years to develop cassava farming. More than 3,400 farmers were trained in 2009 under this programme; 11,000 farmers received technical and business skills training; while 3,600 and 9,000 full-time and part-time jobs were created, respectively (SPDC, n.d.).

9. Conclusion

The failure of government to provide social infrastructure and development to her citizens necessitated the agitations for multinational oil companies to step in to fill this development gap. As one of the multinationals in the Niger Delta, Shell has always demonstrated social responsibility by providing projects aimed at poverty alleviation in the region. Government corruption has been a major barrier to turning oil revenues into benefits for the people of Nigeria, especially the oil producing communities. For instance, between 2006 and 2010, the joint venture operated by the SPDC contributed about \$31 billion to the government, while taxes and royalties to the tune of \$3.8 billion was paid by Shell Nigeria Exploration and Production Company (SNEPCo) over the same period (Shell, 2011). Again, the Shell operations in Nigeria contributed over \$161 million in 2010 to the Niger Delta Development Commission as required by law; while a further \$71 million was invested directly by SPDC and SNEPCo towards addressing the social and economic development challenges in the region (Shell, 2011). Therefore, one should have expected some glaring development achievement from government using such enormous wealth created by Shell. Yet, the multinationals have continued to show active commitments to their host communities by providing basic development projects. The company's contribution to poverty alleviation should be applauded. SPDC as a company does not have all the answers or the expertise to address the development challenges of the region, and cannot take the role of government in improving the rural communities. It is therefore recommended that government should complement their efforts by using the billions of dollars generated for the government by Shell to improve the lives of both the Niger Delta people and the entire nation.

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Culturally Inclusive Practice: A Case Study of an International Student Support Initiative at an Australian University

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Abstract

This article explores from the students' as well as the coordinator's perspectives the effectiveness of an integrated culturally inclusive initiative in terms of facilitating international students' adaptation. This initiative is a program that celebrates international students' diverse learning cultures through sharing and understanding different cultural ways of learning. This study builds upon the extensive research conducted focusing on international students' adaptation processes with a case-study approach consisting of participant observation, document analysis, questionnaire and in-depth interviewing. My findings support this initiative as a successful program providing support for international students. It is an effective practice for students, educators and policy makers in wider fields where intercultural dialogues are cherished.

Keywords: Relaxation, Confidence, Support, Cultural inclusion

1. Introduction

International students form a large proportion of the overall student body in Australia and they come from diverse regions as well, which contributes to the cultural diversity of Australian student education. This is reflected in growing research and study interest in investigating international students' well-being (Batorowicz, 1999; R. Burns, 1991; Furnham, 1997; Germov & Williams, 2001; Halic, Greenberg, & Paulus, 2009). Concurrently, many international students' destination countries like Australia are endeavoring to attract more. This is echoed in almost all stakeholder statements involved with international education in the areas of government policies, media, university supporting facilities, and existing and growing numbers of study and research interests concerning international students (Bull, 1996; Gillard, 2008; Wee & Edwards, 2006; Zadkovich, 2010).

To date, whilst a large number of research studies have been conducted in relation to international education in Australia, most research studies focus mainly on student language issues and cultural differences (Benzie, 2010; May & Bartlett, 1995; Mitsis & Foley, 2009; Strang, 2010). Too often, "international students have been seen only from a "deficit" frame", which tends to "locate international students' challenges as emerging exclusively from their cultural backgrounds" and thus "their different ways of constructing knowledge are considered as problematic" (Tran, 2011, p. 81).

Emergent themes in literature appear in the areas of cultural learning styles (Eisenclas & Trevaskes, 2007; Marlina, 2009; Parekh, 2006; Singh & Han, 2009) and Asian students' learning experiences (Crossman & Clarke, 2010; Russell, Rosenthal, & Thomson, 2010; Tran, 2010). Highlighted in these studies is the need for initiatives set up to support international students' adaptation processes.

This study attempts to contribute to this growing area of knowledge. It argues that international students bring complex learning beliefs with them into their programs in Australia. Building upon the findings of the literature, this research aims to explore the effectiveness of this initiative in terms of helping international students' adaptation to Australian teaching and learning community.

2. Background

The existence of international students has enriched cultural diversity for the Australian student cohort. As more international students choose Australia to study, governments and educators have been trying to find ways to manage cultural pluralism. Australia "officially declared itself multicultural and committed itself to

multiculturalism in the early 1970s” (Parekh, 2006, p. 5). Afterwards, the Australian government has made changes to laws that cover international students who are studying in Australia, which give students more flexibility in their study options. The Australian government values the significant benefits from its export of education and training services. As Department of Education and Science and Training (Department of Education, and Science, & and Training, 2007) claims

Australia gains significant benefits from its export of education and training services. The social and economic benefits flow to individuals, institutions and the wider community. International engagement in education and training can transform individuals, widening the intellectual horizons, opening them to new ideas and experiences, and extending their friendships. International students also contribute intellectually to Australian education and society, and provide diverse social and cultural perspectives that enrich the educational experience for many Australian students (p. 3).

Although Australia gains many benefits from international students, “the benefits of international education and training depend on the service provided to international students, on public confidence in the integrity and quality of that service” (DEST, 2007, p. 3) as well as on institutions’ awareness of the diverse cultural backgrounds embedded in international students.

The University within which this study had taken place is a culturally diverse institute, striving to respond to and meet the government’s standards of providing services to international students as well as achieving the goal of culturally inclusive practice, which Sebba and Sachdev (1997) maintain “reflect[s] the value of diversity, not the assimilation or tolerance of differences” (p. 10). This is aligned with the current preferred philosophy of valuing cultural diversity and nurturing inclusive practices.

Not only is the number of international students at this institute large, but those international students also come from diverse cultural backgrounds. There is vast student and staff diversity in cultures, life experience, education, knowledge, skills and expertise, as well as values, beliefs and attitudes. In responding to this diversity, this university developed its code of ethics: “we respect diversity within humanity including gender, spiritual values, sexual preference, age, disability and culture and provide services to support this” (RMIT University, 2005, p. 3).

Based upon the recognition of cultural diversity, in response to its institute’s Code of Ethics as well as to provide assistance to international students to better adapt to their academic and learning community, a one-year long initiative was timely set up from the School of Education. This initiative purports to value international students’ cultural diversity and to offer social, cultural as well as academic support so as to assist international students to better adapt to their academic studies in the larger university learning community. Participants in this program are volunteers from different cultural backgrounds and this diversity was cherished in this initiative to facilitate international students’ feeling of value and inclusion.

International students experience a wide range of difficulties while studying in Australia, largely based around a clash of educational cultures, or attitudes toward knowledge and toward teaching and learning styles. These difficulties derive from cultural differences (Ballard & Clanchy, 1997), which signify a necessity for universities to offer opportunities for international students as well as staff to further their understandings of cultural differences on learning.

3. Methodology

3.1 Case Study

This study was bounded by the location of this institute, by time of a one-year period, and by timeline of the initiative, and as such, was a bounded system which fitted well in a case study design. Case studies are used to gain in-depth understanding of a particular topic or phenomena. Unlike other research methodologies, the focus is more on what is gleaned from the process than the end result. In case studies, the researcher often collects extensive qualitative data to gain a deeper understanding of the entity being studied; therefore, the case study approach allows an investigation to retain the holistic and meaningful characteristics of real life events (R. B. Burns, 2000). This study involved the collection of qualitative data to provide detailed and holistic description of the case in order to effectively understand how it operated or functioned. Questions this study expected to explore sat around the structure of this initiative, the philosophies that underpinned it and how effective the program was, in terms of helping international students feel included in a community of practice.

3.2 Goals and Participation Objectives of the World Education Initiative

This initiative was a multi-cultural study and social group in the School of Education organized by Dr Jane Rivers (Note 1), an international student coordinator, who called it *World Education*. This program’s goals were helping international students to

- Gain skills to teach in a multicultural school setting
- Learn more about Australian schools
- Recognize different learning styles among people from diverse countries
- Get to know students from other cultures and form friendships
- Gain recognition of leadership through a LEAD certificate from the university after reaching the requirements of the program.

International students and local students could participate. The idea was that each student worked with another student from a culturally different background on a pair basis. Included in the program activities were shared understandings of

- Each other's school experiences
- Each other's beliefs about teaching
- Each other's beliefs about learning
- How their parents view education
- Ideas about how to prepare for and work on assignments
- What's important at university from different perspectives
- Experiences and what each other learned at school placements
- Ideas about key points of papers and articles
- Strategies for getting help at university
- Ideas about their learning strategies
- Songs in multiple languages

For the LEAD certificate, students needed to have five hours training in multicultural education with the coordinator. During those five hours, they watched a video about Australian schools and they also viewed a video of a multicultural school. Apart from these, they also looked at different learning and reasoning styles, an exploration which was intended to nourish students' cultural awareness. After these five hours cultivation of multicultural education, students were put into pairs. They could choose whom they worked with (but they must be from different countries), or the coordinator could organize the students if they preferred. Students got three weeks to explore each other's cultures focusing on differences in family structures, friendships, schooling and university after they were put into pairs. They also had a room to meet each other weekly (if they wanted to) to talk and share ideas. They then got together in groups and presented to the whole group about what they had learned about their partners' different cultural ways of learning. This time was counted as part of the 15 voluntary hours to receive a leadership certificate from the University and, as Dr Rivers put it, "actually, students usually do more than the required hours". In addition, they also shared their academic challenges and other social events, which were focused upon during the second semester. At the start of the second semester, participants were encouraged to provide ideas about what they wanted from this program. Richard suggested a football match, Josef thought having a barbeque might be a good idea, Chen Min wanted to learn some Australian songs, Du Wen invited students to the Chinese moon festival, and so forth, which were written down and supported by the coordinator. Participants might also be asked to do presentations on multicultural education to staff and to other students.

3.3 Philosophies Underpinning the Organization of This Initiative

Dr Rivers explained in the interview that the philosophy behind the idea of providing support to international students was not one of remediation, nor was it one based upon stereotypes of international students from other cultural backgrounds as somehow less capable than their peers from Australia. Rather, the foundation of this initiative was built upon the recognition of the complexities of entering the Australian educational context, with different academic and learning backgrounds.

There were two basic assumptions underpinning this initiative, according to Dr Rivers, one being commonality and the other being trust. Dr Rivers further explained she applied Nel Noddings' (1984) concept of ethics of care and Annette Baier's (1994) concept of trust and how trust comes through the development of friendship as the basis of the program. Apart from this, interaction and communication between students were advocated by the coordinator as well.

In the light of the preferred philosophy of culturally inclusive practice, Sebba and Sachdev's (1997) claim is "to reflect the value of diversity, not the assimilation or tolerance of differences" (p.10). Dr Rivers strove to value every student's culture through song, story, food, social and educational systems, as she believed valuing cultural diversity creates opportunities for students to "enlarge their cultural repertoire of strategies". In this diverse cultural community, everybody learns (Cortazzi & Jin, 1997, p. 89).

Dr Rivers also reported using Lave and Wenger's (1991) concept of communities of practice, as communities of practice "foster belonging by embracing its members" (Lesser, Fontaine, & Slusher, 2000, p. 14), which was the primary purpose of this initiative. This program was also an initiative that responded to its University's code of ethics to value cultural diversity and help international students feel connected.

3.4 Selection of Participants

This supportive program was initiated to provide assistance to international students at one Australian University in the year 2006. Dr Rivers was assigned as the coordinator. Her own personal experiences of living overseas and experience of culture shock and language problems had inspired her organization of this program. Dr Rivers also had Asian friends when she was young, which provoked her interests in Asian cultures. As a coordinator who looked after international students, Dr. Rivers believed this would be something interesting and rewarding. As well, she thought she could do the job reasonably well because of her personal experiences and her concerns about international students. Dr Jane Rivers believed "loneliness is a dreadful feeling", thus she intended to help international students feel less lonely through organizing this initiative. Furthermore, she also wanted students to learn more quickly about Australia, which she hoped might bring more confidence to them. Apart from this, Dr Rivers also wanted staff to understand cultural differences, as she claimed that "not all teachers know problems international students experience from cultural mismatching". Therefore, she hoped, "this might bring cultural awareness to more teaching staff, consequently encouraging a flow-on effect for teachers".

Participants in this research comprised the coordinator and students participating in this program. Around twenty students who enrolled in this program were invited to complete a questionnaire. Based on their responses, ten were chosen for interviewing: four Chinese (there were approximately seven Chinese students), one Indian (three students coming from India), one Korean (one student coming from Korea), two coming from English speaking countries, but they were still international students; and two Australian students. This selection was based on a small but representative sample of participants in this program.

3.5 Data Collection

Flyers and documents inviting students' participation were collected at first to gain general information about this initiative. This information included how the coordinator viewed her program and what her perspectives were. From this perspective, this document analysis would be "a passport to listening to the words of the text and understanding better the perspectives of the producer of these words" (Berg, 2007, p. 308).

A questionnaire was handed out to participants near the end of this program to gain participants' perspectives about the effectiveness of this initiative. The reason for employing questionnaires in this research was that questionnaires can "elicit information from a respondent that covers a long period of time in a few minutes, and it could also go beyond description to looking for patterns in data" (R. B. Burns, 2000, p. 567). The questionnaire in this research consisted of eight closed questions and eight open-ended ones. Among those closed questions, there were questions relating to gender, age, nationality, time since first arrival in Australia, and whether English is the first language or second language. These questions provided demographic data as the background information influencing the participants' communication, behavior, values and beliefs. There were also open-ended questions around general issues about this initiative in this questionnaire, as "open-ended questions are flexible and therefore, facilitate a richness and intensity of response" (R. B. Burns, 2000, p. 572). These open-ended questions focused on questions that explored participants' initial experiences before participation of this program, experiences after participation of this program and their evaluation on the effectiveness of this initiative in terms of assisting them feel included, valued, and with their academic study. The questionnaire in this research was helpful to provide basic snapshot information to address the research questions raised in this inquiry, as well as provided a basis for follow-up semi-structured interviews to probe further detailed and holistic data from the participants.

The qualitative data collected from the questionnaire was then supplemented by a number of semi-structured interviews. Stake claims, "qualitative researchers take pride in discovering and portraying the multiple views of the case" and "interview is the main road to multiple realities" (1995, p. 64). Semi-structured in-depth interviewing, according to Taylor and Bogdan (1984) offers "repeated face-to-face encounters between the researcher and informants directed toward understanding informants' perspectives on their lives, experiences or

situations as expressed in their own words” (p. 77). This definition highlights understanding participants’ perspectives, which is the primary purpose of conducting this research on the value of a supportive structure to international students’ lives. The interviews were audio-recorded for further analysis. Both students as well as the coordinator were individually face-to-face interviewed once near the end of this program to provide multiple viewpoints. These interviews lasted around 30 minutes located in a group study room in the library. Participants’ perspectives about their initial experiences of studying in Australia, their experiences in the *World Education* initiative and their evaluations on the effectiveness of this program were explored in the interviews.

3.6 Data Analysis

Data collected was initially organized into categories on the bases of themes, concepts or similar features, which mainly come from two sources, which as Patton (1987) claims are (1)...questions that are generated during the conceptual design phases of the project and (2) analytical insights and interpretations that emerge during data collection” (p. 144). Those categories were further assisted by themes from the literature and terms used by participants.

Through comparing international students’ reports of their experiences before and after participation in this program, the effectiveness, in terms of helping them feel included emerged. During the second phase of analyzing data, instead of focusing on the initial themes, the responses that the participants provided were focused, aiming to identify new themes or concepts by repeated studying of the data. The information contained within the participants’ responses was then further refined by streaming the data into different themes under the research questions.

Literature was constantly reviewed to form theoretical frameworks and to facilitate the organization of data during the analytical and reporting stages. Further triangulation was provided by prolonged observation and member checking.

4. Students’ Experiences in This Program

The findings of this study related to the themes explored students’ initial experiences at the university, their experiences in the *World Education* initiative and their evaluations on this program. The main themes addressed were support, cultural inclusion, confidence and relaxation.

4.1 Initial Experiences

Participants’ initial experiences of studying in the Australian university were explored as a basis to evaluate the effectiveness of this initiative. All participants even those from English-speaking backgrounds claimed that they had experienced culture shock to some extent, those international students whose home culture of being different from their host culture claimed they experienced cultural exclusion and expectation mismatch in their Australian classrooms. This mismatch led to frustration, which caused unpleasantness to their learning processes. Some students felt either excluded (Wang Jian) or isolated (Zoe). As a consequence, some of them even wanted to escape because they felt they were not included.

Even though language is a big barrier for international students’ whose first language is not English to participate and being included in the learning community, cultural influences on learning can cause misunderstanding and frustration. From an intercultural communication perspective, “both teachers and students are likely to experience uncertainty and anxiety when they are unable to adequately predict each other’s behaviour, expectations, and norms for success” (Garcia & Guerra, 2006, p. 104). Students talked about different writing and reasoning styles in one of the early sessions in the initiative. Moreover, many students thought the training was very helpful as they had gained some knowledge about different writing styles and therefore, they could better cope with their study at University.

4.2 Experiences in the World Education Initiative

Most participants in this program were international students, because of which, they felt more comfortable interacting with each other. Zhang Fei argued because most international students in this program spoke English as their second language, she felt more confident expressing her opinions, and she felt “in the class, even though I make mistakes, they will not laugh at me because we come from the same background”. However, without this common sharing, the experience might be a little bit different. An Mou claimed her feelings in one of her courses,

All the students already know the background knowledge about that course, and they already know the lecturer and they are already familiar with the subject. But those are all new to me. Besides all the students are Australian, not from Asia at all. So I felt really scared in the class.

Garcia and Guerra (2006) researched multicultural education finding “those who increased their cultural knowledge and skills were then able to recognize the influence of their own cultural values and those in the school culture on academic outcomes for many of their low-performing students” (p. 110). Exposure to students coming from other cultures helped students look into themselves. May, who was Australian but lived in Japan for 3 years felt that it was weird when she went back to classrooms in Australia again, because she was not the foreigner any more, but exposure to diverse cultures helped her to reflect on herself and she thought she always looked out, so sometimes she forgot to look into herself. Exposure to diverse cultures not only helped students look into themselves, it also cultivated students’ cultural awareness. An Mou asserted there were not many international students in Korea, not many students coming from diverse cultural backgrounds, and she did not have any idea about multicultural schools. But when she watched the videos about multicultural education, she claimed, “oh, my god, it was another world, I was really amused. I did not think about that kind of classroom. And that meeting is very helpful for all to understand multicultural education”.

Most students’ experiences were valued and became the central part of this program. Their cultural differences were also valued and discussed in this program. This initiative on another level also helped students to socialize with each other. Because of more understanding of students coming from other cultures, Zoe felt she can mingle with others according to their interests. She commented, “if a Chinese person came, I know she is Chinese and I will go according to their cultures, and thus, I can move toward friendship with them”. Apart from those mentioned above, there were four themes came from close scrutiny of the data collected.

4.2.1 Support

If students have their family members here in Australia with them, they will be less affected by loneliness and feel they have an anchor here. However, it was quite different for those who do not have that kind of support with them. Jim had his partner here with him, but he imagined that “if you do not have that support, then you tend to rely on the people around you We are here and may not have that support network. I think this program is really valuable to people who are in that situation”.

Not only did this program provide emotional support, it also provided opportunities for students to socialize with each other. Josef called it “the wax” and he commented, “it is good for everybody; it is the gate into the conversation”. Also because of its relaxed nature, Richard felt no pressure while being part of this program.

Although Du Wen and Wang Jian felt this program was effective in terms of providing support, Zoe, Zhang Fei and May disagreed with other students. Zoe did not think it was supportive due to “some of the students used to maintain distance”. However, Zhang Fei and May regarded interaction as the cause for not being a supportive community. Zhang Fei felt they did not have enough time to communicate, whilst May asserted, “there are quite a few people that I have not spoken to in the class, actually quite a lot of people, which I think a little bit weird”.

4.2.2 Cultural Inclusion

In workshops, students usually talked about their cultural differences, which did not necessarily mean their differences are valued. However, students felt they belonged here because of sharing their differences. An Mou said

In the workshops, it is really talk about our differences, we talk about ourselves, exchange our cultures. So the others are really interested in my culture and I really interested in their cultures, so we made really good conversations. Yes, it was really good.

Zoe argued, “on the whole, we gained some information about some countries, which helped us feel confident and at the same time; value one’s own cultural background”. Students’ cultural backgrounds were not only valued through interaction, they were also valued through food and languages. For instance, in one of the workshops, students sang songs, not only in English, but also in Chinese and Indian. All students kept clapping their hands as well as laughing. Josef reflected that when students heard somebody say goodbye or hello in their own languages, they felt very good and they claimed they were part of the community. He thought “this program is pretty inclusive. I do not feel nervous or excluded or anything. It is probably as inclusive as you can get really, [...]. The food, it is also very inclusive.” But he thought some of the Australians might feel a little bit nervous about coming, because “I am an Australian, I am not an international student, so I might feel a little bit nervous and I might feel a little bit excluded”. This might be why May felt “weird” in the workshops, as “she is not the foreigner any more”. However, Richard declared this program was very inclusive, and claimed the coordinator’s personality also contributed to this inclusiveness. Richard surmised that “the coordinator is very nurturing and she just has a very lovely nature, which embraces everyone, open to everyone and non-judgmental. I think that is good for everyone”.

4.2.3 Confidence

This initiative helped international students build up their confidence in a number of ways. Zhang Fei thought the coordinator helped her to speak up confidently. She thought of herself as a person who if others do not force her to say something, will not do it. But sometimes in the workshops,

“the coordinator nominates somebody to say something. [...]. So I have to open my mouth and say something. I think that gives me more experience to speak publicly, so it gives me confidence”.

Wang Jian also argued the structure of this program itself helped her a lot. Because they were participants in this program, they all had similar goals, which were to learn about other cultures. Meanwhile, each student was a learner as well as a provider. Therefore, Wang Jian declared, they had more in common, and “we understand each other better, and know that most of them are second language speakers, which by itself gives me more confidence”. Moreover, some other students built up their confidence through the process itself. Cheng Min was a shy girl and she always found it hard to speak up to native speakers because she had no confidence to stand up and speak English to them. Although she did not explicitly claim this initiative helped her with her confidence, she appeared to be more confident this semester than last semester. She tended to speak quite a lot in the meetings. Not only did she talk directly with Josef and Jim whenever she got a chance, more than twice she was also the first to speak up and sang Chinese songs in the presence of other students.

Not only did international students feel confident in the workshops of this program, local students also benefited from this. Richard reckoned “in a number of ways, yes, this program does make me feel confident”. Although most students thought it was effective in helping them build up their confidence, Du Wen thought she “is already confident enough”.

4.2.4 Relaxation

Josef claimed

You can get nervous sitting around in a circle, you are American, Jim is Scottish, or Zhang Fei comes from China, and you can feel like you represent China to these people. People can get the wrong idea. Some people would meet two Chinese people or two Americans and think that is what all Americans are like.

Generalized thinking is unavoidable; however, interaction and understanding can help people recognize individuality. Dr Rivers calls this initiative a “culture club”, because it was informal, and because of this informal nature, students felt more relaxed. Participants were encouraged to bring food to this club, so they could communicate and learn each other’s cultures while eating, which also inspired other elements of relaxation. Students always moved around during the meetings whenever they liked. Although An Mou and Zoe always appeared to be serious, Du Wen and Zhang Fei seemed to be very comfortable and they laughed a lot as well. Josef usually crossed his legs and kept clapping the desk when he sang songs, and Jim sometimes tapped his fingers on the desk to accompany Josef, while some other students also put their arms around their peers and laughed with them. Furthermore, “it is not like you chat with a TV, you are actually learning but in a more informal environment” (Jim). Josef from America claimed

It is good when it is relaxed, and I just think even interaction is good. [...]. I think you could probably take it more seriously, may get more out of it, but it may feel more like a class. But I think because it is relaxed, more people come, maybe people would not share much when it was too serious. Maybe I get more out of it because it is relaxed. I think relaxed is the way to go. It is good and it is very open-ended.

However, Du Wen did not think she learned much from this relaxed situation and she thinks “sitting and relaxing are not really meaningful. [...]. I do not think there are lots who really treat it seriously”.

Perhaps Du Wen’s view was influenced by her Chinese educational culture. However, this might also relate to personal attributes. Although Cheng Min and Wang Jian come from China, they felt relaxed and they thought they had learned quite a lot. Cheng Min felt relaxed because “we are always eating while we are talking” and Zoe asserted she was a positive person and she thought about all this positively, “So it helps a lot. Positive attitude is very important for a person”. On the other hand, May did not think relaxed was the way for her, because she was busy, so she did not allow this program to let her sit and feel relaxed this year. She did not think she would apply the word ‘relaxed’ to her.

4.3 Evaluations on World Education Initiative

Overall, *World Education* stands as a successful culturally inclusive initiative. Among the study’s findings, the participants, as well as the coordinator perceived that this initiative was successful as a culturally inclusive practice, particularly in promoting confidence, support, and a sense of belonging. This study found that the group discussion worked well as it stimulated interaction about different cultural ways of learning. As a result, most participants of this program felt included in the sense that they were more confident to talk and engage, felt valued in the sense that their cultural backgrounds were being shared and understood, felt supported in the sense that this initiative acted as a social network, and felt connected in the sense that this initiative provided help and assistance for their academic adaptation with a relaxing atmosphere. The findings of this study expanded the literature in the sense that international students’ different ways of constructing knowledge rather than being regarded as problematic and needing to be corrected, illustrated an acknowledgement and showed value of their different cultural ways of

learning preferences, which also recognized the benefits that international students could bring to our multi cultural classrooms in Australia.

5. Conclusion

My findings illustrated some of the comments and claims made in the literature, just as Garcia and Guerra (2006) found that if educators increase their knowledge of cultural awareness, they can better recognize their own cultural influences on their values and those of their students as well. It also extended the literature in the sense that it provided valuable information for educators and policy makers on operation of such initiatives. As discussed above, there is considerable evidence to show that the initiative stands as a successful culturally inclusive practice in terms of helping international students feel valued and included.

When international students first arrive in Australia, they experience culture shock and study challenges to various degrees. Dr Rivers had set this program up, not to 'bring them up to speed', but to celebrate international students' diverse cultures through story, song, food, social and educational systems and so forth, which positioned international students quite positively. It helped students, especially international students to build up confidence and a social network, as well as strongly encouraging a sense of inclusion.

This initiative also provided educators with information about international students' various cultural perceptions as well as supported them with understanding and knowledge of culturally inclusive practices. My findings suggest that lecturers and tutors and other educators with classes of international students might assist international students' academic adaptation through organizing groups of mixed cultural backgrounds, foregrounding their own cultural preferences over learning, as well as recognizing international students' differences in learning preferences. My findings also suggest that universities as well as different schools need to embrace and support initiatives like the present one that value international students' different learning experiences because this can provide support for international students' adaptation processes.

My findings also suggest that international students regard the acceptance of their local peers and constructing mutual friendships with them as being of importance for their adaptation. I believe that future research into the areas of local students' perspectives on constructing mutual friendships with international students to better improve international students' sense of belonging needs to be carried out on this front. Furthermore, further research might be needed to see if the findings of this study can be replicated in larger populations and whether findings might apply to other international student contexts.

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Note

Note 1. All names used in this article are pseudonyms to protect the identity of the participants.

Perception and Attitudes toward Terrorism in a Muslim Majority Country

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Abstract

The purpose of this research article is to examine and to ascertain whether general public in a Muslim majority country do support organized violence and terrorism. The discussion focuses on Malaysia as a case study. The study adopted a quantitative approach with questionnaires being used as the instrument for data collection. The data were analyzed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). The results show that the Malaysian public do not support terrorism. The findings also found that ethnicity and religiosity have important bearings toward political violence and terrorism. Malay-Muslims, for instance, tend to exhibit some inclinations toward aggressive attitude compared to that of non-Malay Muslims. Furthermore, the study also found that gender, race, religion and occupation do play a part in determining perception on acts of terror.

Keywords: Terrorism, Political violence, Public perception and attitudes

1. Introduction

Terror attacks and political violence do occur in many parts of the world – in Iraq, Afghanistan, Pakistan, India, Indonesia, Northern Ireland, North Korea, and even in the United States of America (US) – to name a few (Fair 2007; Aryasinha, 2006; Kivimäki, 2003a; Gunaratna, 2002; Lee, 1983). Those attacks were usually politically motivated. The violence was justified in response to tyranny, corrupted administration, exploitation; corruption,

social injustice, genocide, and suppression (Sukma, Abdullah, & Jamhari, 2011; Laitin & Shapiro, 2008; Bergesen & Lizardo, 2004; Mazarr, 2004; Kegley, 2002; Loiose, 2002). However, in the post-9/11 period, there have been tendencies among the Western community to relate terrorism and violence to Islam and Muslims (Esposito & Mogahed, 2007; Osman, 2005, Haddad & Khashan 2002). Islam is labeled as a religion which promotes terrorism and encourages its followers to cause violence (Gabriel 2002). For example, Kivimäki (2003b) specifically relates Islam to terrorism. In the case of Indonesia, he suggests that,

[t]he intensification of Islamic terrorists activities in Indonesia has surprised many students of Indonesian culture and religion. Did Indonesian religious practices not represent the most relaxed and tolerant form of Islam? (Kivimäki, 2003b, p 15)

Furthermore, a study undertaken by Berry, Gibbs, Hudson, Karacan, Kollars, & Miro (2003) identifies several countries that have problems with political violence and terrorist threats (Berry, Gibbs, Hudson, Karacan, Kollars, & Miro, 2003). The study points out that India, with a substantial number of Muslim populations, is one of the countries that has suffered from violence and has a continuous track record on terrorist activities. According to the study, India experiences five cases of internal rebellion, excluding conflicts in Kashmir. There have been about 100 domestic terrorist groups moving actively in the country. Interestingly, the study also has also found that Monaco has become an international centre for political violence activities. This is due to its geographic location, which is sandwiched between France and Italy that allows this sovereign city state as one of the centers for Italian and Russian Mafia groups.

Hence, it is fair to suggest at this juncture that terrorism is universal in nature and the perpetrators are not confined to only Muslim majority countries. Furthermore, statistics released by the US government even suggest that there were more violence acts committed by non-Muslims than by Muslims (Masud 2003, p. 20). Even though some of the acts of terror were committed by Muslims, it is rather premature to suggest that Islam promotes violence. Masud (2003, p. 20) suggests that the world should study and try to understand reasons and motives behind the act of terrors committed by Muslims. He further argues that the acts of violence committed by Muslims symbolise the responses from the Muslims towards the invasions of Islamic countries by the world super powers led by the United States.

Terrorism, as many experts on the field argue, is a form of violence with political purpose, and requires political response (Al-Rashid, 2005; Aydinli & Ali, 2011; Esposito, 2002; Gunaratna, 2002; Gunaratna & Aviv, 2010; Hoffman, 2010, 2006; Kurtulus 2011; Lanquer, 1987; Tan, 2007). The perpetrators with a political aim tend to carry out their attacks against targets that are carefully chosen with political calculation. States, governments, and their strategic interests have become major target for terrorist attacks. States subsequently have no choice but to react with various counter terrorism approaches. Yet, while researching the attackers and its targets is certainly important in counter-terrorism research, the third actor – the general public – also requires our attention. This is because public responses to terrorism significantly influence policy options of the government, and public responses at the time of terror incidents gain little systematic attention in the counter terrorism efforts.

The above argument begs us to answer a very fundamental question, how do the public reconcile with terrorist attacks? Do public perceptions in a Muslim majority country like Indonesia, Malaysia, Pakistan or Uzbekistan differ from one another? How do they perceive terrorism? Some studies have been made on public perception of terror and political violence in Western countries, especially in the aftermath of the September 11 incidents (Stevens et. al., 2011; Jore, 2007; Lemyre, Turner, Lee, & Krewski, 2006; Goodwin, Willson, & Stanley Jr., 2005; Lewis, 2005; Crenshaw, 1995).

But, we are yet to see a systematic; cross cultural study on public understanding of terrorism especially in Southeast Asian, a region with substantial number of Muslim populations and, that has been identified as the second front of the US's Global War against Terrorism (Chalk, Rabasa, Rosenau & Piggott, 2009; Tan, 2007).

Hence, the objective of this article is to investigate Malaysian public perception and attitudes on terrorism and political violence. Malaysia is chosen as a case study since it is a multi religious and multiracial country, yet Islam is an official religion. Muslims represent roughly 60% of total population. Constitutionally, the Malays, the largest ethnic group, are Muslim. Other major ethnic groups include the Chinese, Indians, Iban, and Kadazan. Most of them are Buddhist, Hindus, or Christians. Hence, this article would contribute further to our understanding of how general public in a Muslim majority country, with substantial non-Muslim populations perceive political violence and terrorism. At the same time, the article investigates factors that affecting those attitude and perception.

2. Theoretical Framework

Perception on political violence or terrorism (PERCTERROR) is influenced by attitude towards the acts of terror (ATTACT) (Stevens et. al., 2011; Crenshaw, 1995). Individuals who exhibit a more aggressive attitude tend to support political terror and vice-versa. However, it can also be argued that ATTACT plays only a mediating role since other variable such as demography (e.g. gender, age, education, income, etc.), interest in politics, extremist view on religion and experiences on acts of terror could also play an influential role (Stevens et. al., 2011; Sukma et. al., 2011; Esposito & Mogahed, 2007; Martha, 1995;). It must be appreciated that demographic variables represent the sociological and economic dimension of understanding one's perception as proposed by Esposito and Mogahed (2007). Furthermore, Esposito and Mogahed (2007) also suggest that individuals who have deep interest in politics (POLITICS) and prescribe to extremism in religion (RELIGIOSITY) tend to be more aggressive in their attitudes and vice-versa. At the same time, people who have been the victims of acts of terror in the past tend to have less aggressive attitudes.

PERCTERROR is also influenced by perception on the government of the day (PERCGOD) (Terdman 2007). PERCGOD includes government's measures to protect state security, national policies, or government management or service delivery or even effort to eradicate corruption. The expectation is that those who are satisfied with the performance of the government of the day is expected to be less supportive of terrorism, vice-versa.

Interestingly, Silong, Hassan, Krausse's study (2008, p. 725) reveals that religious belief or ideology is the least cited reason for the increasing support for violence acts among people in the Muslim world. Their findings were also in contrast to Esposito and Mogahed's (2007) who have suggested that religion is one of the factors which contribute to one's support towards terrorism. Instead, Silong et. al. (2008, p. 725) suggest that major powers' behaviour such as US's domineering foreign policies and its unilateral approach to gain control over natural resources of other countries were at the top on the list. Silong et. al.'s findings are consistent with the results of a survey conducted by the 2007 World Public Opinion.org in Morocco, Indonesia, Egypt and Pakistan. The World Public's survey suggests that the respondents have a perception that US has an agenda to weaken Islam and to isolate Muslims from the rest of the world (Esposito & Mogahed, 2007). Silong et.al.'s (2008) findings also show that perception on US foreign policies (PERCUS) is another important independent variable to understand further public perception on contemporary terrorism issues. It can be argued that those who are in favour of US foreign policies tend not to support terrorism, vice-versa.

At the same time, local and international media reported news on terrorist activities and incidences might also influence public perception on the issue. Esposito and Mogahed's study on public perception on selected countries show that perception on media (PERCMEDIA) affects perception on political violence (PERCTERROR). It is fair to postulate that individuals who perceive media as reporting the truth to perceive that acts of terror, from both sides – the militants and the authority – are justifiable and therefore support terrorism, vice-versa.

Kimivaki (2003, pp. 4-5) suggests religious tolerance (TOLERANCE) as another influential variable to people's perception on violence and terrorism. His study on Indonesia shows that a positive correlation exists between TOLERANCE and PERCTERROR.

Finally, perception on terrorism is also affected by one's SENSITIVITY towards hostile or aggressive cues (Dodge & Schwartz, 1997, pp. 171–180). However, this study takes a different path of argument with regards to sensitivity. Instead of measuring sensitivity towards hostile cues, this study examines sensitivity towards the sufferings of the victims of terrorism as a major focal point. In line with this argument, it is fair to expect that individual Muslims, who are sensitive to the sufferings of fellow Muslims, are expected not to be supportive of terrorism and vice-versa.

Therefore, it can be concluded at this stage that PERCTERROR is expected to be influenced by ATTACT, PERCGOD, PERCUS, PERCMEDIA, TOLERANCE and SENSITIVITY. At the same time, ATTACT is expected to be determined by RELIGIOSITY, POLITICS as well as demographic variables such as age, gender or income groups.

3. Methodology

3.1 Population and Sampling

The population of the study was identified as students of tertiary institutions (both public and private), civil servants and the groups which have no direct access to government polity. In order to have a good possible representation of the Malaysian public within the pre-determined sample size, a stratified but purposive sampling

technique was used. The sample was selected from five different regions, i.e. (1) central region of the Peninsula of Malaysia, (2) southern region of the Peninsula, (3) northern region of the Peninsula, (4) eastern region of the Peninsula, and (5) East Malaysia, which consists of the states of Sabah and Sarawak. At the end of the data collection process, there were 1,200 subjects for the analyses.

3.2 Instruments

A questionnaire was developed and used to solicit information from the respondents. All items used were close-ended in nature to allow easier quantitative analyses. The questionnaire was divided into six sections. Section A requires the respondents to provide some demographic information. Questions with regards to other variables identified in the conceptual framework were disguised in the remaining sections. Section B contains items that seek the respondents' opinions on life in Malaysia. Section C attempts to solicit the perception of the respondents on treatments received by Muslims around the world. Section D seeks the respondents' perception on political violence and terrorism. Perception on media was asked in Section E. Finally, Section F contains questions with regards to experiences on acts of terror. In total, there are 71 items altogether in the questionnaire.

3.3 Data Analyses

The data were analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). In addition to descriptive analyses (e.g.: frequencies and means), the study also performed necessary statistical procedures to test for the hypotheses (e.g.: χ^2 for association, Mann-Whitney test and Kruskal-Wallis for differences, and Spearman for correlation, etc.). Despite the large sample size, non-parametric tests were used due to the fact that the distribution of the data is not normal.

4. Results and Discussion

In this study, females represent 64.9% of the respondents. The over representation of female in the survey reflects a changing demography and social structure in Malaysia. Females, for instance, are the largest student body in Malaysian universities. They represent 70% of student population (Samsudin, 2011, p. 14). The higher ratio of female respondents is of benefits to the present study, since there has been a popular assumption that males tend to show a higher tendency towards the acts of terror.

The majority of the respondents (62.%) fall into the age groups of 30 years old and below with 32.2% of them aged between 21 to 25 years old. On the other hand, 32.1% of them belong to the age groups of 31 to 50 years old. Only 5.8 % belong to the age group of 51 years old and above.

Nearly all of (98.65%) of the respondents have completed at least secondary school education. At the same time, 881 or 73.7% of the respondents have tertiary education, i.e. post-secondary school education. 59.9% of the respondents have monthly household income of Malaysian Ringgit (MYR) 2000 (USD 650 at the current prevalent rate) or less. This is due to the fact that some of the respondents are college students who rely on education loans and scholarship to support their livelihood. At the same time, some of the respondents are young individuals who possess secondary school education. It is fair to expect them to fall into those income categories. Only 5.3% of the respondents have household income of more than MYR 5000 (USD 1634) per month.

Respondents represent a wide spectrum of occupations. The largest group of them, 42.4%, represents the public sector. The second largest group (38%) represents students who are both at the secondary school and tertiary levels. The number of employees of the private sector, even though relatively small at 10.9%, is still large enough to allow statistical tests to be performed on them. This is expected since it is quite difficult to get them to cooperate with any form of surveys. Furthermore, 55.7% of the respondents are bachelors while 42.5% are married. The rest of the respondents are either divorced or divorcees or survivors of deceased spouse.

In terms of ethnic background, the majority of respondents or 70.8% of them are Malays. The percentages of Chinese and Indian respondents are 18.1% and 5.6% respectively. The relatively small numbers of Chinese and Indian respondents are expected not to affect the quality of data analyses since the numbers are adequate to perform statistical tests. This variable was later re-coded as Malays and non-Malays. In addition, the majority (73.0%) of the respondents are Muslims. Sixty percent of the respondents come from urban area, while 480 (40%) of them live in the rural area.

4.1 Perception on Political Violence or Terrorism (PERCTERROR)

Perception on political violence or acts of terror (PERCTERROR) is measured using seven indicators. An example of the questions used is "The burning of Metro Tabernacle Church in Kuala Lumpur on 7 January 2010 was an act of terror." Another question to measure PERCTERROR is "The bombing of the JW Marriot Hotel in Jakarta on 17 July 2009 were carried out to respond to all the mistreatments of Muslims around the world."

Based on the seven indicators discussed above, a composite measurement of PERCTERROR was computed as a simple mean of the respondent's score on the seven indicators. For the purpose of the computation, all negative questions were recorded to reflect positivity in the measurement. Thus, higher PERCTERROR score reflects less support of terrorism. The distribution of the respondents according to their PERCTERROR is exhibited in Figure 1.

Figure 1 shows that based on a scale of one to five, the majority of the respondents do not support terrorism as a means to solve a conflict or to achieve an objective. The mean score of PERCTERROR is 3.14 (standard deviation = 0.407), which suggests that on average; the Malaysian public does not support terrorism.

4.2 Attitude Towards Terror Act (ATTACT)

Attitude towards the act of terror (ATTACT) is measured by using three indicators. Among the questions asked were, "I feel that the Malaysian Air Force should shoot down the Singaporean fighter jets which provocatively enter the Malaysian air space." and "I believe that Malaysia should retaliate if attacked by other countries."

Based on the three indicators, the composite variable of "Attitude towards the Act of Terror" (ATTACT) was computed as a simple mean of the three indicators. Higher scores reflect favourable attitudes towards act of terrors and vice-versa. Prior to the computation of ATTACT, all negative questions were transformed into positive. The distribution of respondents according to their scores on ATTACT is shown in Figure 2. It is evident from Figure 2 that based on a scale of one to five, the majority of the respondents exhibit mixed attitude towards the act of terror. The mean score is 2.78 with a standard deviation of 0.922. The Spearman correlation coefficient between ATTACT and PERCTERROR is 0.170 which is significant at the 1% level. Consistent with the suggestion of the theory, this result suggests that less aggressive individuals (who have favourable attitude) tend not to support terrorism and vice-versa.

Political inclination or interest in politics (POLITIC) and RELIGIOSITY are expected to affect PERCTERROR through their effects on ATTACT. Therefore, the effects of these two variables on ATTACT were tested and discussed below.

4.3 Political Inclination (POLITIC)

Political inclination or interest in politics (POLITIC) was measured using two indicators. The questions asked were "I am interested in politics" and "I frequently engage in discussions on politics with my friends." POLITIC was computed as the simple mean of the two indicators.

It is evident in Figure 3 that in general, Malaysian public is not interested in politics. The mean score of the political interest measure (POLITIC) is 2.76 with a standard deviation of 0.986. Nevertheless, POLITIC is negatively correlated with ATTACT. The Spearman correlation coefficient is -0.142 which is significant at the 1-% level. This result suggests that individuals with deep interest in politics have the tendency to be more aggressive in their attitude, vice-versa.

Therefore, it can be concluded at this juncture that POLITIC is negatively correlated to ATTACT, which is positively correlated to PERCTERROR. This suggests that individuals who have deep interest in politics tend to be more aggressive in their attitudes and thus supporting terrorism, vice-versa.

4.4 Religiosity (RELIGIOSITY)

RELIGIOSITY was measured using four indicators. Among the questions asked were "Life is meaningless without religion" and "I consider myself as a pious person." Later, RELIGIOSITY was computed as the simple mean of the four indicators. It is evident in Figure 4 that the majority of the respondents consider themselves as religious. Based on a scale of one to five, the mean score is 4.34, which suggests high level of religiosity. A Spearman correlation test reveals that there exist a negative correlation between RELIGIOSITY and ATTACT. The Spearman correlation coefficient is -0.245, which is significant at the 1% level. This suggests that religious individuals tend to be more aggressive in their attitude, vice-versa.

Therefore, it can be concluded at this juncture that RELIGIOSITY is negatively correlated to ATTACT, which is positively correlated to PERCTERROR. This suggests that individuals who perceive themselves as religious tend to be more aggressive in their attitudes and thus support terrorism, vice-versa.

4.5 Perception on the Government Of The Day (PERCGOD)

Perception on the government of the day (PERCGOD) has three components, i.e. (i) perception on national policies (NATIONAL POLICIES), (ii) perception on corruption (CORRUPTION), and (iii) perception on the government management (GOVTMANAGEMENT).

NATIONAL POLICIES was measured by using six items or indicators in the questionnaire. Among the items or questions asked were, "Malaysians are free to practice their respective religions" and "Malaysia is a democratic country." NATIONAL POLICIES was later computed as the simple mean of the six items or indicators. Figure 5 reveals that the majority of the respondents perceive favorably on the national policies. Based on a scale of one to five, the mean score is 3.56 with a standard deviation of 0.526.

4.6 Perception on Corruption (CORRUPTION)

Perception on corruption (CORRUPTION) was measured using four indicators. Among the questions asked were, "The Government is serious in eradicating corruption." and "The level of integrity among the leaders of this country is high." Subsequently, CORRUPTION was measured as a simple mean of the six indicators. It is evident in Figure 6 that the respondents do not perceive favorably on the issue of corruption in this country. Based on a scale of one to five, the mean score is 2.78 and the standard deviation is 0.819.

4.7 Perception on the Government Management (GOVTMANAGEMENT)

Perception on government delivery system (GOVTMANAGEMENT) was computed using eleven indicators. Among the questions asked were, "Malaysians enjoy a better quality of life compared to people in other countries", "Malaysians have access to good education" and "Malaysia is a safe country."

GOVTMANAGEMENT, which reflects the effectiveness and the efficiency of Malaysian government in managing the country, was computed as a simple mean of the eleven indicators. It is revealed in Figure 7 that the respondents have a favorable perception of the Malaysian government's service delivery system with a mean score of GOVTMANAGEMENT of 3.72 with a standard deviation of 0.534.

Subsequently, PERCGOD was computed as the simple mean of NATIONAL POLICIES, CORRUPTION and GOVTMANAGEMENT. It is revealed in Figure 8 that the respondents do exhibit favorable perception towards the government of the day. Based on a scale of one to five, the mean score is 3.48 with a standard deviation of 0.52.

A correlation procedure reveals that PERCGOD is positively correlated to PERCTERROR. The Spearman correlation coefficient is 0.217 and is significant at the 1% level. The result suggests that those who are satisfied with the government of the day have the tendency not to support terrorism, vice-versa.

4.8 Sensitivity Towards The Sufferings Of The Victims Of Terrorism (SENSITIVITY)

The respondents' sensitivity towards the sufferings of the victims (SENSITIVITY) is measured by seven indicators. Among the questions asked were, "I am worried that economic sanction against Iran will affect the livelihood of Muslims there" and "I have heartfelt sympathies for the poor living condition of the Afghans caused by invasion of foreign soldiers."

The score of SENSITIVITY was computed as a simple mean of seven indicators. Figure 9 indicates that the majority of the respondents are sensitive and show great sympathy towards the sufferings of Muslims around the world. Based on a scale of one to five, the mean score is 4.05 with a standard deviation of 0.651. At the same time, there exists a positive correlation between SENSITIVITY and PERCTERROR. The Spearman correlation is 0.092 which is significant at the 1% level. This means that as they become more sensitive towards the sufferings of the victims of terrorism, the lesser they support terrorism, vice-versa.

4.9 Perception on U.S Foreign Policies (PERCUS)

Perception on United States (US) foreign policies (PERCUS) was computed using three indicators. Among the questions asked were, "The US-led invasion of Afghanistan and Iraq is also an attack on Islam as a whole" and "The USA and other developed countries are only interested in controlling the natural resources of the less developed nations." PERCUS was computed as a simple mean of the three indicators.

Figure 10 shows that the respondents have favourable perception towards the US foreign policies. Based on a scale of one to five, the mean score is 2.27 with a standard deviation of 0.82. It is worth noting that for PERCUS, lower scores reflect favourable response to US foreign policies, vice-versa. However, their perception on US foreign policies does not affect their perception on terrorism. The Spearman correlation coefficient between PERCUS and PERCTERROR is -0.032 which is not significant at the 5% level.

4.10 Level of Tolerance (TOLERANCE)

Level of tolerance (TOLERANCE) was measured using five indicators. Among the questions asked were, "Malaysians should visit their friends of other faiths during the festive seasons", "Malaysians of all faiths should be able to live harmoniously in the same neighbourhoods" and "Religious tolerance is practiced in this country."

TOLERANCE was computed as a simple mean of five indicators. Figure 11 indicates that the respondents exhibit a relatively high level of tolerance. Based on a scale of one to five, the mean score is 3.81 with a standard deviation of 0.565. However, their tolerance does not affect their perception on terrorism. The Spearman correlation coefficient between TOLERANCE and PERCTERROR is -0.038 and is not significant at the 5% level.

4.11 Perception on Media (PERCMEDIA)

Perception on media (PERCMEDIA) was measured by using five indicators. Among the questions asked were, "The local print media (newspapers, tabloids, magazines) always report the truth about terrorism" and "Western media have the agenda to purposely tarnish the image of Islam."

PERCMEDIA was computed as a simple mean of the five indicators. Figure 12 shows that the Malaysian public does not perceive the media favourably, as far as reporting the incidences of acts of terror are concerned. The mean score of the perception on media (PERCMEDIA) is 2.85 with a standard deviation of 0.728. There exists a negative correlation between PERCMEDIA and PERCTERROR. The Spearman correlation coefficient is -0.291 which is significant at the 1% level. This explains that as the respondents perceive more truthful in the media reporting, the more they would support terrorism as the consequence of frustration.

A question remains; however, do demographic profiles of respondents influence their perception on terrorism? Do gender, marital status or education background influence their perception on terrorism?

- (i) *Gender* - The mean rank of ATTACT for male and female respondents is 540.91 and 627.03 respectively. A Mann-Whitney test procedure resulted in Mann-Whitney U statistic of 138283.00, which is significant at the 1% level. This means that the males and females do differ in their attitude towards acts of terror. Further examination of the mean statistics reveals that males tend to be more aggressive in their attitudes as compared to their female counterparts.
- (ii) *Age* - A Spearman correlation procedure was run to prove the hypothesis that age is correlated to attitude towards acts of terror (ATTACT). The results indicate that the Spearman correlation coefficient between AGE and ATTACT is -0.041, which is not significant at the 5% level. Therefore, it is safe to say that age is not correlated to attitude towards the acts of terror.
- (iii) *Marital status* - A Kruskal-Wallis procedure was used to test the differences in attitudes towards acts of terror (ATTACT) among respondents of different marital status. The Chi-Square statistic is 2.563 and is not significant at the 5% level. This suggests that marital status be it bachelors, divorced/divorcees and widows/widowers do not differ in their attitudes towards the acts of terror.
- (iv) *Occupation* - A Kruskal-Wallis procedure was also used to test the differences in attitudes towards acts of terror (ATTACT) among Malaysian public of different occupation categories. The Chi-Square statistic is 15.253, which is significant at the 5% level. This suggests that people of different occupational groups tend to differ in their attitude towards the acts of terror.
- (v) *Level of Education* - This variable is re-coded into a dichotomous variable with 1= without tertiary education and 2= with tertiary education. A Mann-Whitney U-Test procedure was used to test the difference in ATTACT between respondents of different education backgrounds. The mean ranks of ATTACT for those without tertiary education and with tertiary education are 573.30 and 603.39 respectively. The Mann-Whitney U statistic is 130042.50 and is not significant at the 5% level. This suggests that the respondents with or without tertiary education do not differ in their attitudes towards the acts of terror (ATTACT).
- (vi) *Race* - This variable is re-coded into a dichotomous variable with 1= Malays and 2= non-Malays. The study is interested to test the difference in ATTACT between the Malay and their non-Malay counterparts. The Mann-Whitney U-Test was again being used to prove the difference in ATTACT between the Malays and the non-Malays. The mean rank of ATTACT for the Malays and the non-Malays are 513.76 and 801.07 respectively. The Mann-Whitney U statistic is 76360.00 and is significant at the 1% level. This suggests that the Malays are more aggressive in their attitudes than their non-Malay counterparts.
- (vii) *Religion* - The variable is re-coded into a dichotomous variable with 1= Muslims and 2= non-Muslims. The Mann-Whitney U-Test was used to test the hypothesis that the Muslims and non-Muslims do not differ in their ATTACT. The mean rank of ATTACT for the Muslims and non-Muslims are 516.35 and 816.32 respectively. The Mann-Whitney U statistic is 69987.50, which is significant at 1% level. This means that the Muslims tend to exhibit a more aggressive

attitude compared to that of the non-Muslims. This result is expected since the majority of the Muslims are also Malays.

- (viii) *Monthly household income* - A Spearman correlation procedure was run to test the correlation between monthly household income (INCOME) and attitude towards acts of terror (ATTACT). The test reveals that the Spearman correlation coefficient is 0.016 and is not significant at the 5% level. This indicates that monthly household income is not correlated to the attitude towards the acts of terror.

Based on the findings discussed above, it is evident that gender, race, religion and occupation do play a part in determining perception on the acts of terror (PERCTERROR). These demographic variables do have bearings on respondents' attitudes towards the acts of terror (ATTACT), which subsequently affect the perception on the acts of terror (PERCTERROR).

5. Conclusion

Based on the discussion and findings above, it can finally be concluded that Malaysian public in general does not support or condone terrorism. Interestingly, however, in general, Malaysians, do believe in aggression as a way to solve conflicts. The study also indicates that the male respondents are more aggressive in their attitude compared to that of their female counterparts. As far as education level is concerned, the less-educated and the better-educated individuals do not differ in their attitudes towards the acts of terror (ATTACT). The findings also reveal that the Malay-Muslim respondents exhibit more aggressive attitudes as compared to their non-Malay and non-Muslim counterparts.

Interest in politics also has a significant effect on one's attitude towards the acts of terror. It is evident in the study conducted that those who have inclination towards politics tend to be more aggressive in their behaviour. This finding does not come as a surprise. Since, terrorism is politically-motivated, it is fair to suggest here that politically-inclined persons tend to express more aggressive attitude. Similar line of argument also explains why religiously inclined individuals tend to be more aggressive in their attitudes. Since terrorism is also religiously-motivated, it is not surprising to expect that more religiously inclined individuals tend to be more aggressive in their attitudes.

The Malaysian public also seems to have a low level of trust on media, both local and foreign, as far as reporting on terrorism is concerned. The fact that this variable is negatively correlated with PERCTERROR suggests that the more they trust the media, the greater would be their frustration as well as their support for terrorism, vice-versa. The findings also indicate that PERCMEDIA is negatively correlated with SENSITIVITY, which suggests that those who believe in the truth of media tend to be less sensitive to the sufferings of the victims of political violence, and at the same time are more supportive to terrorism, vice-versa. However, it is surprising to learn that PERCUS and TOLERANCE do not correlate significantly with PERCTERROR. Even though, in general Malaysians have low perception towards US foreign policies, it does not affect their perception on terrorism. At the same time, there exists no clear pattern in the relationship between TOLERANCE and PERCTERROR.

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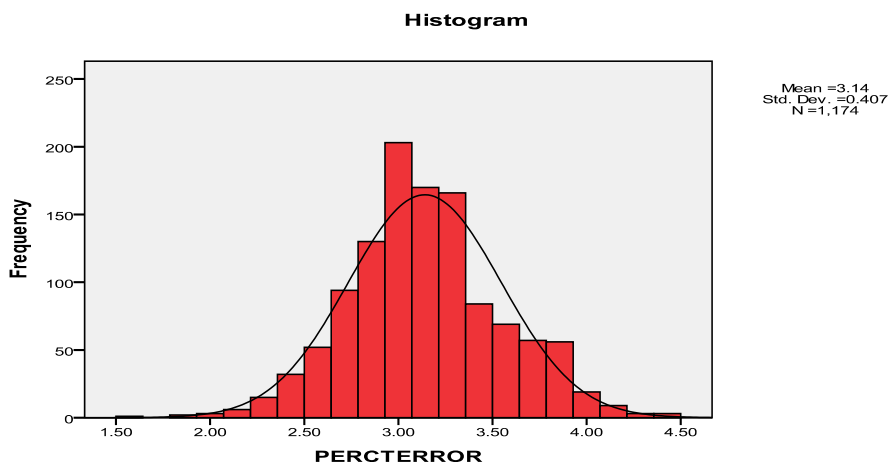


Figure 1. Overall respondents' perception on terrorism (PERTERROR)

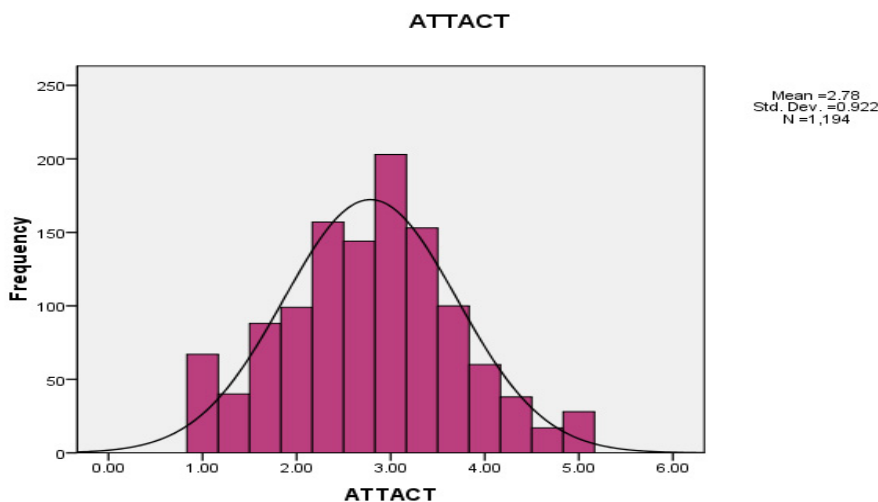


Figure 2. The distribution of respondents according to scores of ATTACT

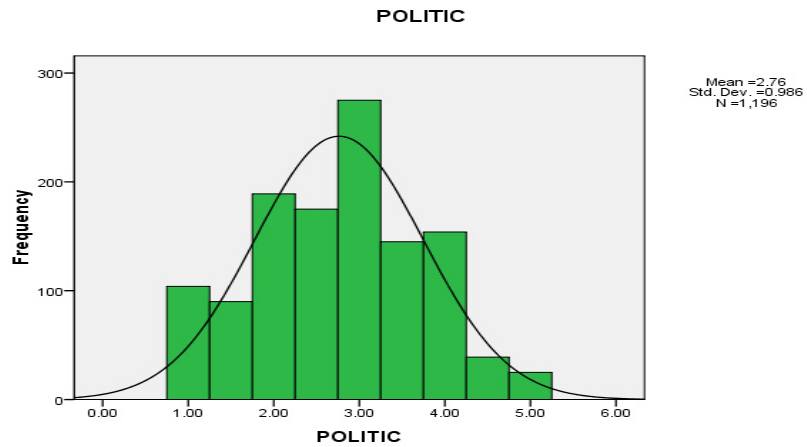


Figure 3. The distribution of respondents according to their Political Inclination (POLITIC)

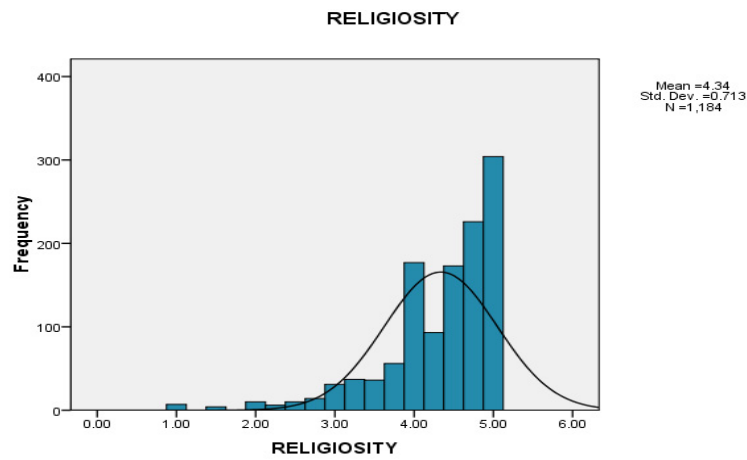


Figure 4. The distribution of respondents according to scores of RELIGIOSITY

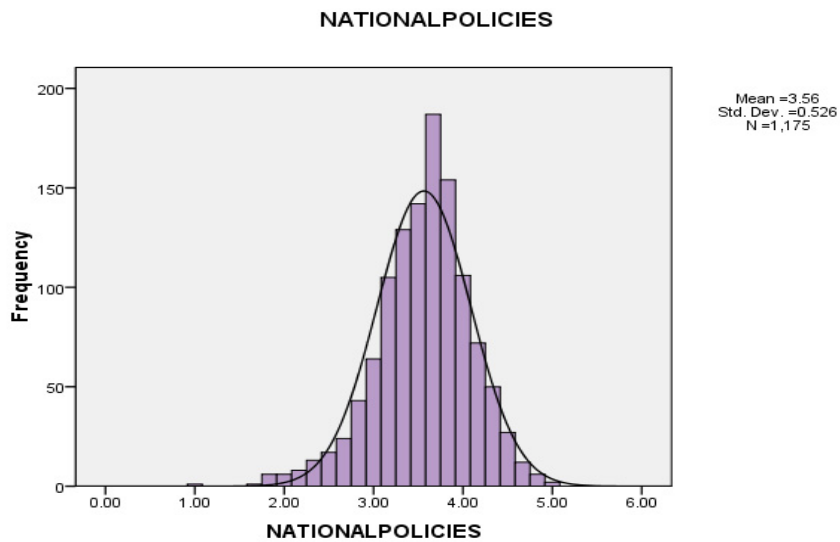


Figure 5. Distribution of the respondents according to their scores on “National Policies”

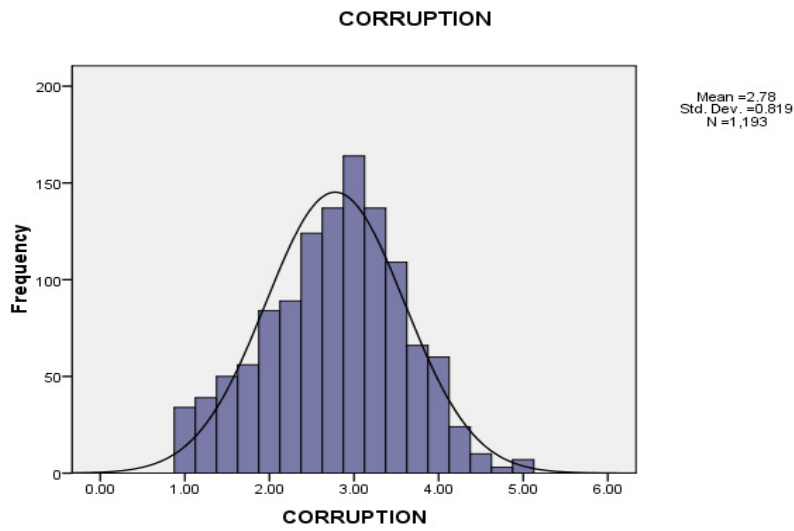


Figure 6. The distribution of the respondents according to their scores on CORRUPTION

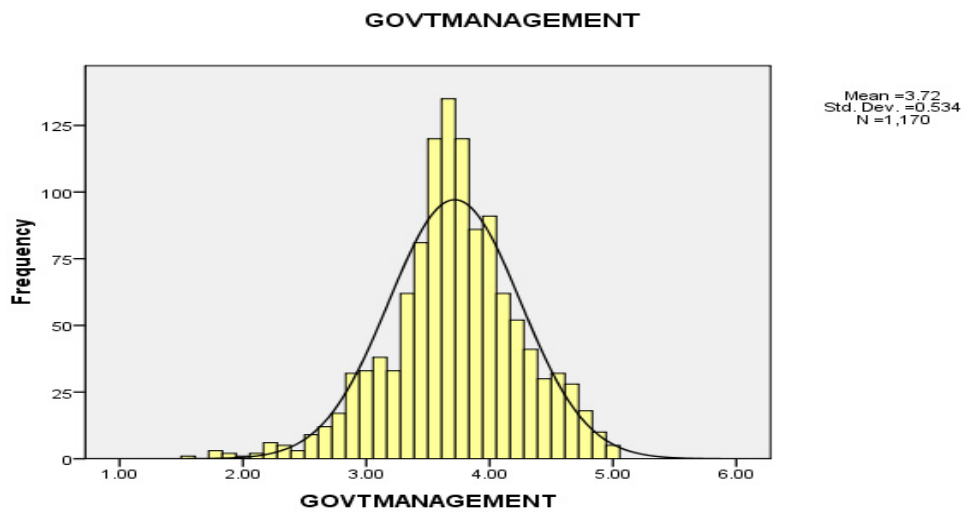


Figure 7. Distribution of the respondents according to scores of GOVTMANAGEMENT

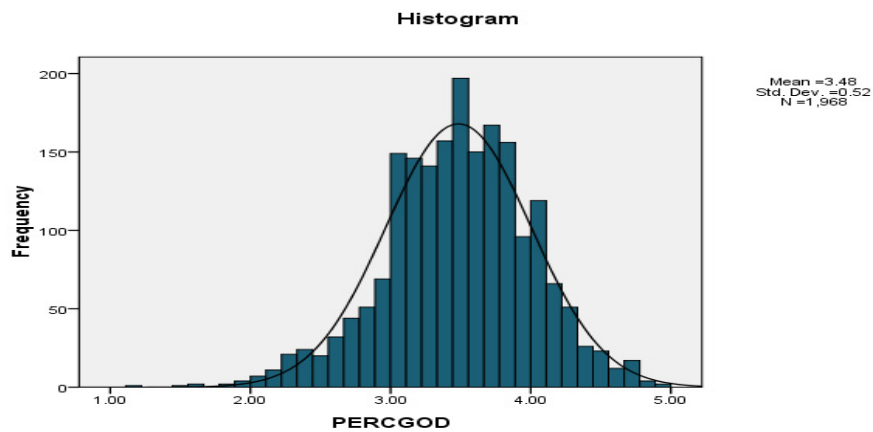


Figure 8. Distribution of respondents according to their scores of PERCGOD

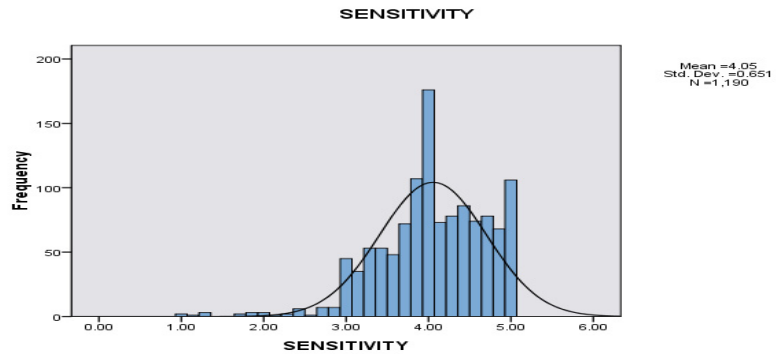


Figure 9. The distribution of the respondents according to their scores on SENSITIVITY

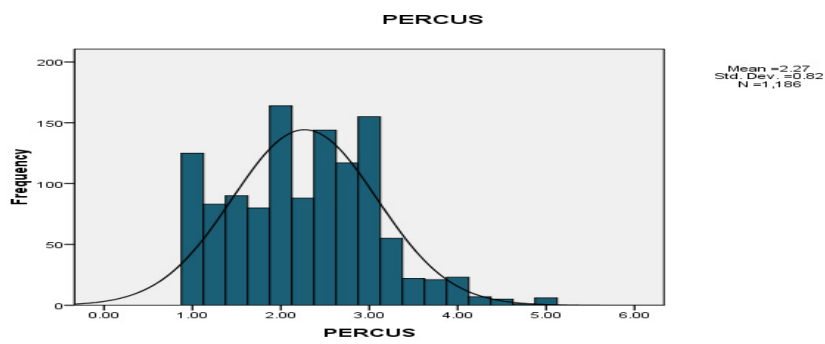


Figure 10. Distribution of the respondents according to scores of PERCUS

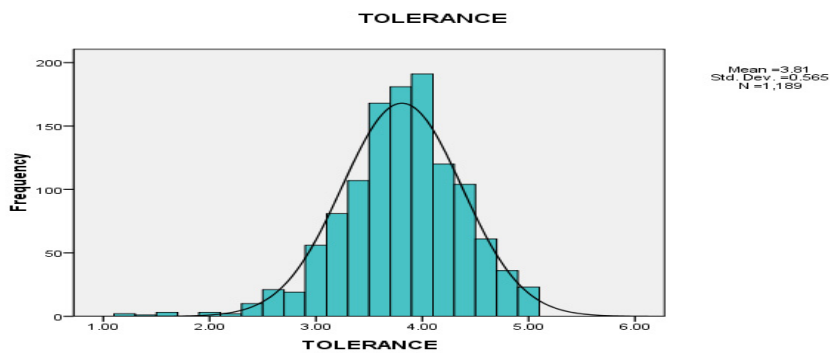


Figure 11. Distribution of respondents according to scores of TOLERANCE

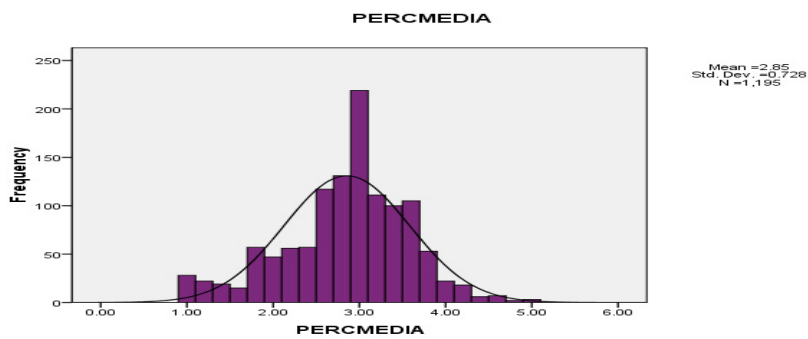


Figure 12. Distribution of respondents according to the scores of PERCMEDIA

Overview of Multiple Calculating Methods for Land Expropriation Compensation Standard --- A Case of Arable Land in Nanyang, Henan Province, China

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Abstract

With accelerating of industrialization and urbanization, the speed of China farmland conversion is astonishing, and land expropriation compensation and interests of land deprived farmers generated thereby also become a focus the society. Although there have been qualitative improvement on both compensation for arable land and security of farmers' social welfare in the last few years, the phenomena of forcible expropriation of land and low compensation for the land by the government in remote areas are still too numerous to mention and the issue of compensation for land deprived farmers is a crucial issue that is concerned with farmers' interests and social security. Therefore, it is necessary to explore a legal and rational land expropriation compensation standard to guarantee interests of land deprived farmers.

Keywords: Land expropriation compensation, Arable land, Farmers' interests

1. Introduction

Although China has set up a relatively complete arable land protection system, the effect of arable land protection is not optimistic. From 1997 to 2010, the total arable area in the whole country reduced by 123 million Mu, with an annual reduction of 9.4615 Mu. The trend of aggravated reduction of arable land has not got under effective control. An important reason that has caused lose of arable land to a large extent is that the country has not set up a perfect economic compensation system for arable land and resettlement security for deprived farmers after land expropriation exists only in name.

It is generally believed by domestic land expropriation compensation theoretical circle that the country should give out the resettlement grants (sometimes including land compensation) at once to farmers and let them find their own means of livelihood. Irrationality of this sort of compensation is also a focus of controversy by the current theoretical circle which mainly contains irrationality of land expropriation compensation standard, appreciation of land not included in land expropriation compensation standard, no consideration of differences of regional economic development that might lead to differences of land price and irrationality of allocation of land expropriation compensation as well as unequal distribution of land expropriation compensation among all stakeholders, etc. Farmers are the participants and constructors of industrialization and urbanization and they are supposed to become a beneficiary. Thus, it is necessary to take effective measures to protect interests of land deprived farmers (He Zhian, 2007). The result of an analysis of survey on interest security of land deprived farmers in Zhejiang indicates that interests of land deprived farmers have not obtained due compensation and security and there is a great gap and disharmony between will and request of land deprived farmers. Thus, the government has proposed and promulgated land expropriation compensation regulations and put forward policies to standardize the distribution behavior (Liu Weidong, 2006).

It is generally acknowledged by the existing research achievements that land expropriation of farmers in a necessary phenomenon in social and economic development and progress of urbanization. Yet, at present, land expropriation compensation does not conform with the actual situation of the country and does not have perfect security measures. Especially when arable land is expropriated, as a result of remoteness of the arable land and insufficient self legal protection of farmers, the compensation that is originally inadequate is reduced again and

again and the living of farmers who are deprived of land even become more impoverished. Thus, it is imperative to work out new compensation mechanism and security measure.

2. Status quo of land expropriation compensation in Nanyang and existing problems

2.1 Status quo of land expropriation compensation in Nanyang

Nanyang is the city in Henan Province that has the largest arable land area, in which per capita arable land area is 0.09 hm² and those who are involved in agriculture account for a rate as much as 60.2%. The standard of land compensation land resettlement grants adopts the integrated land section price. Land in this area is generally classified into four levels according to category of land, output value, per capita arable land, position of land, agricultural land level, land supply and demand relation, economic development level and minimum standard of living for urban residents and land section price is worked out for each level of land. It is stipulated in arable land expropriation compensation and resettlement grants that, land expropriation compensation accounts for 40% and resettlement grants account for 60%.

2.1.1 Land resettlement grants

Arable land compensation is paid with six to ten times of the average output value of the arable land three years prior to its expropriation and compensation for expropriation of other land is calculated by half of that for arable land.

Resettlement grants are compensation for land use right and source of farmers' living. Thus, this compensation should belong to those who own the land by contract, namely, farmers. And if the farmers agree that the resettlement grants are allocated by the collective, then this compensation should be used by the collective. Each farmer resettled should get a compensation worth of four to six times of the average output value in the first three years after the expropriation and the highest limit should not exceed 15 times of the average output value.

The highest land resettlement compensation should not exceed 30 times of the average output value in the first three after the expropriation. Henan Province promulgated "Henan Integrated Land Section Price Standard for Land Expropriation" that came into effect on November 1, 2009, and this compensation standard increased by approximately 20% more than the original average value.

2.1.2 Compensation for young crops and ground attachments and compensation for accessory and constructions

Compensation for young crops and ground attachments is aimed at owners of land property, so this compensation should belong to the owners of property. The standard of this compensation can be adjusted in due course by the municipal government according to the local economic development condition.

2.1.3 Social security fee

Henan added social security fee for land expropriation in 2009 and it is managed and used according to "Opinions of Department of labor and Social Security of Henan Province, Department of Land and Resources of Henan Province and Department of Finance of Henan Province about Employment Training and Social Security among Land Deprived Farmers" (Yu Labor Association, (2008) NO. 19). As for different people from different areas, the local government should make suitable adjustment to offer the compensation.

2.2 Problems existing in land expropriation compensation in Nanyang

2.2.1 Irrational land expropriation compensation standard

Land resettlement compensation is calculated according to "the average output value in the first three years" after the arable land expropriation, which does not coincide with a lot of cases in rural areas. For example, there is even no profit if a certain section of land is stopped being cultivated or is left uncultivated in a certain year or two years or even three years within the three years after the expropriation. In addition, the stipulation that resettlement compensation is several times of the average output value in the first three after the expropriation of arable land has no evidence at all, since these two have no necessary relevancy.

2.2.2 Too short time length for land compensation

It is stipulated in the 20th Article of "Rural Land Contracting Law" in China that, "the contract period of arable land is 30 years. The contract period of grassland is 30 to 50 years. The contract period of forest land is 30 to 70 years and the contract period for particular woods can be extended with approval of the competent department of forestry administration under the State Council". Therefore, the time length for compensation of contract land expropriated should be at least the remaining time of the contract periods of 30 years, 50 years and 70 years subtracted by the length of years that have passed after the land is under contract.

2.2.3 Ambiguity of relevant concepts

How is “the average output value in the first three years after land expropriation” calculated? Whether factors of inflation have been taken into consideration? According to explanation in “Land Administration Law of the People's Republic of China”, “resettlement compensation is a sort of compensation given out to settle living of agricultural population who live on the primary production means of land to obtain sources of living”. This explanation says nothing more than explain that resettlement compensation is “grants” given out for “living” of land deprived farmers, but has not made clear the content of “living” and the connotation of “grants”, which is likely to arouse dispute in real work. It is also specified that the sum of land expropriation compensation and resettlement grants should not exceed 30 times of the average output value in the first three years after land expropriation. This behavior that only stipulates the upper limit but does not stipulate the lower limit becomes a principle for local government in a lot of regions to implement low compensation for land expropriation.

2.2.4 Deficiency of security mechanism in the long run

At present, land is still the most basic living and subsistence security for farmers. At the time when they lose land, they also lose other rights and interests that they share and that are attached to the land. Although a small minority of areas have attempted to set up part of employment security for land deprived farmers, these security also finally exists in name only due to lack of a security mechanism in the long run.

2.2.5 Single compensation pattern

According to stipulation by the Ministry of Land and Resources, there are a variety of patterns in resettlement of land deprived farmers, which mainly include but are not limited to monetary resettlement, agricultural production resettlement, re-selection of employment, stock and bonus resettlement and trans-regional settlement, etc. However, in practice, a large majority of regions choose the pattern of monetary compensation at once. This single compensation pattern, unavoidably, gives rise to a variety of phenomena that damage legal interests of farmers, such as, overweight financial burden, compensation standard that is brought down, occupying, intercepting and embezzling compensation and land deprivation and unemployment of farmers, etc.

3. Calculation of land expropriation compensation standard by multiple means

3.1 Revenue Capitalization Method

The Revenue Capitalization Method is mainly applied to calculate the compensation standard for arable land to be expropriated. The calculation formula is as follows:

$$p = \frac{a}{r} \left[1 - \frac{1}{(1+r)^n} \right]$$

Where, P stands for land price, a stands for annual net land profit, r stands for land capitalization rate and n stands for the number of authorized years of land use. Land expropriation makes ownership of land transferred permanently and changes the collective ownership into national ownership. The calculation formula for the price of arable land expropriated is then converted into:

$$p = \frac{a}{r}$$

Arable land compensation standard in Nanyang can be generally classified into four levels according to the integrated land section price in Nanyang. Level I includes Lihe Town, Cha'an Town, Xindian Town, Hongniwan Town and Guanzhuang Town under jurisdiction of Wancheng District. Level II includes Jinhua Town, Gaomiao Town, Lihe Town, Huangtaigang Town and Hanjia Town under jurisdiction of Wancheng District and Xiezhuang Town, Angao Town, Shiqiao Town, Luying Town and Qinghua Town under jurisdiction of Wolong District. Level III includes 22 villages of Shangcao, Zhangtang and so on subordinate to Gaomiao Town under jurisdiction of Wancheng District, 13 villages subordinate to Xindian Town, Qinlaozhuang, Dongzhuang, Zhuyuangou, Dongdian, Taishanmiao and so on that are subordinate to Nanzhao County, Guaihe Town, Dushu Town, Guzhuangdian Town and Erlangmiao Town in Fangcheng Town and Wuliqiao Town in Xixia County, etc. Level IV includes towns and villages under jurisdiction of the 11 counties of Nanzhao County, Tongbai County, Neixiang County and Zhenping County, etc. Arable land is the major direction for urban development in the future, especially for site of industrial development.

At present, arable land employs the contracting mode of limited length of years and investment in arable land has certain policy depreciation. Meanwhile, considering risks of cultivating due to natural disasters, the rate of capitalization is supposed to be higher than the one year deposit rate, and, at the same time, lower than the

average social investment rate. There are various algorithms for capitalization rate. We deducted the price indexes in 2010 at the same period of time by considering growth of agricultural products price indexes from 2005 to 2009. And then by adding the average one year bank time deposit rate and 1% of risk adjustment (lower in the risk of investment in land) rate in 2010 to get the land revenue capitalization rate. And then we made a weighted mean of respectively 60% and 40% with the capitalization rate that was converted from the actual net income. Accordingly, the capitalization rate was confirmed as 4.18%. After measurement, we get the land price of each measurement unit as in the following Table 1.

<Insert Table 1 here>

The output value of the total revenue of arable land is mainly confirmed through market survey. The total expense on arable land includes expense on basic supporting facility of arable land and annual frequent expense on agricultural production. The expense of basic supporting facility of agricultural land mainly includes supporting expenses on ditch, channel, field, forest and path, etc. Annual frequent expense of production mainly includes expenses on seed, fertilizer, water, labor force, machinist, pesticide, maintenance of farmland irrigation establishment and relevant interests, etc. The output value of measurement unit is the average output value in 2010 (the same to the following table) and a comparison is made to indicate the root-mean-square error for arable land expropriation in 2010.

3.2 Market Comparison Approach

Each town is regarded as a target of evaluation and, according to the actual land expropriation compensation standard that has occurred in the town, we get the result through comparison and correct. The essential formula is as follows:

$$P = R \times \frac{100}{Q} \times \frac{100}{G} \times T$$

Where, P stands for the land expropriation compensation standard in the town; R stands for the standard for the case of land expropriation; Q stands for correction factor of regional factors; G stands for correction factor of individual factors; T stands for correction index of time. As for the land expropriation cases in the same town, the regional factors are almost the same and there is no need to correct these factors; and there is also no need to correct the individual factors since the same policy is applied in the specific land expropriation process. Establishment of land expropriation standard in all towns in Xiangfan City is to correct the time. Here, we employ the changing rate of land price index for analysis and calculation and we correct the transaction price as the price of the day when the evaluation is made. The formula is as follows:

We correct the price as: the actual transaction price of the day of evaluation = actual transaction price \times (the price index of the day of evaluation / the price index of the day of transaction). The calculation result is shown as in Table 2.

<Insert Table 2 here>

3.3 Hypothetical Development Method

According to the principle of hypothetical development method, land expropriation compensation can be expressed as: land expropriation compensation standard = land price - land development cost - interests - profits - tax - appreciation of transfer of land ownership - appreciation of land use change

In the above formula, land price represents the land price of a normal market or the transferring price of the government. Measurement in this paper mainly adopts the approximate representation of benchmark land price for urban and township industrial land. Land development cost is the cost used to develop uncultivated land into cultivated land. The government cuts down on the costs in order to attract investment and usually ascertains profits, the appreciation of transfer of land ownership and appreciation of change of land use as zero. Thus, the above formula can come down to: land expropriation compensation standard = land price - land development cost - interests - tax fee.

According to data about benchmark land price in Nanyang, the measurement result is shown in Table 3.

<Insert Table 3 here>

3.4 Net Present Value

According to the existing land expropriation policy, the new land expropriation compensation standard should not be lower than the current land expropriation compensation standard and should not reduce the living standard of land deprived farmers as a result of land expropriation, but should, instead, satisfy the minimum living

demand of farmers.

According to the standard of keeping the living level of farmers unchanged, we measure the new land expropriation compensation standard in Nanyang, which is, in essence, to measure the net present value of income in the future based on the current annual net income of farmers and the growth trend.

According to relevant social security policy of the nation, the regulations in the agricultural land contract system with remuneration linked to output and the actual situation of Nanyang, we define the time scope of profits of arable land in the future as 20 years. Then, the discounting of the income of farmers that comes from land expropriated in Nanyang can be calculated by the following formula:

$$P = \frac{a \times b}{g \times (r - s)} \times \left[1 - \left(\frac{1 + s}{1 + r} \right)^n \right]$$

Where, P stands for the net present value of income of land deprived farmers that is obtained from an unit area in the future; a stands for the annual net income of farmers at present; b stands for the ratio of net income of arable land to the annual net income of farmers; s stands for the growth speed of annual net income of farmers in the future; r stands for the discount rate of capital; g stands for per capita arable land area.

Calculated according to the net present value of the income of land deprived farmers in Nanyang in the forthcoming 20 years, if the growth rate of annual net income of farmers in the future is calculated by the annual average speed of 11.5% and the discount rate of capital is calculated by the one year loan rate of 6.56%, then the result is shown as in Table 4.

<Insert Table 4 here>

4. Determination of land expropriation compensation standard

4.1 The principles to determine land expropriation compensation standard

4.1.1 The principle of protecting legal interests of land deprived farmers, which is to confirm that the previous living standard of land deprived farmers will not become worse as a result of land expropriation and to reflect demand on long-term livelihood and development in the future.

4.1.2 The principle of the same land price for the same land, which means that the land expropriation standard for different parcels of land in the same land section should be identical and should not differ just because of the purpose of land expropriation and differences of land use.

4.1.3 The principle of coordination and balance, which means that the new standard for land expropriation compensation in the same region should be connected with the former compensation standard and land expropriation standard in adjacent areas should be balanced.

4.1.4 The principle of public hearing. According to requirement of "Land and Resources Hearing Provision", the local government should organize a hearing in pursuant to the law and listen to opinions and suggestions from relevant department, rural collective economic organization, farmers and all other fields in the society.

4.1.5 The principle of suitable increase. At the time when the local government calculates the land expropriation compensation according to the current output value of agricultural crops, it is necessary for the local government to improve the production means in an appropriate way and increase scientific investment to enhance land profits.

4.2 Comparison and overview of land expropriation compensation standards

4.2.1 Comparison of land expropriation compensation standards

We made a comprehensive comparison between actual land expropriation compensation cases in all measurement units in Nanyang and several calculation methods for compensation.

<Insert Table 5 here>

We respectively worked out the line graph of calculation results for the four measurement units in Nanyang, as in Figure 1, Figure 2, Figure 3 and Figure 4.

<Insert Figure 1, Figure 2, Figure 3 and Figure 4 here>

4.2.2 Overview of calculation methods

From the above line graphs, it is found that each measurement unit applies different measurement methods and get different results that differ from each other. The results show that the land expropriation compensation

standard in 2010 is 2.51 times more than that in 2007 that was based on the arable land value of the whole country. Arable land expropriation compensation has been greatly increased in Nanyang in 2010 thanks to addition of social security fee, but this is still lower than the arable land price that is calculated with other measurement methods. Besides, what is got in merely the land price based on the annual output value of different land sections in Nanyang in 2010, but has not included young crops compensation and social security fee. In order to protect interests of farmers, we should measure with several methods according to different features of different regions and then extract the maximum value to give compensation to farmers.

The measurement methods that have been employed in this paper are several calculation methods that are frequently used. Since the authors only refer to the annual output value in 2010, they have not applied calculation of output value multiples in "Land Administration Law". Otherwise, they should have obtained a price that is far larger than the actual compensation. In the process of land expropriation, rational determination of land expropriation compensation standard is of great significance to both land deprived farmers and rural collective economic organizations. The original land expropriation compensation is in the light of the annual output value of major agricultural products in the first three years after land expropriation. Actually, calculation of land expropriation compensation standard should have taken into consideration of such comprehensive factors as the location condition of land, economic development condition and local farmers' living level, especially the price of commodities, including rate of inflation. Furthermore, with soaring of material price and housing price, the reference value of the price of grain and oil and vegetable, etc., that were produced by arable land in 2007 and 2008 was too low. Compensation of the average output value in the first three years after land expropriation was unable to secure the living quality of farmers afterwards, let alone compensating the arable land expropriation at the year said with the average output value in the first three years. Authors in this paper suggests that it is the right way to obtain the benchmark standard of arable land compensation and settlement fee by considering the annual output value of the year said, the output value of the previous year and the annual output value of the land one year after measuring the average annual growth rate of arable land output value each year and by calculating the average output value of the three years.

5. Conclusion

So far, land expropriation compensation has not contained fees outside agricultural land or fees of agricultural land to secure the national food safety and ecological safety and how these fees should be calculated deserves further discussion. As a result of differences in the geographical locations of all regions, the natural resource conditions and social and economic development levels, the country should take actions to suit local circumstances and take an overall consideration to gradually set up a system to calculate and verify the scientific and rational land expropriation compensation standard. In the process of land expropriation, the policy issues of single compensation pattern and lack of security mechanism in the long run are still to be resolved.

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Table 1. Land price of arable land in all measurement units in Nanyang

Number of measurement unit	Output value (ten thousand Yuan/hm ²)	Planting cost (ten thousand Yuan/hm ²)	Net profit (ten thousand Yuan/hm ²)	Capitalization rate (%)	Land price (ten thousand Yuan/hm ²)
I	11.37	5.42	5.95	4.18	142.34
II	7.80	4.73	3.07	4.18	73.45
III	6.56	2.97	3.59	4.18	85.89
IV	4.50	2.10	2.40	4.18	57.42

Table 2. The corrected result of land expropriation compensation standard for each measurement unit in Nanyang

Land expropriated unit	Land expropriated area (hm ²)	Arable land area (hm ²)	Other agricultural land (hm ²)	Total land expropriation compensation (ten thousand Yuan)	Total land expropriation compensation (ten thousand Yuan/hm ²)	Land compensation (ten thousand Yuan/hm ²)	Labor force resettlement fee (ten thousand Yuan/hm ²)	Land expropriation time (Year)	Time correction factor	Land expropriation compensation standard got with market comparison method (ten thousand Yuan /hm ²)
I	103.5	88.50	15.0	11394	109.75	24.30	95.70	2007	1.06	127.20
II	64.07	54.81	9.26	6105.5	92.93	22.95	74.55	2007	1.06	103.35
III	46.69	38.79	7.90	1685.7	35.97	20.93	46.57	2007	1.03	69.53
IV	27.56	24.73	2.83	1384.3	50.04	19.58	32.92	2007	1.03	54.08

Table 3. Calculation of measuring land expropriation compensation standard with the hypothetical development method in Nanyang

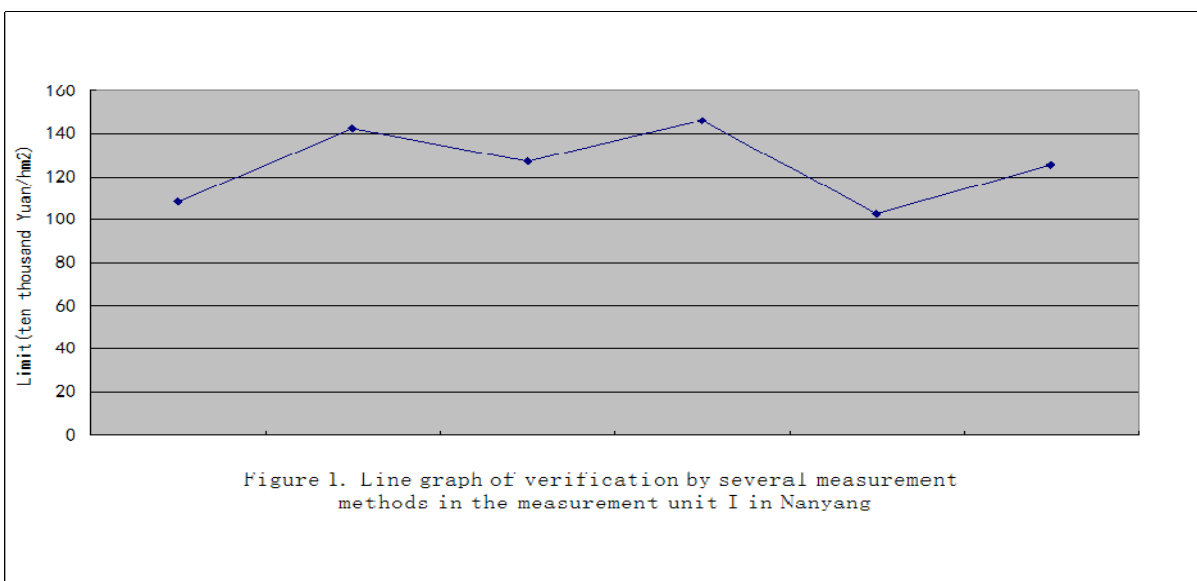
Number of measurement unit	Land price (ten thousand Yuan/hm ²)	Land development cost (ten thousand Yuan/hm ²)	Interest and tax fee (ten thousand Yuan/hm ²)	Land expropriation compensation standard (ten thousand Yuan/hm ²)
I	360	120.20	93.60	146.20
II	292.50	94.83	85.98	111.69
III	201.50	61.51	65.25	74.74
IV	132.70	39.34	34.46	58.9

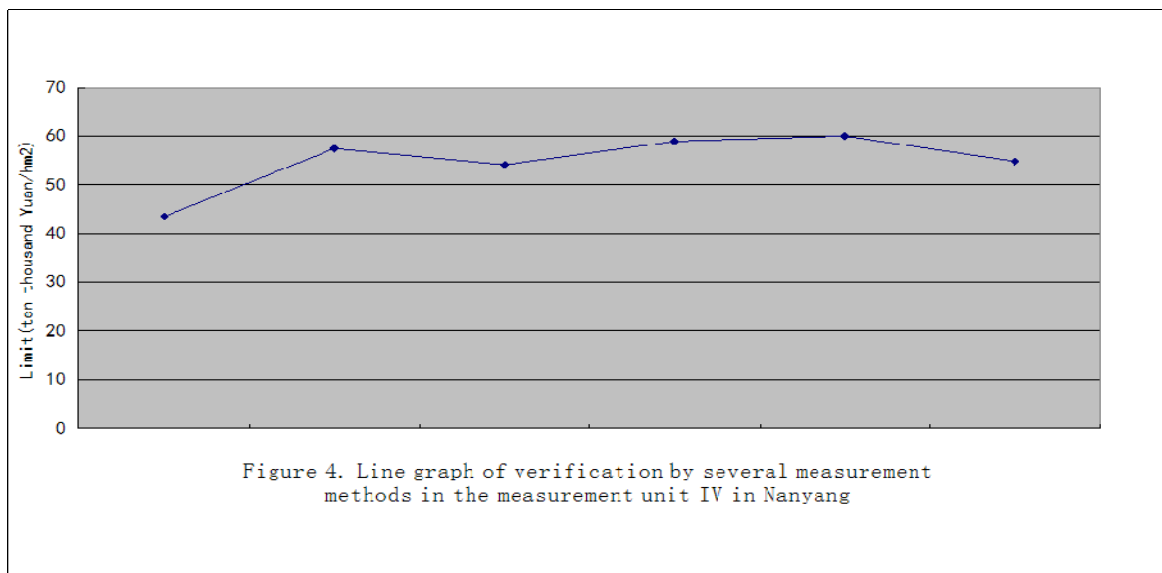
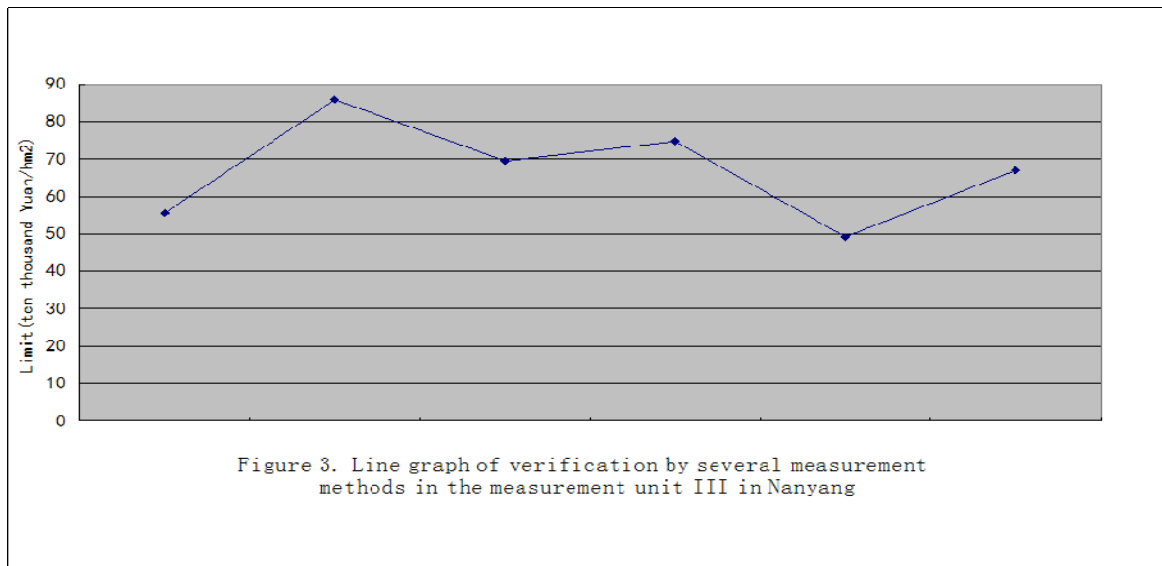
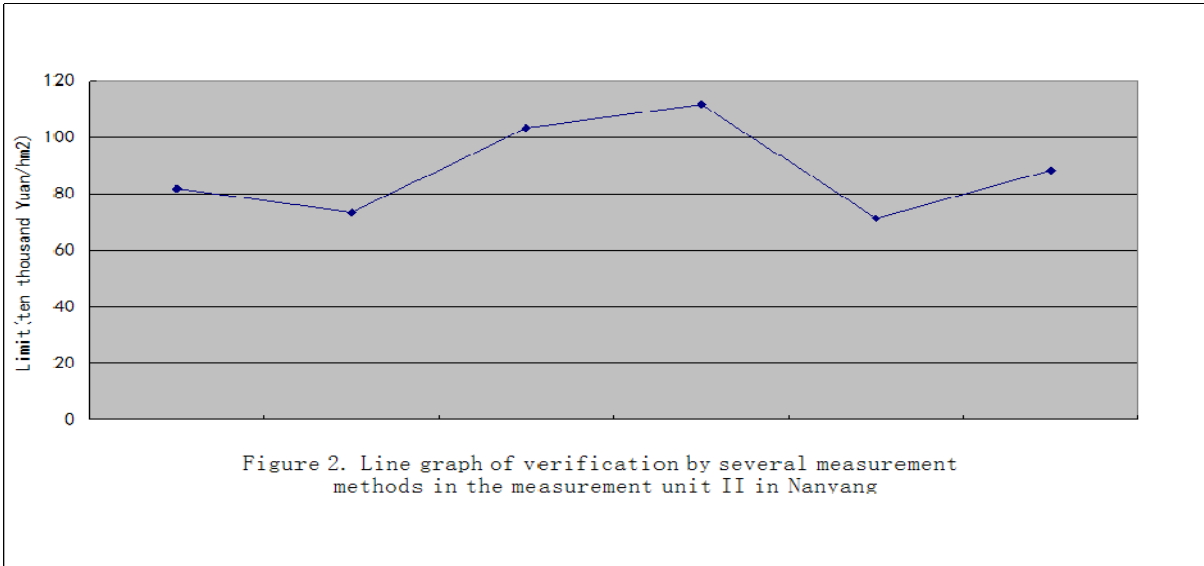
Table 4. Share of per capita unit arable land area of the income of land deprived farmers in Nanyang in the forthcoming 20 years

Number of measurement unit	Per capita net income of farmers (ten thousand Yuan)	Ratio of net arable land income to the annual net income of farmers (%)	Per capita arable land area (hm ² /person)	Share of unit arable land area (ten thousand Yuan/hm ²)
I	0.69	39	0.078	103.03
II	0.57	52	0.124	71.38
III	0.41	39	0.097	49.23
IV	0.39	34	0.066	59.99

Table 5. Land expropriation compensation criterion initial determination of land expropriation compensation standard

Number of measurement unit	Initial result standard (ten thousand Yuan/hm ²)	Revenue capitalization (ten thousand Yuan/hm ²)	Market comparison approach (ten thousand Yuan/hm ²)	Hypothetical development method (ten thousand Yuan/hm ²)	Net present value (ten thousand Yuan/hm ²)	Average value of the five calculation methods (ten thousand Yuan/hm ²)
I	108.50	142.34	127.20	146.20	103.03	125.45
II	81.80	73.45	103.35	111.69	71.38	88.33
III	55.60	85.89	69.53	74.74	49.23	66.99
IV	43.50	57.42	54.08	58.90	59.99	54.78





The Preposition (*fii*) in the Horizontal and Vertical Axes as Used in the Taizzi Dialect: A Cognitive Approach

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Abstract

In this paper the framework of Cognitive Grammar (CG) developed by Langacker is adopted to attain a cognitive semantic analysis of the use of the Arabic prepositions (*fii*) in the horizontal and vertical axes, as used in the Taizzi dialect. Although, encoding the sense of CONTAINMENT, the preposition (*fii*) is assumed not to play any role in the horizontal and vertical axes; the use of the preposition (*fii*) in the TD proves things differently. The problem with (*fii*) is that it is very tempting to be used in the locative sense in which one physical entity is CONTAINED WITHIN another physical entity. However, the cognitive analysis of (*fii*) justifies the use of this preposition in many instances of the Taizzi dialect where this preposition is seemingly exploited to encode non-containment-related spatial relations. This unfolds some of the unsolved issues concerning prepositions in general and the Arabic prepositions in particular taking the use of (*fii*) in the Taizzi dialect as a sample. The data presented in this paper show that speakers of the Taizzi dialect extend the use of (*fii*) to depict spatial relations other than the ones where the Trajector (TR) is actually contained within the boundaries of the Landmark (LM). The instances analyzed in this paper show that (*fii*) encodes spatial relations in which the TR and the LM are horizontally or vertically related to each other. However, the use of the preposition (*fii*) by speakers of the Taizzi dialect to encode these spatial relations proves they cognitively characterized the LMs as containers that contain the TRs.

Keywords: Horizontal and vertical axes, Cognitive grammar, Prepositional semantics, Arabic prepositions, Taizzi dialect

1. Introduction

The conundrums of (*fii*) lie in being very tempting to be used in the locative sense. Other difficulties with (*fii*) are with regard to its multiplicity of meanings. As a polysemous preposition (*fii*) can exhibit a set of related senses. This polysemous preposition can signify containment in geographical regions, containment in public or private places, containment in a place of work or institution, containment in time, existence, exclusiveness, other domains and abstract metaphorical senses that (*fii*) can signify, and vertical and horizontal containment which will be particularly elaborated upon in this paper.

We will be adopting the framework of Cognitive Grammar (CG) in this paper in order to attain a comprehensive analysis of the use of (*fii*) in the horizontal and vertical axes based on attested instances from the Taizzi dialect (hence forth the TD). It is worth noting that the TD is one of the dialects spoken by the people of Taiz, a city in Yemen, and is considered one of the variants of Arabic language. In terms of number of speakers and being a dialect of around three million people, the TD obtains its position as one of the most important dialect in the Republic of Yemen. Though the TD has many similarities to other dialects in the Arab Peninsula, it differs from them in the phonological, morphological, syntactic and semantic levels. There are also vocabulary-related features that differentiate the TD from other variants of Yemeni Arabic or other Arabic dialects in general.

Cognitive linguistics (CL) has proved to be one of the most dynamic approaches by which language is analyzed. Dirven and Ibanez (2010) maintain that ‘The dynamicity of Cognitive Linguistics (CL) is largely due to the fact that it is not a single person’s enterprise. Rather it arises from the combination of various pioneering ideas that, acting as separable strands of one whole, have drawn together to give rise to a unified paradigm’. What is peculiar about CL is that it is not a simple descriptive method of analysis; rather it is a multi-based scheme of analysis that deals with both cognition and language. (Dirven and Ibañez 2010)

In relation to the category of prepositions, it is a fact that it constitutes a form of speech in almost every language or even a dialect, spoken or written except for few languages like Korean that ‘has no such words at all’, (Lindstromberg 2010). Taking that into account, the reader can understand why prepositions of Arabic with the number of at least seventeen prepositions (Al-Afghaani 1971), constitute a crucial category of the language. Nevertheless, for the most part of the literature written on prepositions of the Arabic language or even its different dialects the analyses and investigation on prepositions were based on a descriptive ground.

The significance of prepositions results from the fact that it is mostly through prepositions the spatial scenes are depicted and the fact that different languages vary in the ways they utilize prepositions to encode spatial relations. According to Fuse (2006) ‘Languages contrast in the various ways they lexicalize spatial relations depending on the details of the relation (e.g., degree of fit, the shape or orientation of the objects, the frame(s) of reference commonly used in the language; i.e., absolute, deictic, intrinsic), and the grammatical forms of the spatial terms themselves (e.g., prepositions, verbs)’. Moreover, prepositions cover a wide range of relations where they can profile different kinds of relations, “simplex or complex”, (Langacker 2008). This makes the category of prepositions uniquely different from other linguistic categories that can profile either simple or complex relations.

Although the views of some linguists considered prepositions as being “meaningless words” (Tesnière 1953), and the opinions of some Arab grammarians who judged prepositions as being less important and less meaningful than the arguments they relate; prepositions show an extremely significant role in expressing a wide range of relations, and capability of describing a wide set of metaphors and abstract expressions that can be subject to linguistic analysis. (Fuse 2006)

2. Literature Review

Despite the reasonable number of books and the recent research that aimed at thoroughly analyzing the prepositions of Arabic language, these works looked at prepositions as a grammatical class subjecting all its entries into analysis rather than examining them individually. Further, these analyses did not focus on the semantics of prepositions of Arabic nor attempted to provide the readers with thorough illustration and full exploration of the semantic content of these lexical items taken individually.

Within the area of prepositions of Arabic, most research dealt with the genitive case that Arabic prepositions assign to their arguments and focused more on the function these particles play in a sentence. Examining the semantics of one particular preposition by subjecting it into a detailed and comprehensive analysis instead of examining the whole grammatical class (as one finds in almost all the works dealing with prepositions of Arabic language) received far less attention, however.

Arab grammarians judged prepositions as being semantically less significant than other grammatical classes of Arabic language. Expressing a relation between two arguments x and y , prepositions are thought of as being significant due only to the grammatical function they play. Traditionally speaking, Arab grammarians divided lexical items of Arabic language into three main classes: nouns, verbs and particles; and different definitions were assigned to these classes. This is what Arab grammarians and the two main schools of Arab grammarians namely: Basriyyuun and Kufiyyuun agreed upon. (c.f Najjar 1986). Naming Arabic prepositions, these two schools differed radically. Kufiyyuun called them ‘huruuf al-idhafah’ (particles of addition). On other hand, Bsariyyuun called them ‘huruuf aljarr’ (particles of attraction).

The class of ‘huruuf’ (particles) received considerable controversy among Arab grammarians. As a result, the different definitions of prepositions (which are subsumed under the category of particles) proposed by Arab grammarians show to a great extent the importance of ‘prepositions’ as lexical items of Arabic language. The different views of Arab grammarians of how to classify and sub-classify prepositions of Arabic language make it clear that Arabic prepositions do deserve special attention and profound analyses. We argue that all these traditional definitions do not semantically provide sufficient distinction between prepositions and other parts of speech, however. What is interesting here is that Arab grammarians separated prepositions from the general grammatical class of particles. Nevertheless, they did not subject them to thorough analysis. This in fact shows that this particular proportion in Arabic language is research worthy and, linguistically, demand further explication.

One observation we can infer while reading some old grammar books of Arabic language is that these books mention the prepositions and their different senses, and then support that with explanation. Nevertheless, explanation in this case is nothing more than ‘exemplification’; (e.g. Al-Muzani 1983). This, in fact, can be true even about recently written grammar books. (e.g. Al-Afghaani 1971). This can be due, in our opinion, to either of two following reasons:

- (a) These books were intended to be very concise books.
- (b) Authors considered other parts of speech as more important than prepositions and thus paid little attention to them.

Arab grammarians tried to assign different senses to a number of prepositions and described prepositions of Arabic as being ‘mutually substitutable’. Based on that, different prepositions of Arabic can replace one another. Basriyyuun, however, accepted with caution such a way of assigning different senses to a preposition. They insisted on that the above-mentioned examples are to be accepted but with some kind of ‘construal’. They claimed that even if prepositions can substitute one another in such utterances which render them grammatical it is because we ‘construe’ the meaning of these sentences as to have the substituted preposition in their ‘tacit’ explanation.

By separating prepositions from the class of particles, Arab grammarians seemed to be aware of the importance of these lexical items, but they did not subject them to adequate analysis. What is more interesting is that Arab grammarians (e.g. Al-Sarraaj1996) called particles ‘tools of change’. Particles are believed to change the grammatical cases of nouns and verbs they precede and remain unchanged at the same time. With a particle preceding a noun or a verb they can have different grammatical cases.

One remark we would like to make here before proceeding any further is that talking about prepositions we are concerned with a close set of particles that grammatically affects nouns marking them with Genitive case. This, in fact, distinguishes prepositions from other particles that can precede verbs only, particles that can precede nouns and verbs alike, or those particles that can precede nouns affecting them with grammatical cases other than the Genitive case.

On the other hand, one can find some other books of Arabic preposition that tried to examine the use of Arabic prepositions as used in the Holy Quraan. One of these books is (Khuḍarī 1989) in which the writer highlights the extensive use of prepositions in the Holy Quraan and examines the secrets of their use. In the same vein, Salman (2005) examined the use of the Arabic preposition in the Holy Quraan. She focused on how different prepositions can substitute one another in the Holy Quraan, and how they can be implicitly referred to in certain contexts. (Salman 2005)

Other works have been devoted to the study of common mistakes in the use of the Arabic preposition and how these particles can replace one another in some contexts. One of these books is (Ammār 1998). Once again, the writer here describes the use of the Arabic preposition in line with the views of the views of old Arab grammarians in the two mains schools of Basriyyuun and Kufiyyuun, and all the instances elaborated upon are selected from the Holy Quraan, and Standard Arabic.

Some works that dealt with prepositions in Arabic language were of comparative perspective. Darraaj (1991) compared the prepositions of Arabic with the prepositions of Hebrew and Syriac languages. Najjar (1986) studied the meanings of Arabic prepositions in their linguistic use in MSA based on the description of prepositions in the books of old Arab grammarians. She conducted, as well, a comparative study between the use of prepositions in Arabic, Hebrew, and other Semitic languages. (Darraaj 1991)

With regard to the dialects of Arabic language, it is more recently that Arab linguists realized their importance and started to subject them to linguistic analysis. Yemeni Arabic is one of the dialects of standard Arabic that has been recently subjected to linguistic analysis. Nevertheless, in most of these linguistic studies the topic of prepositions has been briefly explained if not totally neglected. On the other hand, nothing to our knowledge has been written

on the prepositions of the TD adopting the Cognitive Linguistics approach. In fact, we have not come across any studies of this nature especially with regard to the prepositions used in the TD.

There have been a number of studies that dealt with Yemeni Arabic, but none of these works dealt with prepositions from a cognitive point of view. Some of these works dealt with the phonology, morphology and grammar of Yemeni Arabic such as Hamdi Qafisheh's Yemeni Arabic I & II (1984). Qafisheh primarily deals with San'aani dialect trying to; phonologically, morphologically, and grammatically; analyze 40 units of conversations that he has collected in different conversation situations.

Mohammed, Turki (2008) provides a morpho-semantic analysis of the nouns and verbs used in the TD. In his research he offers a descriptive analysis of the different word patterns of the nouns and verbs used in the TD and examined how the change of pattern affects the semantics of a word. His analysis, however, is based on a descriptive ground, and is limited to only two grammatical classes of Arabic language.

Other studies, like Al-Zumor's (2009), have touched upon Yemeni Arabic from a sociolinguistic point of view. Zumor's study, for example, studies the specific linguistic act of "Naming". The study is basically concerned with investigating personal names, particularly female names, as "they look very striking" to a person who does not know much about the culture of the regions under study. Using questionnaire as a tool for data collection, Zumor's collected almost 300 personal female names. These names are, then, classified into different categories on the basis of their sources.

Al-Shar'abi Tawfeek (2010) dealt with Yemeni Arabic from another perspective. He examined the interaction between prosody and morphology in Yemeni Arabic, and how they could affect each other. He argued that this kind of mutual interaction in the case of Yemeni Arabic may or may not be the same in other dialects of Arabic dialects.

3. Theoretical Framework

We will adopt the framework of (CG) in this paper in order to introduce to the readers different linguistic tools as to examine one entry of a linguistic category of Arabic language (prepositions) in accordance with speakers' everyday perception and interaction with the outside world. Heine (1997) looks at language as a 'product' of our experience of the outside world; language is 'the product of our interaction with world around us'. Speakers' understanding of the world that they interact with is one way or the other represented in their everyday language.

The reader should keep in mind that speakers of a language try to choose a proper preposition, for instance, to locate different entities in spatial relations in accordance with their understanding and their experience in the world. Consequently, the possibility of using various prepositions to depict one spatial relation comes as a result of the different mental images that the speakers have of how to situate these entities around them.

Adopting some notions of Cognitive Grammar like trajector, landmark, image schema, cognitive domains, and others, we will analyze a number of instances where the preposition (*fii*) is used. That is, the paper will subject the preposition (*fii*) to full and thorough analysis in its use in the horizontal and vertical axes. The different uses of (*fii*) in this domain will be described, and the paper will try to find out how the speakers of the TD exploit (*fii*) to encode various horizontal and vertical spatial relations, and how different conceptualizations are involved.

Basically, the Arabic preposition (*fii*) belongs to the semantic field of 'containment'. Nevertheless, (*fii*) proves to be able to cover a wide range of spatial relations (relation in the horizontal and vertical axes is one of them) which together form a coherent semantic network where the concept of CONTAINMENT is the underlying image schema.

4. Method and Data Collection

The data under analysis in this paper are a set of collected instances which will be investigated in two stages. In the first stage, we will be elaborating upon the instances from a cognitive semantic perspective. That is, we will utilize notions of cognitive grammar to examine how the speakers of the TD do cognitively characterize the spatial relations in these instances. In the second stage, we will be presenting illustrative figures to visually represent the instances and make it easier for the reader to comprehend the seemingly containment-irrelevant instances, which are in fact commonly used by the speakers of the TD as well as speakers of some other parts of Yemen.

The problem with the TD is that it is a spoken variant of language. Though the TD is one of the variants of Arabic language, it is commonly used as a spoken form rather than a written one. In contrast to Standard Arabic that is used by the educated people for different formal registers- newspapers, books, media, governmental decrees and addresses, applications, formal letters...etc; the TD is rather spoken than written. Being a spoken dialect rather than a written one requires our attention to a number of points.

This, however, should not go against the fact that the TD can be used as a written form. The TD can, in a few cases,

be used as a written form. This includes written personal letters among friends, and recently in mobile messages and electronic mails. It becomes clear that the TD is employed in the everyday life of the people of Taiz, and that the speakers of the TD switch to Standard Arabic only when the necessity calls for that. As for running their daily affairs, the speakers of TD will only employ their own dialect, namely, the TD.

To ensure the triangulation of sources of data, data collection was performed in different registers, and in different conversational situations. We collected data by taking notes and recoding tapes when necessary through personal interviews with a few persons of native speakers of the TD, and through friendly gatherings in the city of Taiz. In some cases, specialists in Arabic language were consulted in order to confirm data taken from the native speakers, ensure the validity of the data, and provide the researcher with new instances. We conducted data collection in the city of Taiz, and focused more on data in which the preposition (*fii*) is utilized to cover a wide variety of senses.

5. Data Analysis and Discussion

5.1 The Conceptual Base of (*fii*)

(*fii*) describes a relation where two participants are involved; the TR being a physical or abstract entity that receives the idea of containment, and the LM being a physical, or abstract, entity that is conceived as a three dimensional area where the TR is contained.

As is shown in figure 1, at the very basic level the first participant of this spatial relation (TR) is thought of as a three dimensional movable physical entity. The second participant in this spatial relation (LM) is thought of as a three dimensional physical entity. One of its important properties is its capability to serve as a container. That is, it should have an interior that could be identified against its exterior.

The spatial relation of containment can be characterized in terms of other sub-components. At the basic level, the spatial relation of containment differs from other spatial relations in that it is not thought of in association with vertical and horizontal axes. That is, the two participants in the containment relation are neither thought of in terms of which one is front/behind the other nor which one is above/below the other one.

In terms of force dynamics, the containment relation can be thought of as a result of an external force that moves the TR and situates it in the interior of the LM. Consequently, the TR's path is characterized as getting away from the source of this external force. Figure 1 presents the conceptual base of the preposition (*fii*).

Conceptualizing the relation of containment the speaker will mentally triggers two participants the first serves as a container and the second receiving this containment. These two participants build up the semantic structure of the relation of containment. The other elements mentioned in the figure above can be described as subcomponents that help in fully conceptualizing this relation.

If a speaker of the TD chooses to use the preposition (*fii*) rather than other prepositions of Arabic, it is because he/she characterizes the TR as being contained in the LM as is shown in figure 2. Saying that "الكرة في الصندوق" /alkurah fii aS-Sunduq/ meaning 'the ball is in the box' characterizes a mental image where the TR is enclosed by the LM. That is to say, the LM is conceived as an enclosing area. The idea of containment is highly stressed in such instances.

5.2 (*fii*) – Horizontal and Vertical Axes

Though the sense of containment suggests that the TR is enclosed by the LM and that horizontality and verticality don't seem to play any role in better understanding the sense of containment, the use of the preposition (*fii*) in the TD proves things differently.

Horizontality and verticality do play a significant role in understanding the use of the preposition (*fii*) in the TD. The use of the preposition (*fii*) in the instances below implies that the TR is contained by the LM, albeit the LM is situated horizontally above or under the TR, or vertically the TR is situated at the beginning, end, or even the middle of the LM. The TR can even be situated opposite to the LM and the LM contains only the reflection of the TR. Consider the following instances:

(1) واقف في الظل

waaqef fii aD-Dell
standing (he) in the shadow

He is standing in the shadow.

(2) واقف في الشمس

waaqef fii aŠ-Šams

standing (he) in the sun

He is standing under the sun.

(3) واقف في الطابور

waaqef fii aT-Taabuur

standing (he) in the queue

He is standing in the queue.

(4) شفت نفسي في المراية

Šuftu nafsii fii al- miraayah

saw (I) myself in the mirror

I saw myself in the mirror.

In instance (1) the LM is technically situated under the TR. If one is standing on something they have to be situated above it, and this entity plays the role of a supporter. Since the sense of support is not strongly implied, the use of the preposition /ʕalaa/ meaning ‘on’ does not seem to be a competitive candidate to encode this relation. The relation between the TR ‘he’ and the LM ‘shadow’ is mentally perceived as such ‘shadow’ is an enclosure of ‘he’ and thus prevents the sunlight to reach ‘he’. The sense of containment in this instance overmasters the sense of support and that justifies the use of the preposition (*fii*). As is shown in figure 3 the speakers of the TD do not conceptualize ‘shadow’ as a supporter, and rather perceive it as container that encloses the TR.

The reader finds a much similar situation in (2) where the TR ‘he’ is vertically situated down the LM ‘sun’. In such a case, the use of the adverbials /fawq/ meaning ‘up’ or /taHt/ meaning ‘down’ seems to be very tempting to be used to encode the spatial relation between the TR and the LM.

‘Sun’ is perceived as an entity that has extensions that contain the TR. If one is standing under the sun, they have to be exposed to sunlight, surrounded and contained by it. From a mental perspective, the ‘sun’ here is conceptualized as an entity that plays the role of container. The sense of containment is regarded as the focal relation between the TR and the LM and that justifies the use of the preposition (*fii*). What reinforces our argument here is that some speakers of the TD might choose the adverbial /bein/ meaning ‘in between’ or /waST/ meaning ‘in the middle of’ to encode this relation.

The relation between the TR ‘he’ and the LM ‘sun’ is perceived as such ‘sun’ affects the TR with its extension and encloses it. Once again, the sense of containment in this instance seems to overmaster other senses and that justifies the use of the preposition (*fii*). The speakers of the TD in such an instance are conceptually more concerned with how the LM affects the TR rather than the actual locations of the TR with respect to the LM. Consider figure 4.

The instance (3) sounds more interesting. The use of the preposition (*fii*) clearly implies that the TR is contained in the inner part of the LM. The LM ‘queue’ is more likely to contain the TR ‘he’ in its interior. That will quite understandable in contexts where the TR is located in between the two ends of a queue. The question is that will the speakers of the TD use the preposition (*fii*) to encode that relation if the TR is located at the beginning or the end of the queue? The answer is ‘yes’.

Taking the horizontal axis into account the reader can simply understand that if one is the first in a queue, no one would be there to precede them, and if one were last in a queue, no one would be there to follow them. In other words, containment in both cases remains ‘partial’. The TR, in both cases, is thought of as being contained from one side and the other end remains open. Figure 5 shows the location of the TR in relation to the LM.

What is worth mentioning here is that in (3) the TR constitutes a dispensable portion of the LM. The TR ‘he’ is a part of the LM ‘queue’, albeit ‘he’ profiles the TR in this instance. The TR can even stand for the LM itself. The reader can imagine a situation where ‘he’ is standing alone waiting for his turn, and there comes another one trying to trespass him, he would ask them to stand in the ‘queue’. The ‘queue’ here is no one but ‘he’.

The situation in (4) is a little bit different. The LM ‘mirror’ contains only a reflection of the TR ‘myself’. Here what draws the attention of the speaker more is the reflection of the TR rather than the TR itself. The speaker characterizes the ‘mirror’ as a container and focuses more on what it contains, and the actual location of the TR comes in second priority. This, in fact, justifies the use of the preposition (*fii*), since the sense of containment is obviously perceived within the frames of the LM.

On the other hand, the instance above does not clearly how much of the TR is reflected and contained in the LM. It seems that the sense of containment itself carries more significance than any other details, and the speaker, as a result, chooses to exploit the preposition (*fii*) to encode this relation. Figure 6 describes the spatial relation that holds between the TR and the LM as stated in instance (4).

Compared to instance (4) above, there are situations where the preposition (*fii*) is used to encode a relation of a TR that is directed towards a LM. In such a situation, the TR is neither actually contained by the LM, nor situated upon or below it. Using the preposition (*fii*) in such instances implies that the speaker one way or the other conceptualizes the TR as being contained by the LM. Consider the following instance:

- (5) كل واحد عينه في ورقته
 kol waaHed ʕeenoh fii waraqtoh
 every one eye his in paper his
 Everyone keeps his eyes on his answer sheet!

In the instance above, the speaker conceptualizes the TR ‘eye’ as entity that has a focus point that, in turn, is situated in the LM. Though the TR in the instance above is never thought of as being factually contained in the LM, the speaker seems to be more concerned with the visual focus and the location where it is situated. The LM in this instance is perceived as to contain the extension of the TR, and consequently the TR has to be directed towards the LM. Figure 7 illustrates how the LM contains the extension of TR and the TR is inevitably directed towards the LM.

As the reader can simply conclude from the figure above, the TR is situated outside the interior of the LM, and only the focus point that is contained within its boundaries. The dashed lines, on the other hand, suggest that the TR is directed towards the focus point represented by the black circle. It is worth mentioning, however, that the focus point towards which the TR is directed could be the entire space of the entity that profiles the LM.

5.3 (*fii*) – TR and LM Facing One Another

Another situation where the preposition (*fii*) is used is when the TR is in front of the LM. Similarly, in such a spatial relation the TR is neither actually contained by the LM, nor situated upon or below it. However, using the preposition (*fii*) to encode this spatial relation holding between the TR and the LM suggests that the speaker on way or the other conceptualizes the TR as being contained by the LM. Consider the following instance:

- (6) عيني في عينك
 ʕeeni fii ʕeenak
 eye (my) in eye (your)
 Put my eye in your eye. (Look at my eyes).

In the instance above, the speaker conceptualizes the relation that holds between the TR and the LM as such they are situated in front of one another. Imagine a situation where one is talking to his friend and one wants him to look at him in the eyes; usually their eyes will be situated in such a manner that they are facing each other. Though the TR in such a case is not factually contained in the LM, the speaker seems to be more concerned with the visual focus and sight extension and the location where they are eventually situated.

It is interesting that though the LM in this instance is thought of as to contain the focus and the extension of the TR, the TR at the same time serves as a container of the LM. The visual focus and the sight extension of the LM is directed towards the TR and is seemingly contained by it. Figure 8 illustrates how the LM contains the visual focus and the sight extension of TR and how the TR is directed towards the LM, and vice versa.

It happens that the speaker might choose to omit the preposition (*fii*) in the instance above, and consequently the semantics of the utterance will entirely change. Although there will be no overt spatial particle to mediate between the TR and the LM, speakers of the TD do characterize the relation between these two entities as a spatial relation. Consider the instance (7) below:

- (7) عيني عينك!
 ʕeeni ʕeenak
 eye (my) eye (your)
 To say/do something without feeling shameful.

As is clear in the instance above, no spatial particle is employed to encode the assumed spatial relation holding

between the two physical entities that profile the TR and the LM. The speaker here does not only choose not to use the preposition (*fii*) to encode this spatial relation but not to use any other spatial particle. In the instance above the TR is neither thought of to be enclosed by the LM nor situated upon or below it. The instance, however, suggests something like that the person referred to did or said something in public without feeling shameful. It is rather with audacity.

Compared to instance (6) above, there are similar situations where the preposition (*fii*) is used to encode a spatial relation that holds between a TR that is located in front of a LM. Different from the situations described obviously the TR here is not factually contained by the LM, and its focus or extensions are not situated within its boundaries. Nevertheless, using the preposition (*fii*) in such cases implies that the speaker one way or the other conceptualizes the TR as being contained by the LM. Consider the following instance:

(8) الباب في الباب

albaab fii albaab

The door in the door

The door is in front of the door.

In the instance above, the use of the preposition (*fii*) is ascribed to the fact that the speaker conceptualizes the spatial relation that hold between the TR and the LM as a relation of containment. It is obvious, however, that the TR and the LM are located in front of one another where no physical entity is enclosed by the other. As is presented in figure 9 we can imagine a scene with two neighbors residing in two flats whose two doors are facing one another. It is acceptable that the speaker might not need to use the preposition (*fii*) to encode this spatial relation and could use any other spatial particle that describes this seemingly horizontal relation holding between the TR and the LM.

The question now is that why speakers of the TD will use the preposition (*fii*) rather than any other spatial particle that is equivalent to the English ‘in front of’ or ‘behind’ to encode this seemingly horizontal spatial relation. It has previously been argued that how a speaker will choose to code a spatial relation linguistically depends on how they mentally characterize it. Choosing ‘in front of’ and ‘behind’ depends on the vantage point a speaker assumes, (Langacker 2008).

How one would linguistically code the relation that holds between a rock and a tree, for instance, depends on the vantage point assumed. Now suppose that the rock, tree, and vantage point are roughly in alignment. When the vantage point is such that the rock intervenes in the line of sight (VP1), the speaker will use either sentence in (9) (b). If the vantage point is such that the tree intervenes (VP2), the sentences in (9) (c) are appropriate instead. Consider figure 10 and see how the vantage point affects the choice of a spatial particle to encode a spatial relation. (Langacker 2008)

(9) (a) VP1 \longrightarrow (rock)——(tree) \longleftarrow VP2

(b) VP1: The rock (TR) is in front of the tree (LM). The tree (TR) is behind the rock (LM).

(c) VP2: The tree (TR) is in front of the rock (LM). The rock (TR) is behind the tree (LM).

This, in fact, does not apply to the spatial relation holding between the doors in (8) where the preposition (*fii*) is used to encode. The vantage point here does not seem to play a significant role in deciding the kind of relation holding between the two entities or in conveying the semantic message the speaker wants to express. As figure 11 shows whether the vantage point is VP1 or VP2 the relation will still remain the same and speakers of the TD will use the same linguistic expression: ‘الباب في الباب’ – ‘the door in the door’.

(10) (a) VP1 \longrightarrow (door 1)——(door 2) \longleftarrow VP2

(b) VP1: the door 1 (TR) in the door 2 (LM).

(c) VP2: the door 2 (TR) *in* the door1 (LM).

The speaker here is not much concerned with which door is in front or behind the other. Rather, the speaker probably wants to communicate much more than just that the doors are seen as having fronts facing one another similar to what Clark (1973) calls the ‘canonical encounter’, a situation where two individuals meet face-to face.

Thus, the use of the preposition (*fii*) to encode this spatial relation could be ascribed to the fact that the speaker here necessarily needs another tool rather than the one supposed to be used to suggest a more comprehensive sense than just the mutual canonical encounter taking place between the TR and the LM.

We argue that the speaker wants to convey that the two doors are very close to each other and they are enclosed

and contained within the same space. The use of the preposition (*fii*) in the ‘contained within’ proto-scene, which basically neither involves a horizontal axis nor a vertical one, is associated with a LM that is mentally characterized as a three dimensional container within its boundaries the TR is included. That is, the speaker does not show much concern with asymmetric feature of the TR and the LM being entities that have front/back axis. Their conceptualization is more directed against the bounded space that encloses them and the closeness of these two entities.

As a matter of fact, the use of the preposition (*fii*) does not only indicate the closeness of the two doors but further implies a wider range of containment. Since this expression /albaab fii albaab/ is uttered to indicate close neighborhood, an assumed consequence is that people of this neighborhood are contained within an extended space. Neighbors who are residing within this closed space are supposed to be privileged with a special kind of treatment and are supposed to show the same kind of behavior. figure 12 shows how the limits of containment are extended to cover and enclose a wider space and more entities.

To conclude the discussion we can say that the use of the preposition (*fii*) in the horizontal and vertical axes as presented above strongly supports the hypothesis that the choice of this preposition in particular is based on cognitive and cultural considerations.

The data shows that prepositions of Arabic are not arbitrary lexemes that have no meanings. Each preposition of Arabic has a meaning. The instances presented above show how cognition and the way a speaker characterizes a spatial relation influence the selection of prepositions to encode a spatial relation holding between two entities. The presentation of data in this paper shows that some uses of the preposition (*fii*) are exclusively found in the TD and probably some other dialects of Yemen.

The use of the preposition (*fii*) to encode a spatial relation where the TR is contained within the LM in the TD may be generalized to cover many dialects of Arabic language. The extension of (*fii*) in the TD to cover the horizontal and vertical axes as the data above showed need not be necessarily be generalized to other dialects of Arabic, however.

Speakers of the TD while using a preposition to encode a spatial relation are influenced by two factors. The first is the nature of spatial relation holding between the TR and the LM. The second is how the speaker characterizes this relation. The cognitive semantic analysis of the use of the Arabic preposition (*fii*) in the TD shows that using (*fii*) to encode a spatial relation where the TR and the LM are horizontally or vertically related to one another are all motivated by the image schema of containment. It is this sense of containment that serves as the core meaning to which the use (*fii*) in the horizontal and vertical axes can be related.

The data presented above show that speakers of the TD extend the use of (*fii*) to depict spatial relations other than the ones where the TR is actually contained within the boundaries of the LM. In such cases (*fii*) encodes spatial relations in which the TR and the LM are horizontally or vertically related to each other. However, the use of the preposition (*fii*) to encode these spatial relations proves that speakers of the TD cognitively characterized the LMs as containers that contain the TRs.

6. Conclusion

This paper elaborated upon the use of the Arabic preposition (*fii*) in the horizontal and vertical axes as used in the TD, a dialect spoken in Yemen. It has been shown that the schematic meaning of “containment” is the underlying sense under which the use of (*fii*) in these axes can be related. The paper, as well, shows that the speakers of the TD developed the semantic content of the preposition (*fii*) in such a way that they employ it to cover more domains more than it is actually used in the SA or MSA. As a spatial particle, in its schematic sense the preposition (*fii*) evokes the idea of “containment” where a physical entity that denotes the TR is contained in another physical entity that profiles the LM.

The paper in hand demonstrates that the semantics of (*fii*) is extended to cover other spatial relations other than the one where the TR is actually contained within the LM. The preposition (*fii*) is used to denote spatial relations where the TR is situated on the LM, the TR is under the LM, the TR is inevitably directed towards the LM, the TR and the LM are facing one another, and others. However, the analysis presented in this paper has established that in all these spatial relations, in one way or the other, speakers of the TD cognitively characterized the LMs as containers that contain the TRs.

The data and the analysis presented in this paper have demonstrated that using (*fii*) to encode a spatial relation where the TR and the LM are horizontally or vertically related to one another are all motivated by the image schema of “CONTAINMENT WITHIN”. This sense of containment serves as the core meaning of the preposition (*fii*) to which all these spatial relations can be related.

With regard to future work, the issue of intervarectal analysis should be given more attention in the future research. Future work may be done on the different ways speakers of Arabic dialects choose to express themselves and encode the same spatial relations employing various spatial particles.

Reviewing tens of articles in the International Journal of Cognitive Linguistics we noticed that most of these studies dealt with lexical items from European languages including English, Dutch, Spanish, Finnish, German, and others. This includes the nouns, the verbs, the adjectives and prepositions of these languages. Cognitive analyses of the semantics of lexical items of Arabic language were totally absent. Thus, this research can further provide a linguistic base of other cognitive semantic analyses of other grammatical classes of Arabic (nouns, verbs, and adjectives) adopting the framework of CG.

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Note

Note 1. The notions of Trajector (TR) and Landmark (LM) are used in Cognitive Grammar to name the participants in a spatial relation. In a containment spatial relation, for instance, TR stands for the contained entity and LM stands for the entity that serves as a container.

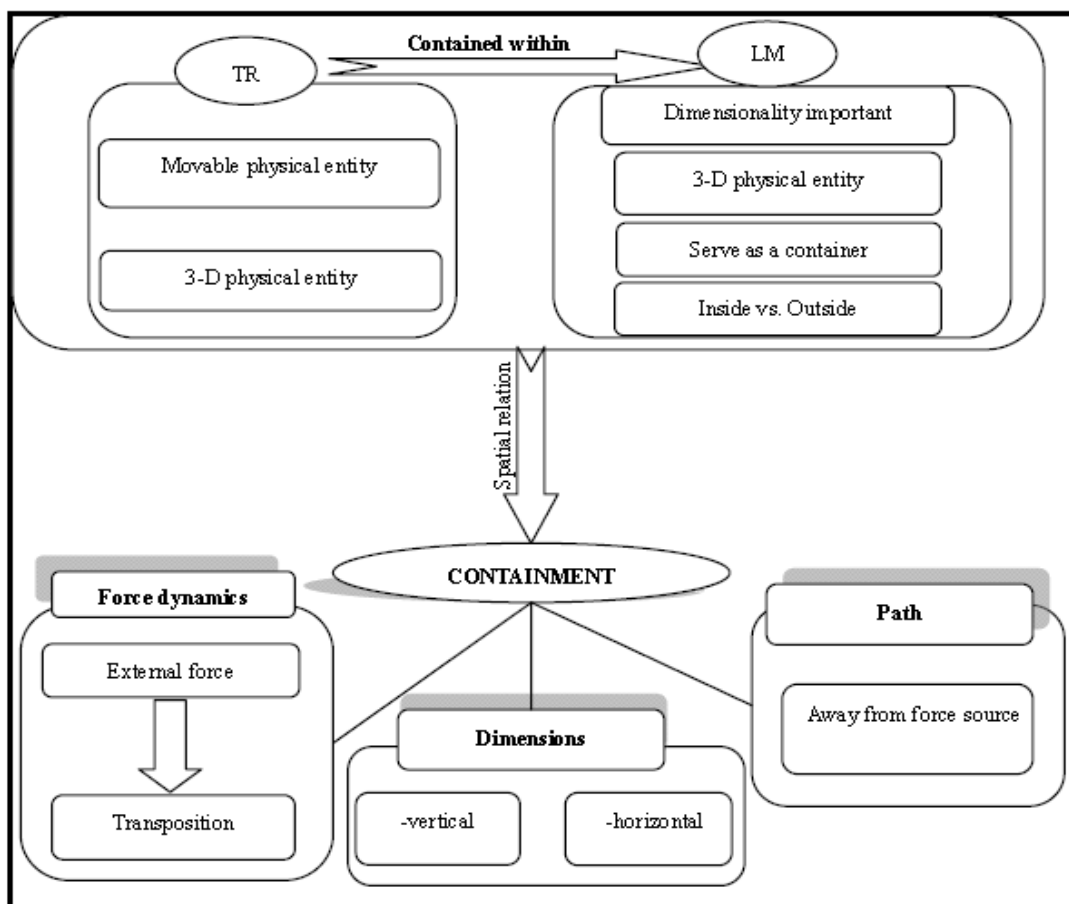


Figure 1. Conceptual Base of (fii)

Figure 1 shows the use of (fii) at the very basic level. The containment spatial relation that holds between the TR and the LM results in a number of prerequisites concerning the participant of this spatial relation. That is, the TR is thought of as a three dimensional movable physical entity that is contained by the second participant, the LM, which is thought of as a three dimensional physical entity. In this spatial relation, horizontality and verticality seem not to play any significant role in characterizing the sense of containment at the very basic level. On the other hand, the TR is thought to under the effect of a force dynamic that moves it and locates it in the interior of the LM. This results in a change of state of both the TR and LM. The TR is moved to a new location and the LM serves as container of this entity.

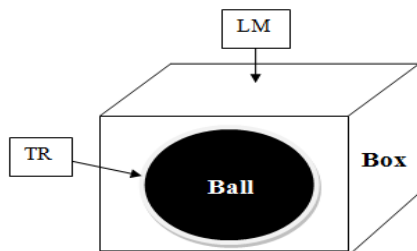


Figure 2. The Ball Is in the Box

Figure 2 shows how the TR is contained within the interior of the LM. As we can see, the TR is located within the boundaries of the three-dimensional LM that serves as a container. In the domain of spatial relations the cognitive interpretation of the relation holding between the TR and the LM is that the TR (the ball) is contained within the interior of the LM (the box).

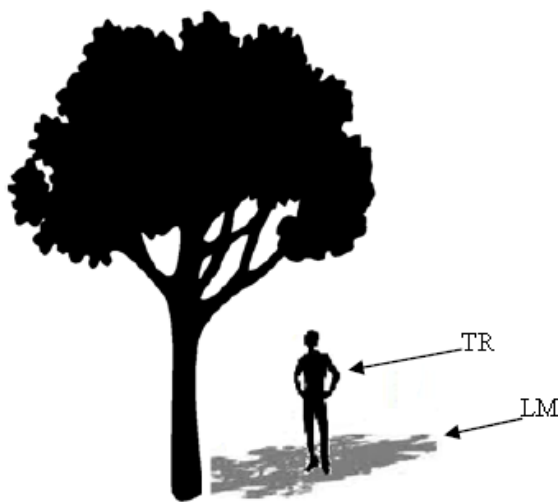


Figure 3. He Is Standing in the Shadow

Figure 3 shows how the TR is situated *on* the LM rather than *in* it. The relation between the TR and the LM in this case is mentally perceived as such the LM is a container of the TR. That is, the sense of containment in this instance overmasters the sense of support and this justifies the use of the preposition (*fii*). Apparently, the relation holding between the TR and the LM is not as such every part of the TR is situated within the interior of the LM. However, the use of the preposition (*fii*) by the speakers of the TD to encode this spatial relation suggests that they, one way or the other, construe it as a containment relation.

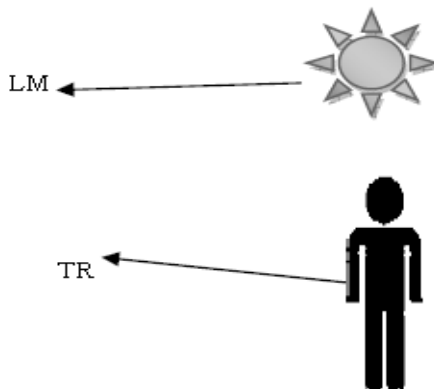


Figure 4. He Is Standing in the Sun

Figure 4 shows how actually the TR is vertically situated down the LM. However, the LM is perceived as a container of the TR. That is, the sense of containment is believed to be the focal relation between the TR and the

LM and this justifies the use of (*fii*) to encode this spatial relation. Despite the fact that the TR is situated *under* the LM rather than *in* it, the relation between the TR and the LM in this case is mentally perceived as such the LM is a container of the TR. That is, the sense of containment in this instance overmasters other possible sense and this justifies the use of the preposition (*fii*) to encode this spatial relation. It is clear the TR is not actually situated within the interior of the LM. However, the use of the preposition (*fii*) by the speakers of the TD to encode this spatial relation suggests that they construe it as a containment relation.

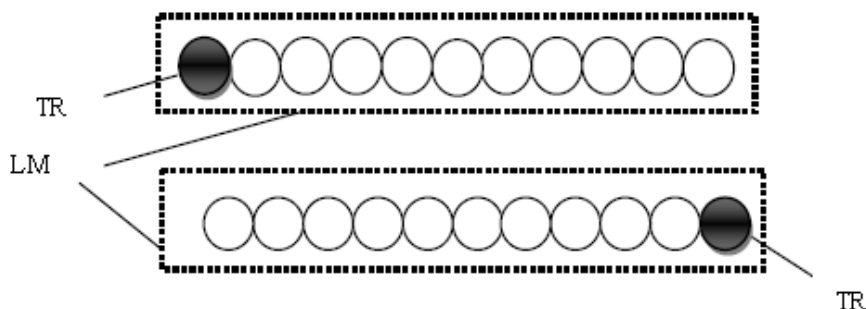


Figure 5. He Is in the Queue

Figure 5 shows the location of the TR in relation to the LM. In figure 5 the reader can simply understand that if one is in the queue he/she is contained by it. In case he/she is the first in a queue, no one would be there to precede him/her, and if one were last in a queue, no one would be there to follow him/her. Here, the spatial relation holding between the TR and the LM is seemingly a horizontal one. However, the speakers of the TD conceptualize it as a containment relation. They understand the fact that if someone moves out of this horizontal line (the queue) he/she is no longer *in* it. The relation holds between the TR and the LM in this instance can be characterized as a partial containment.

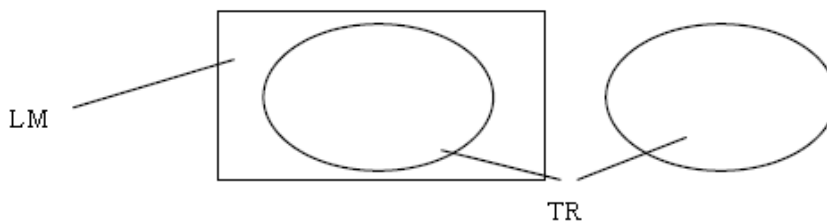


Figure 6. 'I Saw Myself in the Mirror'

In figure 6 the LM 'mirror' contains only the reflection of the TR 'myself'. In this instance, the speakers of the TD characterize the LM 'mirror' as a container of the TR "I" though it only contains its reflection. As is clear in this figure, the spatial relation that holds between the TR and the LM is seemingly characterized at the horizontal axis. The TR is horizontally situated in front of the LM. However, the speaker here focuses more on what the LM contains rather than the actual location of the TR. The sense of containment overmasters all other possible senses and that justifies the use of the preposition (*fii*) to encode this spatial relation.

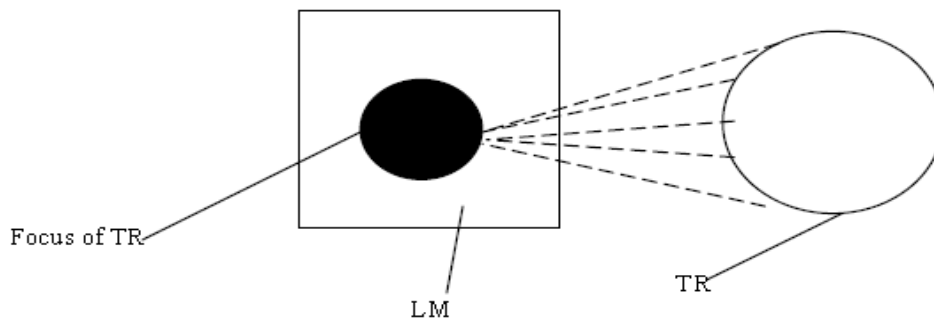


Figure 7 'Everyone Keeps His Eyes on His Answer Sheet!'

In figure 7, the LM, 'answer sheet', contains only the focus point of the TR 'eye'. The speaker characterizes the

LM as a container of the TR though, as matter of fact, it only contains its focus point. In this instance, the relation that holds between the TR and the LM take place at the vertical axis depending on setting where such an expression is uttered. In an examination room, people who are sitting for a test are supposed to keep their eyes *on* their answer sheets. However, the speakers of the TD here are more concerned with what the LM contains rather than the actual location of the TR or the LM. The use of the preposition (*fii*) by the speakers of the TD to encode this spatial relation suggests that the sense of containment overmasters other senses.

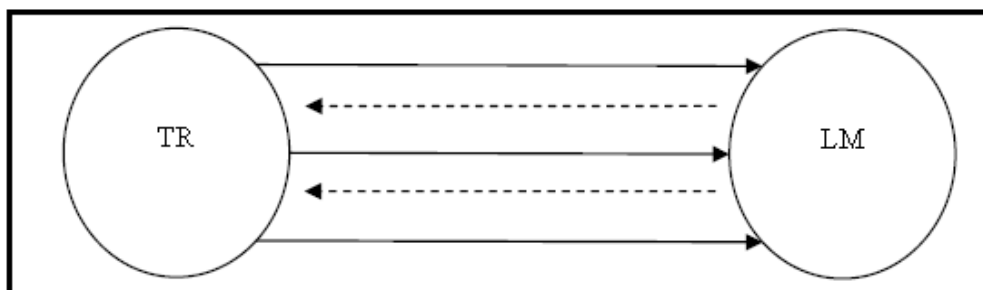


Figure 8. TR and LM Facing One Another

In figure 8 the TR is situated in front of the LM. As figure 8 shows, in this spatial relation the TR is neither actually contained by the LM, nor situated upon or below it. The TR and the LM are factually facing one another and the relation holding between them seems to a horizontal one. However, using the preposition (*fii*) by the speakers of the TD to encode this spatial relation and excluding other possible prepositions of Arabic suggests that the speakers one way or the other conceptualizes the TR as being contained by the LM.

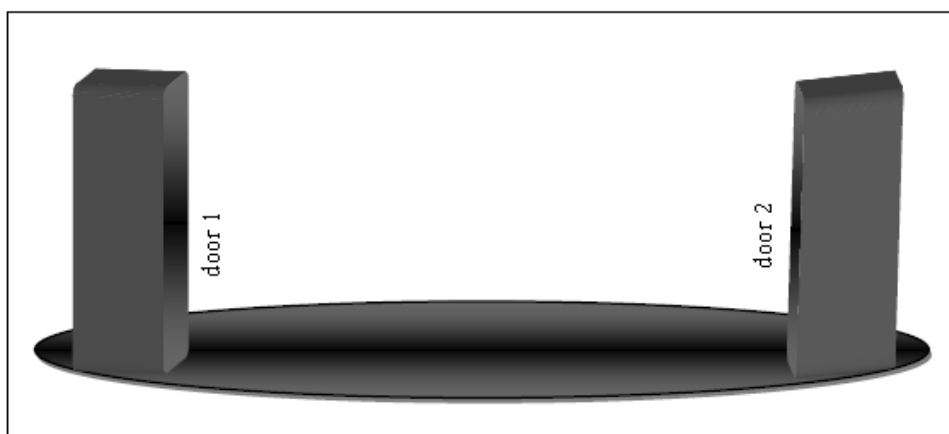


Figure 9. /albaab fii albaab/: "The Door in The Door"

In figure 9 the TR and the LM are located in front of one another where no physical entity is enclosed by the other. The figure clearly shows that the two doors are horizontally related to one another. It is interesting that despite the actual location of the TR and the LM the speakers of the TD characterize this spatial relation as a containment relation. The use of the preposition (*fii*) to encode this spatial relation rather than any other Arabic prepositions reinforces the fact that speakers of the TD characterize the spatial relation between the TR and the LM in this instance as a containment relation.

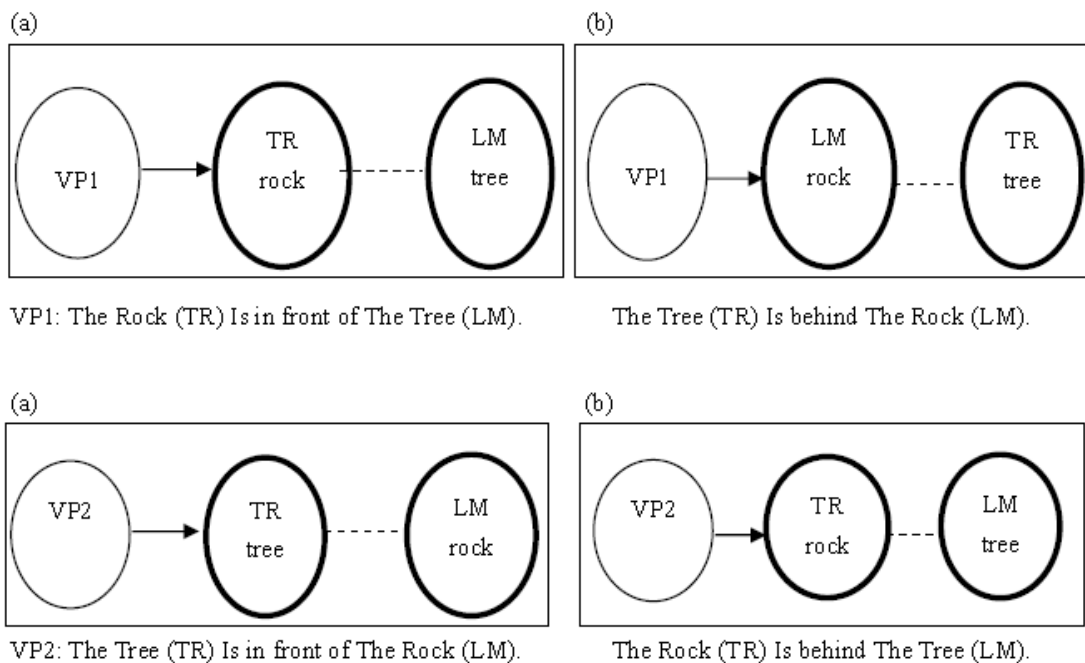


Figure 10. Choice of Spatial Particles Depends on Different Vantage Points
(Adapted from (Langacker 2008))

Figure 10 shows how the vantage point affects the choice of a spatial particle. The different positions of the speaker involved determine how he/she characterizes the spatial relation holding between the TR and the LM. Though the position of the TR and the LM remain the same in all cases, the change of the position of the speaker has affects the choice of the spatial particle that is used to depict the spatial relation. However, this is neither true of all languages nor of all cases. This remains true only when the spatial relation is characterized as a horizontal or a vertical relation.

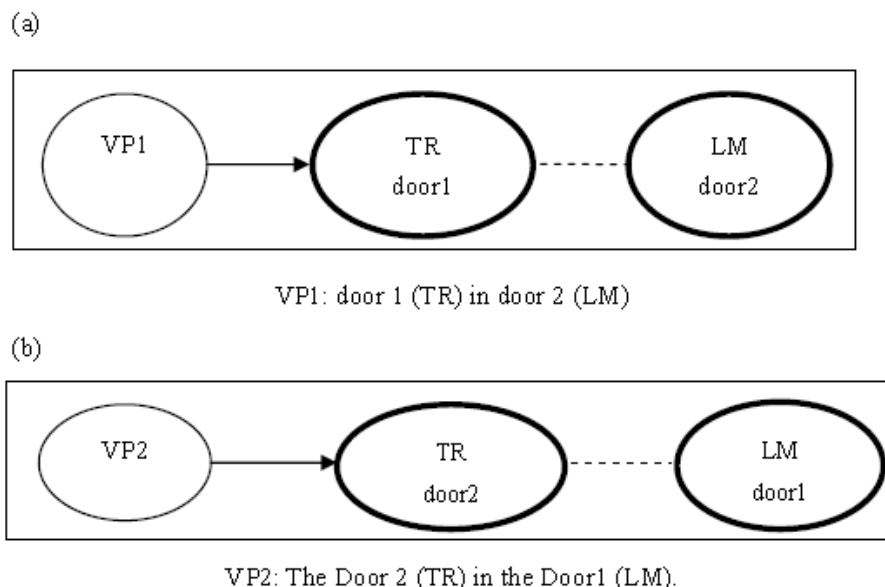


Figure 11. Vantage Points Might Not Affect the Choice of a Spatial Particle

Figure 11 shows that the vantage point might not affect the choice of a spatial particle to encode a spatial relation. The different positions of the speaker involved in this case does not affect the way he/she characterizes the spatial relation holding between the TR and the LM. Though the position of the person involved might not be the same and the TR and the LM do not change positions, this does not affect the choice of the spatial particle that is used to depict the spatial relation. This is true only since the speakers of the TD in this case characterize this

particular spatial relation as a containment relation.

Figure 11 clearly shows that the preposition (*fii*) is the only means used by the speakers of the TD to encode the spatial relation holding between the door 1 and door 2 no matter what the vantage point is.

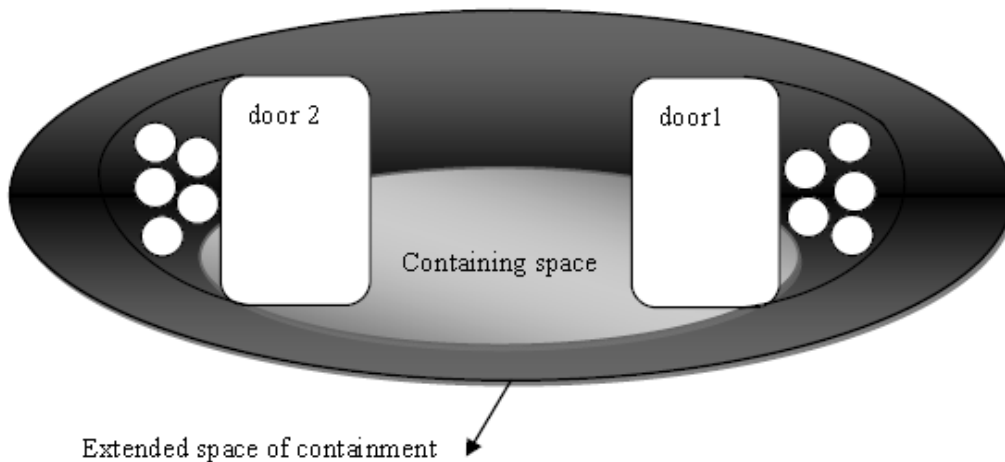


Figure 12. Limits of Containment Extended to Cover a Wider Space

In figure 12, the use of (*fii*) further implies a wider range of containment. The expression /albaab fii albaab/ is uttered to indicate close neighborhood, and an assumed consequence is that people of this neighborhood are contained within an extended space. Though the TR and the LM are horizontally related to one another, the speakers of the TD choose the preposition (*fii*) to encode this spatial relation. It is not only that the speakers of the TD characterize this spatial relation as a containment relation but also more, as figure 12 shows, the limits of containment are extended to cover and enclose a wider space and more entities. In this metaphorical use of the preposition (*fii*), it is not simply that the LM contains the TR or the TR is contained by the LM but the containment limits extend to involve the entities that the TR and LM already contain.

Re-building the Concept of Nation Building in Malaysia

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Abstract

Generally, Malaysia is being described as one of the prime example among those societies that are severely divided along ethnic lines. The country is also among the few pluralistic societies that have achieved some measure of success in managing ethnic conflict and enjoying relative political stability. The complexities of the Malaysian case stem are from the make-up of its ethnic population: Malay (58 percent), Chinese (24 percent), Indians (8 percent), and others (10 percent). Efforts to integrate these diverse groups in the interests of national unity have been, and remain, at the heart of the Malaysian endeavour of nation-building. Her national independence and its Constitution were grounded upon the political bargaining process among ethnic groups which ensued social contract had made them possible. During Tun Dr. Mahathir Mohamad years, the political sensitivity towards the non-Malays was reduced remarkably. Among the important changes were, liberalization of language, education policies and the most important is the promotion of nation building such as *Bangsa Malaysia* (united Malaysian nation). When the present Prime Minister, Najib Razak took over the office, he introduced One Malaysia slogan to develop one nation. One Malaysia seeks to improve the relationship of all Malaysians, regardless of racial, religious and cultural background. This paper aims to examine whether the One Malaysia is a new concept or just a re-branding of existing concepts. Therefore, the principles of One Malaysia will be examined to see the efforts toward nation building.

Keywords: One Malaysia, Re-building, Social contract, Ethnic, Bangsa Malaysia

1. Introduction

National unity has been one of the fundamental themes for nation building since the independence of Malaya then the formation of Malaysia September 16, 1963 (Denison Jayasuria 2010). In his delegation speech in conjunction with the Malaysia 52nd Independence Day in 2009, the Prime Minister of Malaysia, Datuk Seri MOHD. NAJIB Razak stated that the biggest challenge faced by Malaysian citizens was to refurbish the bridge which stands strong today while demolishing walls of segregation amongst the people. He also added that what was in hand today may not necessarily improve but instead, face a possibility of being lost or destroyed if precautions were not taken. This could be considered as a principle passed on amongst the country's line of previous leaders who believed that without the strength of unity amongst the people, Malaysia would fail in increasing and developing the population of the country (Sivamurugan Pandian 2010).

Every Prime Minister has also possessed a similar hope with a vision to see a balance of leadership with continuous emphasis on future issues based on accord among the people in order to brush aside differences which were present in the compendium of its people. The first Prime Minister, TUNKU ABDUL RAHMAN Putra Al-Haj ibni Almarhum Sultan Abdul Hamid Shah, brought forward political collaboration as a source of strength in the elements of national politics. Then, New Economics Policy (NEP) was introduced by Tun ABDUL RAZAK to restructure the people and to recover the sense of integration amongst the people. Tun HUSSEIN ONN trying to organise and build an even stronger synthesis which also stood as the inner boost for Tun Dr. MAHATHIR Mohamad's Vision 2020. The vision is to achieving developed country status in 30 years. Tun ABDULLAH Ahmad Badawi then attempted to build inner values so that the element which was emphasised in Islam Hadhari thoughts, concept, slogans or even policies of One Malaysia need to be viewed as a

continuation from what was introduced by leaders of the past.

2. What Is Nation Building?

The term nation building is often used simultaneously with state building, democratization, modernization, political development, post conflict reconstruction, and peace building, but each concept are different, even though their evolution is intertwined. The concept of nation building came to be used mainly among American political scientists after World War II, to describe the greater integration of state and society, as citizenship brought loyalty to the modern nation state with it (Reinhard 1977). Nation building can involve the use of propaganda or major infrastructure development to foster social harmony and economic growth. Nation building is also a normative concept that means different things to different people. The latest conceptualization is essentially that nation building programs are those in which dysfunctional or unstable or failed states or economies are given assistance in the development of governmental infrastructure, civil society, dispute resolution mechanisms, as well as economic assistance, in order to increase stability. But it is important to look at the evolution of theories of nation building and the other concepts which has both been supplanted and included. Many people believe that nation building is evolutionary rather than revolutionary, that takes a long time and a social process that cannot be jump started from outside.

The evolution of the Italian city-states into a nation, the German city-states into the Zollverein customs union and later a nation, the multiple languages and cultural groups in France into the nation of France, the development of China from the warring kingdoms took a very long time and were the result, not only of political leadership, but the changes in technology and economic processes (the agricultural and then industrial revolutions), as well as communication, culture and civil society, and many other factors. In Africa and the Middle East, new political borders paid little attention to national identities in the creation of new states. Thus, the notion of nation state, a nation which developed the governmental apparatus of a state was often nonsense. While in Europe, nation building historically preceded state building in post-colonial states and state building preceded nation building. The aftermath of colonialism led to the need for nation building (Stephen 2005).

The rhetoric of nation building has emerged as an agenda in most plural societies as the state sought to neutralize ethnic ideologies of nationhood. SMITH (1989) stated that a nation built around an ethnic community. Nevertheless, in many plural societies the development of nationhood had to contend with the strong presence of diverse ethnic communities. It is argued that for a plural society the process nation building means first, the state has to manage centrifugal tendencies derived from the forces of ethnicity and nationalism; and from the point, embark upon the process of mediating identities and moving toward constructing the framework of national identity. In this respect, the idea of state nationalism which precedes nation building activity serves as a device to unite people by creating the sentiment of belonging and common identity.

The concept of nation building often used interchangeably with national integration that contains a vast extent of human relationships and attitudes ranging from the integration of diverse and discrete cultural loyalties, the development or a sense of nationality, the integration of political units into a common territorial framework with a government to exercise power as well as the integration of the citizenry into a common political process to the integration of individuals into an organisation for purposive activities: If nation building so touches the root of people's beliefs and attitudes in regard to politics, then the process of nation building must be affected significantly by the character of a society's political culture. According to SHAROM Ahmat (1980), in the case of Malaysia, nation building is seen as the process by which a stable and integrated society will emerge. This will be achieved through the following means; the creation of a strong economy which will act as the stimulus on which other programs can be built; the stabilization of internal factions and the promotion of domestic tranquillity and, the consolidation of cultural competencies including the improvement of the quality of people's lives, and hence the vitality of the nation.

3. Nation Building in Malaysia

The first project of Malaysian nation building must look since independence in August 1957. The Malaysia Constitution was intended to provide a viable basis for ethnic understanding and good government. Behind it there was a great deal of bargaining, mainly among ethnic groups and political parties. There are two basic points to keep in mind in order to understand the nature and significance of the political process at this time; first, ethnicity is the key and second, the Malays would control the executive. To operate the system of government after independence, the main ethnic groups would have to work together, but the parties had been constructed along ethnic lines (Milne & Mauzy 1999). According to In-Won HWANG (2003), the original agreement on the constitutional contract was a trade-off between Malays and non-Malays, in particular United Malay National Organization (UMNO) and Malaysian Chinese Association (MCA). As a major concession from the Malays, the

constitutional package gave non-Malays liberal citizenship regulations. In return, non-Malays had to accept the constitutional status of Malay special rights in various fields, such as language, religion, and the status of Malay rules. The creation of the Alliance Party was fortuitous. As a purely *ad hoc* tactic, the local leaders of UMNO and the MCA struck a deal. The two parties, intent on defeating the front-runner, decided not to put up candidates against each other. The tactic was successful and the election was won by nine seats to two. An Indian component was supplied when the Malaysian Indian Congress (MIC) joined the Alliance in 1954. At the general election in 1955, the party proved successful and won 51 out of the 52 seats. This is the first successful ethnic bargaining in Malaysian politics.

The Alliance type system resembles the system of elite cooperation and given name of consociationalism. The concept of consociationalism by LIJPHART (1969) contains four key components that would provide a successful political consensus. They are the grand coalition, segmental autonomy, mutual veto and proportionality. First, grand coalition requires power sharing through participation of the representatives of all significant groups in political decision making process. Second, segmental autonomy provides authority to these groups to manage their own internal affairs particularly in two major domains such as education and culture. Third, mutual veto allows each group to protect the disadvantages and advantages thus it simultaneously promotes equality conditionally to settle sensitive issues. Fourth, proportionality offers each significant group an equal distribution in the electoral system, power sharing, position in public office and resources. However, one of the most important aspects of post 1963 period in Malaysia was the increased politicization of both Malays and Chinese; with the result that segmental leader no longer exercised sufficient authority over their own communities. The gradual polarization of communities during the period 1963-1969 was heading towards the breakdown of inter-ethnic consociational conflict management. The period 1963 to 1969 was an important era in the history of Malaysia. In addition to the successful formation of a nation state, it was also marked by the expulsion of Singapore from the Federation and a worsening in race relations. The formation of Malaysia on 16 September 1963 incorporated Sabah, Sarawak, and Singapore. Brunei Darussalam withdrew at the very last moment. The inclusion of Sabah and Sarawak's natives such as the Kadazan, Iban, Dayak, Melanau and Murut expanded the multi-racial composition of the society and they were recognized as *bumiputera* (sons of the soil). On 5 March 1965 however, Singapore was expelled from Malaysia due to problems arising primarily from the proposal to implement the policy of "Malaysian Malaysia" by the Singaporean People's Action Party (PAP), led by LEE Kuan Yew (a former Singapore's Prime Minister).

The May 13 in 1969 racial riots were the single most intensive case of inter-racial violence Malaysia had undergone since independence. According to the Malay perspective, the consociational Alliance regime did not seem to guarantee their intrinsic privileged political hegemony as an indigenous people, even though Malays recognized the superior economic position of non-Malay. The non-Malays especially the Chinese increasingly challenged Malay political hegemony which was an essential part of the Alliance bargain. The consociational Alliance eventually collapsed when escalating Malay grievances over the undermining of their special political position turned into serious inter-racial riots in 1969 (In-Won Hwang 2003). The report from British document (Public Records Office in Kew Gardens, London) shown the riots were not spontaneous acts of communal violence, as is constantly alleged by UMNO, but were fanned by Malay elements, with support from the army and police, wanting to discredit the accommodating Prime Minister and impose a much more rigorous Malay agenda. KUA Kia Soong in his book *Declassified document on the Malaysian Riots of 1969* stated that the goal was to formalise Malay dominance, sideline the Chinese and shelve TUNKU ABDUL RAHMAN. The riots was rather a planned attack to oust then TUNKU ABDUL RAHMAN who remained Prime Minister until September 1970 but had little authority anymore. In 1971, he stepped down as President of UMNO after virulent criticism by the Malay "young Turks" headed by MAHATHIR Mohamad, the future Prime Minister. Otherwise, the official report from Malaysian government was that the riots were sparked by opposition parties "infiltrated by Communist insurgents" following huge opposition gains in the election 1969 (Bowring 2007). As a result, the national principles or *Rukunegara* was introduced as a tool of unity (Kartini Aboo Talib@ Khalid & Suhana Saad 2010). *Rukunegara* presented five principles by which the Malaysian peoples were to be guided; belief in god; loyalty to king and country; upholding the constitution; rule of law and good behaviour and morality. The national principles are mandatory to public schools to embrace them by requiring all students to state their pledge by reading the national principles in the morning assembly in all public schools. However, the implementation of these principles is no longer common.

Other government policies were also introduced in an effort to create a positive attitude towards cultural assimilation and the creation of a national culture. Among them was the National Culture Policy (NCP) which was introduced in August 1971 to develop a national culture from three elements: the indigenous culture;

suitable elements from the non-Malay cultures; and Islam as an important component. Beside the national ideology, Malaysia's NEP was first announced in 1970 as the principal policy response to the post-election race riots of May 1969. The NEP had two prongs, namely poverty eradication regardless of race and restructuring society to eliminate the identification of race with economic function. The NEP was supposed to create the conditions for national unity by reducing inter-ethnic resentment due to socio-economic disparities (Jomo, K.S. 2004; HENG Pek Koon 1997). In general, the Malays were employed predominantly in the agricultural where output per worker was lowest, while the Chinese were more easily found in the manufacturing and commercial sector where it was highest. Employment targets for Malays were based on the premise that their promotion in agriculture should decrease. In most employment sector, however, the numbers (but not the proportion) of Chinese and Indian would not decrease (Milne & Mauzy 1999).

The government declared that the NEP's ultimate goal was national unity (In-Won Hwang 2003). The rationale behind the NEP is based on the recognition that national unity in Malaysia is the pre-requisite for development in all aspects of life. Even though the government has strived hard to integrate the society through various visions and ideologies, it is still difficult to accomplish as ethnocentrism is still rife among the various ethnics. It involves politicians, academicians, associations, and even students. The inclination to preserve one's traditions has made history, vision and ideologies proposed by the country's leaders simply rhetorical in nature. The adversity was expressed by Tun Dr MAHATHIR Mohamad, the forth Prime Minister, who introduced Vision 2020 in February 1991. He outlined the country's major challenge in nation building that is to create a Malaysian nation that is united and has similar aspirations, integrate at the territorial level and between ethnics based on equal rights and justice. Vision 2020 stresses development in terms of national unity and social cohesion, economy, social justice, political stability and system of government, quality of life, social and spiritual values, national pride and confidence. Vision 2020 sets out not only an economic agenda, social agenda, political agenda, psychological agenda, science and technology agenda but a comprehensive and rounded agenda for the nation. The nine strategic challenges set out by Vision 2020:

- The first of these is the challenge of establishing a united Malaysian nation (Bangsa Malaysia) with a sense of common and shared destiny. This must be a nation at peace with itself, territorially and ethnically integrated, living in harmony and full and fair partnership, made up of one *Bangsa Malaysia* with political loyalty and dedication to the nation.
- The second is the challenge of creating a psychologically liberated, secure and developed Malaysian society with faith and confidence in itself, justifiably proud of what it is, of what it has accomplished, robust enough to face all manner of adversity. This Malaysian Society must be distinguished by the pursuit of excellence, fully aware of all its potentials, psychologically subservient to none, and respected by the peoples of other nations.
 - The third challenge is fostering and developing a mature democratic society, practicing a form of mature, consensual, community-oriented Malaysian democracy that can be a model for many developing countries.
 - The fourth is the challenge of establishing a fully moral and ethical society, whose citizens are strong in religious and spiritual values and imbued with the highest of ethical standards.
 - The fifth challenge is establishing a mature, liberal and tolerant society in which Malaysians of all colours and creeds are free to practise and profess their customs, cultures and religious beliefs and yet feeling that they belong to one nation.
 - The sixth is the challenge of establishing a scientific and progressive society, a society that is innovative and forward-looking, one that is not only a consumer of technology but also a contributor to the scientific and technological civilization of the future.
 - The seventh challenge is establishing a fully caring society and a caring culture, a social system in which society will come before self, in which the welfare of the people will revolve not around the state or the individual but around a strong and resilient family system.
 - The eighth is the challenge of ensuring an economically just society in which there is a fair and equitable distribution of the wealth of the nation, in which there is a full partnership in economic progress. Such a society cannot be in place so long as there is the identification of economic backwardness with race.
 - The ninth challenge of establishing a prosperous society, with an economy that is fully competitive, dynamic, robust and resilient.

Mahathir believes that this ambition can be achieved provided the country can sustain economic growth of at least 7 percent a year from the time the Vision was unveiled until 2020. Nevertheless, he envisages that Malaysia should not be a duplicate of any other developed country, but instead be a developed country in our own mould. In Mahathir's words:

“Malaysia should not be developed only in the economic sense. It must be a nation that is fully developed along all the dimensions: economically, politically, socially, spiritually, psychologically and culturally. We must be fully developed in terms of national unity and social cohesion, in terms of our economy, in terms of social justice, political stability and the system of government, quality of life, social and spiritual values, national pride and confidence (Mahathir Mohamad, 1991)”.

There are two main points which Mahathir attempts to highlight here. The first is peoples' obligation with regard to the 1957 consensus, or the constitutional compromise which he argued must be fulfilled, sincerely and fully. The second is redressing the socio-economic imbalances amongst the various ethnic groups, the success of which is heavily dependent on the extent to which economic growth and prosperity can be created and sustained in the country. Obviously, these are not new issues, but rather something which many Malaysian are familiar with, since they have formed the basic framework of national integration since 1970 (Mohamed Mustafa Bin Ishak 1999).

Despite leadership change, nation building projects in Malaysia is still ongoing. After Vision 2020, Datuk Seri NAJIB Tun Razak the current Prime Minister has introduced the slogan ‘One Malaysia’. The objective is to create oneness or unity within a multi-religious and multi-cultural nation. This slogan means Malaysia embrace a diversity of ethnicity, religions and beliefs and, by being inclusive, build mutual respect and acceptance into a solid foundation of trust and cohesiveness. One Malaysia is not a new project for nation building. It is built upon the foundations of Federal Constitution, various laws and policies, the *Rukunegara*, Vision 2020, the National Mission and our view of unity and fairness.

4. Refreshing the Project of Nation Building

One Malaysia leans against three tenets in enhancing national unity which are: principle of acceptance, principle of national spirit and, principle of social justice. Principle of acceptance means acceptance principle means that even though Malaysians live different lifestyles, practices and culture, we accept each other as loyal friends. The second principle is national spirit regarding to unity concept, nationalism and love for the country have been inculcated early on by past leaders. TUNKU ABDUL RAHMAN through the Alliance Party which he led with the assistance of Tun TAN Cheng Lok and Tun V.T SAMBANTHAN fought for independence and freedom from the British Colonists for the Malays states. The main features of a Malay nation state were framed up, legally and constitutionally, just before the independence of Malaya. However, in the next 12 years, the TUNKU's administration would move away from this framework. He delayed the full implementation of the Malay nation state project. He began building a more pluralistic and multi-cultural Malaya in order to fulfil his immediate priority-national unity (Cheah Book Kheng 2002).

Tun ABDUL RAZAK, in turn, inspired the NEP, which aims to unite the multi-races in this country. Subsequently, Tun Hussein Onn, known best for his efforts in instilling unity among the multi-races in Malaysia was bestowed the name ‘Father of Unity’. Tun Dr. MAHATHIR and Tun ABDULLAH Hj Ahmad Badawi introduced vision 2020 and the concept of excellence, glory and distinction, respectively, in efforts to instil unity among the many races in this country. The third is principle of social justice, each race in this country regardless of background or religion will be accounted for fairly and equitably in their welfare and other social aspects. Through the One Malaysia, each representative needs to transcend racial boundaries and extend their services to other races. Even then, the One Malaysia which espouses social justice principles is not a platform for any quarter or party to make outrageous claims or demands. The culture of excellence, endurance, humility, acceptance, loyalty, meritocracy, education and integrity are the eight values hem in the One Malaysia slogan.

Overall, all these eight values show that the idea of One Malaysia is faced with moral value. NAJIB intends to witness the grandeur of a new civilization that is shared with by all levels of society via these eight values and also the birth of determination and motivation among society so that the pride of life in Malaysia is upheld. All these values are also vital towards the practice of interpretation and, if made as fad in activities, programmes and policies, how far can it raise the level of acceptance and even more from that, develop the agenda created as inside precursor in generating strength to the idea of One Malaysia (Sivamurugan Pandian 2010).

Hence, the slogan of One Malaysia aspires to strengthen relationships among races. Mutual trust and respect among races needs to exist in order to sow the spirit of unity. People must understand and practice things that

place national interests as priority. In creating a unified national race in a multi-ethnic country like Malaysia in this era of globalization, it is imperative that we allow free and fast flow of not just information, capital and people but also value systems, cultures and beliefs from different countries. The ability to build a unified national race depends on the sharing of the values of integrity, ability, dedication and loyalty.

5. The Challenges to Achieve Nation Building

Although nation building is the core of national development, this effort is not easy. This is due to the gap between the races, especially in economic terms. *Bumiputera* (the Malays and native from Sabah and Sarawak) achievement is still far from the target of 30 percent in equity. Chandra Muzaffar (2010) stated that since independence, the top 20 percent of income earners in Malaysia have benefited much more from economic growth than the bottom 40 percent. It is significant that the report of the National Economic Advisory Council (NEAC) on the New Economic Model (NEM) admits that the bottom 40 per cent of households have experienced the slowest growth of average income earning less than RM 1 500 per month in 2008. The wage trend in Malaysia recorded only 2.6 percent growth during the past 10 years compared to the escalating cost of living during the same period. It explains why almost 34 percent of about 1.3 million workers earn less than RM700 a month below the poverty line of RM720 per month. This is an urgent challenge that must address to achieve nation building through One Malaysia.

The second factor is to accept the national ideology and the constitution. This includes the Malay privilege and Islam is the religion of the federation. The problem arises when some parties opposed the constitution that has been agreed. All of these issues are related to the social contract. In his argument, Shad Saleem Faruqi (2010) stated that in Malaysia, the term social contract has a very different and unique meaning. It referred to the difficult and elaborate compromises between the ethnic Malays, Chinese and Indians on their mutual rights and privileges and their bargains with the Malay Rulers and the British for the creation of a democratic, federal, non-theocratic system of government based on constitutional monarchy. Mavis Puthuchery (2005) said the UMNO version of the social contract would allow for Malay interests as defined by UMNO "Malay Supremacy" to be given greater emphasis. Any call for debate on its content is viewed as a challenge to the existing political system. According to Puthuchery, in such situation it is unwise to recognize the legitimacy of the social contract as it is applied in the Malaysian context. History has demonstrated that nation building in Malaysia began with the formation of Malayan Union on April 1, 1946 which was deemed a failure from the beginning as it did not gazette the rights of the native Malays, abolished the Malay monarchy's sovereignty, and by according equal citizenship status to everyone. Peaceful demonstrations by the native people managed to convince the British to convert the status of the country to the Federation of Malaya on February 1, 1948 maintained the status quo and power of the monarchy and granting of citizenship was made more stringent (Wan Norhasniah Wan Husin 2011). The founding of Malaya provided the platform of nation building through the emergence of a new political territory, but it was not an easy task as the proposal had resulted in some apprehension among the non-Malays who felt that their traditions had been neglected. The Malays claimed the reinstatement of the Malays' special rights in the constitution, and the use of Malay language as the medium of communication in education.

In principle, all nation building processes are cultural interventions as the centre establishes a particular identity on the periphery or in other words, the elite creates a national identity for the rest of the population (Raphael Utz 2005). Therefore, the creation of a Malaysian national culture is intended to achieve three objectives: strengthening social and national unity through culture, nurturing and preserving a national identity which stems from a national culture, and enriching and increasing the quality of life from a practical and spiritual perspective, in line with socioeconomic development. The NCP specifies national culture as the native culture to this region (in particular, culture seen as relating to Malays), and that Islam plays an important role in the national culture. Cultural elements that are determined appropriate and holding the Islamic value as a major element embrace in the national culture. KUA (1985) argued that authorizing a certain culture to have a dominant role in nation building and in the construction of national identity eradicates equality of cultural manifestation and contribution into the nation by the minorities. Therefore, the critics of the NCP counter-proposed a natural assimilation policy to allow the assimilation of culture naturally. The 1983 Joint Memorandum on National Culture submitted by major Chinese organizations had promoted cultural pluralism and the establishment of common cultural values (Shakila Yacob 2006). This is some challenges that government needs to overcome to ensure our citizens live in harmony.

In education field, the system in Malaysia may be seen in tandem with the other national policies mentioned above. For instance, education also plays a role in the NEP. Providing a national education is one of the means by which redistribution of wealth according to ethnic group is to be fulfilled. In the effort of nation building, there is the need for a common cultural value system to promote national identity and nationhood. (Sandra Khor

Manickam 2004). The country needs a community that places importance in education and knowledge over the above things. The challenge comes when the education becomes an ethnic and political issue. For instance, the Vision Schools project was mooted on February 19, 1997, that held the same objectives of the singular system of education as envisioned in the 1950s, to produce a generation that is tolerant and understanding so as to realize a united nation. Unfortunately, the idea Vision Schools has not received wide support from Malaysians in large part due to communal politics that champions the perpetuation of vernacular schools based on mother tongue education (Shakila Yacob 2006). Education and language issue are very sensitive in Malaysia because it is related to the ethnic identity. So, the government should be wise to resolve this issue in order to maintain ethnic relation in Malaysia.

Another challenge to One Malaysia vision is many people assuming that One Malaysia is similar to the concept of Malaysian Malaysia proposed by People Action Party (PAP). After Singapore was expelled from Malaysia in 1965, some PAP member in Malaysia mostly Chinese has established Democratic Action Party (DAP). The essence of the idea was that Malaysia was conceived as belonging to Malaysians as a whole and not to any particular community or ethnic. This concept emphasized that public policy should address all Malaysian citizens as equals. This aroused strong communal sentiment in the Chinese community (In-Won Hwang 2003). Our citizens should know that One Malaysia is an idea to harmonize citizens of different ethnic in this country without changing their identity. The Malaysian Malaysia concept, on the other hand, is a policy that seeks to effectively disintegrate the basic foundation that the community is built on. The fairness that is espoused in the Malaysian Malaysia blindly takes advantage of the utilization of the total equity version. Besides taking care of the needs of all races, One Malaysia emphasizes integration and the existence of the Malaysian race. This is quite different from Malaysian Malaysia, which is limited to equitable rights and does not consider reality and Malaysian history. Whatever argument behind this slogan, the government should explain to the people that any policy should not oppose the constitution.

One Malaysia slogan became a controversial when the opposition leader and Permatang Pauh MP Datuk Seri ANWAR Ibrahim said the One Malaysia slogan was copied from the One Israel and was allegedly related to APCO Worldwide. APCO Worldwide is an award-winning, independently owned global communication consultancy with offices in major cities throughout Asia, the Americas, Europe, the Middle East and Africa. APCO offers services related to business and finance, media, public opinion and society, and government and public policy. ANWAR claimed that Israeli-linked APCO Worldwide employed by the NAJIB administration was behind both the One Malaysia and One Israel concepts otherwise NAJIB said One Malaysia is his original concept. During the press conference on March 30, 2010, ANWAR claimed to have documents linking One Malaysia One Israel and the public relations firm APCO Worldwide. On Nov 22, 2010, de facto law minister, Datuk Seri NAZRI Aziz proof two documents containing denials from APCO and American political consultant over the consultancy involvement in the One Israel campaign (Shazwan Mustafa Kamal 2010). Regarding to APCO Worldwide statement "we did not devise the One Malaysia concept. In our work as communications consultants we are not involved in policy formation but in the presentation of information the government intends to share with the public. We work for governments which are prepared to take our counsel on transparency, democracy and the rule of law. We are honoured to continue our work with the government of Malaysia (apcoworldwide.com)."

Another controversial is when DAP adviser LIM Kit Siang's challenged Tan Sri MUHYIDDIN Yassin, Deputy Prime Minister to resign if he refused to admit that he is a Malaysian first and a Malay second as proof that he was in full support of the One Malaysia concept. As a response to LIM, Tan Sri MUHYIDDIN Yassin declared he is Malay first but does not mean that he is not a Malaysian at heart. According to MUHYIDDIN, when a leader spoke out on his community, it did not mean that he did not support the One Malaysia concept which was based on the Federal Constitution and *Rukunegara* (The Star April 1, 2010). Some people look MUHYIDDIN statement contradicted to One Malaysia. The speculation that there was a split between the two spread in light of NAJIB's inaction but the two subsequently denied the allegation and attributed the rumors to the opposition. On March 31, 2010, MUHYIDDIN said, he supported the Prime Minister's message of One Malaysia and criticised LIM Kit Siang of the DAP for trying to drive a wedge between NAJIB and him.

According to Penang's Chief Minister, LIM Guan Eng (also the Secretary General of the DAP), a platform for unity that cuts across race and religion is basic human rights and a civil society shared by all. He was introduced Middle Malaysia that puts people first and offers good governance based on six core principles. One, we are Malaysian First. Two, we deserve to enjoy basic human rights and a civil society. Three, there must be equality of opportunity for all. Four, there must be rule of law where what you know is more important than who you know. Five, we must build integrity and intelligent city communities towards a high-income and knowledge-based economy. Middle Malaysia prefers cooperation not conflict, consultation instead of confrontation and an inclusive

shared society rather than an exclusive separate society. Middle Malaysia belongs to every Malaysian. Unlike Umno Malaysia, in Middle Malaysia the content of our character is more important than the colour of our skin. Unlike BN's Malaysia, in Middle Malaysia we look at each other as brothers and sisters, fathers and mothers and as sons and daughters of Malaysia. Unlike Crony Malaysia, Middle Malaysia respects and celebrates you with the firm belief that Malaysia's wealth, opportunities and resources belongs to all Malaysians (Lim Guan Eng 2010). On March 16, 2010, NAJIB in parliament described this concept is a re-branding of the concept Malaysian Malaysia. According to NAJIB, Malaysian Malaysia is a failure. It is just reaction to the concept of opposition is not based on Federal Constitution and Malaysian history.

6. Conclusion

The concept of nation building in Malaysia aspires to strengthen relationships among ethnic and ensure Malaysians sow the seed of unity as enshrined in the national principles. The implementation of nation building project would surely play a major role in unifying the different sectors of society and shaping a new political culture conducive for nation building. The appreciation of cultural, linguistic and religious differences could then pave the way to a more open, tolerant, liberal and progressive political culture that will propel the nation forward to face the challenges of globalisation and trade liberalisation. One Malaysia is to refresh the concept of nation building from the previous policy and national agenda. In Malaysia although the leadership was changed, but the vision to achieve social cohesion have never change. Based on this argument, One Malaysia actually is not a new concept in term of nation building. One Malaysia values and respects the principles of the Federal Constitution as well as ethnic identities of each race so that we can live together and have mutual respects among us. What happened if Malaysia cannot realize their Vision 2020? One must understand that the Vision 2020 program was initiated for making Malaysia a developed country but however, if the target failed, the government project for nation building will not change with the social cohesion of the country. Since Malaysia independence, the government has been actively involved in the project of nation building and will not quit even if the vision might not be achieved.

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The Relationship between Organizational Structure and Organizational Justice

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Abstract

Organizational justice in this rapidly-developing work-life may become an increasingly important issue to both managers and employees. This article aims to study the effective organizational justice model for Iranian public organizations. It initially identifies antecedents and consequences of organizational justice. Then, it examines the effect of organizational justice on organizational commitment, trust, OCB, turnover, and job satisfaction as well as the impact of organizational structure on organizational justice.

Keywords: Organizational structure, Organizational justice, Distributive justice, Interactional justice, Organizational commitment, Trust, OCB, Turnover

1. Introduction

When employees react to the way they are treated at work, their motivation to respond cannot be understood adequately without taking into account two separate notions of fairness: distributive justice and procedural justice (Folger & Konovsky, 1989; Greenberg, 1986a). Adams (1965) conceptualized fairness by stating that employees determine whether they have been treated fairly at work by comparing their own payoff ratio of outcomes (such as pay or status) to inputs (such as effort or time) to the ratio of their co-workers. This is called distributive justice, and it presents employees' perceptions about the fairness of managerial decisions relative to the distribution of outcomes such as pay, promotions, etc (Folger & Konovsky, 1989). In contrast, procedural justice focuses on the fairness of the manner in which the decision-making process is conducted (Folger & Konovsky, 1989). In other words, the focus shifts from what was decided to how the decision was made (Cropanzano & Folger, 1991b).

Justice perceptions also have been linked to important outcome variables (Dailey & Kirk, 1992; Folger & Konovsky, 1989; Martin & Bennett, 1996; McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992). For instance, perceptions of procedural justice are negatively related to intentions to quit (Dailey & Kirk, 1992), significantly correlate with organizational commitment (Folger & Konovsky, 1989; Martin & Bennett, 1996), and produce high subordinates' evaluation of supervisors (McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992). In other words, if employees perceive that the decision-making process is fair, they are less likely to form an intention to quit. On the other hand, distributive justice perceptions are associated with pay raise satisfaction (Folger & Konovsky, 1989), and tend to be a strong predictor of job satisfaction (Martin & Bennett, 1996; McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992).

Few efforts, however, have been made that concentrate on how employees perceive the characteristics of their organizations. Leigh, Lucas Jr., and Woodman (1988) report that employees look more to the broader organizational environment than to their role perceptions in attributing their job satisfaction. This would imply the need for research concerning how employees perceive the fairness of organizational systems and how this issue of fairness affects employees' attitudes and behaviors (Dailey & Kirk, 1992). Greenberg (1990a) also reports that organizational justice, which refers to people's perceptions of the fairness of treatment received from organizations, is important as a basic requirement for the effective functioning of organizations (Lee, 2000).

According to Bugre (1998), Studying organizational justices is important at least for three reasons: 1) justice is a social phenomenon and pervades every life, social or organizational; 2) the most important asset of any organization is its workforce (the manner in which it is treated influences subsequent attractive and behaviors, such as commitment, trust, performance, turnover, aggression; and 3) we are moving toward a more educated workforce- as people become more skilled and educated, They request not only better jobs but also treatment with respect and dignity in the work place (Beugre, 1998).

In the last 30 years, Organizational justice has received substantial interest among organizational behavior scholars. In this research we try to demonstrate that perception of justice are strongly related to individual attitudes. (Amborse- et al, 2007).

Justice theories have now been widely applied in organizational setting, and a variety of topics have been examined, such as reaction to layoffs (Brockner and Greenberg 1990), industrial actions (Leung and Chiu 1993), Management of subsidiaries (Kim and Mauborgn 1993), commitment of senior managers to interactional joint ventures (Johnson 1996), reaction to fare increases of public transportation (Leung and Li 1990), performance appraisal (Greenberg 1986), trust in supervisors and commitment (Folger and Konovsky 1992), Organizational citizenship behavior (Moorman 1991), and job satisfaction (McFarlin and Sweeney 1992).

Beginning in the 1980, researchers began to expand the role of equity theory in explaining attitudes and behavior: This led to a domain of research called organizational justice. Organizational justice reflects the extent to which people perceive that they are treated fairly at work. This, in turn led to the identification of three different components of organizational justice, (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2001).

The term organizational justice was first coined by Greenberg (1987), referring to perception of fairness within organizations. According to Bery and Mussen (1975) the meaning of justice varies not only among individuals, but also among cultures, civilizations, and historical eras.

According to Beugre (1998): Organizational justice refers to the perceived fairness of the exchanges, taking place in an organization, by the social or economic, and involving the individual in his or her relations with superiors, subordinates, peers, and the organization as a social system. (Beugre 1998).

Brockner and Siegel (1996) describe three major waves of justice research over the past three decades. The initial wave focused on distributive justice, in which concerns were related to the fairness of outcomes of resource allocation such as pay and promotions. Procedural justice was the thrust of research during the second wave. Procedural justice concerns the fairness of the process in distribution of outcomes and the interpersonal behavior accorded to the recipients by those who implemented distribution decisions (Brockner & Siegel, 1996).

2. Organizational concepts

2.1 Organizational structure and organizational justice

Organizational structure is the way responsibilities and authorities are allocated to, and work procedures are carried out by, the members of organizations (Blau, 1970; Dewar & Werbel, 1979; Germain, 1996; Gerwin & Kolodny, 1992). Robbins (1990) echoed the above definition by saying that organizational structure determines task allocation, reporting lines, and formal coordination mechanisms and interaction patterns. On the other hand, Goldhaber, Dennis, Richetto, and Wiio (1984) defined organizational structure as .the network of relationships and roles existing throughout the organization. Most research on organizational structure is found in organizational, and innovation, studies. And most of the research has noted that organizational structure has multiple dimensions. One classic depiction of organizational structure is the organic versus mechanical dichotomy. A great deal of organizational theory literature suggests that the nature of organizational structure can be distinguished as mechanistic (inorganic) versus organic (Daft, 2003; Lawrence & Lorsch, 1967, as cited in Nahm, Vonderembse, Koufteros, 2003; Nemetz & Fry, 1988; Zammuto & O'Connor, 1992).

Daft (2003) stated, .significant changes are occurring in organizations in response to changes in the society at large. He said that the mechanistic paradigm is effective when environments have a high degree of certainty, technologies tend to be routine, organizations are large-scale, and employees are treated as another resource. Internal structures tend to be vertical, functional, and bureaucratic. The organization uses rational analysis and is guided by parochial values reflected in the vertical hierarchy and superior-subordinate power distinctions. The organic paradigm recognizes the unstable, even chaotic nature of the external environment. Technologies are typically non-routine, and size is less important. Organizations are based more on teamwork, face-to-face interactions, learning, and innovation. Qualities traditionally considered egalitarian such as equality, empowerment, horizontal relationships, and consensus building become more important (Daft, 2003).

According to Schminke, Cropanzano and Rupp (2002) organizational structure may influence organizational justice perceptions and social exchange relationships between workers and their organizations. (Schminke et al, 2002) Ambrose and Schminke (2001) noted potential relationships between organizational structure, justice perceptions, and organizational ethics.

They explored the main effects that four dimensions of the organization structure-centralization formalization, size, and vertical complexity might exert (Memarzadeh, 2010).

Sheppard et al. (1993) noted that allocation decisions do not take place in a social vacuum. Rather they are embedded within organizational systems that have somewhat distinct architectures. The structure of some organizations allows participation and so on. Greenberg (1993) observed that justice often results from the formal structure of the organization. From this, it follows that the structural dimensions of organization can increase or decrease fairness. (Greenberg 1993).

According to Keeley (1998) some organizations attempt to structure themselves in a way that will promote social justice as well as economic profit. Keeley argued that organizations that don't take human dignity into account are inherently unjust.

Schminke, Cropanzano and Kopp (2002) explored relationship between organizational structure and fairness perceptions. They hypothesized that several dimensions of organizational structure (centralization, formalization, size, and vertical complexity) would influence perceptions of distributive, procedural, and interactional fairness. (Schminke, 2002).

2.2 Job Satisfaction

The theoretical definition of job satisfaction includes evaluative or expectancy components. For example, Locke (1976) defined job satisfaction as a pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experience. Similarly, Mottaz (1988) regarded job satisfaction as an effective response resulting from an evaluation of the work situation. It is widely accepted that job satisfaction is a function of work-related rewards and values (Vroom, 1964; Kalleberg, 1977). Lawler (1977) noted that the distribution of organizational rewards such as pay, promotion, status, performance evaluations, and job tenure can have powerful effects on job satisfaction, quality of work life, and organizational effectiveness. Folger and Konovsky (1989) found that perceptions of distributive justice are significantly correlated with pay raise satisfaction as well as with job satisfaction (Martin & Bennet, 1996; McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992).

2.3 Organizational justice and Trust

Although a great deal of research has addressed the issue of organizational justice, little empirical research has been conducted to examine the relationships among distributive justice, procedural justice, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions in the hospitality industry. In addition, previous research on organizational justice has been conducted predominantly in laboratory settings and has overlooked how contextual elements influence the behavior of individuals within an organizational setting (Capelli & Sherer, 1991). Greenberg (1990a) argues that aspects of work environments are likely to influence employees' perceptions of fairness. Identifying the factors contributing to justice perceptions in an organizational context could provide additional insight into the area of organizational justice (Lee, 2000).

A number of studies have examined the contextual antecedents of organizational justice. For example, Kidwell and Bennet (1993) identify task characteristics and work group interaction in a study of individual motivation in groups. Goodman (1986) reports the importance of examining how the task and the context affect the behavior of individuals in groups. The findings of these studies show that how tasks are assigned and how the individual gets along with other members of the organization are both important in the formation of employee attitudes and perceptions (Lee, 2000).

Trust is essential for stable social relationship (Blau, 1964). Trust refers to an expectancy held by an individual or a group that word, promise, verbal or written statement of another individual or group may be relied upon (Beugre, 1998, P 80).

Tyler and DeGoez (1995, 403) emphasized the impact of procedural justice on trust by suggesting that "procedures that are structurally and interactively fair will engender trust in system and in the implements of decisions, whereas a lack of structural and/or interactional fairness will elicit low levels of trust." (Memarzadeh, 2010).

In an empirical study, Konovsky and Pugh (1993) found a strong correlation between subordinates' perceptions of their supervisor's procedural treatment and trust in the supervisor.

Beugre (1996, 1997) found a positive relationship between organizational justice and trust. The four justice dimensions (distributive, procedural, interactional and systemic) identified by the Beugre positively predicted trust.

2.4 Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Previous research suggests that rewards and compensation would enhance employees' in-role behavior to a certain extent (Deckop, Mangel & Cirka, 1999). However, problem arises when organizations have to increase their own effectiveness and employees' have to develop their own performance, both of which require individuals to undertake certain extra-role activities (Smith, Organ & Near, 1983). Extra-role activities are those that do not define an employee's job description and neither do employees get paid for doing them, but that are nevertheless desirable to achieve organizational as well as individual effectiveness (Deckop, Mangel & Cirka, 1999; Smith, Organ & Near, 1983). One of the more important forms of extra-role behavior is organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) which are roles played by employees above and beyond their formal role requirements (Netemeyer, Boles, McKee & Mc Murrian, 1997). It is an optional out-of-role activity performed by employees but for which they do not get any explicit reward. Organ (1988) defined organizational citizenship behavior as, "OCB represents individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization."

Moorman (1991) was among the first to research organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior. Moorman's studies examined the relationship of perceptions of fairness and OCB in two midwestern companies. He found a relationship between procedural justice and four of the five dimensions of OCB. In a different study, Niehoff and Moorman (1993) examined the results that monitoring an employee had on the results of an employee choosing to engage in extra-role behaviors. OCB and social exchange theory were studied with 475 hospital employees (Konovsky & Pugh 1994).

Konovsky and Pugh (1994) wanted to see how trust played a role in organizational justice and OCB. They found that trust might play a role in mediating the relationship of organizational justice and OCBs. Skarlicki and Latham (1996; 1997) found in their quasi-experiment that training significantly improved the perceptions of fairness in an employee over that of an untrained group. Netemeyer et al. (1997) found a direct and indirect relationship among the variables: personal fit, leadership support, fairness (justice), job satisfaction, and OCBs (Memarzadeh, 2010).

2.5 Organizational commitment

Organizational commitment has been identified as a critical factor in understanding and explaining the work-related behavior of employees in organizations. Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979) have classified approaches to the study of organizational commitment in terms of two perspectives: attitudinal and behavioral. Attitudinal perspective defines organizational commitment in terms of cognitive and affective responses and attachment to an organization. On the other hand, a behavioral perspective focuses on the behaviors that bind an individual to an organization (Memarzadeh, 2010).

2.6 Turnover intentions

Researchers have argued that organizational practices that signal investment in employees and their development should reduce organizational turnover. For example, Huselid (1995) argued that high performance work practices that contribute to employee development or motivation (e.g., promotion from within, labor-management participation teams) should enhance retention, and found evidence that these practices had a clear negative relationship with organizational turnover rates. Similarly, Shaw, Delery, Jenkins and Gupta (1998) suggested that HR practices that signal investments in human capital (e.g., pay and benefits systems) or are intended to enhance commitment (e.g., procedural fairness, participation) should reduce organizational quit rates. Despite evidence that certain HR practices at the organization level are related to organizational turnover rates, it would be an ecological fallacy to then assume that perceptions of such practices at the individual level are similarly related to individual turnover decisions. Relationships at one level of aggregation (e.g., voting district party membership and election outcomes) do not necessarily hold in the same way at another level (e.g., individual party membership and vote in a particular election). Campbell (1999) argued that it is critical to explain the relationship between these types of organizational HR practices and withdrawal at the individual level. Alexander and Ruderman (1987) reported that distributive fairness is a direct cause of turnover intentions. In this study, six organizational outcome variables including job satisfaction, turnover intentions, tension/stress, trust in management, conflict/harmony, and evaluation of supervisor were selected. They found that five of the six variables showed substantial justice effects; only tension/stress were unrelated to either procedural or distributive justice. Four of the five variables were affected more by procedural justice than by distributive

justice. Of the five variables, only turnover intentions showed a stronger effect on distributive justice than on procedural justice. This result is consistent with the findings of other investigations of the distributive fairness perceptions-turnover relationship (Finn & Lee, 1972; Telly, French, & Scott, 1971). For example, in their study, Finn and Lee (1972) divided their sample into an equity subsample and an inequity subsample based on perceived fairness of 60 salary. They found that the inequity subsample displayed higher turnover intentions than did the equity subsample (Memarzadeh, 2010).

3. Discussion

This study examined the relationship between organizational structure and organizational justice. Organizational structure was anticipated to have more positive effect on justice in Iranian public sector organizations. The results of this study support previous research on the impact of the organizational structure on the justice (Schminke et al, 2000, Masterson et al. 2000, Homans, 1974, Ambrose and Schminke 2001, Devtsch, 1985, Tornblom, 1992 and schminke et al 2002).

One especially interesting finding, in present study is the important role of organizational structure on justice perception. According to studies, justice perception in organic organizations is more than mechanical organization and distributive justice has a direct positive influence on Job satisfaction and is negatively related to turnover intentions as hypothesized. The results of this study support previous research conducted to explain the importance of the allocation phenomenon in organizations (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997, Folger & Konovsky, 1989; Lee, 2000).

Procedural justice has direct positive influence on Job satisfaction as hypothesized. This positive relationship between procedural fu and job satisfaction is consistent with the findings of Lee (200) and Tang & Sarasfield – Baldwin (1996). On the other hand procedural justice is positively associated with organizational trust (consistent with the findings of butler, 1991; kim and Mauborgne, 1995; Brockner and Siegel, 1995 and Beugrel, 1997). Kim and Marborgne (1995) argue that one may build trust through Procedural justice. Listening to employees and taking into account their concerns may help build trust between managers and they employees.

As noted earlier, procedural justice is positively associated with organizational commitment. This result is consistent with the findings of Mcfarlin and Sweeney (1992), Beugre (1996), Zeffan, 1994). MCFarlin and Sweeney (1992) found that procedural justice was a good predictor of organizational commitment.

Studies have shown that interactional justice like distributive justice has negatively related to turnover intentions, that this result is consistent with findings of Alexander and Ruderman (1987), Tyler (1988).

Darley & Delany (1992). However, it is likely that turnover depends on other variables than perception of organizational Justice alone. For instance, the viability of attractive alternatives may be likely to quit their organization when other alternatives are available (Memarzadeh, 2010).

The other importance outcome from studies is that supervisors can influence employees' citizenship behaviors. The perception of fairness that originated from interactional justice was based on whether the supervisor correctly used the procedures that were designed to promote fairness and was based on the nature of the supervisors behavior while enacting those procedural if managers want to increase citizenship behavior among their employees, they should work to increase the fairness of their interactions with employees (Moorman, 1991).

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Impact of SMEs on Employment in Textile Industry of Pakistan

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Abstract

This research investigates the impact of Small & Medium Enterprises on Employment in textile industry. Data were collected from 100 respondents from 30 organizations by using simple random technique. A structural questionnaire was developed to get reliability of the Data. Data were analyzed by using SPSS-18 version. It was revealed that SMEs are the major source of foreign exchange earnings, SMEs have a major contribution in Pakistan's GDP, A known feature of SME sector is its ability to create jobs, SMEs maintain the poverty alleviation activities through creating employment, SMEs assist in fostering a self-help and entrepreneurial culture, SMEs boost up an entrepreneurial strength which puts forward flexibility in the economy, SMEs are more capable in resource allocation as compared to large scale industries, SMEs in general consider employees as their most important resources, SMEs are pioneer in developing new products and services and finally SMEs are in general very quality minded in the products and services they provide.

Keywords: SMEs, Employment, Sector, Sindh

1. Introduction

SMEs on creation of employment, section three investigates the importance and significance of SMEs, section four addresses behavior of employer/manager in official and un-official matters with the employees, section five explores the appointment procedure in SMEs, section six discovers the contribution of SMEs to private sector employment section seven find out the contribution of SMEs to government sector employment, section eight highlights on the growth of SMEs in Sindh, section nine determines the performance/improvements of SMEs in textile industry of Pakistan during last five years, section ten assesses the role of textile industry of Pakistan in creation of job opportunities in the country, section eleven evaluates the fundamental role of textile sector in the exports of Pakistan, section twelve inspects the performance of textile sector in the development of the manufacturing sector in Pakistan and finally section thirteen observes the contribution of SMEs in employment of Pakistan.

2. Literature Review

SMEs have historically taken as an significant part in contributing to economic progress of many countries around the world (Kongolo, 2010). There is no growth when the advantages of economic improvements are utilized only by a small number of people, whereas the greater parts are being expelled (Todaro and Smith, 2003). The unconstructive effects of current economic turn down have seriously influenced the socio-economic conditions of many people universally. As a reply to these negative conditions, it is necessary that the small, medium and large entrepreneurs improve their employment formation capabilities (Barakat, 2001). It was also pointed out by the Advani (1997) that from the socio-economic development point of view, SMEs provide a variety of benefits. A well-supported and enhanced small business sector is likely to continue contributing to the economic development process in the same way as a large business (Abraham, 2003). One of the noteworthy distinctiveness of a prosperous and emergent economy is a booming and blooming small and medium enterprises (SMEs) sector (Feeney and Riding, 1997).

Feeney and Riding (1997) further argued that small and medium enterprises play an important role in the development of a country. According to Fida (2008) SMEs contribute to economic development in various ways: by creating employment for rural and urban labor force, providing desirable sustainability, and innovation in the economy as a whole. In addition to that, large number of people relies on the small and medium enterprises directly or indirectly. Cook and Nixon (2000) also gave arguments in favor of SMEs according to him the growth of SMEs is seen as the way to accelerating the accomplishment of wider socio-economic objectives, including poverty mitigation. The growth and efficiency of small enterprises have also become famous (Mazumdar, 1997). Using the case of Northern Italy, Piore and Sabel (1984) have argued that small enterprises are more efficient because they have adopted a flexible specialization approach. In the same way, there has been growing interest in whether this model has or can be replicated in developing countries (Schmitz, 1989; Pederson, 1994; Schmitz and Musyck, 1994; Schmitz, 1995). Considerable attention has been paid in the last decade to the problem of poverty-reduction in developing countries. (World Bank, 1989, 1997). It is generally agreed that the development of micro and small-scale enterprises (MSEs) can be a key ingredient in poverty-reduction (Sen, 1980 and Green et al, 2002). On the other hand, evidence shows that small-scale enterprises contribute significantly to household incomes (Liedholm *et al.*, 1994; McPherson, 1996; Kapoor *et al.*, 1997; Perks, 2004; McDade & Spring, 2005). It is also globally experienced that a well-organized SME sector is favorable to rapid industrial intensification (Hill, 2001, Llyod 2002).

3. Data Collection Methodology

Data were collected from 100 respondent from 30 organizations by using simple random technique. A structural questionnaire was developed to get reliability of the Data. Data were analyze by using SPSS-18 version.

Everyone has certain basic needs without which life would not be possible. There is no development when the benefits of economic progress are used only by a small number of people, while the majority are being excluded (Todaro and Smith, 2003 and Kongolo, 2010). The negative effects of recent economic downturns have seriously affected the socio-economic conditions of many people worldwide. As a response to these negative conditions, it is necessary that small, medium and large entrepreneurs enhance their job creation abilities (Barakat, 2001). A well supported and enhanced small business sector is likely to continue contributing to the economic development process in the same way as large business (Abraham, 2003).

The importance of cotton can hardly be over emphasized in the economy of Pakistan. Pakistan is one of the ancient homes of cultivated cotton, 4th largest producer of cotton, the 3rd largest exporter of raw cotton and a leading exporter of yarn in the world. Pakistan is, by and large, a mono-crop economy as cotton contributes nearly 10 per cent in the agriculture GDP and a source of 60 per cent foreign exchange earnings. The value addition through cotton is 8.2 per cent in agriculture and 2 per cent in the GDP. Cotton is not only an export-earning crop but also provides raw material to local textile industry. A profound investment in the form of over 1000 ginning factories, over 400, textile mills heavily depends upon cotton. The area under cotton has increased from 2.836 million ha in 1991-92 to 2.989 million ha in 2003-04 showing a growth rate of 0.43 per cent over the period. The production jumped from 1.1 million bales in the year 1947 to 12.8 million bales in 1991-92. Since then cotton production is swinging between 8 million bales to 11.2 million bales with an annual average of 9.5 million bales. The global Economic scenario is set for change under the free trade regime. Pakistan has signed the WTO and will enter in free trade era with the dawn of year 2005. The WTO has set many clauses under its various agreements like the Agreement on Agriculture (AOA), the Trade Related Intellectual Property Rights (TRIPS) and Sanitary and Phyto Sanitary (SPS) etc.

Cotton along with its products is the biggest foreign exchange earner for Pakistan and is more likely to be affected through WTO regulations. This requires a profound change in the economic policies to maintain a stable share of raw cotton and its product in world market in coming scenario. In view of the importance of this silver fibre in the economy of Pakistan, authors conducted a study to estimate its competitiveness and comparative advantage in both current and future scenario. In the static analysis, the cost of production (COP) data of cotton were collected from Agricultural Prices Commission (APCom) for the three year period from 2000-01 to 2002-03. The average financial budget of cotton was developed using the three year average of COP data and market prices of seed cotton. The social budget of cotton was developed using the economic prices of cotton and inputs. The economic or export parity price (EPP) of cotton was estimated by taking the three year average price of CIF North-Europe cotton as Pakistan exports most of cotton to this region. From the fertilizers the import parity price (IPP) of DAP and Murate of Potash were estimated. The IPP of urea was not estimated as urea was not imported in the country in the bulk quantity during the study period. The IPP of DAP and Potash was prepared on the basis of f.o.b. price (ex-USA) and by considering all handling, transportation, marketing charges on the part on the way to farmer's fields. In the calculation of social parity prices, shadow exchange rate (SER) was utilized instead of official exchange rate (OER). The tradable inputs which are not measured at import parity prices, all are weighted by SER to express their opportunity cost. In the past, cotton production and marketing was subjected to many public policy interventions. The Cotton Export Corporation was phased out and cotton economy was freed in the 1990's. With the advent of trade liberalization, most of interventions have declined. The support price policy is notional and the Trading Corporation of Pakistan (TCP) is kept as third buyer in order to avoid price crash due to cartelization of powerful syndicates especially during the bumper crop. But the TCP works as a sleeping buyer.

4. Development Experience and Changing Character of the Economy

The development experience of Pakistan has been similar to that of market oriented developing countries. In earlier years, a significant proportion of its gross domestic product (GDP) was accounted for by the agriculture sector. But the structure of Pakistan economy has shown noteworthy changes in last five decades and now it has become more industrialized. The share of agriculture has steadily declined and in contrast there has been a rise in the share of industrial sector in composition of country's GDP. For example, in 1949, the agriculture sector accounted for 60% of GDP while manufacturing, mining and quarrying, public administration and defence, wholesale and retail trade accounted for 6%, 0.11%, 4%, and 11%, respectively. A perceptible drift towards transformation of the economy emerged during last five decades. Among the low-income countries, Pakistan is listed in the "three top growth performer" i.e. Sri Lanka, China, Pakistan (Husain, I., 1999).

If we compare Pakistan's development experiences with other developing countries having the same income level, Pakistan was not only late in developing, its industrial sector but also late to reap the fruits of liberalized trade conditions after World War II. The main exports of the country were primary commodities. Until 1960, Pakistan Industrial Development Corporation (PIDC) set up many state enterprises, which were producing a wide range of manufacturing goods. However, unfortunately, inefficiency and corruption of management in state enterprises led to significant losses. Furthermore, private investors were hesitant to invest in those sectors where state enterprises had invested to avoid competition. Private investment is only witnessed in small scale production like rice and saw milling, Cotton and weaving apparel, and household handicrafts (Khan, 1999).

It was in the 1960s when Pakistan changed policy of industrialization via state enterprises. Reduction in direct involvement in the manufacturing sector and a supportive role of state for private investment can be seen in the second five-year plan (1960-65). The government relinquished its control over import prices, and industrial investments and in addition to this incentives were granted to private investment. During 1960s rapid investment was observed due to investment in import substituting industries like fertilizer, cement, edible oil, chemicals, machines and tool industries. The inflow of Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) was stimulated and the modern industrial sector was created.

<Insert Table 1 Here>

<Insert Table 2 Here>

In contrast to the 1970s, economic growth during the 1980s was accelerated and the economy obtained impressive growth rates except in 1983, when the economy grew by only 3%. Meanwhile, economy also had undergone one of the strongest retrieval with the growth rate reaching 10% in 1982, the highest in two decades (Hassan, 1999). Various factors were responsible for the reversal of economic trend.

Firstly, the decrease in oil prices since 1982 benefited the country critically, reducing the trade deficit sizably and therefore helping to moderate foreign borrowing. Manufacturing industries also benefited from large cost

reduction from lower energy prices while consumer purchasing power increased due to better terms of trade as a result of the reduction of oil prices.

Secondly, the depreciation of Pakistani rupee due to adoption of Managed Floated Exchange Rate System in 1982 helped export-oriented industries. The exchange rate policy helped to open up the global market to local industries. Exports started to pick up rapidly, growing at around 25% in 1980, 28% in 1986 and 30% in 1990 (Ibid).

Thirdly, the recovery of various commodity prices also contributed to rapid growth in agriculture and industrial sectors which were stagnant during 1970s. This recovery in both sectors increased the purchasing power of the masses.

It is clear from the above discussion that global economic trends have had a noteworthy effect on the economy of Pakistan. In the early 1980s prolonged recession in developed market economies, increased energy prices, high interest rates and depressed commodity prices led to a slowdown of the economy. These global economic trends also affected domestic economic stability in term of increase trade, current account deficit and debt-servicing burden, higher rates of inflation, larger government fiscal deficits, and instability in domestic financial market as interest rate increased. However, in response to the turnaround of world economic trend in later half of 1980s, Pakistan's economy observed high growth rates.

In spite of favourable economic trends of global market, the government adopted several measures to contribute to the upturn of domestic market in the 1980s. Among others, the adoption of more flexible management of exchange rate and the devaluation of rupee was distinctly beneficial to continued export expansion. Moreover, the increased inflow of workers remittances earned the necessary foreign exchange to finance industrial development and resource-based industries, availability of low cost labour for the development of labour-intensive industries and the stable economic environment made possible by sensible management.

Table 3 also indicates the performance of economy overall and sector wise since 1990 up to 2005. The examination of data shows that the growth rate of GDP of Pakistan throughout the period under study has been inconsistent. This inconsistency in the growth rate of GDP is because Pakistan's economy still has a large agriculture component. Moreover Pakistan's Cotton sector was developed due to agriculture nature of economy. Cotton is a major component of the manufacturing sector, which depends on cotton production. If the production of cotton is good, it further leads to grow manufacturing sector. This dominance of the agricultural sector is reflected in the table as well. For example, the years when the performance of the agriculture sector was very poor, the performance of industrial and services sectors were also poor. The examination of data presented in below table clearly show interdependence of industrial and services sectors over the agriculture. At the aggregate level, the composition of country's GDP shows the same trends.

<Insert Table 3 Here>

It seems that the frequent changes in government policies arising from the changes in government these years affected the performance of the economy adversely. Among others, not only weather unpredictability, pests, disease, and other natural disaster harm crops production but also inconsistent agriculture policies of government made it worse. Due to such a considerable share of agriculture in the economy, agriculture production is highly correlated to Pakistan's overall economic performance (Ali and Bari, 2000). When the agriculture sector has performed well, the GDP has been elevated and vice versa. Agriculture sector supplies raw material for the Cotton sector as well for sugar mill. Agriculture is not only important for its contribution to GDP but due to its forward linkage effect. However, at the aggregate level the performance of the economy seems not to be so bleak. During the period under study the economy grew on average greater than 5 % as the data reflects. Even today, the agricultural sector is the major contributor in the economy accounting for 25 % of the GDP, absorbing more than half of country's total labour force and providing more than 70 % of country's foreign exchange earnings.

Similarly, Table 4 shows the composition of country's GDP and the share of major sectors in its composition. As discussed above, the agriculture sector provides a lion's share in the composition of GDP accounting for more than 25 % of total GDP. While the share of industrial sectors is around 18 %, the services sectors account for 53 % in 2005. However, the examination of data reflects the declining share of the agriculture in the country's GDP, while the share of industry seems to be stagnant. On the other hand, the services sectors are gaining the losing share of the agricultural sector.

<Insert Table 4 Here>

On the basis of the above facts, we may conclude that Pakistan's development experience has been remarkable. Its economic record measured both in terms of growth rates and increase in per capita income despite a quadruple increase in population shows encouraging trends. A good structural transformation in the structure of the economy

has taken place from the predominantly agrarian to a more diversified production structure. The country's integration with the international economy has been fairly rapid and the positive effects of adoption of liberalization and deregulation policies have been pouring in.

5. The Evolution of Economic Development Policies of Pakistan

In the early years, country's economic policy was shaped according to the immediate needs of the economy. Key aspects of economic policy were expansion of industrial base, establishment of institution, infrastructure building and provide extra protection to infant industries. But the excessive protection to industry severely harmed market economy by distorted economic incentives for both agriculture and industrial sectors. Moreover, the policy regime was branded by an excessive dependence on economic controls in the form of industrial licensing, administered prices and other regulations.

During the first half of 1950s, government adapted pro-industrial policy and neglected the agriculture sector. Subsequently, low growth rate of agriculture not only exposed the flaws of economic policy but shortage of food emerged. In the later half of 1950s government began to pay more attention on the development of agriculture sector to rectify these problems. Government announced a thorough strategy for development of agriculture sector in 1956. The key points of new policy were to provide fertilizer at subsidies rate, to distribute better seeds, pest control scheme, and control of salinity and water-logging. However, these policies were not properly implemented due to change of priorities in first five years plan (1955-60) and political instability.

Strict price and profit controls policy in the form of administered price and controlled profit was implemented in the early 1960s but government soon realized that this policy is weakening the incentives to expand production. To promote industrial growth government constructed number of policies like maintaining an over-valued exchange rate to guarantee the cheap availability of capital goods, and by keeping prices of agriculture inputs below to international market prices to ensure handiness of economical domestic inputs to industrial sector. Furthermore, policy of import controls and tariffs, tax holidays, and availability of loans at low rates and introduction of Export Bonus Scheme (Note 1), which subsidized manufactured goods exports through a system of vouchers (Kemal, 1978), were introduced to help industrialization drive.

As mentioned earlier that agriculture was neglected sector in 1950s but in 1960s government introduced agriculture policy aiming at self-sufficiency in food and reducing unemployment. These policies were accompanied by not only scientific and technological breakthroughs i.e. high-yielding varieties of seeds (HYV), chemical fertilizers, pesticides etc., but also spread of agriculture mechanization. Due to these factors annual growth galloped to 6.4% in the second half of 1960s from 2.2% in the same period of 1950s (for more details please see table in appendix). Furthermore land reforms (Note 2) were also introduced in 1960s but due to administration constraints they were not implemented properly.

The 1970s witnessed socialist oriented reforms and policies. In response to growing income inequalities government not only nationalized large private manufacturing and financial institution but also introduced land reform in 1972. But the results of land reforms were not different from the previous decade mainly due to poor implementation and low amount of coverage. Government devalued the rupee in 1972 to improve the competitiveness of Pakistan's exports.

The economic policies during the 1980s accorded high preferences to the revival of confidence of private investors, which was shaken in the previous decade due to nationalization of industrial and financial institution. Government not only denationalised many public sector enterprises but also provided number of incentives to restore private investment. Furthermore, government introduced many structural reforms for the liberalization and deregulating the economy, and simplifying investment-licensing procedure. In spite of all this repair work, the response of private sector was very poor. But, by the mid of 1980s, positive trends were witnessed and the share of private investment jumped up from 41% in 1980-81 to 44% in 1989-90 (Hassan, 1999).

The liberalization of agriculture market was the main objective of agriculture policy of 1980s. Especially, the government deregulated the sugar, fertilizer, and pesticide industries, removed the monopoly authority of the Rice and Cotton Export Corporations, and more importantly remove the ban on the private sector's import of edible oil (Ibid). These all measures were accompanied by the agriculture pricing policy that aimed at bring prices of inputs more in line with the market-determined prices. Further, the agriculture sector enhanced from a huge increase in bank credit as formal lending institutions, led by the Agriculture Development Bank, paid crucial concentration to solve the problem of shortage of credit in the rural area.

Managed Floating Exchange Rate (Note 3) policy was the hallmark of the 1980s. On average, due to adoption of this policy, total exports grew at a notable rate of 10% during this decade. In addition to all these policies

government introduced reforms in much neglected sector of finance, whose performance was very poor due to excessive regulations through credit ceilings and administered interest rates. Furthermore, a series of measures in financial sector were adopted like removing distortion in financial system, minimizing interference of government in the banking system, strengthening the prudential regulations, and allowing the opening of foreign currency accounts.

Regardless of political instability and frequent change in the government during 1990s, the Structural Adjustment and Stabilization Program adopted in 1988 remained intact. These programs helped economy in adjusting demand management policies and trade policies in the form of liberalization in trade, deregulation and privatisation. The major thrust of the industrial policy during 1990s was to address the structural weaknesses of industrial sector of Pakistan which were derived from import substitution industrialization and the nationalization policy of 1970s. Moreover, to improve the workability of Pakistan's industrial sector in progressively competitive global economic environment. In this regard number of measures was introduced, like tax holidays, fiscal incentives, de-licensing the investment regime and reduction of tariff on capital goods to attract private investment. Although these incentives have a significance positive impact on private investment but growth of industrial production was slow as correlate to prior decade, seemingly reflecting a delayed effect of investment on output growth.

Only one percent tax was levied on engineering, consultancy and contracting in order to increase export of services. Moreover, government not only allowed exporter to take rebate on customs duty, sales tax and surcharges through duty drawback facility but also standardized the rate of duty drawbacks as a percentage of free on board (Note 4) value of exports. In addition, other export promotion measures, like, provision of loans to exporters at low rate of interest by export finance scheme, and financial assistance to exporters seeking quality certification in respect of ISO 9000 and 14000 series certification, were taken. To attract foreign direct investment, in the export sector, export-processing zones were established at Lahore and Karachi.

In the opening year of 21st century, government introduced two measures in the area of foreign trade: firstly, to explore new markets and diversify trade and, secondly, to reduce imports. Through trade diversification explored new markets for its exports. As a result of the policy, Pakistan's exports to Indonesia went up 161%; China by 75%; the UAE and Saudi Arabia by 25%; Bangladesh by 20%; and Korea and Australia by 9% (Ministry of Commerce, 2001). All other countries except UAE and Saudi Arabia were the non-traditional markets in the context of Pakistan's previous export pattern. Moreover, Pakistan made serious efforts to introduce its exports in the markets, like, Kenya, Nigeria, and Syria.

The maximum trade tariffs were reduced from 30% to 25% on June 30, 2002 with regard to trade liberalization. Moreover, government established three tariff categories with duty rates of 25%, 15%, and 5%. Thirty items were banned on health, religion, security and environment grounds, and high duties ranging 80% to 200% faced by automobile industry (Ministry of Commerce, 2002). Table 5 presents the country's total exports, imports and balance of trade over the last fifteen years. It also shows the ratio of countries to its imports and the ratio of country's trade deficit with that of country's GDP. These ratios help us to gauge the relationship between country's overall economic development and its effects on the country's overall foreign trade. The examination of data shows that on average, the performance of exports remained comparatively good in the first half of the decade when export grew at the average rate of about 6% per annum. But in contrast, it grew at the average rate of only 3.5 % per annum in the later half of the 1990s. Similarly, annual average rate of growth of imports in the first half was 9 % and declined to 2 % in the later half of the decade. This slump both in exports and imports was mainly due to the various sanctions imposed by the developed countries due to the nuclear test of Pakistan and due to slump in economic activity to some extent. Similar trends are visible in the country's trade deficits. For example, trade deficit touched its peaked amounting to around US\$ 3 billion in 1996-97, and then decreased until 2002/2003 and then rose to more than US\$ 5 billion in the year 2004/2005. This increase in trade deficit was mainly due to the higher increase in imports as compared to exports as is evident from Table 5.

<Insert Table 5 Here>

It is obvious from the above discussion that the economic structure of Pakistan has witnessed a massive transformation over the years. As we discussed earlier that there is a strong positive correlation between a country's economic development and the evolution of country's composition of foreign trade. This correlation is evident from the examination of Pakistan's trade statistics of foreign trade. Accordingly, Table 5 shows the country's classification of exports over the period under review.

Table 6 illustrates positive trends of structural changes accrued in the exports of Pakistan over the years. These trends seem to be in accordance with the country's economic development as discussed above. As a result there has been steady and considerable decrease in the share of primary commodities and semi-manufactures. On the

contrary, the share of manufactured exports increased considered over the years. For example, as data shows, share of the primary commodities and semi manufactures declined from 32% and 24 % to 16% and 22% between 1969/70 and 1995/96 and further to 10% each of the country's total exports. On the other hand, the share of manufactures goods increased from 44 % to 62 % and further 80% during the same period.

<Insert Table 6 Here>

6. Significance of the Cotton Sector in the Economy

The purpose of this section is just to provide an overview and the role of the Cotton industry in the economy of Pakistan. However, next chapter will be devoted to examine the various aspects of Pakistan's Cotton industry both within the domestic and international context.

The Cotton sector –being the largest sector of the economy- has been playing an important role in the national economy of Pakistan since the independence. Even today, it is the country's most important and prime sector. Its share in the economy, in terms of contribution to GDP, employment, investment, to value added industry, exports and foreign exchange earnings is remarkable. The large contribution of the Cotton industry in the country's national economy makes it the single largest determinant of growth in the manufacturing sector. The Cotton industry contributes around 46 % of the overall manufacturing activities, 31 % of total investment and 35 % of country's labour force is related to this sector. Similarly, the share of the Cotton in the country's total exports is as high as around 60 % as is evident from the Figure 1.

<Insert Figure 1 Here>

The examination of data shows that, over the years, Pakistan has emerged as a major supplier of cotton Cotton in the world markets. Pakistan contributes around 31 % market share in world yarn trade and 8 % share in cloth. In the apparel, however, it is a new entrant. Its share is low around 1 % in world trade of apparel (PES, 2004-05).

7. Scope and Limitations

Next only to food, Cotton products are basic human requirements. The Cotton industry in Pakistan has been the most important sector playing a pivotal role in the national economy. Its contribution is unparalleled in the economy, in terms of GDP, exports, employment, Foreign Exchange Earnings (FEEs), investment and contribution to the value-added industry. It is the single largest determinant of growth in manufacturing sector. The sector is based mostly on the domestic availability of raw materials in abundance. The industry provides the largest employment (38 % of total employment). It is the major contributory sector in earning the foreign exchange for the country. Its contribution in the FEEs is around 70 % of total exports, 46% of total manufacturing, 8.5 % of total GDP, 31 % of total investment and 12 % of total capitalization. Over the years, Pakistan has emerged as major suppliers of cotton Cotton in the world markets with a 31 % market share in world yarn trade and 8 % share in cloth (www.aptna.org.pk). In the apparel, however, it is a new entrant with a low share (around 1 %) in world trade of apparel.

This research endeavours to investigate the trade implications for Pakistan in the world market after implementation of WTO. The research focuses on the investigation of opportunities and threats for Pakistan in view of globalisation. However, the scope of the research is limited with a few limitations. Firstly, at the disaggregate level, Pakistan's trade relations with major economies are discussed with limited Cotton items in view. Secondly, there are some countries which have not been discussed because of their limited share in Cotton trade with Pakistan. The Cotton items selected for the study are those with a minimum of 2 % market share in the total Cotton trade of Pakistan. The major markets examined are United Kingdom, Germany, Italy, France, Spain, The Netherlands, Belgium, USA and China. These countries are the leading consumers of Pakistan's Cotton and, in consequence, the leading importers. Besides these selected countries, attention is also paid to main developments in the countries, especially to Turkey, India, China, Hungary, Poland and the Czech Republic who seem to be Pakistan's major competitors in the world market by producing and exporting the same product mix.

More importantly, the EU is the major trading partner of Pakistan and as of 1st of January 1999, the Euro (€) has become the legal currency within eleven EU member states: Austria, Belgium, Finland, France, Germany, Italy, Ireland, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Spain, and Portugal. Greece became the 12th member state to adopt the Euro on January 1, 2001. In 2002 circulation of Euro coins and banknotes replaced national currency in these countries. Denmark, United Kingdom and Sweden have decided not to participate in the Euro. The most recent Eurostat trade statistics quoted in this study are from the year 2001. In this research, the € is the basic currency unit used to indicate the value of exports and imports with EU and US \$ for the rest of the world. The collection of data regarding trade flows has become more difficult since the establishment of the single market on 1 January 1993. Until that date, trade was registered by means of compulsory Customs procedures at border crossings, but, since

the removal of the intra-EU borders, this is no longer the case. Statistical bodies like Eurostat can no longer depend on the automatic generation of trade figures. In the case of intra-EU trade, statistical reporting is only compulsory for exporting and importing firms whose trade exceeds a certain annual value. As a consequence, although figures for trade between the EU and the rest of the world are accurately represented, trade within the EU is generally underestimated. Not only are the figures a little less accurate, but trade statistics also does not tell about the country of origin of a product when imported from an EU country. Many products originated in countries outside the EU are exported to an EU country via another EU country. This fact will most likely result in too-low figures for individual EU countries' imports from developing countries including Pakistan.

The most difficult thing faced in the study remained the collection of data from Pakistan. It was a big challenge to find out the data for the most recent years as well as those for before 1971. Shared information of East (now Bangladesh) and West Pakistan also created uncertainty. As there are only few sources at government level to provide such information, hence I relied on private sources. Furthermore, the information used in this study is obtained from a variety of different sources. Therefore, extreme care must be taken in the qualitative use and interpretation of quantitative data, both in the summary and throughout the text.

8. Product Characteristics

There is a huge variety of Cotton products used now-a-days in the world. Pakistan is producing most of the Cotton products and is exporting most of them. The Cotton industry of Pakistan can be classified into cotton Cotton industry, chemical/man-made fibre, woven Cotton industry and Cotton made-ups and clothing industry. These products further can be divided into many products. Figure 2 gives a breakdown of Cotton cluster while a brief product detail is give below.

<Insert Figure 2 Here>

8.1 Cotton industry

Cotton is considered the largest revenue-earning crop in the world. Cotton is a natural vegetable fibre used primarily as a raw material for cloth. Cotton's strength, absorbency, and capacity to be washed and dyed also make it adaptable to a considerable variety of Cotton products. It grows best in tropical and warm subtropical latitudes. Cotton is the most used Cotton fibre in the world. Its current market share is 56 percent in all the fibres used for apparel and home furnishings. It is also widely used in non-woven Cotton and personal care items.

8.2 Chemical/manmade fibre

Greater portion of the global fabric trade is comprised of the manmade woven fabric. This fabric is manufactured from various manmade filaments and fibres including polyester, nylon, acrylic and viscose etc. The applications of such fabrics is not limited to industrial use only, it is also used to manufacture winter clothing, women garments and sports gear.

8.3 Woven fabric Cotton

The woven fabric segment of Cotton is not limited to cotton fabrics alone. With the passage of time, a wide variety of different fibres have been artificially developed which can be blended with cotton in different proportions to give certain character to the cloth, depending upon its end use. Similarly a diverse range of synthetic and artificial filaments also contribute significantly in the global production of fabric. Broadly fabric can be classified into two groups, firstly, cotton and blends and secondly, synthetic and artificial.

8.4 Cotton made-ups and clothing industry

Cotton made-ups and clothing sectors are very huge and they include both household Cotton products (blankets, bed linen, bath linen, kitchen linen etc) and furnishing Cotton (window covering, bedspreads and other furnishing Cotton like decorative pillowcases, throw rugs etc) as well as clothing industry that includes every kind of garments.

9. Sources of Information

The following sources of information with respect to data collection (otherwise referred where appropriate) have mainly been used with thanks in this research:

- Government of Pakistan, Export Promotion Bureau of Pakistan (various issues)
- All Pakistan Cotton Mills Association (APTMA) www.apتما.org.pk
- Cotton Central Research Institute (CCRI) Multan
- WTO official web site www.wto.org.

- South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation (SAARC)
- World Development Report (1985)
- General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) (1994)
- Monthly Management Accountant December 2004.

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Notes

- Note 1. This Bonus Voucher often carried a high premium in the market as were automatically issued against the voucher. More than 80% of the local export subsidies import licenses were accounted for this scheme.
- Note 2. Land Reforms determine the ceiling of landholdings (Land Reforms of 1960 prescribed ceiling of landholdings at 500 acres of irrigated and 1000 acres of non-irrigated land)
- Note 3. Manage Floating exchange Rate is the system under which a country’s exchange rate is not pegged, but the monetary authorities try to manage it rather than leaving it to be set by the market.
- Note 4. The value of exports when they are placed on a ship, lorry or aeroplane to leave a country.

Table 1. Share of Textiles in Employment

Sub-sector	Number of peoples
Ginning	10,000
Spinning	201,152
Weaving	294,213
Knitting	47,221
Processing and Finishing	61,206
Stitching	734,805
Total	1,348,597

Source: Iqbal et al (2010) Development of Textile Industrial Clusters in Pakistan.

Table 2. Textile Industry’s Economic Contribution

Exports	54% of Total Exports (US \$ 9.57Billion)
Manufacturing	46% of Total Manufacturing
Employment	38% of Total Labor Force
GDP	8.5% of Total GDP
Investment	US \$ 7.0 Billion
Market Capitalization (Listed Companies)	5.0% of Total Market Capitalization

Source: Pakistan Economic Survey, SBP, TDAP and APTMA, 2010

Table 3. Growth Rates of GDP and its Components

Year	Commodity Producing			Services sector	GDP %
	Agriculture	Mining & Quarrying	Manufacturing		
1949-60	1.7	10.4	7.8	3.9	3.1
1960-70	5.1	8.5	9.9	7.5	6.8
1970-77	1.6	4.2	3.8	5.9	4
1977-82	4	8.3	10.6	7.4	6.8
1982-88	3.8	10.5	7.6	7.5	6.5
1988-90	4.1	10.1	7.9	7.4	6.5
1990-95	4.84	4	5.54	5.2	5.18
1995-99	3.76	4.4	2.02	4.85	4.71
1999-00	6.09	3.67	1.53	4.15	3.91
2000-01	-2.2	0.5	9.3	3.1	1.8
2001-02	0.12	1.3	5.5	4.8	3.12
2002-03	4.09	4.9	6.91	5.3	5.13
2003-04	2.2	6.9	14.1	6	6.44
2004-05 p	7.6	8.9	12.5	7.9	8.23

Source: Economic Survey of Pakistan, Various Issues

Note: services include construction, electricity and gas, trade, transport, finance and insurance, ownership and dwelling, public administration and defence and 'other' services.

Table 4. Distribution of Sectoral Share in GDP (%age)

Years	Agriculture	Manufacturing	Services	Others	Total
1949-50	53.2	7.8	25.15	13.85	100
1959-60	45.8	12	35.21	6.99	100
1969-70	38.9	16	40.2	4.9	100
1979-80	30.6	17	45.04	7.36	100
1990-91	25.68	17.71	48.45	8.16	100
1994-95	24.65	18.17	48.77	8.41	100
1999-00	25.93	16.69	49.06	8.32	100
2000-01	25.1	15.9	51.8	7.2	100
2001-02	24.4	16.1	52.7	6.8	100
2002-03	24.2	16.4	52.9	6.5	100
2003-04	23.3	17.6	52.6	6.5	100
2004-05	23.10p	18.30p	52.40p	6.2	100

Source: Economic Survey of Pakistan, Various Issues

Table 5. Pakistan's Exports, Imports and Balance of Trade (In 2000-01 Prices*)

(Million US \$)

Years	Total Exports	Total Imports	Balance of Trade	Exports as %age of Imports	Trade Deficit as %age of GDP
1990-91	5,913	7,345	-1,432	80.5	-8.1
1991-92	6,502	8,713	-2,211	74.6	-10.5
1992-93	6,098	8,897	-2,800	68.5	-11.2
1993-94	6,480	8,157	-1,677	79.4	-6.1
1994-95	7,016	8,962	-1,946	78.3	-6
1995-96	7,230	9,802	-2,572	73.8	-6.6
1996-97	7,363	10,526	-3,163	70.0	-7.2
1997-98	7,449	8,735	-1,286	85.3	-2.6
1998-99	7,247	8,786	-1,540	82.5	-2.8
1999-00	7,781	9,361	-1,580	83.1	-2.6
2000-01	9,202	10,729	-1,527	85.8	-2.3
2001-02	8,875	10,046	-1,171	88.3	-1.6
2002-03	10,073	11,029	-957	91.3	-1.3
2003-04	10,483	13,275	-2,792	79.0	-3.4
2004-05	11,720	16,773	-5,053	69.9	-5.2
2005-06	12,627	21,913	-9,286	57.6	-8.4

Source: Economic Survey of Pakistan (Various Issues).

*Average Exchange Rate During Base Year (2000-01) was 1\$=Rs.58.58.

Note: For current Prices please see table 5 in Appendix A.

Table 6. Classification of Pakistan's Exports (%age Share in Total Exports)

Years	Primary Commodities	Semi-Manufactures	Manufactures Goods
1969-70	33	24	44
1979-80	42	15	43
1989-90	20	24	56
1990-91	19	24	57
1991-92	19	21	60
1992-93	15	21	64
1993-94	10	24	66
1994-95	11	25	64
1995-96	16	22	62
1996-97	11	21	68
1997-98	13	17	70
1998-99	12	18	70
1999-00	12	15	73
2000-01	13	15	72
2001-02	11	14	75
2002-03	11	11	78
2003-04	10	12	78
2004-05	10	10	80

Source: Economic Survey of Pakistan, various issues.

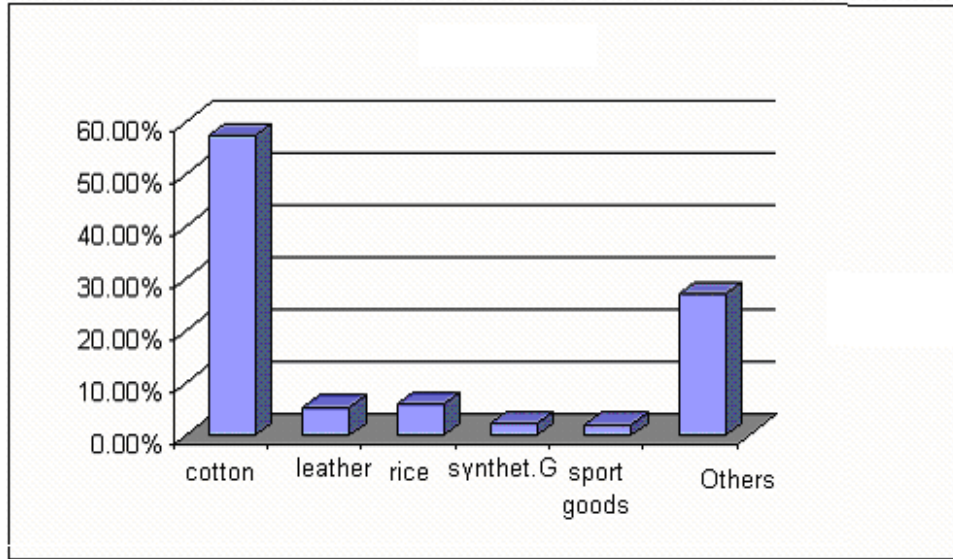


Figure 1. Pakistan's Major Exports (2004-05)

Source: Economic Survey of Pakistan, 2004-05

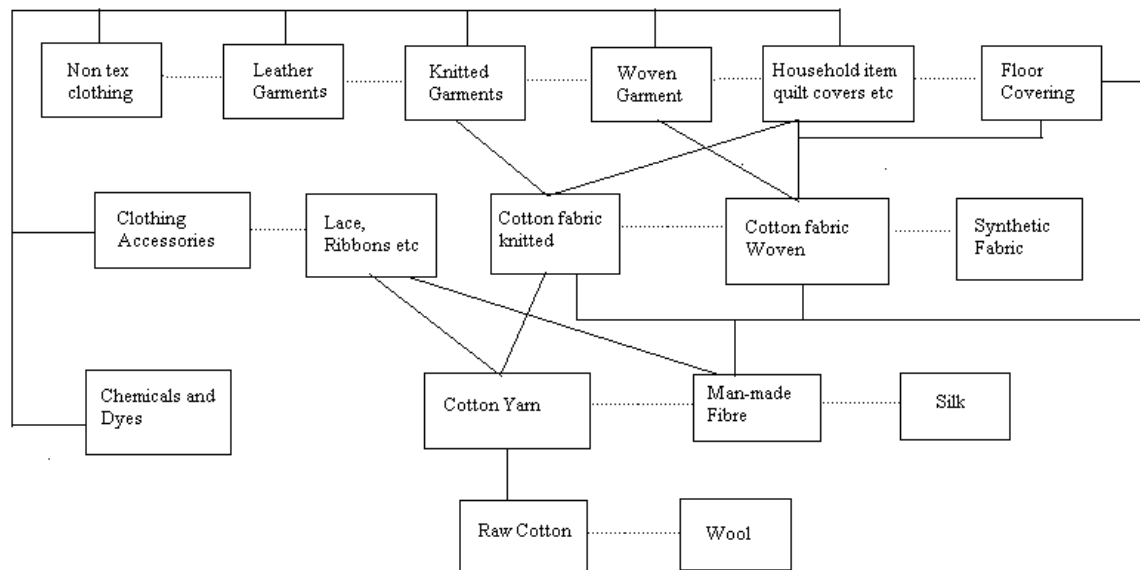


Figure 2. The Textile based Cotton/clothing cluster - Pakistan

Source: Bari (2003), p.112

Key related industries

_____ supplier industries

Malaysian Graduates English Adequacy in the Job Sector

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Abstract

Historically, the use of the English Language in Malaysia, then Malaya, dates back to the Colonial times. This shows there has been a legacy of English usage in the nation. Recently, in view of globalization and increasing competition among nations in the world, there has been a renewed emphasis on the importance of English. This study hopes to provide some feedback from four industries in Kemaman about the adequacy of our new graduates. This study focused on two GLCs and two private sector companies in Kemaman, Terengganu. However, the findings can be applicable to companies throughout the country, be they GLC's, government or private sector. Although only 115 respondents from the supervisory level upwards have been selected as the sample, these 115 respondents can be representative of the work sector not only in Kemaman, Terengganu but in the entire nation. Based on the findings, the speaking, writing, social skills and overall English proficiency of new graduates were found to be not adequate. Future researchers should focus on the need for a new syllabus design which gives scope for the development of soft skills such as interpersonal skills, speaking skills and socializing skills.

Keywords: GLC, Working need, Job market, Language skills, Social skills

1. Introduction

This study aimed to find out whether the work sector finds the English Language proficiency of the new graduates is adequate to need of the workplace. The focus is to identify whether lack of English proficiency will contribute to poor market value among new graduates and it is hoped that the findings would help the ministry in modifying the curriculum to be in tune with the needs of the job market. This study aimed to find out which aspect of the language proficiency skills that has been found wanting by the work sector. It is hoped that this feedback would be useful to policy planners and curriculum designers in coming up with English curriculum which will be in tandem with the needs of the job market.

The advent of Information Technology and globalization has made English Language proficiency imperative for most countries in the world especially the developing countries. Foreign investors appear to prefer English speaking countries. In the past, the Malaysian economy was based on commodities such as rubber, tin and oil palm. In the 80's, the focus of the Malaysian economy shifted from the agriculture sector to the industrial sector. In response to this new development, the government has correctly emphasized on the learning of English to facilitate the acquiring of new knowledge and skills so that a knowledge-based economy would be in place.

Globalization has put all nations on a competitive level and organizations both public and private are seeking to get more competent graduates who are skilled in the language. Therefore, this study focuses on whether the products of the education system have a level of language competency which is adequate to the needs of the job sector.

McDonough, (1997) advocates getting feedback from the work sector. This is what this study hopes to achieve. Jerrems, (2006) said that the lack of English proficiency has many consequences including occupational segregation. It is the fact that poor English proficiency may affect employment prospect.

2. Literature Review

2.1 *The importance of English*

According to Nich, (2005), long before the diversification in degree programs that we see now, an English qualification was the most assured ticket of success at the workplace. Newman et. al. (1997), mentioned the importance of cognitive, affective, instructional, curricular, and school-based factors which are vital for English speaking and reading skills. However, they stressed the need for curriculum to take into account the pragmatic requirements when designing curriculum.

2.2 *English Proficiency and Career Success*

English is now a global language. All over the globe including France and Germany, people are clamoring to learn English. Academics have no dispute with the view that English Language is related to success in career. Mahmoud A. Al-Khatib, (2005) from the University of Auckland, New Zealand has studied the use of English by tourism and banking personnel and attempted to examine the communication needs of the personnel in the workplace by seeking their opinions on their perception of what constituted English which is deemed adequate to the workplace. Another author Shanta Nair-Venugopal (2000), in an article titled, 'English, identity and the Malaysian workplace' has found out that English is increasingly important in the workplace. According to Chowdhury (2005), "Quality is defined by the customers". In this case, the customers are the work sector and are the appropriate party to assess the quality of the English of the new graduates.

Ball and Chik (2001), stated that successful school leavers upon completing their higher learning session, would seek various employment opportunity in the job market. They found a significant relationship between income levels and gender, duration of employment, self-esteem, ownership, academic major and "English proficiency".

3. Methodology

3.1 *Research Design*

Zikmund (2003), stressed the need of the research design in carrying out research. As this study involves both descriptive and inferential statistics, a survey was carried out using a set of questionnaire. Sekaran (2003) defined the questionnaire as a pre-formulated written set of questions. The instrument for this study was self-developed. The instrument was intended to elicit answers with which all the research questions can be answered.

3.2 *The Questionnaire*

According to Malhotra and Naresh (2004), there are two types of questions; structured and unstructured questions. The questionnaire for this study will elicit both ordinal and nominal data. The instrument will be pilot tested prior to its use.

3.3 *Population and Sampling procedure*

In this study the population is taken to mean the staff of government linked companies (GLC's) and private agencies around Kemaman district in Terengganu. Out of this target population, a sample of 115 was selected which consisted of 70 respondents from the private sector while 45 respondents were from the GLC's. Questionnaires was distributed and later collected and analyzed.

4. Results and Discussion

4.1 *Answering Research Questions*

Research Question 1: Does the job market find the speaking skills of the new graduates adequate to the working need?

<Insert Table 1 Here>

Table 1 shows the score of the speaking skills of the new graduates. In term of perception of the sample, the score is only 60.6%. Therefore, it can be concluded that the new graduates do not have speaking skills which is appropriate to the working need.

Research Question 2: Does the job market find the writing skills of the new graduates adequate to the working

need?

<Insert Table 2 Here>

The table above shows the score of the writing skills of the new graduates. The score is only 64.2% as responded by the samples. Therefore, the new graduates do not have writing skills which is adequate to the working need.

Research Questions 3: Does the job market find the social skills of the new graduates adequate to the working need?

<Insert Table 3 Here>

Table 3 shows that the score of the social skills of the new graduates only amounted to 60.9% according to the perception of the sample. Therefore by the definition of this study, the new graduates do not have social skills adequate to the working need. This is not surprising as the social skills are much related to listening and speaking skills. If a person does not have adequate speaking and listening skills, there may be problems with the interaction skills which are the cornerstone of social skills.

Research Question 4: Does the job market find the overall proficiency level of the new graduates adequate to the working need?

<Insert Table 4 Here>

Table 4 shows the mean scores as obtained from the 115 respondents for the four main language skills as well as the social skills of the new graduates. Additionally, the mean for the overall English proficiency is also shown. As can be seen from table 4 above, the overall English proficiency score is 147.5 or 64.1% of the total mean possible. Therefore, it is found that the job market does not find the overall proficiency level of the new graduates adequate to the working need. However, the reading skill is found to be adequate to the working need as the score of 72.3% was obtained and this is more than the needed 70% benchmark set for this study. This is not surprising as reading is a receptive skill and most new graduates are better in the receptive skills compared to the productive skills

5. Conclusion

In conclusion, the new graduates in Malaysia are not proficient in English Language. They are still not widely marketable in the job market due to a lack of English proficiency and this is costing the nation a great deal of money. Money save on retraining programs can be utilized elsewhere like upgrading libraries around the country. Graduates with good English proficiency are vital manpower in the nation's quest to create a K-economy where the knowledge of the populace would be a pulling factor in attracting foreign direct investment.

Malaysia would be hard put to compete with more advanced and well established manufacturing industries in a liberalized economy which frowns on trade protectionism. The best alternative would be to fortify a knowledge based service industry and this requires a sound knowledge of English. Thus, it can be seen the learning of English in not merely for the sake of social vanity, it is related to our economic survival in the post 2000 era of globalization. The education system should take serious steps to improve the soft skills of the students. According to newspaper reports, employers frequently lament that many recent graduates lack vital soft skills such as interpersonal skills, communicating skills, negotiating skills, persuading skills and other vital skills inherent in communication.

Curriculum designers and policy planners should review the current syllabus which emphasizes on work book drilling to master grammatical accuracy. As a result of this mode of learning, students are at the loss when it comes to real world communication. There is a need to improve students' fluency by a curriculum which gives ample opportunities for a student to develop interpersonal and presentation skills. The education system should emphasize fluency over accuracy and provide students with plenty opportunities to do presentations and role plays. Exercises of this sort would remove the speaking inhibition and increase the students' level of fluency, which would stand him in good stead when he enters the job sector. Accuracy of language and grammar should be introduced inductively by greater exposure to listening and reading. Consistent reading can improve grammar inductively. This was shown by Elley, W. B. (1991) in his book *fluency studies*. There is a need for policy planners and curriculum designers to go back to the drawing board. We may be producing graduates who are sufficiently knowledgeable in their area of study but inadequate in English Language proficiency and the soft skills which depend on sound English proficiency.

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Table 1. Speaking Skills of the New Graduates at the Workplace

Component of English Skills	Mean Percentage against maximum mean
Speaking	60.6

Table 2. Writing Skills of the New Graduates at the Workplace

Component of English Skills	Mean Percentage against maximum mean
Writing	64.2

Table 3. Social Skills of the New Graduates at the Workplace

Component of English Skills	Mean Percentage against maximum mean
Listening	65.6
Speaking	60.6
Social	60.9

Table 4. Workplace Perception of the Various English Language Skills of the New Graduates

Language Component	Mean	Mean Percentage against maximum mean
Listening	32.8	65.6
Speaking	30.3	60.6
Reading	28.9	72.3
Writing	28.9	64.2
Social	27.4	60.9
Overall Proficiency	147.5	64.1

Is There a Place for Cyberethics? A Conceptual Look at the Effects of Cybertechnology on Ethics and Communications in Cyberspace

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Abstract

Cyberethics contains includes morality and law in cyberspace. There are two main ideas concerning cyberethics: one suggests that cyberethics can simply be modeled on the same codes of practice as professional ethics for other technologies. The other asserts that unlike most previous technologies, cybertechnology can be shaped and modeled to perform a variety of functions and therefore requires a new paradigm for applied ethics.

This paper supports the latter assertion and by examining a series of ethical issues in cyberspace tries to show that these ethical problems can be so complicated that they are impossible to consider and understand from outside of cyberspace.

Keywords: Cyberethics, Telecommunications, Cybertechnology, Computer science, Vacuum policy, Cyber journalism

1. Introduction

By definition, briefly, Ethics is the study of morality and morality, or a moral system, can be defined as a system of rules for guiding human conduct and principles for evaluating those rules (Tavani, 2007). Although, there are many theories, cognitive debates and conceptual arguments about ethics, in real life people are reluctant to use the pure aspects of philosophical ethics theories. There are unlimited ethical problems that people face in their lives that must be categorized for study and resolution. Applied ethics examines practical ethical issues. The sorts of questions addressed by applied ethics are common problems in our lives such as: "Is getting an abortion immoral?", "Is euthanasia immoral?", "Is affirmative action right or wrong?", "Do animals have rights as well?" and "Do individuals have the right of self-determination?"

In our society, professional careers often carry with them additional moral responsibilities that go hand in hand with the additional knowledge and experience the profession imparts. For example, a lay person would not be held responsible for neglecting to provide medical care to save a car crash victim because they do not have the relevant knowledge. By contrast, a fully trained doctor (with the correct equipment) would be capable of making the correct diagnosis and carrying out the needed procedure and we would think it wrong if he/she stood by and failed to help in this situation. One cannot be held accountable for failing to do something that he or she does not have the ability to do. In other words, careers that are considered to require a high level of skill and specialized knowledge also tend to carry a high level of special responsibility.

Most professions have internally enforced codes of practice that members of the profession must follow, to prevent exploitation of the client and preserve the integrity of the profession (Tavani, 2007).

For example, medical doctors and military personnel have strict professional codes of ethics, but these codes of ethics are meaningful only in cases that are related to their abilities and professions. Professional ethics has roots in applied ethics, but there is a border between the two. If a physician does something wrong with or to a patient, his/her offense can be judged under professional laws and codes of ethics but if he/she does something wrong to his/her spouse, the offense is judged using the applied ethics standards that all members of a society are held to, not a code specific to a particular profession.

1.1 Cyberspace and Cyberethics

In public use, it seems Cyber doesn't have a clear definition and it is a combination form meaning "computer," "computer network," or "virtual reality," used in the formation of compound words such as cybertechnology, cyberspace, cyberethics, cyberjournalism, and etc..

Also cyber has been defined as 'a prefix used in a growing number of terms to describe new things that are being made possible by the spread of computers, and cyberspace is a metaphor for describing the non-physical terrain created by computer systems' (Webopedia, 2011). Accordingly, "cyberethics" contains morality and law in cyberspace (Spinello, 2006).

By the last decades of 20th century, widespread use of computers generated a series of ethical issues that (a) did not exist before the advent of computing and (b) could not have existed if computer technology had not been invented (Maner, 2004). Although attention to ethical issues related to computers can be traced from its informal beginnings in the 1940s and 1950s (Bynum & Rogerson, 1996), serious formal efforts to determine codes of ethics for computer users and professionals were begun during 80s and 90s. In 1992, Computer Ethics Institute created "The Ten Commandments of Computer Ethics"(1). It copies the style of The Ten Commandments from The Bible and uses the archaic "thou shalt" and "thou shalt not" found in The King James Version (Barquin, 1992).

A few years before that time, Levy (1984) published a book about hacker ethics and had suggested some codes of ethics for hackers. But very soon and especially by the development of the Internet, cyberspace had become so complicated that these kinds of simple regulations were not enough.

During just three decades there were innumerable unethical and illegal acts performed in cyberspace like hacking, cyberfraud, cybersex, unleashing of worms and viruses, Identity theft, cyberterrorism, cyberespionage, cyberpiracy, cybervandalism, denial of service attacks, etc.. Some of these acts have aspects similar to real sphere crimes. For example, cybersex is pornography and/or prostitution via cybertechnology with some variations (not essentially) from real (physical) space that can be provided in cyberspace, like violating the prohibition of access to pornographic contents for people who are under 18. Also, cyberterrorism, cyberfraud, cyberpiracy, cybervandalism and cyberespionage can be defined as committing to do or to design to do terrorism, fraud, piracy, vandalism and espionage acts by using cybertechnology.

But some sorts of unethical issues in cyberspace are too complicated even to be called old issues with new technologies. Moor (2000) points out that computer technology, unlike most previous technologies, is 'logically malleable'; it can be shaped and modeled to perform a variety of functions. He believes because of its logical malleability, cybertechnology can generate 'new possibilities for human action' that appear to be limitless. Some of these possibilities for action generate what Moor calls 'policy vacuums' because people have no explicit policies or laws to guide new choices made possible by computer technology.

1.1.1 The Simple, but not so: Napster Case

The 'Napster' case is one of the most famous cases that presented some issues in cyberspace that were so complicated that they could not be judged either by ordinary ethical and legal standards or by professional, ethical codes of practice. Napster (Napster.com) was an online, music, peer-to-peer file sharing service to which a user could send a request for a song or an album and if someone is online and wanted to share, they could exchange mp3 files. Immediately, Napster was sued for violating the Intellectual property law (Bergen, 2002; Langenderfer & Cook, 2001; Stern, 2000).

Napster responded that its activities were perfectly legal under the fair-use doctrine(2). But finally the court ruled against Napster and the original site ceased operations and later reopened as a pay-per-song web site (Tavani, 2007). However, the Napster case prompted several debates about intellectual property and copyright in cyberspace and numerous articles, books and studies have been written about it showing that this case has remained controversial. (See Bergen, 2002; Carlsson&Gustavsson, 2001; Dogan, 2000; Langenderfer& Cook, 2001; Spitz & Hunter, 2005; Stern, 2000)

1.1.2 Mining the Data - The Usual Suspects

Data mining is another new and serious phenomenon in cyberspace that can cause numerous ethical issues. Data mining involves the indirect gathering of personal information through an analysis of implicit patterns discoverable in data (Rao & Quester, 2006). For instance, some state security agencies in the U.S. use data-mining techniques on American library members (Han, Kamber, & Pei, 2011). Complicated algorithms check all members' information and can recognize who is probably interested in making bombs or terrorist

attacks. One of the best areas for data-mining is the Internet and such techniques are now also used by commercial web sites to analyze data about users, which can then be sold to third parties.

Tavani (2007) believes data-mining activities can generate new and sometimes non-obvious classification or categories; as a result, individuals whose information is mined can become identified with or linked to certain newly created groups that they might never have imagined to exist. In agreement with Moor's idea about 'policy vacuums', Tavani believes data-mining technology raises special concerns for personal privacy, which is not supported by the law on how information acquired through data mining activities is subsequently used.

This kind of reasoning supports cyberethics as a distinct ethics system in cyberspace involving professional and applied ethics. Some, like Gotterbarn, (1995) suggest that the principles focused on in computer ethics should be issues of professional responsibility and not the broader moral and social implications of that technology. He asks why we need to have cyberethics whereas we don't need to have "printing press ethics" or "airplane ethics".

To challenge Gotterbarn's claim that equates cybertechnology with any other technology that at most needs some codes of conduct or the like, cases concerning the essential effects of cybertechnology on cyberjournalism will be discussed. It will be argued that cyberethics must be an ethical system based on its specific technology, and how overlooking the role of this technology in human communications can cause serious problems.

2. Cyberethics and Cyberjournalism, Some Ethical Cases

Cyberspace cannot only be studied as a broadcast medium (Tavani, 2007) but also can involve huge numbers and many kinds of media called cybermedia that are directly connected with cyberjournalism. Cyberjournalism is a term coined after the merging of various traditional media brought about by the proliferation of media industries due to the current influx of cybertechnology and globalization. Cyberjournalism made possible by the cybertechnology has gained importance and is functioning as a pervasive medium along with the traditional media such as print and electronic (Ibrahim, 2002). In the following, several examples of ethical phenomena from real cases will be discussed to demonstrate the unique and complex nature of ethical and legal issues relating to journalism in combination with cybertechnology.

2.1 Abusing from Keywords

Traditionally, a media is responsible, ethically and legally, for the materials it publishes. But in Cyber journalism one is facing a unique phenomenon by which the audience is seemingly the victim of clever, hidden tactics. The influence of some key words and search engines to increase the number of visitors to a site in the web space has become a serious research problem in cyber media. When words that are of greater interest to the public are more frequently repeated on a page of cyber media, the page has a higher chance of being visited, compared to a page that has used the same words only as many times as needed. As a result, an online journal with more of such pages is being viewed more frequently than other journals.

In this example, and at a deeper level, a kind of online media programming is observed which enables managers of internet media to incorporate in the pages of their journals certain irrelevant but high interest words such as sex, Hollywood, scandal, terror, etc.. These words constitute the content of an irrelevant page which is not visible to the audience during an online search.

Now, the question is whether playing such tricks is ethical. The answer to this question is not that easy because, traditionally a media is only responsible for what it publishes, but in this case nothing has really been published. On other hand, however, this can be legally prosecuted as a case of "cheating in a free competition".

2.2 Link-dumps and Responsibility

Community link dumps are sites with a great number of members from all over the world send materials or links which they find interesting and the members vote on them. In the most popular community link dumps like dig.com and balatarin.com, if a link obtains enough points, it is shown on the first page of the site for every- one (members and visitors) to view upon opening the site. These sites are usually popular because of their variety and some of them have hundreds of thousands of visitors daily. Of course, there have always been media in various fields whose main job it is to collect interesting materials from other media, but they have always had certain legal responsibilities.

In the cyber world, such journals assume no responsibilities, because they claim they do not publish anything independently; they publish links, which are followed if readers are interested in the material. This seems straightforward enough, but what if a site that is not very popular, or a personal weblog, publishes a scandalous piece of news, which is not true. The news is read hundreds of thousands of times due to the link and creates vast effects. The source site is forced to retract the news, but this is not reflected in the link dump or does not gain enough points to go there, making the retraction useless.

2.3 FEEDs and Intellectual Properties

In conventional media, publishing the news, reports and materials of other journals follow(s) certain rules governed by the laws of copyright. Similarly, media such as television and radio can use the products of other media under certain conditions. In all such cases, the main media takes the lead, because either it earns a revenue or adds to its prestige (as the main source) or has acted faster than the others.

This traditional mechanism has changed greatly in cyber media. Now almost all popular cyber media provide the public with their RSS (A general version of FEED). That is, the material they publish is accessible at the same time in other sites. Meanwhile, a certain kind of media has emerged whose activity is to collect and classify the FEEDs from other media.

These media themselves provide other media and people with their general FEEDs or classified FEEDs. This is often done by the media receiving FEEDs as well, and, of course, in every operation, there is the possibility of adding other elements to the main news stories. For example, in the site that links to the main site, comments of the main site may be added to the news and the second site that links to the first site may add pictures and related stuff. Thus a great and complicated network emerges in which the many sites that link to each other find great significance due to technologic facilities (which make it possible to manipulate news stories according to one's taste). As a result, the person receiving the news story may receive a product each part of which comes from a different source. This gives rise to many legal and ethical issues surrounding the authority of a journalistic product.

2.4 Denial of Service Attacks and a Recent Case

An example of an even more complicated case in which ethical and legal judgment based solely on professional ethics for cyberspace was not enough, surrounds the 2009 presidential elections in Iran. During clashes after the election, there was a war of cybermedia between pro-government forces and protesters. In an unprecedented move, the supporters of one of the candidates (Mousavi), decided to paralyze a pro-government news website (Farsnews.com) that they believed spread lies in support of the government. To do so, since the site was auto-refresh, they sat at the computer each day, -opened the main page of said news agency's web site and kept it open for hours, causing a kind of attack to the server of a site named "denial of service attack". Because of the great pressure on the news agency's server processor, it was paralyzed; therefore other people could not see the first page. (See Shachtman, 2009)

The programmers of the news agency's site took a similar measure. They placed a brief software instruction in the site to send a request to the web site of the rival candidate with every visit. As a result, when the rival's site received a great number of requests, its processor faced a similar condition and failed to operate.

3. Conclusion

The examples cited here along with numerous other incidents of questionable ethical cyber action show that cyberethics must be more than just some codes of conduct or even professional ethics. The premise being that ethical problems which depend essentially on cyberspace can be better solved, or at least understood, in cyber sphere with a focus on the essence of cybertechnology. Some like Barlow (1996) who wrote 'A Declaration of the Independence of Cyberspace' in response to the passing into law of the Telecommunications Act of 1996 in the United States, think cyberspace is so different from the physical world that all aspects in this sphere must be considered independently.

In fact cyberspace is growing so fast and involves such a variety of human communications that it is not only facing a 'policy vacuum' but is also probably facing 'conceptual vacuums' or what Moor (2000) calls 'conceptual muddles'.

Cyberspace is a new world built on technology and all its aspects. All communications and creations in this new world are unique because of an inseparable from the medium of technology. The essential nature of this relationship is at the core of the development of cyberethics. Most ethical issues in cyberspace can be appropriately understood and analyzed only by understanding this relationship. Cyberethics cannot be studied, according to ethical systems in the non-cyber world, nor merely as some set of ethical codes of practice with respect to the technology. Further studies, especially interdisciplinary studies between computer science, philosophy and communications, can go forward to understand the technological essence of cyberspace and can positively influence the consideration and solution of ethical issues and other human matters in cyber sphere.

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Notes

Note 1. To see it on the original webpage go <http://computerethicsinstitute.org/publications/tencommandments.html>

Note 2. The doctrine of *fair use* has developed through a substantial number of court decisions over the years and has been codified in section 107 of the copyright law.

Section 107 contains a list of the various purposes for which the reproduction of a particular work may be considered fair, such as criticism, comment, news reporting, teaching, scholarship, and research. Section 107 also sets out four factors to be considered in determining whether or not a particular use is fair:

1. The purpose and character of the use, including whether such use is of commercial nature or is for nonprofit educational purposes
2. The nature of the copyrighted work
3. The amount and substantiality of the portion used in relation to the copyrighted work as a whole
4. The effect of the use upon the potential market for, or value of, the copyrighted work

(Source: <http://www.copyright.gov/fls/fl102.html>)

Ideas in Science Fiction: Probing Contemporary Contexts through Science Fiction Texts

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Abstract

This paper is based on an action research done in an undergraduate class on science fiction. The course, *SKBS 2193 Science as Narrative*, is part of the BA Literature in English programme at the National University of Malaysia. The objectives of the course are to develop students' communication and critical thinking skills through discussions of different themes within science fiction and to train students to be critical and perceptive to the connection between science fiction and real life issues. This paper demonstrates how studying science fiction helps students become creative and critical thinkers. This is achieved by probing the texts and connecting them to current themes and issues especially those relating to the future of mankind. We also show how the course helps students carry out group projects with outputs in the form of multimedia productions that relate science fiction themes to contemporary issues.

Keywords: Science fiction, Literature teaching, Critical thinking, Contemporary issues

1. Introduction

Science fiction is a complex literary genre that “resists easy definitions” (Roberts 2000: 1). Sometimes referred to as “speculative fiction”, the speculated changes that are dramatised in science fiction “are drawn from, or at least informed by, changes that happen today” (Silvester 2002). However, according to Killian (in Silvester

2002), as the objective of science fiction is to communicate ideas, not many writers indulge in experimental narrative techniques “and since the ideas in science fiction are concerned with the new and strange, they are best presented within a familiar format”. Therefore, to present the subject matters of science fiction that includes aliens, futuristic societies, robots, cyberworlds and other advanced technologies it is important that the ideas are presented in a “commonplace manner” (Silvester 2002) – in that the story must be told in a style that is familiar.

Nevertheless, Darko Suvin, the “elder statesman of SF criticism” (Roberts 2000: 7) defines science fiction as a literary genre that must have “estrangement and cognition” present and “whose main formal device is an imaginative framework alternative to the author’s empirical environment” (qtd. in Roberts 2000: 7). The term “estrangement” was made popular by the playwright, Bertolt Brecht, in the 1930’s to mean defamiliarisation or alienation. It is a technique that allows us to recognise a subject by making it seem unfamiliar (Roberts 2000; Wolfe 1986). However, Roberts explains that if estrangement is the only defining characteristic of science fiction, then we would not be able to comprehend all that we should. That is why Suvin stresses the importance of cognition “with its rational, logical implications” (qtd in Roberts 2000: 8). Cognition refers to the “elements of variability and detail drawn from the empirical environment that establish a link between the experience world of the reader and the world of the work of fiction” (Wolfe 1986: 18). Cognitive estrangement in science fiction allows us to be estranged from the naturalistic world but at the same time connects us to the world cognitively.

Therefore, science fiction is “a rich genre” and “a cultural phenomenon that encourages an imaginative way of observing and interpreting the world” (Brake and Thornton 2003:31). It explores philosophical and ethical issues in relation to developments in science and technology and provides platforms to discuss and debate on the relationship between man, science, technology and culture. In the West, science fiction as an area of study, made its way into English and/or literature programs in the 1970’s (Gunn 1996; Bengels 1996). This was the result of science fiction writers like James Gunn, Jack Williamson, Brian Aldiss, Samuel R. Delany and Joe Halderman joining the literary scholars in the field of literary studies (Wolfe 1986).

According to Gunn (1996), there are three approaches to the teaching of science fiction. The first can be labeled as the “great books” course where the focus is on great Science Fiction novels and their critical analysis. Their “greatness” is also discussed in a course of this nature. The second is what Gunn calls “the ideas in Science Fiction” course. Through this approach, science fiction texts are first deemed as “dramatising” contemporary issues. Then via the science fiction texts, contemporary issues are approached and analysed. The final one is the historical method where texts are studied via the origins and development of the genre. Of concern to this research is the second approach. This method was selected when the course *SKBS2193 Science as Narrative* was developed for the BA Literature in English Programme at the National University of Malaysia because it is felt that the approach would create a more meaningful teaching and learning context as the fictional creations are made more significant and relevant through critical readings and making connections with real life issues.

Since the introduction of the BA Literature in English Programme in 2009, two cohorts of students have sat for the course. Based on the tutorial discussions, presentations and written assignments of the two cohorts, it is evident that the students found it challenging to relate the works of science fiction to contemporary issues and concerns. They struggled in the meaning making of the estranged science fiction texts and contexts, even though these students were equipped with the skills for literary reading and analysis. The course lecturer spent many tutorial hours explaining the plot, conflict, genre-based concepts and themes to the students. Only then could the students engage in in-depth discussions with regard to the themes, issues and concerns of the texts.

The objectives of this research are to identify and present problems faced by students in understanding science fiction texts, to ascertain problems encountered by students in relating themes and issues in science fiction texts to real life contexts, to establish steps that can be taken to enhance students’ understanding of science fiction texts and to suggest modes of input that students require to help them relate themes and issues in science fiction texts to real life contexts.

2. Methodology

An action plan was established in order to achieve the objectives of this research which would help achieve the objectives of the course. Firstly, two sets of structured interview questions were prepared and the interviews were carried out with a sample of fifteen students from the third cohort. The first interview was carried out prior to the students sitting for the course and the second was carried out at the end of the fourteen-week semester.

The first interview was designed to obtain a general idea of the students’ expectations, assumptions and misconceptions towards the course and the science fiction genre, bearing in mind the students’ own awareness as well as influence from the previous cohorts. Following the interview, the students participated in a critical thinking workshop which involved activities that were designed for a general academic endeavour. This first

intervention, conducted early in the semester, was expected to help develop and hone the students' critical and creative thinking skills. They were then expected to apply the skills to a more specific academic context such as this course. Responses from the first interview were taken into consideration when the course content was put together. The aim of the course was to help students have a more immediate understanding of the selected science fiction texts and their connection to real life issues. The second interview was conducted at the end of the semester to find out whether or not the students' expectations had been met, the problems they faced during the course and if they could suggest ways to make the course better and more interesting.

A limitation to this study is that the design does not include a more objective means of testing the effectiveness of the action plan. This is due to the fact that the evaluation component of the Literature in English Programme is project-based.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1 Expectations, Assumptions and Misconceptions

The first interview revealed both positive and negative responses by the students. For the positive responses, we found that the students expected to encounter something new, fun and interesting from the science fiction genre that were not offered in other literature courses. They also expected to gain new knowledge and learn how science fiction could have a completely different literary tradition that makes the genre unique. In addition, they expected the course to deal with technology and societal issues that would help them develop critical thinking skills. The responses that could be considered negative in nature revealed that students expected to learn mostly about scientific concepts and theories. This misconception correlated with responses by the students that indicated the perception that they need to have better scientific knowledge in order to understand the content of this course. Whilst some felt that the course would be tough, perhaps even boring, others were confused as they did not know what to expect.

With regard to the students' assumptions about the Science Fiction genre, once again, the responses were positive and negative in nature. The positive assumptions included the students' opinions that the course should be interesting and challenging. The students felt this way because the texts were expected to be highly imaginative and showcase exaggerated possibilities, which in turn could raise awareness of the issues presented within the texts. The negative assumptions about the course included opinions that the course would not be interesting as the genre is about boring subject matters. In addition, some felt that science fiction is specifically for entertainment and not for academic study. Finally, some of these students expressed the assumption that the course would be difficult to understand as the genre of science fiction is all about technology in a modern world, and therefore would be more incomprehensible compared to other genres such as fantasy, mystery or realistic fiction.

One misconception that some of the students had about the course was that they would have to try and accept the "abnormal" things in science fiction in order to prepare for the course. Several even felt that they would have to improve on their grammar and vocabulary to be able to handle the course. On a more positive note, the students reported that they would start reading science fiction texts, researching on the nature of the genre and read up on the writers and their works to prepare for the course. Some even indicated that they would start reading articles on science and technology.

The first interview enabled us to have a better idea of the students' level of knowledge and understanding as well as the pre-conceived notions about science fiction in general, and about the course specifically. This allowed us to make more informed decisions when selecting teaching and learning material and when devising tutorial activities to achieve the objectives of the course.

3.2 The Course

The objectives of the course are to develop students' communication and critical thinking skills through discussions of different themes within science fiction and to train students to be critical and perceptive to the connection between science fiction and real life issues. In this course, we also look to address the position of science fiction in today's society to see how science and technology are used to advance and enhance our lifestyles.

In general, the syllabus of the course is designed to facilitate a parallel reading between a science fiction text and a real life issue or theme. Therefore, in relation to studying science fiction as literary texts, students are posited with questions that would relate the texts to contemporary, real life issues. For example, the first text that the students were expected to engage with was the 2008 version of the film *The Day the Earth Stood Still*. This version was selected over the older one because, firstly, it was felt that the students would relate better to a more

contemporary film. Secondly, it was also felt that a filmic text would be a softer entry into the course. The theme or real life issue that had to be tackled in this text (film) was human nature. Students were given lead-in questions to help them with their analysis and interpretation of human nature in relation to the text. Some examples of the questions are:

- 1) Facing impending disaster, what do humans do?
- 2) Facing unknown phenomena, why do humans approach them with fear/awe/aggression?
- 3) Note how the politicians/army/scientists reacted. What mentality/ characteristics do they project?
- 4) Important information is treated as classified by those in power. Why?
- 5) Leaders immediately felt threatened by the alien race that is seen as more advanced. Why?

As a follow up to the viewing and discussion sessions, students wrote response papers to express their views on the film and the theme of human nature. Some of the students' concluding remarks on the subject matter can be seen in the extracts below:

Extract 1

In a nutshell, "The Day the Earth Stood Still" reveals that the positive qualities of human nature are most likely to crumble when experiencing catastrophe. There are several destructive human characteristics that are clearly portrayed in this film which includes aggression, self-centeredness, dishonesty and greediness. Even though human beings are aware of the destruction happening to the world, yet they still continue to overlook the consequences of their actions. It is rather ironic to have aliens take away and preserve the Earth from humankind when it is humans that should be accountable for the destruction. This film has successfully display the modern media notion of apocalypse in which humans are the cause of catastrophe.

Extract 2

In conclusion, I have given my thoughtful response towards four important elements that are highlighted in "The Day the Earth Stood Still", they are humanity's self centeredness, man's stubbornness towards changing his own nature, the violence displayed as well as the environmental message of the film. In my opinion, although this film is a work of fiction it contains many important points that are relevant to our modern society. Many of us ignore the fact that the planet is dying due to our actions and it is important that we realize it now before it is too late.

Extract 3

In a nutshell, it is obvious that negative aspects of humankind are prevalent in the film "The Day the Earth Stood Still", yet there is still hope for humanity because goodness is evident as well in human nature. Science fiction's focus isn't about the details of the scientific elements, but rather paying special attention to detail on how humans react in dire situations. This film does an excellent job in portraying the various sides of human nature. Therefore, hopefully those who have been ignorant on how human nature manifests itself can be enlightened on how humans exhibit the various dimensions of human nature.

The extracts above show that the students were able to engage with the film and had successfully linked the themes that were portrayed to real life issues.

Several science fiction short stories were also selected for the course so that students could be provided with an insight into how science fiction deals with various real life issues. To examine issues relating to class and difference, social order and control, and defiance and conformity, we selected Kurt Vonnegut's "Harrison Bergeron" which is categorised under the utopian/dystopian sub-genre. In order to tease out concerns that are relevant to the students' lives, we asked them the following questions:

- 1) Imagine our world with a society that had total equality. What might be some of the consequences?
- 2) Would you enjoy living in such a society? Why?

The students also studied Robert Silverberg's "When We Went to See the End of the World" to examine media, commercialism and speculations on the future; Jonna Russ' "When it Changed" and Judith Merrill's "Survival Ship" for gender related issues; Severna Park's "The Cure for Everything" for issues relating to developments in genetics and ethics; and James Patrick Kelly's "Itsy Bitsy Spider" to analyse artificial intelligence and how science fiction could be used to study human relationships. The issues were examined by comparing science fiction texts with science facts. Since the students had reported that they expected the course to be tough due to their lack of knowledge of the sciences (in the first interview), the science facts were delivered through varied means. These included interactive lectures, clips from documentaries, film shorts, photographs, newspaper reports and magazine articles. In this way, we were able to keep the students interested and avoid monotony

during the lesson.

Following the study of the short stories, the students were required to write an essay on any issue related to real life in relation to a Science Fiction short story covered in the course. In addition, the students were asked to produce, in groups of four, a social commentary each in the form of a multimedia-based output on any of the concerns addressed during the course. The multimedia presentations came in the form of short documentaries on topics ranging from “androgeneity in the age of technology” for gender issues, “identity control” for issues relating to social order as well as “hug a tree” that dealt with technological development, ethics and the environment.

3.3 Problems, Realisations and Suggestions

At the end of the course a second structured interview was conducted with the same fifteen students. Some of the questions fielded during this second interview were about the students’ initial expectations of the course, whether or not the course met their expectations and the reasons for this. Students were also probed about the problems that they encountered during the course and whether or not they enjoyed the learning process. Finally, the researchers asked the students to give suggestions that would help make the course more meaningful and beneficial.

The students’ initial expectations of the course included reading stories about aliens, space exploration, robots, science and technology, and learning scientific knowledge in new and fun ways, for example through movies. Some students also expected the course to be boring because they perceived science fiction to be very technical – with many technology related jargon and scientific concepts. Others expected it to be interesting, especially the few who had interest in the genre. Some did not expect topics like time travel, artificial intelligence, genetics, and gender related issues.

All students reported that the course met their expectations, with five reporting that the course exceeded their expectations. Asked how the course met or exceeded their expectations, the students said that the course gave them a literary perspective to science. Two students stated that they did not expect that science fiction could be related to social issues, or be used as social commentaries. Generally, the students felt that they were able to learn about the consequences of technology and about human nature. They felt that the course encouraged critical thinking and the discussions had been enjoyable.

The students reported several problems that they faced during the course. A common problem reported by the students was that their unfamiliarity with scientific terms and lack of scientific knowledge made it difficult for them to understand some of the stories in the course (the stories were not specified). One story that dealt with Genetics was particularly problematic since the students had little knowledge or interest in it. The students found some of the stories to be complicated or even intimidating. Three students attributed the difficulty in understanding Science Fiction stories to their lack of interest in the genre. One example that was given was “The Day the Earth Stood Still.” One student stated that writing personal responses to these stories were a challenging task, since it required a good imagination and some scientific knowledge. Another student reported that the course was hard to follow for those who were not able to do critical analysis, for analyzing the stories required critical thinking.

There were many aspects of the course that the students enjoyed. In particular, the students liked the analysis of humour and irony in the fiction, the debates on alien encounters, the discussions of various human issues that were present within the stories, and the multimedia social commentary project, lectures and movies. The students were pleasantly surprised to learn that science fiction was not all about science and technology only, and were intrigued by the many ways in which science fiction could teach one about humanity and relate to aesthetics values. Though one student did report that the course was somewhat serious and a little dull, the rest agreed that the course texts encouraged more imaginative thinking compared to romance texts, historical texts, and young adult literature.

As for suggestions to make the course better, the students reported that while they were generally satisfied with the current variety of texts, they felt that the course should include:

- 1) more critical thinking seminars (one critical thinking seminar was organized as part of the course)
- 2) fieldwork to make students appreciate science (students could not really specify what they meant by ‘fieldwork’)
- 3) some poems, plays and novels from the same genre as part of the course texts
- 4) other medium that contain science fiction elements, like advertisements

5) more viewings of science fiction films.

To sum up the interviews, we could say that the general mood of the students prior to the course was one of apprehension and reluctance. The most significant factor that contributed to such an attitude was the students' unfamiliarity to science-fiction being a genre of literary study. The study revealed that as literature students, they felt ill-equipped to handle this genre as they did not have a very strong background in the sciences. As a result, some of the students felt that they would not be able to participate in the tutorial discussions in a satisfactory, critical and analytical manner as required by the objectives of the course. However, after completing the course it was apparent that most of them had changed their outlook towards the course. From being apprehensive in the beginning, they now had a more open-minded and positive outlook towards the genre. To some extent, the course had also succeeded in making the students more critical in their response as they were able to give interesting suggestions to make the course more enjoyable, relevant and meaningful.

4. Conclusion

The modes of intervention utilised in the running of the course *SKBS2193 Science as Narrative* can be categorised under approach, teaching method and assessment. As an approach to the science fiction genre, films were included as "texts" to be studied as well as to serve as sources of reference. These included feature-length films, film shorts as well as short clips. The previous practice was to approach the genre via written texts only such as short stories and novels. Relevant documentaries were also used as means to highlight real life issues in the science fiction texts. For the teaching method, relevant scientific topics, such as 'artificial intelligence' and 'robotics' were introduced before students were asked to study the texts. It was felt that accompanying readings on developments in science and technology would help them see the link between science fiction and contemporary society more clearly. The detailed topic-based discussions conducted during tutorials also helped students to comprehend the texts and issues better. Finally, for the course assessment, a varied mode of assignments ranging from essays to multimedia presentations enabled a fairly accurate evaluation of students' performances while at the same time ensuring that the course remained interesting for the students.

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The Impact of Culture on Performance Appraisal Reforms in Africa: The Case of Uganda's Civil Service

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Abstract

This article explores the impact of administrative culture on performance appraisal reforms in Uganda's civil service. Data gathered from 147 questionnaires, 29 interviews and various documents indicates that administrative culture sabotages the actual conduct of performance appraisals and undermines its institutionalization. The study supports the use of power distance and uncertainty avoidance. The additional dimensions of political (neutrality) biasness and ethnicity are a highly relevant addition to the literature on administrative culture and its linkage to instruments of management. Thus, for the successful introduction of performance appraisals, culture matters because the performance appraisal is imposed from abroad and requires a compatible host administrative culture in order to take root. In this case, the host administrative culture was not compatible in many respects with the values underlying the appraisal reforms. Although the Ugandan government introduced appraisal reforms, incompatibility between the values embedded in the appraisal and the host administrative culture watered down the reform.

Keywords: Performance appraisal, Reforms, Administrative culture, Uganda, Values

1. Introduction

Performance appraisals provide the basis for making selection and promotion decisions, determining salary increases, and they are a vehicle for feedback between supervisors and employees. Although a few studies concerning performance appraisals and culture have been published (György, 2004; McCourt & Foon, 2007), research on culture and performance appraisals is generally thin and more studies are required in order to understand them (Murphy & Cleveland, 1995). For the successful introduction of performance appraisals, culture matters. This is because institutions or systems imposed from the centre or abroad – even democratic ones – do not take root by themselves. They need soil in which to grow. Cultural values and norms that are compatible with performance appraisal may suggest the sort of soil that is needed (Baldersheim, et al., 2001, p.52). This article analyses the relationship between administrative culture and the introduction of performance appraisal reforms in the Ugandan civil service. It explores the extent to which performance appraisal reforms are introduced and institutionalized in terms of their acceptance by the civil service; an area which has received little attention from researchers. The purpose of the paper therefore is to propose that it is critical to recognize administrative culture in the developing world, before administrative reforms, like performance appraisals can be considered. It seeks to answer the question: *Is the administrative culture of Uganda's civil service receptive or resistant to the NPM inspired performance appraisal, and how? Who in the bureaucracy is more resistant to appraisal reforms, and why?*

1.1 The performance appraisal system in Uganda

The performance appraisal - an instrument used by organizations to evaluate the performance of their employees in terms of quality, quantity, cost and time - is said to be one of the most problematic components of human resource management and is at times viewed as a futile bureaucratic exercise (Coutts & Schneider, 2004.), yet it plays an important role in providing the basis for making selection decisions, determining salary increases, and

providing feedback between supervisors and employees (Mount, 1984,p.1). For the period 1976-1997, the Ugandan civil service used the annual confidential report which was a closed system of assessing individual performance. The appraised individual never received feedback on how he or she fared in the appraisal. The appraisal was confidential thus open to abuse and susceptible to favouritism, corruption and tribalism. Reforming the appraisal was in a way learning of best practices from elsewhere. The second period – the main focus of this article – stretches from 1998 to August 2008, and concerns a ‘new’ performance appraisal system introduced to the Uganda civil service. This appraisal was considered superior because it; included assessment of critical competencies needed to achieve outputs, provided for an appraisal meeting, allows appeal, open/interactive, and had provision for developing concrete action plans to improve performance and staff development. Thereafter, in 2009, another performance appraisal took effect, and it may be too early to judge its performance.

1.1.1 Why the performance appraisal reform?

Following recommendations from the Public Service Review and Reorganization Commission (PSRRC), Uganda introduced a new performance appraisal as part of its administrative reform efforts to improve the public sector performance. The PSRRC noted that civil servants needed to be objectively assessed on their actual performance in relation to well defined targets and tasks agreed upon between themselves and their supervisors. However, this new ‘open’ appraisal system also turned out a failure for the following eight reasons:

- 1) According to the Implementation Evaluation Report of 2005/6, the success rate was at 30%. This means that appraisal forms were sometimes not filled out; the forms were sometimes not available, and when provided were photocopies; appraisals were not conducted at appointed times; employees who were supposed to conduct self-appraisals were denied that opportunity; performance targets were either dictated by the superior or expected by the junior and not jointly agreed upon; no feed back; sometimes there was too limited knowledge about the appraisals.
 - 2) The head of the civil service acknowledges that performance appraisal was a failure since it lacked responsiveness from the civil servants (Mitala, 2006).
 - 3) The idea of replacing performance appraisal implies that it was unable to meet the desired expectations. Moreover, there was no indication that after implementing the appraisal for five years, it would be replaced.
 - 4) Quite often, civil servants did not prepare annual performance plans for individual staff, but this was supposed to be the basis for conducting appraisals (Tidemand and Ssewankambo, 2008).
 - 5) Results of the performance appraisal exercise were not immediately analyzed and used to inform individual goals (Tidemand and Ssewankambo, 2008).
 - 6) According to interviews collected for this study, performance appraisals were mainly conducted when civil servants were expected to be confirmed or promoted.
 - 7) The appraisal instrument was never used for sake of reward and recognition (Tidemand and Ssewankambo, 2008).
- 5) There was ‘limited implementation of the appraisal’ in local governments (MOPS, 2007).

1.1.2 Performance appraisal and culture

Every country in the world has a need for performance appraisal and actually carries out these reforms; however, I contend that their success depends on the context. Despite several efforts to reform public service organizations in developing countries, tangible improvements are few and far between (Polidano, 1999; Schick, 1998). One cannot undermine the ability of cultural variables because ‘Social arguments tied to organizational culture can potentially have an instrumental side, that is, informal norms and values can be useful. Employees can feel more loyal and function better because the institutional aspects of their activity are emphasized’ (Christensen, et al., 2007, p.39). One must not simply blame and criticize public servants, but seek their views and experiences on why appraisal reforms are accepted or rejected, why they fail or succeed. Civil servants may work against a reform without knowing that they are doing so. This is because they have been socialized into particular ways of doing things and may not realize or appreciate other ways of doing things. After all, ‘when they [the civil servants] have relied on foreign experts, the outsiders have too often ignored domestic circumstances and confused matters by incorporating their foreign values’ (Caiden, 2006). Thus, it is pertinent to investigate how administrative culture affects performance appraisal.

2. Administrative culture

Many definitions of administrative culture pertain, and I will cite a few for elaboration: It is ‘the general characteristics of public officials, i.e., shared values, attitudes and beliefs’ (Henderson, 2005, p.41). Zhuplev and Shein (2005, p.109), believe administrative culture manifests itself in behavioural norms, adopted and adhered to by participants of the governance process. James Wilson (1989, p.110) defines it as a persistent way of thinking about the central tasks of an organization and the human relationships within it. Anecharico explains it as a transmissible pattern of beliefs, values and behaviour in a public service organization that concern the organization’s role and relationship to the public (cited in Luvuno 2005, p.210). It has also been described as the interpretative profile of the significant underlying structure, which includes practices, shared views, and value systems amongst functionaries; it is embedded in the way societies address and interpret their problems and includes the collective reflection and sharing of historical memories, myths and symbols, as well as past cleavages (Nef, 2005,p.232). In this article, administrative culture is the shared values, beliefs, norms, traditions and practices of public officials.

3. Measuring administrative culture: The dimensions

The dimensions of administrative culture used in this article are based on known variables used to measure and describe culture – namely, power distance, uncertainty avoidance, political neutrality/bias, and ethnicity. Although some of these variables are commonly used for cross national studies, they are mirrored in the bureaucracy because organizational culture is isomorphic to societal culture (György, 2004, p.37; Hofstede, 2001; Jahoda, 1984; Javidan, et al., 2004). It is for three reasons, that I choose these variables. First, several studies have used these variables, and researchers have proposed that managerial practices can be predicted by various national values (Aycan, 2005; György, 2004; Hofstede, 2001; Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005). Therefore I use these studies as a point of departure for my study. Second, the variables are mirrored in the civil service (House, et al., 2004; Peters, 2001; Islam, 2004, 2005) hence it is relevant to use them as a point of departure in analyzing the administrative culture of Uganda. Third, ethnicity and its consequences have for long been associated with African maladministration and the claim is gaining prominence (Chabal & Daloz, 1999; Olivier de Sardan, 1999; Hameso, 1997; Nnoli, 1993; Tambiah, 1989). It is therefore important to apply and analyze them with regard to the civil service in Uganda. I now analyze them one by one.

3.1 Power distance

Power distance is the extent to which the less powerful members of institutions expect and accept that power is distributed unequally. Hofstede’s survey of East Africa considers the region to have a high power distance culture. By inference therefore, we could suppose that Uganda is in the same range. In high power distance cultures salary systems show wide gaps between top and bottom in the organization (Hofstede & Hofstede 2005, p.55). This has a number of implications to the performance appraisal. With large power distance, the bureaucracy is highly centralized; juniors are not expected to challenge authority openly or to participate in decision making but to take orders (Munene, et al., 2000). Yet, given that the performance appraisal is expected to be participatory, then it may not succeed well in a hierarchical environment characterized by large power distance. According to Mendonca and Kanungo (1994), all the critical activities in performance appraisal require the manager to function as a coach and mentor to his subordinates, but high power distance undermines mentorship and promotes sycophancy. There is also the appraisal feedback process, to which Fletcher and Perry (2001) observe that employee appraisals and feedback on results in large power distance organizations will most often be conducted by a person with relatively more power than the ratee, while in low power distance cultures performance appraisals are less dependant on superiors.

Power distance could also be perceived in the form of the *colonial chief factor* (Note 1). The chief signified total, absolute power, unchecked and unrestrained (Mamdani, 1996). This legacy has lived to date. No wonder the success rate of the annual confidential report in Uganda’s bureaucracy was high (Turya-Muhika, 1982), but when this was replaced with the more transparent performance appraisal, the success rate declined. One of the possible reasons is because the old annual confidential report preserved the power of the rater and hence was ‘fitting’ for a high power distance culture. This manifestation of power distance is re-enforced by *status symbolism*, whereby privileges and status symbols contribute to the authority of the bosses. In a large power distance culture, those in power would like to see the performance appraisal as another symbolic exercise that contributes to their authority. Additionally, in order to overcome red tape in bureaucracies, *informality* (Note 2) comes in and causes civil servants to pay limited attention to performance outputs and results (Schick, 1998). Yet, performance appraisals usually require the assessment of competencies, integrity, initiative and work relations. Therefore, the presence of high power distance in the Ugandan civil service may prevent participatory

decision making, abate transparency and compromise merit. Hence it may be difficult to introduce performance appraisal.

3.2 *Uncertainty avoidance*

Uncertainty avoidance is the extent to which the members of a culture feel threatened by ambiguous or unknown situations. The concept denotes a deficit in knowledge about what the future may hold, it expresses the extent to which people either tolerate ambiguous situations or need formal rules (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005). Uncertainty may be weak or strong. Bureaucracies in strong uncertainty cultures are more likely to create and maintain rules than in weak uncertainty cultures, and people in the strong uncertainty culture will tend to avoid situations that may not be easy to tackle. Hence their leaders may create more rules and regulations to ensure control. With regard to *rule-following*, civil servants who are subjected to rigid and complex rules seldom take initiative (Jabbara and Jabbara, 2005). Other than the issue of rule following, Mendonca & Kanungo (1999) argue that the relatively high uncertainty avoidance in the developing countries implies that civil servants are unwilling to *innovate and are risk averse*. When performance appraisal is introduced in the high uncertainty avoidance culture, civil servants may resist appraisal reforms because they have to learn something new.

Since one of the critical purposes of the appraisal is that it be used as a basis for rewards and sanctions of some sort, it is important to understand the impact uncertainty avoidance has upon the appraisal. Various studies have found out that countries with weak uncertainty avoidance show that bonuses should be linked to performance, whereas countries with strong uncertainty avoidance are less likely to use the variable of performance bonuses because they create more ambiguity than the executives are willing to accept (McFarlin & Sweeney, 2001, p.75).

The level of *control over environment vs. feedback management*: becomes important when reviewing past performance. Munene, et al., (2000) argue that Ugandans view themselves as having complete control over their environment. Uncertainty avoidance in India evidenced through karma (inevitable fate) has been used as a rationalization for accepting sub-standard performance of the appraisal (Groeschl, 2003, p.72) because supervisors do not give feedback, or the feedback is rationalized in such a way that makes it inoperative. It is thus supposed that the higher the degree of uncertainty avoidance, the more the risk aversion and rule following, the less the innovation and the more the concern for maintaining the status quo. Such a situation may impede the introduction of performance appraisal in the Ugandan civil service.

3.3 *Political neutrality vs. political bias*

Political neutrality denotes civil servants performing their jobs professionally and without biases towards politicians. On the other hand, political bias connotes a partisan bureaucracy that is more loyal to the interests and preferences of the ruling party. According to Putnam (1975), attitudes of bureaucrats may be classified into classical and political. A classical bureaucrat is more procedure-and rule oriented while the political bureaucrat is more problem-or program oriented. A classical bureaucrat may dislike political influence and intervention by political leaders in the daily affairs of the bureaucracy. They are likely to be more distrustful to politicians. In contrast, a political bureaucrat is more sensitive to political signals and trusts politicians. If a bureaucracy is more classical, their dispositions to appraisal reform measures by the government may vary from being positive to negative. To secure positive responses, their cooperation needs to be nurtured by involving them in implementation. In contrast, politically biased bureaucrat's inclination is to support government policies. Their positive disposition is taken for granted.

The bureaucracy in Bangladesh is influenced more by the British colonial administrative norms and hence bureaucrats there display more classical norms (Jamil, 1998, p.97). Similar to Bangladesh, we may also expect the Ugandan bureaucracy to be classical, since Uganda was also a British colony. In the case of Uganda, bureaucrats are more classical because they are selected and promoted on the basis of merit. However, in recent years we observe politicization of the bureaucracy and administrative reforms are accepted primarily for political survival (Mwenda & Tangri, 2005). If selection of key positions in bureaucracy is based on political patronage, bureaucrats may change from being classical to political bureaucrats. This in turn would make them more loyal and supportive to the performance appraisal system. It is thus reasonable to suggest that the higher the degree of political biasness in the Ugandan civil service, the more the loyalty, patronage and trust of politicians, and hence the more likely the introduction of the performance appraisal reforms.

3.4 *Ethnicity* (Note 3)

Ethnicity is a very contentious issue in discussions on culture and political theory. Ethnicity could be seen as a characteristic of collectivist cultures whereby people, from birth onwards, are integrated into strong, cohesive in-groups; the group that person is in continues to give protection in exchange for unquestioning loyalty

(Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005). Ethnicity is an aspect of social relationships between agents who consider themselves as culturally distinctive from members of other groups with whom they have minimum regular interaction (Eriksen, 2002, p.13). Ethnicity is a social construction, a factor in the dialectics of domination and emancipation. Ethnic affiliation provides a sense of security, a source of trust, certainty, reciprocal help and protection against the neglect of one's interests by strangers (Horowitz, 1994, p.49) especially in situations of alienation, and insecurity' (Lentz, 1995).

In Uganda, like most of Africa, people do not strive to make autonomous choices. They take into consideration the consequences of their choices to other people (Hyden, 2006, p.191). It has been observed that the objective of ethnicity is to obtain and use state power, in order to gain access to resources commanded by the state or defend ethnic identities from state intrusions (Okuku, 2002, p.9; Hameso, 1997). The debate on ethnicity in the appointments of public officials in Uganda presents two issues; one is on representation, the other on professionalism (Mwenda, 2008). In such a scenario it would be expecting way too much to anticipate that merit-based promotions will happen – in effect, the performance appraisal is rendered irrelevant. Even leading academics accuse each other of practicing tribalism at work (Kagolo, 2008). The most important point here is that certain tribes are accused of monopolizing high offices. It is easy to want to agree with those who argue that ethnicity is the cause of the country's problems. Whether Uganda is ethnically challenged or not is yet to be confirmed, but what is clear is that the concern is more prominent than ever before and cannot be wished away or ignored any longer. More importantly, this concern – as well as values and perceptions which are related to it in society – is partly responsible for shaping the administrative culture of the Ugandan civil servants. 'Manyi ani' ('whom do I know') and 'Mwana waani' ('whose child') are two ethnically based social formations dominating the Ugandan scene, and have been institutionalized to the point that they sometimes influence the way formal institutions operate. In fact, one of the ways they manifest themselves is in the recruitment of certain personnel. In Uganda there is a saying that 'technical know who is better than technical knowhow', meaning that in order to get a job or a promotion, who one knows matters more than what one knows.

Research on performance appraisal has revealed that ethnic and race-related bias plays a role in the implementation of performance appraisals. Kraiger & Ford (1985), concluded that the ethnicity of the ratee has a significant impact on performance ratings in the United States. White raters tend to evaluate fellow whites 64 percent higher than for a black ratee, and the black rater evaluated the average fellow black 67 percent higher than a white ratee. In another study in the United States, it was also observed that white bosses assigned more favourable ratings to ratees of their own race (Mount, et al., 2006). Yet despite the cited studies which find race or ethnicity to be highly significant in the workplace, other studies have found such variance small (Brooks & Clunis, 2007). From these findings we could extrapolate that in a multi-ethnic bureaucracy like that of Uganda, ethnic bias in the performance appraisal is highly likely as well. Supervisors may give favourable appraisals to those of their own ethnic background. The more the interpersonal relationships in the civil service are influenced by ethnicity, the more it may compromise neutrality, impartiality and merit, and hence the less likely the success of the performance appraisal in the Ugandan civil service.

4. Administrative culture in Uganda's civil service

This study notes that cultural values are numerous, flexible, hidden, changing, intersecting, dynamic and resilient. Therefore the ones used in this study are only indicative and not exhaustive. Moreover, they may also be helpful in explaining certain loose ends and peripheral aspects of administrative culture. In a recent study, Karyeija (2010) found that large power distance, high uncertainty avoidance, political neutrality and ethnicity characterize Uganda's administrative culture.

On a scale ranging from 1 to 5, whereby 1 represents the least prevalence of the variable and 5 the highest, an index which revealed the following results based on the mean was developed: power distance 3.7, uncertainty avoidance 3.8, high political neutrality 3.9, and ethnicity 3.5, as reported in table 1 above. All the four variables scored above the median (i.e., 3) and thus one may conclude that the Ugandan bureaucracy is characterized by a high presence of *Large power distance* was evidenced by a steep hierarchy, a wide range of salaries, the colonial chief mentality, disparities in status and a focus on status symbols, *Strong uncertainty avoidance* was mainly suggested by rule following, risk aversion and lack of innovation, and *High political neutrality* where bureaucrats prefer to be neutral and independent of the politicians, but at the same time politicians, and deride the politicization of the civil service. With regard to *ethnicity*, findings revealed that there is ethnically based favouritism.

5. The Impact of culture on performance appraisal reforms in Uganda's civil service

In this section, I detail how aspects of administrative culture may impede the performance appraisal system in Uganda. I start by looking at the impact of power distance.

5.1 Large power distance and the performance appraisal

5.1.1 Hierarchy

Hierarchy is a major component of large power distance. Those who value hierarchies tend to expect juniors to express deep loyalty, and this tendency has serious implications for the performance appraisal system. For instance, members of the low cadre civil service note in interviews that while they are carrying out their jobs, what matters is to fulfil the boss's personal preferences, as an individual, and not in his/her official capacity. As such, the ultimate grading in the performance appraisal system does not measure what the individual staff member has done for the organization, so the appraisal actually becomes redundant and useless. Secondly, there is the problem of bosses imposing goals upon their staff rather than the staff participating in devising what those goals should be. It is expected that the rater and the ratee sit down and agree on targets, but this seems not to be what is practiced. If the performance appraisal system is to be implemented as prescribed in the guidelines, then it ought to be fair, transparent, objective and participatory. However, adherence to these principles would disturb and undermine the existing power structure, interpersonal relations and hierarchy.

5.1.2 Feedback management and appraisal environment

Feedback management is very important in the conduct of performance appraisal. The rater is responsible to ensure that feedback is given to the ratee. Feedback during performance appraisal reviews in Europe tends to allow the ratee to express dissent. Such behaviour is not considered appropriate to employees in Uganda, for face-saving is regarded as more important than learning from the appraisal review. People are not socialized to interject their ideas in an appraisal review and to explain and defend their point of view. In addition, they are mostly oriented towards showing the supervisor respect. One way of expressing respect is to avoid presenting potentially contradictory views. Respondents indicate that there is a high propensity for the 'command and control' method of directing activities, yet the performance appraisal system promotes the view that people should discuss the variables upon which their success will be measured.

In addition to the problem of feedback, the environment in which the performance appraisal exercise is conducted also emphasizes power distance and therefore undermines the intention of the appraisal meeting. The study found that most appraisal meetings take place in the raters' office and the rater may allow interruptions, taking phone calls and attending to other people. Thus the environment in which the appraisal unfolds undermines the appraisal's objectives and proves only to underscore power distance. The minimal feedback and interaction on goals and objectives, and the reticence to express contrary views all lead to the exercise not being respected; it becomes a distasteful ritual, something only to be endured.

5.1.3 Power distance in terms of gender and generational differences

Large power distance partly arises from some people being awarded a culturally superior status, e.g., elders, men, bosses and anyone in authority. The inequality of persons, not least gender and generation differences, causes the appropriateness of the performance appraisal system to come into question because the latter is predicated upon supervisors and subordinates negotiating the subordinate's annual objectives. This is difficult because of the high degree of power distance between bosses and subordinates. The difficulty also extends to gender and generation differences. In terms of gender, we observe that there is always tension when a supervisor is a woman and she must negotiate objectives with men, worse still, and older men. In such cases it is common to find that the rater's decisions are not based on facts but on opinion. Young senior bosses tend to negotiate objectives with their older subordinates. Due to the cultural constraint that elders must be respected, the possibility of having the appraisal favour elders and other culturally superior persons is high. Consequently the spirit of the performance appraisal system is undermined.

5.1.4 The attitude of the chief

If a boss assumes himself to be 'the chief', he assumes that every element of power is in his hands. First of all, the rater and the ratee may avoid instances where self-esteem can be hurt. Secondly, since the appraisal exercise is not yet seen as a tool for wielding power, assessors do not feel a sense of pride and power when using it. Indications from the study suggest the unlikelihood that subordinates would question managerial intentions, especially if the supervisor considers himself a 'chief'. Therefore, as long as those in authority think that the performance appraisal does not give them the ability to dole out rewards and sanctions, they will either not carry out the appraisal or simply fill it out in a perfunctory manner. Meanwhile, salary increments are actually based

on the following: a) re-grading jobs, b) joining the senior levels of technical and professional jobs, c) pay awards to select groups of public officers due to the pressure exerted on the political leadership, d) legal provisions for some government agencies to determine their salaries, and e) working on donor-funded projects. Due to the 'chief' factor, civil servants are more likely to accept the appraisal if it is imposed by superiors through top-down decision making. This is because they want to show how well behaved they are in order to be rewarded. They also know that the rater may easily use the appraisal report as a basis of re-grading ones job or select the favourite to work on donor funded projects, which in turn may lead to salary increments.

5.1.5 Privileges and status symbols and their effect on performance appraisal

There is always immense pressure from society to know how far one has climbed the leadership ladder, and the belief that one's rank in the hierarchy reflects differences in quality stimulates the need and desire to be promoted. Given that the performance appraisal system is not directly tied to the promotion system, it is seen as a waste of time. Juniors treat the filling out of appraisal forms as a routine and the seniors sign them as a duty. But this should not suggest that it is a totally misplaced document; it can occasionally be used to justify decisions. What is clear though is that there is lack of enthusiasm concerning the performance appraisal form, and the whole system seems irrelevant. According to this study's respondents, it appears that the performance appraisal system disrupts the existing power structure by requiring self-assessment by the appraised. Having to share evaluative power – this is a power all parties see as a privilege of the rater – may also invite resistance from the ratees. In the first instance, power has been shared, and the superior who views himself as a benevolent benefactor is now 'reduced' to a mere partaker in the decision making processes. Evidence from the interviews supports the conclusion that self assessment and agreement between the rater and ratee on a joint action plan is considered inconsistent with the 'natural flow of power', as one respondent put it. Most disturbing: the rater must hand over the appraisal form to a countersigning officer to confirm that the assessment is done correctly and is genuine. By making this demand, the appraisal is perceived as a tool that undermines the power, influence, status and privilege of the 'chief'. Consequently it is given less attention and priority, less commitment, it is not conducted in a timely manner, and feedback is haphazard. In this way, the appraisal reforms are slowed down and the intentions of the reformers are not met.

5.2 Strong uncertainty avoidance and performance appraisal reforms

5.2.1 The paradox of rule following

It may seem paradoxical that civil servants who feel comfortable being rule followers feel uncomfortable with the appraisal which is also a set of rules. One possible explanation for the paradox in rule following is that when rules tend to disfavour employees and cause them to feel uncertain, the employees try to circumvent them. In this case, the rater feels in charge of the future by determining the performance targets – a solution far easier than having to agree on targets with the ratee, yet it undermines the principal of having both parties agree on the performance targets. Another reason for the paradox in rule following is that since respect and promotion are results of seniority, the performance appraisal system may be undermined because of the general attitude towards young people. Ugandan bureaucrats have a strong desire to hold onto their jobs until retirement, given that the nature of civil service provides job security and thus is a way to overcome uncertainty. Because of this, even though they do not like the performance appraisal, they will fill out the form yet be delinquent in doing so. Although there are so many rules and regulations guiding the usage of performance appraisal, they are not respected as they ought to be. In fact, civil servants try their level best to circumvent them to suit their interest. This is contrary to reformers' expectations, for if the civil servants are truly a rule following lot, then they should be experiencing a perfect appraisal system.

5.2.2 The effect of 'psychological contract' on performance appraisal

In societies with high uncertainty avoidance cultures, there is a unique type of 'psychological contract' whereby the boss and the subordinate tend to back up each other even if the performance of the junior is poor (Schein, 1999). There is a need for interdependence that is mutually beneficial. One respondent had this to say: '*I know my permanent secretary is very busy. When the time for them comes like for promotion, I will fill them out and take them to him for signing. He is not bothered about those so-called indicators.*'

The sentiments contained in this quote are echoed by most respondents; we describe a 'contract' between the rater and the ratee to do what works for them regardless of what the rules say. The intention of the 'contract' is to forestall uncertainty. Doing so is a clear indication that they are not committed to seeing the performance appraisal succeed. At the same time, the 'psychological contract' practice is more than just an affront to objectivity because the appraisal has not been filled out at the stipulated time. All this contributes to sabotaging the appraisal at the implementation phase.

5.2.3 Uncertainty and performance targets

Within the context of high uncertainty avoidance, there is a strong need for precision. However, some of the work in the civil service is difficult to quantify. For instance, it's difficult to do a joint appraisal on the basis of agreed indicators when the standing orders explicitly give heads of department control over a subordinates' schedule through a clause stating that the junior will handle '...any other tasks that may be assigned by the superiors'. It is also possible that a subordinate could be required to do work outside his job description, and then it becomes practically impossible to appraise the person on such tasks. This renders the tool itself inconsistent with the administrative culture, and thus constrains its actual design and implementation. But it becomes difficult to apply the appraisal instrument in an organization where work is sometimes ad hoc and where some of the output is qualitative in nature. Thus in the long run, unless this mismatch is managed the performance appraisal cannot take root.

5.2.4 Ambiguity in relation to performance appraisal

Ambiguity in the performance appraisal thwarts innovation, which is intended to be one of the main purposes of the appraisal exercise. Much as there are guidelines and workshops, measuring qualitative work quantitatively requires a high level of specificity in a strong uncertainty context like Uganda. Take for example the qualitative variables specified under 'Part C' of the appraisal form: Professional knowledge, Planning, Organizing, Leadership, Decision making, Management of resources, and Loyalty; these are not clearly denoted with marks. The potential conflict of interest leading to ambiguity which the interviewees mention concerns celebrations like marriages, baptisms and funerals. Many civil servants consider these very important. The appraisal form and process does not recognize and adequately accommodate for the importance of these celebrations, and the bureaucracy assumes that contemporary official behaviour should not be bound by such traditions. One respondent wonders why she cannot be excused for having failed to accomplish a task because she took leave for 'more days than enough' to attend a relative's funeral. She insists that in such a situation her performance would be negatively impacted since her perception is that civil service management practices do not take into consideration her cultural values. Some supervisors will go ahead and give her permission to attend the funeral and when the time for assessment comes; they will give a favourable appraisal because they 'understand' the reasons why she could not meet her target. But more remarkable than this example is the ambiguity-generating practice of double standards: those who deny or pretend to deny permission for such celebrations are themselves the most culpable, for when they themselves are involved in such celebrations they are known to spend more time and even government resources on them. Yet their subordinates have no opportunity to critique them given the structure of the Ugandan performance appraisal system.

5.2.5 Innovation in relation to performance appraisal

Along with the problem of ambiguity we find the problem of innovation. In large uncertainty-avoidance cultures, innovation is less encouraged. Data for this study reveals that innovators within the civil service feel constrained by the rules. Radical ideas are avoided in favour of maintaining the status quo, rendering the appraisal system less effective. This situation is most apparent when the performance appraisal form requires a supervisor to assess the junior's core job competencies, and yet there is no provision for evaluating the level of creativity and innovativeness of the civil servant. If the performance appraisal is designed to improve efficiency and effectiveness, how then can it achieve this goal when it does not allow the ratee to be assessed on innovation? The whole appraisal form is made in such a way that it focuses on technical solutions and behaviour. Juniors are discouraged from enacting innovative behaviours that are not formally part of their job descriptions. Therefore, the appraisal exercise may appear to be working, but the intention is largely unmet – hence a challenge to the appraisal reform.

5.2.6 Risk aversion and performance appraisal

The relatively high uncertainty avoidance implies unwillingness to take risks and accept the changes the performance appraisal system would entail if fully implemented. This is manifested in the reluctance by civil servants to take initiatives outside of prescribed roles. This is confirmed by an official who says: '*Within the civil service, we handle things very carefully. Therefore for the performance appraisal to succeed, we have to implement it in bits, but if you want to make people commit themselves to an ambitious programme, they coil. Civil servants are risk averse!*' she said.

In the quote above, the lady declares that civil servants are risk averse, which is in agreement with what many other respondents said. I interpret this quote also to mean that civil servants approach appraisal reforms with caution and do not want to embrace it all at ago because they fear that they may fail to implement it well. Therefore they set minimal targets or easy milestones with regard to its implementation which slows down its

institutionalization. Neither the rater nor the ratee will get involved in setting challenging tasks. In turn, it reduces the possibilities for the performance appraisal to function well.

5.2.7 Expert power and performance appraisal

The recognition of the value of expert power is characteristic of Hofstede's uncertainty avoidance dimension (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005, p.189). This leads to the proposition that had the performance appraisal form given more prominence and reference to expert power; it would have been more effective. Of the 10 competence areas for evaluation, only one refers to expertise. This also could be interpreted to mean that Ugandan civil servants, being more predisposed towards high uncertainty avoidance, tend to view the results-oriented performance appraisal as a tool that has little impact as far as their career development is concerned. If the appraisal is perceived as an instrument which minimally addresses expertise, then ratees do not consider it useful and will naturally give it less attention in relation to other activities. In addition, the desire for experts to be recognized also undermines the performance appraisal because Ugandans have a strong need to be surrounded by loyal people. This loyalty and respect comes about because the senior is considered an expert in the area and it accentuates his control over juniors. In interviews, respondents agreed that having loyal juniors not only motivates the senior, but is desirable. However, the extent to which this state of affairs enhances a fair, transparent and objective performance appraisal is questionable, given the cases of unfair dismissals, promotions recruitments and frustration. In other words, civil servants who are oriented towards strong uncertainty avoidance may feel uncomfortable in new situations. They are likely to avoid ambiguity and uncertainty as much as possible. Clearly, these civil servants, influenced by perceived uncertainty, will not accept the values of the performance appraisal until after consistent revisions have honed it to fit with the host culture.

5.3 Political neutrality and performance appraisal reforms

The political aspects are very important for the success of appraisal reforms. A commonly invoked condition for the successful implementation of administrative reforms is political support from the executive branch of government (Flynn, 2002). President Museveni personally introduced key reform issues to Uganda. He claimed that these reforms were hatched during the five years he was leading a guerrilla war. However, given the prevailing situation concerning political support, we find that the most successful exercise was downsizing of the civil service by about 54% in five years. Why then is their seemingly little support for the performance appraisal? It is the contention of this study that the performance appraisal has limited support because of high political neutrality amongst the civil servants and because they may also have less support for the incumbent.

5.3.1 Political will and symbolism

Some respondents indicate that the performance appraisals, together with other reforms, are intended to give the National Resistance Movement (NRM) government much needed legitimacy. The reforms appear to give an impression that the fundamental change of making the civil service more efficient and effective has been achieved. Sometimes government actions are intended to gain public support. Therefore, a few questions confront us: is the performance appraisal meant to show the public that at last the government is interested in streamlining the civil service? Does the government want to win the support of the public servants, who the president has often referred to as his political enemies? Is it done because the donors will lavish these reforms with much needed money? Is the performance appraisal just another showcase to the multilateral agencies that the country is undergoing transformation? The population is demanding more accountability from the government and one way to show this accountability is to provide a package of administrative reforms within the public service. This package definitely includes performance appraisal. Findings of this research show however that civil servants are seldom fired due to poor performance. In this respect, the introduction of the appraisal system appears to be part of an attempt by the government to gain legitimacy by window dressing itself with the principles of transparency and meritocracy. But due to the political leaders' attitude towards the civil service – they believe it is full of opposition members – one could argue that the aim of portraying the government in good light through the introduction of the appraisal system is a mere symbolic act rather than a true attempt to make the public service better. To achieve legitimacy through the appraisal, the state must build strategic relationships with the civil servants.

Yet another political issue is the source of the reforms: most respondents of this research share the view that with limited faith in government policies, it can be difficult to implement the appraisal system. With the government taking a cautionary approach, it is understandable that no reward has been linked to the appraisal. Meanwhile, the lack of any punishment for not implementing the system adequately has created a sense of low priority and less attention being given to implementing the appraisal system. Although most interviewees disfavour coercive

measures, they highlight the lack of attention the appraisal receives and the absence of political will to make government implement it. Does the government have the will to enforce compliance?

It seems civil servants do not want politicians to interfere with the reform processes, though at the same time they consider it an advantage for top civil servants to share political views of the ruling regime. So in such an environment, why do performance appraisals fail? Possibly civil servants may sabotage the process in order to fail the top civil servants and therefore give themselves opportunity to rise in the hierarchy. Another possibility is that it is a passive protest to government. My findings show that bureaucrats want to keep aloof from the politicians; they dislike political interference and therefore resist the performance appraisal because it is perceived as a tool of the NRM. This resistance manifests itself in various ways; the performance appraisal is not conducted. Even when the appraisal is conducted, it is not done on time. In relation to other activities, the performance appraisal is given minimal attention, which shows that there is no commitment to the appraisal system. Yet, in order for the appraisal to take root, it needs commitment and not sabotage. Eventually the resistance and sabotage make appraisal system stale in its progression and institutionalization.

5.3.2 Attitude of the politicians towards civil servants

Public servants claim they have suffered and the politicians, led by the President, have accentuated political neutrality, and at times bred some form of opposition. As noted by Polidano (1999, p.12), the introduction of modern performance-oriented staff appraisal is a straightforward exercise, but the difficulty comes afterwards because governments are reluctant to link appraisals to career rewards and sanctions. Promotions continue to be based on seniority and at times patronage *inter alia*. Uganda has made bold steps in applying this model of appraisal, but it falls short because the reform turns out to be long on rhetoric and short on results. Progress on the performance appraisal has been limited and has not been fully internalized. Findings indicate that the momentum is slowing and ministries argue that this is because the performance appraisal was not closely linked to Output Based Budgeting.

Like any other reform and organization process, there is always the issue of internal politics in the ministries that also affects full implementation of the performance appraisal. First, the reform agents prefer to use a technical framework only (e.g. the focus on goals and the availability of enough appraisal forms at hand) for implementing the performance appraisal, rather than a political one. Yet administrative reform is a political process. Decisions taken by certain bureaucrats result in the redistribution of rights, benefits, power and resources, and the existing power holders cannot be expected to surrender power or advantage voluntarily. The second aspect of internal politics relates to involvement. Though the enthusiasm for the performance appraisal has slowed down, it was initially because the civil servants are much keener to implement ideas that are products of their own involvement.

Data denotes that in order for the performance appraisal to succeed it must have the support and approval of politicians as well. Therefore, it is incumbent upon bureaucrats to design appraisal reforms that appeal to politicians; they should be perceived to lend legitimacy or at least appear to respond to public demands. Yet sometimes a gap looms between political priorities and bureaucratic priorities which do not support appraisal reforms. One way to reduce this gap is for the civil servants to develop systems and mechanisms of translating political agendas into implementable policies. But the politicians, who are the supervisors of the ministries, seem not to pay much attention to how successful the performance appraisal reform has been anyway. Perhaps this is because the impact of the performance appraisal is more implicit than explicit and the politicians may be more interested in reforms that yield immediate results. Unless the President intervenes in some aspects, a question arises whether appraisal reforms can be given financial priority. This sort of dependence on the goodwill of the president for the civil service to get sufficient funding has been problematic because the performance appraisal is not politically significant compared to other reforms.

5.3.3 Patronage

There have been several complaints that top public sector positions, especially in the important government ministries like defence, have been filled by politically loyal officials. Some of the civil servants view patronage as an unintended consequence of their extreme political neutrality which is perceived as opposition by the ruling government. Therefore because the civil servants are not politically biased and overwhelmingly loyal to the ruling regime, the ruling political elite has opted for patronage to neutralize them. This has undermined the importance of the performance appraisal system which should ideally lead to promotions. The president appoints the Permanent Secretary and therefore those who aspire for the top post would rather play politics. It is self-defeating because the appraisal system could have helped correct institutional distortions caused by the

political breakdown during the 1970s and 1980s. Instead, patronage is on the rise. The performance appraisal becomes ineffective since employees see it not as an instrument to promote merit, but party loyalty.

This study found interesting views concerning the tolerance of patronage. At least 20 interviews (74%) indicate that political connections are responsible for some promotions and recruitment in the public service. A personnel official notes that patrimonial pressure abounds everywhere and is most pronounced at the district level. One of the explanations is based on the premise that the District Service Commission is established by the local politicians and hence is often under pressure to recruit favoured candidates. The political-administrative interface at the local level is full of tension, which inevitably affects the appraisals. According to Kiyaga Nsubuga, 'Numerous efforts have been made to resolve this, including review of the Local Governments Act, 1997, and regular issuance of guidelines by various government bodies, but the problem still persists' (Kiyaga-Nsubuga, 2004), even to date.

One may well ask: if the performance appraisal is not related to promotion, then does it matter if people are recruited on the basis of patronage? This is the dilemma. First, it brings up the problem of double standards: one group of civil servants is promoted on the basis of the performance appraisal and another group is promoted on the basis of political patronage. The issues that come into play therefore are fairness and standardization. The performance appraisal system can take root only if the same rules apply equally to those concerned. Second, there is the issue of presidential appointments which are political in nature; for instance, in the Ugandan civil service, all appointments from Assistant Commissioner to Permanent Secretary are presidential appointments. This means applicants for such positions are interviewed by the public service commission and forwarded to the president for appointment. However, if for any reason, the president is not comfortable with an appointee, he will not appoint the person. In addition, the president also has the discretion to himself appoint individuals and recommend them to the public service for formality purposes. Therefore, if these appointments are political, then promotions based on the appraisal will not be the norm and hence the appraisal system becomes less useful as one moves high up the ladder of hierarchy. For this reason a senior civil servant may find it more beneficial to play politics than pay much attention to a result-oriented appraisal.

In relation to our study, this is a very telling finding: how can a merit-based performance appraisal system thrive in an environment riddled with patronage practices? It would definitely face a lot of difficulty. Objectivity and transparency, which are hallmarks of the appraisal system, are compromised. Civil servants' commitment to it is also undermined since they treat it as having little value. Hence the appraisal system cannot be fully introduced.

5.3.4 Patronage and performance appraisal

Most respondents managing the reform process observed that administrative reforms (of which the appraisal is a small component) are dominated by monetary enticements; it was reported that because top civil servants have to meet their donors fortnightly, they have to come up with a shopping list that suits the donor's best interests. Civil servants will allow certain appraisal processes to take place because they profit financially or otherwise from them. Huge donor funds, international pressure and various other avenues may be exploited by corrupt local and international officials. A civil servant asks (rhetorically): 'These civil service reforms come with money, vehicles, computers, etc. Why then reject them?' This is a tempting situation, given the culture prevalent in the bureaucracy. The merits of the performance appraisal are inconsequential as long as the bureaucrats can profiteer by accepting these reforms from the donor community. In a study including Uganda, it has been reported that civil service officials negotiate with donors over the design of projects, but the officials' main concern is their own personal financial benefit. This leads to distortion of donor interventions – pointless study tours, use of local consultants, vehicles, cellular phones and so forth (Wescott, 1999, p.28). Other findings indicate that during the initial stages of the performance appraisal, the idea of participating in a big reform programme is welcomed. It created opportunities for certain civil servants in the form of salaries, allowances, official cars, and domestic or foreign trips. This is because usually, the key personnel involved in conceiving and initiating a particular reform are the ones who end up implementing it (Mwenda, 2007, pp.30 -31). With time, however, enthusiasm towards the appraisal fades because it is no longer capable of providing these prerequisites. The interviews indicate that civil servants will prefer to give attention to issues where they can earn extra money from the donors, but the performance appraisal seems not to be in that category. I could as well conclude that the performance appraisal was formally given by the donors, formally adopted by the civil servants, but informally and in practice, the civil servants have evaded it because of administrative cultural influences and that this is why it has had limited success.

5.4 Effects of ethnicity on performance appraisal reforms

The Manyi ani ('I know who') factor seems to have some influence over the way public administration operates in Uganda. Management events in Africa reveal a complex of ethnic 'arithmetic' whereby tribal preferences take precedence over formal procedures for recruitment and promotion (Montgomery 1986). Similar trends were found in the Uganda civil service where respectable leaders indicated that while executing the performance appraisal form, it is the personal, kinship, and informal relations that guide most of the process, though it will not be admitted or documented. In fact one senior bureaucrat has this to say: *'Even when I have a brother or relative in another department, I try to seek friendship with his boss so that he favours him, and this is or will be replicated in my own department if chance arises'*.

The impression created therefore is that it is who you know, not what you know that really matters while being evaluated. In doing so, at least five steps in the appraisal process are watered down: a) The agreement on targets is not taken seriously because the evaluation should be based on the agreed-upon targets and not influenced by these relationships. b) The commitment to the appraisal process is undermined because the appraisal system requires that merit is rewarded and failure sanctioned. However, in this case it is ethnicity which is the centre of focus. c) The feed back process is influenced by ethnically based appraisal conduct. The feedback will either be biased or based on the wrong premise. d) This also indicates the absence of transparency. If, for example, a rater gives a ratee a poor mark, he will not openly tell the ratee 'I gave you this kind of evaluation on the basis of ethnicity'. In fact, even when a positive evaluation is made, transparency will not be a priority. e) Objectivity is compromised at the expense of ethnicity.

Another widely voiced observation is technical know who, implying that civil servants who have a strong sense of networking make themselves liked and indispensable. To them, the performance appraisal system is not a big deal; in any case, they will be graded well even though they may not be effective.

In order to orient subordinates towards personal task accomplishment, they should be assured that they do not need to have ethnically based support. For instance, the rater – ratee dialogue during feedback sessions should examine how the subordinate can be helped to improve performance but not to favour them as co-ethnic workers or disfavour them because they do not belong to their ethnic group. Relationships in the workplace can also undermine the impact of this particular appraisal system if they are based on ethnicity. The performance appraisal provides for discovering performance problems of fellow civil servants. But the senior officials may find themselves in a situation where they do not want to embarrass the ratee if they share a common ethnicity. As such, they become reluctant to criticize the ratee's performance and shy away from providing honest opinions on the performance appraisal form. Respondents intimate that owing to a common desire for good relationships, a mediocre civil servant has chances of getting a satisfactory grade.

It has been observed that ethnicity impacts most behaviour in multi-ethnic societies (Allen 1994), and when people join organizations, their ethnic commitments and values lie inherent in their identity and are reflected through their work behaviour. Arguably, people in Uganda are group-oriented and paternalistic in nature, and therefore are capable of searching for ethnic homogeneity as an adaptive response to alienation in the work place. Over 75% of respondents in this study opine that tribal and ethnic considerations influence administrative practices in the civil service. Interviewees divulge that in some public departments people from western and southern Uganda dominate senior posts. Therefore, some individuals do not feel valued because of where they were born, and this affects the way they handle the performance appraisal process. This issue of exclusion has been blamed for causing dissatisfaction, reducing morale, increasing absenteeism and poor motivation in the way the appraisal reforms are perceived and implemented. Those who feel left out on the basis of ethnicity mishandle the performance appraisal through resentment-based resistance, and subtle acts of non-cooperation. They believe this is a justifiable way to 'get even' for perceived mistreatment and a way to exercise their power to mitigate perceived injustice.

In some cases ethnic homogeneity has enhanced the effective and successful implementation of the performance appraisal because people sharing values are likely to support one another during crises, and the lower staff may accept appraisal results from their own 'kin'. This is commonly seen in the recruitment and deployment of support staff. Respondents reveal that it is common for an officer who is entitled to official transport to prefer a driver who hails from the same district. The individual's closest colleagues will also usually share the same ethnic identity, that is, be from the same tribe and speak the same mother tongue. The existence of a complex system of 'ethnic arithmetic', by which tribal preferences take precedence over formal procedures for recruitment and promotion, can be found in governments everywhere. In Africa few managers are prepared to

deal head-on with such issues, even if it causes morale problems amongst their own staff (Montgomery, 1986, p.22).

Given that the performance appraisal plays a role, albeit a minor one (at least it is considered one criteria for promotion), it follows that individuals may indulge in ethnicity for the sake of having favourable results posted on their performance appraisal records. In fact, a senior civil servant intimated that he himself is aware of some officials in his ministry who have been beneficiaries of such tendencies. He is however quick to add that the practice is neither widespread nor condoned. It is hardly revealed and is therefore an insidious factor in undermining the effective implementation of the performance appraisal.

6. Conclusion

I conclude that Ugandan civil servants have been reluctant to embrace the performance appraisal system because it does not 'fit' with the dominant cultural attitudes and administrative behaviour. These deep-seated cultural tendencies of strong uncertainty avoidance and large power distance may be barriers to the NPM led performance appraisal system. But apart from a cultural adjustment programme on the part of the civil servants, reformers must recognize the nature of Uganda's bureaucracy and design a performance appraisal system that does not appear to undermine or confront these cultural tendencies. Instead they must manipulate them and shape a performance management tool for building a culture of performance. It has been observed that though civil servants want to remain politically neutral, they are compelled by their line of work to pay allegiance to the ruling regime. While some seem to deeply distrust the politicians, others receive political patronage. Results indicate that the performance appraisal is sabotaged by the civil servants because they are politically neutral and less partisan. We have also realized that Uganda's civil service is ethnically fractionalized. This has led to irregular appointments and promotions, which definitely undermine the intention of the merit-based appraisal system.

Thus, public sector reformers could design the performance appraisal to pass a cultural compatibility test; it should be consistent with the host administrative cultures and this can be done in two possible ways: a) by carrying out a 'cultural adjustment programme' whereby the civil servants are taken through a process of unlearning certain norms and practices and being indoctrinated and educated with norms and values that may ease the process of the NPM inspired appraisal system; b) review the performance appraisal system so that it can accommodate and acknowledge the context and thus become sensitive to the host cultural values.

The study suggests future research that might be needed in order to understand better the role of administrative culture on performance appraisal. It may be helpful to carry out a longitudinal study and observe how the appraisal process is conducted in the public service over a long and continuous period. Although administrative culture was the main field of study here, the adoption of other perspectives in order to understand the performance appraisal system represents a valuable area of study to pursue. The study also raises the question of the underlying motives of policy reforms. Future studies should be carried out to investigate further why certain reformers do not treat culture as important.

This study has at least two implications for other African countries: first, administrative culture matters and it should be studied, understood, managed and developed. Secondly, it is important to establish how administrative culture manifests itself in various ways across Africa and influences policy reform and change in each country. This is because most of the reforms, such as the performance appraisal, are structured according to Anglo-Western value systems which are instrumentally rational and hence may not be congruent with the African culture.

I thus contend that in order to carry out a successful performance appraisal reform, it may be useful to a) raise the recognition of culture as a critical factor when introducing performance appraisal, b) weed out obstructive elements in the administrative culture of the Ugandan civil service, and c) promote and reward constructive elements in the administrative culture in order to increase the possibilities for the appraisal reform's success. In sum, as the Ugandan case demonstrates, administrative culture matters for the successful implementation of performance appraisal reforms in Africa.

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Notes

Note 1. The boss conceives self as a colonial chief who had legislative, executive, judicial, and administrative powers.

Note 2. Informality denotes socially shared unwritten rules that are created, communicated and enforced unofficially.

Note 3. Characteristics of ethnicity are; a) common geographic origin; b) migratory status; c) race; d) language or dialect; e) religious faith; f) ties that transcend kinship, neighborhood, and community boundaries; h) literature, folklore, and music; i) food preferences; j) settlement and employment patterns; k) special interests in regard to politics; l) institutions that specifically secure and maintain the group; m) an internal sense of distinctiveness, and n) an external perception of distinctiveness (Thernstrom 1980).

The Practice of Sustainable Tourism in Ecotourism Sites among Ecotourism Providers

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Abstract

Ecotourism and sustainable tourism have similar objectives to link conservation goals, economic and rural development. Ecotourism also offers educational and new experience to tourists, and it has to be developed and managed in an environmentally sensitive manner while protecting the environment. With the influx of eco-tourist into Malaysia, the numbers of tourism agencies interested to be ecotourism providers increased tremendously. Since there are no specific guidelines in practicing ecotourism, many tourism agencies normally proclaim themselves as eco-tour providers and served in the ecotourism industry without any restriction. This situation will definitely affect the environment due to lack of proper ecotourism practice. Therefore, the aim of this study is to investigate the standard of the current ecotourism practice among ecotourism providers in Malaysia. The main objective of this research is to determine whether ecotourism providers follow sustainable tourism practices. An ecotourism provider in Selangor and Kuala Lumpur has been selected as the respondent. This study attempts to help in identifying the best practices for ecotourism in Malaysia towards sustainable tourism.

Keywords: Ecotourism, Ecotourism practice, Sustainable tourism

1. Introduction

Tourism is one of the important industries in Malaysia. In line of this, ecotourism has become one of the tourism activities preferred by the tourist. Ecotourism can be defined as one of the concept which focuses on conservation, preservation and has social and economic benefits. With the evolving of ecotourism industry, it is believed that it has been causing the number of travel agencies involved in ecotourism to increase. Consequently, when the number of tourism agencies increases in the ecotourism industry, it will definitely have the harmful effects if they do not strictly adhere to the practice of proper ecotourism. The objective of ecotourism is to provide a sustainable tourism whereby tourists enjoy the visit without causing any negative impact on sites while

the communities get the benefit from the industry. However, the sustainability can only be achieved if they are really applying the ecotourism practices. Ecotourism providers are one of the important stakeholders that can facilitate towards sustainability. However, without following appropriate ecotourism practices, they will definitely contribute to the damage of ecotourism resources. With the growing concerns about the negative impacts of the ecotourism industry, it is necessary to follow the guidelines for sustainable tourism. The significance of this research, is that it may contribute indirectly towards the conservation of ecotourism areas in Malaysia.

2. The Needs of Ecotourism in Sustainable Tourism

In the 21st century, sustainable development has become an important issue in our community. Sustainability highlights on the resource conservation. The model of sustainable development consists of three elements: economics, social and environment (Wildes, 1998). In line of this, the Tourism of Canada came up with the definition of sustainable tourism as development that leads to management of all resources to benefit the economic, social and aesthetic needs, while retaining the cultural, ecological and biological integrity (Cruz, 2003). The definition of sustainability is seen to move in line with the objective of ecotourism. Sustainability is a first thing to concentrate in order to perform for the best practice in ecotourism. Organizations such as The International Ecotourism Society (TIES), World Conservation Union (IUCN) and International Ecotourism Standard had explained the definition of ecotourism, which can be concluded that ecotourism is a travel or visit to a natural area while being responsible for the conservation and the impact of environment and benefiting the cultural, economic, social, and political landscape of the local people. It is also not solely to pursue for enjoyment, but also to provide appreciation for the environment and education for a tourist (Drumm & Moore, 2005; Kaur, 2006). On the other hand, it was found that the definition of ecotourism has been misinterpreted and currently ecotourism is seen mainly as adventure tourism in a natural environment, with little concern for conservation and sustainability (Mader, 2002; Lascrain, 2006). This is due to lack of specific measures to guide the ecotourism activities. Therefore, the importance of indicators as a tool of sustainable tourism is needed.

2.1 The Practice towards Sustainable Tourism

To implement sustainable tourism, there is a need of the indicators, which perform a guide for ecotourism practice. These indicators can lead to an effective monitoring system (United Nation, 2007). World Tourism Organization (WTO) has developed a universal tourism indicator that is applicable to be used as a basis of sustainable tourism (Dymond, 1997). The eleven core indicators proposed by the WTO can be seen in Table 1. Based on the Table 1, it is clearly comprised with the three important elements of sustainable tourism as mentioned previously. The elements of social, economics and environment has shown obviously in the indicators. There are many indicators, which comply with the elements of sustainable tourism. However, the indicators by WTO are perceived as a basis that should be used as a beginning in sustainable tourism.

3. Methodology

3.1 Stage 1: Screening survey

One of the limitations encountered in this research is the unavailability of a specific list of ecotourism agencies in Malaysia. The only means of finding the ecotourism providers was by going through the list of all the tourism providers in the country, which offer a range of tourism specialties. The purpose of the screening survey is to select and shortlist the eligible respondents for this research. The screening was carried out through a telephone survey. As for the agencies, which have fulfilled the criteria as an ecotourism provider, they will be asked for their consent and agreement to be involved in the next stage of the survey. Based on Table 2, the screening survey has shown that there were 976 travel agencies. However, only 97 agencies are directly involved in ecotourism. From the 97 agencies that have the potential respondents, only 78 of these agencies were willing to participate in the next survey. As such, 78 agencies have been selected as respondents for this study.

3.2 Stage 2: Data Collection

The questionnaire survey is the main instrument of data collection for this research. It was carried out by approaching agencies providing ecotourism activities in Selangor and Kuala Lumpur. They were the short-listed candidates during the screening survey. Based on screening survey, 78 of tourism agencies in Selangor and Kuala Lumpur have been identified to represent the required number of respondents. As the locations of the selected respondents were scattered around the country, the best way to distribute the questionnaire forms was through the Internet. It has decided to use email to send questionnaire forms, as its distribution is much faster and easier. However, from the 78 respondents, only 56 respondents replied to the questionnaire survey. Table 3 indicates the number of respondents of whom the researcher expected to get feedback. In order to answer the objective, the

mean score range was used to identify either ecotourism provider fulfill the sustainable tourism on their practice through the scale rating in Table 4.

4. Discussion

In literature review, the indicators of sustainable tourism by WTO were comprised in four categories namely social, ecological, economic and planning. These categories are in line with the three elements of ecotourism that had been discussed in the literature review. Based on the result of the survey, the mean of eleven indicators of sustainable tourism practices has been ranked as shown in Table 5. The indicator of 'Tourism Contribution to Local Economy' collected the highest mean (mean=4.30) while 'Stress' was the lowest mean (mean=2.94). Based on the Table 5, level 1 is a satisfactory level where the mean value obtained was more than 4.00. Among the eleven indicators, the ecotourism providers have successfully practiced only four of it. The four indicators had gathered the mean value more than 4.00, which has confirmed that the respondents "likely" to practice in that indicators. It also found that the practices were more successful in economic category. It can illustrate that there are two indicators from the economic categories. The economic category had attained a good result because it can provide a benefit to the local people and most importantly it can generate revenue to the agencies involved. As such, it would be vital for them to practice the economic indicators since it helps to strengthen the agencies financially. It also can be presumed that the ecotourism providers may focus on gaining profit for their agencies compare to other factors in their ecotourism business. The other two indicators were from social and planning categories whereas no successful indicator comes from ecological category.

For the second level, there were four indicators which obtained the mean value, which is "not sure," but it is inclined to be "likely" if some improvement was made on these indicators. Although the value is at a slightly satisfactory level, it was not really strong or insufficient to confirm as successfully practiced. The mean was between the ranges of 3.50 to 3.99. This mean can describe that the practices can improve and required some careful management. At this stage, the ecological category dominated the ranking as it was found that three of four indicators in this stage came from the ecological category, and one indicator came from the social category. From the result, it was found that 'local satisfaction' was in second level while the 'consumer's satisfaction' was in first level. It shows that the ecotourism providers were more concerned about their customers rather than the local people. However, this was not surprising because the customer satisfaction is on the economic category where it has a benefit to the agencies compared with the social category. Thus, the practice to ensure all groups of people had satisfaction was imbalanced because the ecotourism providers were more focused on one group. On the other hand, the ecological category seems not supposed to be in this level because it is one of the important elements in ecotourism. There is a need of a study on why this category is lacking in their practice.

The third level is the range of mean between the ranges of 3.00 to 3.49. It is also in the mean of "not sure" but this level is more crucial rather than the second level. There are two indicators inclusive in third stage: ecological and planning categories. This mean shows that the ecotourism providers had to get over the negative value and concluded as "unlikely" in their practices. For this level, the practices of an indicator required some precautionary measure; otherwise, it tended to be on the unsatisfactory level. The indicators included in this range were 'Development Control' and 'Waste Management'. It is considered that both indicators were on the management and practice for the site itself. It required a place attachment to the site so that they would feel more responsible for the site as well. The lack of responsibilities to the site caused the less practice for the indicators. The ecotourism agencies feel that the responsibilities must be held by the owner of the site.

The fourth level is the range below the mean of 3.00. The mean illustrated in negative value or unsatisfactory level. The indicator was 'Stress' from ecological category with the mean obtained as much as 2.94. This indicator represented the carrying capacity, which was the important factor in ecotourism industry. In WTO's indicators, it was the first indicator in the list, which shows that the existence of this indicator is vital. Regrettably, the ecotourism providers had proven that they were not concerned on one of the most important factors of sustainable tourism.

5. Conclusion

Although ecotourism in Malaysia had been developed for a long time ago, major gaps still existed in our industry, especially on the practice towards sustainable tourism. With the growing concern of the conservation issues in recent years, efforts to develop the best practice that measures environmental and social impacts of travel have increased. Many efforts to enhance ecotourism value as well as to improve its planning, management and marketing techniques have been carried out by the government and other stakeholders. However, the efforts still seem to be insufficient. There are still disturbing issues, which do not reflect the sustainable ecotourism, practices.

Ecotourism providers need to improve on their practice. This is due to the findings, has shown the respondents have done successfully on only four among the eleven indicators. Most of the other indicators still need some expansion and awareness because some of the result had showed that the indicators obtained the mean in unsatisfactory level. Apart from that, an environmental element was seemed to be as very crucial where it does not show a great result on their practice. Sustainable tourism can be presumed as a new concept and need to gain better recognition in the Malaysian ecotourism industry. To achieve the best practice on ecotourism, the integration of sustainable tourism indicators seems as vital. It would benefit and enhance the ecotourism industry to ensure better operation of the ecotourism resources. As consequences, the practice and sustainability are closely related and need to be integrated, with each having its own role in ascertaining the direction of Malaysia's ecotourism industry.

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Table 1. Core Indicators of Sustainable Tourism

No.	Core Indicator	Specific Measures	Indicator Groupings
1.	Site protection	Category of site protection according to the International Union for the Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources (IUCN) index	Ecological
2.	Stress	Tourist numbers visiting site (per annum/peak month)	Ecological
3.	Use intensity	Intensity of use in peak period (persons/hectare)	Ecological
4.	Social impact	Ratio of tourists to locals (peak period and over time)	Social
5.	Development control	Existence of environmental review procedure or formal controls over development of site and use densities	Planning
6.	Waste Management	Percentage of sewage from site receiving treatment (additional indicators may include structural limits of other infrastructural capacity on site, such as water supply)	Ecological
7.	Planning process	Existence of organized regional plan for tourist destination region (including tourism component)	Planning
8.	Critical ecosystem	Number of rare/endangered species	Ecological
9.	Consumer satisfaction	Level of satisfaction by visitors (questionnaire-based)	Economic
10.	Local satisfaction	Level of satisfaction by locals (questionnaire-based)	Social
11.	Tourism contribution to local economy	Proportion of total economic activity generated by tourism only	Economic

Table 2. The Numbers of Tourism Agencies in Selangor and Kuala Lumpur

Area	No. of Tourism Agencies	No. of Agencies Involved In Ecotourism	No. of Agencies Willing To Participate
Selangor	324	43	37
Kuala Lumpur	652	54	41
Total	976	97	78

Table 3. The Number of Respondents and Responses Received

Area	No. of Respondent	No. of Reply
Selangor	37	24
Kuala Lumpur	41	32
Total	78	56

Table 4. Mean Score Range Towards Ecotourism Provider Are Fulfill the Sustainable Tourism On Their Practice

Mean Score Range	Level of Efficiency
< 3.00	Unsatisfactory
3.00 to 3.49	Satisfactory With Precaution
3.50 to 3.99	Satisfactory With Some Improvement
> 4.00	Satisfactory Level

Table 5. The Level of Sustainable Tourism Practices

Level of Mean	Variable	Category	Mean (n:56)
Level 1: mean > 4.00 (satisfactory level)	Tourism Contribution To Local Economy	Economic	4.30
	Social Impact	Social	4.26
	Consumer Satisfaction	Economic	4.14
	Planning Process	Planning	4.01
Level 2: mean 3.50 to 3.99 (satisfactory with some improvement)	Critical Ecosystem	Ecological	3.78
	Site Protection	Ecological	3.75
	Local Satisfaction	Social	3.69
	Use Intensity	Ecological	3.58
Level 3: mean 3.00 to 3.49 (satisfactory with precaution)	Development Control	Planning	3.47
	Waste Management	Ecological	3.15
Level 4: mean < 3.00 (unsatisfactory)	Stress	Ecological	2.94

Rapid Urbanization as a Source of Social and Ecological Decay: A Case of Multan City, Pakistan

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Abstract

This paper concentrates on the relationship between rapid urbanization and socio-ecological problems. The major objective of this study is to analyze the unplanned and haphazard urbanization that is giving birth to environmental issues such as; pollution, poor drainage system, poor quality of drinking water and poor hygienic conditions. This research carried out in Multan city, Pakistan through field survey of 200 respondents using multistage sampling technique. Self-administrated questionnaire was used as a tool of data collection and the binary logistic regression was employed for the analysis of the data. The results depict that urbanization is one of the major causes of converging joint family system to the nuclear family system and its changing function as a consequence. It is also a source of reduction of greenery and trees in the city. It is causing problem of poor sanitation system and quality of drinking water. Pollution is another outcome of haphazard and unplanned urbanization. The researcher also found that due to migration from rural to urban areas, the life in the city implicates adversely the quality of life. This study provides better insight on the problems of urbanization in urban areas and will also help policy makers to focus on major areas of improvement such as to check the migration from rural to urban. To enforce the urban laws to reduce the problems of sanitation, check on transport system, quality of drinking water, domestic and industrial waste. The researcher suggests the monitoring of the migration from rural to urban areas through provision of basic facilities in rural areas. On the other hand awareness campaigns and provision of basic facilities to the rural people (educational facilities, health facilities, food and empowerment in basic decision making) can reduce this problem.

Keywords: Urbanization, Social and ecological decay, Pollution, Water, Pakistan

1. Introduction

Urbanization and urban glide is the physical escalation of urban areas. Resultantly changes come in the urban areas that may be poverty, environmental degradation and poor quality of life. Urbanization is one of the serious global problems. As the development takes place from agricultural to an industrial sector, large scale urbanization takes place. During this process the growth rate of urban areas is typically double the pace of overall population increase. Some 29 percent of the world population was living in urban areas in 1950; this figure was 43 percent in 1990, and the estimated figure for the year 2030 is about 61 percent (Manzoor, M. et al., 2010).

History of urbanization in Pakistan can be divided into four phases in which both the in and out migration have occurred. The first phase of urbanization starts with the partition of British Indian Empire, when more than six

million people migrated towards newborn country. Majority of them settled in Pakistan. Second phase started in the mid 1950s the government starts the process of industrialization. The opportunities of good life and employment encouraged million of the rural people migrate to cities. The third phase started with the breakup of East Pakistan in 1971. All the supporters of Pakistan in Bangladesh were forced to leave the country. The fourth but very complex and serious phases in 1980s, at this times changing in the neighboring countries, such as Iran and Afghanistan greatly added to already continuing process of urbanization in Pakistan. History of urbanization in Pakistan shows that the process of urbanization has remained continuous and ongoing phenomena and each decade has added something in it. Unusual growth of a few large cities is another aspect of Pakistan's urbanization. The city of Karachi alone contributes 21.7 % to the total urban population of Pakistan, while the city of Lahore contributes 12.7 percent. They along with the biggest seven cities including Faisalabad, Rawalpindi, Multan, Hyderabad, Gujranwala, Peshawar and Quetta contain 54.6 percent of Pakistan urban population (Pakistan Education Cell, 2001).

The recent patterns and trends of urban growth in developing countries, over the last 20 years many urban areas have experienced dramatic growth, as a result of rapid population growth and as the world's economy have been transformed by a combination of rapid technological and political change. Around 3 billion people virtually half of the world's total population-now live in urban settlements. And while cities command an increasingly dominant role in the global economy as centers of both production and consumption, rapid urban growth throughout the developing world is seriously outstripping the capacity of most cities to provide adequate services for their citizens. Over the next 30 years, virtually all of the world's population growth is expected to be concentrated in urban areas in the developing world. While much of the current sustainable cities debate focuses on the fearsome problems for the world's largest urban agglomerations, the majority of all urban dwellers continue to reside in far smaller urban settlements. Many international agencies have yet to adequately recognize either the anticipated rapid growth of small and medium cities or the deteriorating living conditions of the urban poor (Cohen, 2005). The Urbanization is one of the most important demographic trends of the twenty-first century, and growth is particularly rapid in lower-income countries. The majority of urban growth is associated with the rapid expansion of smaller urban centers and peri-urban developments. Much of this growth is unplanned and informal, with community members and informal-sector developers taking advantage of the fact that the regulatory capacity of government authorities is weak, particularly in those areas that are outside official municipal boundaries (Parkinson and Tayler 2003).

To understand the critical linkages between urbanization, public health and habitat, the environment, population growth, and international security, Ellen (1999) highlights the trends in urban growth, particularly in the developing world, and their potential to affect the international community. Issues addressed include migration to urban centers, the immediate environmental and health impacts of urban pollution on developing country cities, and the link between crime and security. Urbanization does not have only local environmental impacts but also large so-called 'ecological footprints' beyond their immediate vicinity. Intensive and extensive exploitation of natural resources to support urban economy includes excessive extraction of energy resources (including fuel wood), quarrying and excavation of sand, gravel and building materials at large scales, and over extraction of water. These all contribute to degradation of the natural support systems and irreversible loss of critical ecosystem functions, such as the hydrological cycle, carbon cycle and biological diversity, in addition to conflicts with rural uses of such limited resources. Other effects can be felt further a field such as pollution of waterways, long-range air pollution that impact on human health as well as on vegetation and soils at a considerable distance (Henderson, 2006).

1.1 Purpose of the study

We are living in the era of post modernity where the rapid development and the changes come in fast speed. People try to get more facilities and to adopt new technology to bring comfort in their lives. To get these facilities they move to cities where they think they can earn more and able to avail these facilities, thus urbanization takes place. Situation becomes worst when haphazard pressure of population starts pressing and increasing burden on cities in manifolds. Pakistan being an under developed country has been facing the same problem since its birth and later divide. Multifaceted problems are being encountered by urban dwellers. High population growth and migration from rural to urban centers are constantly promoting this issue. An extensive research work has been done on this issue in the context of developed world. But studies related to developing countries like Pakistan do not provide sufficient literature to properly analyze the relationship between rapid urbanization and socio-ecological problems. In this research the researcher's aim to study major social and environmental problems due to urbanization and addresses the following research questions.

- 1) What are the effects of urbanization on the overall living conditions of urban dwellers?

- 2) Problems of drainage system in urban areas.
- 3) Conditions of drinking water.
- 4) Urbanization a source of increasing pollution.
- 5) How urbanization affects hygienic condition of the people living in urban areas.
- 6) To suggest some suitable measure to reduce the affects of urbanization.

2. Review of literature

Vlahov and Galea (2002) estimated that a majority of the world's population will live in urban areas by 2007. The most rapidly urbanizing cities are in less-wealthy nations, and the pace of growth varies among regions. There are few data linking features of cities to the health of populations. They suggest a framework to guide inquiry into features of the urban environment that affect health and well-being. They consider two key dimensions: urbanization and urbanicity. Urbanization refers to change in size, density, and heterogeneity of cities and the Urbanicity refers to the impact of living in urban areas at a given time. They suggest that most of the important factors that affect health can be considered within three broad themes: the social environment, the physical environment, and access to health and social services. The development of urban health as a discipline will need to draw on the strengths of diverse academic areas of study (e.g., ecology, epidemiology, sociology). Cross-national research may provide insights about the key features of cities and how urbanization influences population health.

Cohen (2006) provides a broad overview of the recent patterns and trends of urban growth in developing countries. He said over the last 20 years many urban areas have experienced dramatic growth, as a result of rapid population growth and as the world's economy have been transformed by a combination of rapid technological and political change. And while cities command an increasingly dominant role in the global economy as centers of both production and consumption, rapid urban growth throughout the developing world is seriously outstripping the capacity of most cities to provide adequate services for their citizens. Many international agencies have yet to adequately recognize either the anticipated rapid growth of small and medium cities or the deteriorating living conditions of the urban poor. In an increasingly urban world, almost half the world's total population and over three quarters of the population of high-income countries now live in urban areas. Rural-urban migration and the transformation of rural settlements into towns and cities have been important determinants of rapid urban growth but there has also been a general convergence in lifestyles between urban and rural areas as advances in transportation and telecommunication have caused distance and time to collapse.

Antharvedi (2007) discusses in his article about the Ecological Sustainable Development and explains the factors that lead to the ecological degradation in the context of Urbanization. Population growth is the key factor for the environmental urban pollution. Rapid urbanization is taking place at the cost of the ecology causing noise pollution, air pollution etc. Urban transportation is also the major factor for the environment pollution. The implications of sustainable development can be effectively addressed only through international cooperation in developing, accessing and diffusing appropriate knowledge and technology, especially for developing countries. By improving human settlement, creating environmental awareness in the citizens, implementation of integrated planning and management we can improve the sustainability of the environment. International co-operation to develop appropriate technologies for sustainable development should start with the identification of local needs. The precautionary approach is to be applied by states according to their capabilities for the substantiating the environment for the present and the future generations.

Taha, S. M. (2010) presented trends in the population growth and urbanization in Lahore with the growth in the air pollution, water pollution and change in the forestation recourses in Lahore district. The main purpose is to bring all these different issues together and find out whether our environmental resources (clean drinking water, clean air and trees) in Lahore are decreasing, increasing, or staying at a constant level. The rapid urbanization is accompanied by environmental problems such as pollution, waste management, congestion and imbalance in fragile ecosystem. Air pollution has always been a problem in Lahore. About 2 percent of total deaths are attributed to air pollution in Lahore. According to this report 22,700 people die because of increase in urban air pollution. This inferior air quality in Lahore is the effect of vehicular and industrial emissions. The industries which were setup far from Lahore now come under Lahore because the population is expanding. Clean drinking water is scarce in Lahore. Most of the population in Lahore never drinks clean water. Water contamination is mainly caused by the poor sewerage systems at different parts of Lahore.

Lindh (1983) concluded that the provision of water supply, sanitation and drainage are vital elements of the urbanization process. Major differences exist between higher-income areas, where the process is planned in

advance, and low-income areas of developing nations, where informal settlements are progressively consolidated into urban areas. Sanitation and drainage arrangements are fundamental to consideration of the urban hydrological cycle.

Cronin et al. (2004) argued that the Groundwater is a vital source of drinking water in African towns and cities, but this resource often has been compromised by the combined use of aquifers as a repository for human waste. Previous research has generally focused on microbiological contamination from on-site sanitation in African towns. However, degradation of chemical water quality by industrial wastage can also impact on health, especially as a result of nitrate contamination associated with on-site sanitation. This has often been neglected in past studies of water quality in urban areas.

Bruce et al., (2000) concluded that the indoor air pollution in the developing world is most often associated with the use of biomass fuels coal, wood, animal dung, and kerosene, although indoor tobacco smoke is also an increasing contributor. Indoor air pollution affects both rural and urban populations.

Moorea et al., (2003) found that nearly half the world's population now lives in urban settlements. Cities offer the lure of better employment, education, health care, and culture; and they contribute disproportionately to national economies. However, rapid and often unplanned urban growth is often associated with poverty, environmental degradation and population demands that outstrip service capacity. These conditions place human health at risk. Reliable urban health statistics are largely unavailable throughout the world. Disaggregated intra-urban health data, i.e., for different areas within a city, are even rarer. Data that are available indicate a range of urban health hazards and associated health risks: substandard housing, crowding, air pollution, insufficient or contaminated drinking water, inadequate sanitation and solid waste disposal services, vector-borne diseases, industrial waste, increased motor vehicle traffic, stress associated with poverty and unemployment, among others. Local and national governments and multilateral organizations are all grappling with the challenges of urbanization. Urban health risks and concerns involve many different sectors, including health, environment, housing, energy, transportation, urban planning, and others.

World Development Report (1999/2000) analyzed that Rapid and often unplanned, urban growth is the source for many of the environmental hazards faced by cities within the developing world. Substandard housing on marginal land, crowding, increasing levels of air pollution, water pollution and over usage, inadequate sanitation services, inadequate solid waste collection, and motor vehicle traffic and traffic injuries are all associated with rapid growth of urban centers.

Lee and Fujita (1997) have created an economic model to determine whether alternative locations of greenbelts that may define urban growth boundaries and are characterized by the level of service they provide are efficient. They found that when the greenbelt is a pure public good the only optimal location is outside the urban fringe. However, when the greenbelt is an impure public good then, under certain reasonable assumptions about utility, income, and type of service, it may be optimal to locate the greenbelt inside the urban area.

3. Methods

The researcher used quantitative research design to evaluate the different aspects of ecological and social decay as a result of rapid urbanization. The data was collected from Multan city (universe) through multistage sampling technique. The researcher selected Mumtazabad town out of six towns (Shah-Rukn-e-Alam town, Sher Shah town, Mumtazabad town, Bosan town, Shujaabad town and Jalal Pur Pirwala town) through simple random sampling technique in the first stage of sample selection. Subsequently the researcher selected n=3 colonies (Bilal colony, Walatabad colony and Nazarabad colony) out of N=24 colonies through purposive sampling technique (The major purpose was that the selected areas must be suffered from excessive social and ecological decay due to rapid urbanization) in second stage of sample selection. The researcher interviewed 200 respondents (n1=120 males and n2=80 females) through convenient sampling technique. The researcher used interview schedule to evaluate the responses regarding different aspects of rapid urbanization like urban health hazards, substandard housing, crowding, air pollution, insufficient or contaminated drinking water, inadequate sanitation and solid waste disposal services, water-borne diseases, industrial waste, stress associated with poverty and unemployment, among others. The data was collected through self administered questionnaire to evaluate the responses of the urban dwellers. The researcher selected the respondents on the specific criterion of minimum literacy rate up to intermediate level in order to maximize the response rate. Both structured and unstructured questions were used in the questionnaire to appraise the responses of the urban dwellers. Structured questions were used to measure the responses on the basis of predetermined scale. Over and above unstructured questions facilitated the researcher to gain a deep insight about different aspects of the conducted research. Then the researcher coded the data using SPSS (version 17). The researcher divided the detailed information into

number of categories that enabled simple description of the data for various statistical purposes. These categories comprised of demographic characteristics, social and ecological decay in urban areas as well as its implications on overall living conditions of urban dwellers. A number of hypotheses constructed in the light of beforehand conducted researches were tested on the basis of empirical authentications taken from data. Binary logistic regression test was applied to test hypothesis. As the response categories of the respondents were present in binomial form therefore the researcher used this statistical test to maximize the accuracy of the given data.

$$\theta = \frac{e^{(\alpha + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \dots + \beta_n x_n)}}{1 + e^{(\alpha + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \dots + \beta_n x_n)}}$$

Where α = the constant of the equation and,

β = the coefficient of the predictor variables.

3.1 Limitations of the Study

Due to minimum research funds, this study confines to Multan city which houses a significant number of migrated population of the southern punjab due to manifold reasons but ultimately it turns up in providing a nest to various ecological challenges. Moreover, a careful sample size was taken to maximum generalize this issue to the urban problems, however if the sample size increases this issue can be studied in more adequate manner. This study further invites the attention of researchers and policy makers alike for further bench marks to help establish the key intrinsic variables behind the phenomenon.

4. Empirical Results and Discussion

4.1 Demographics

In the survey of 200 respondents, 78.5 % belong to the age category of 18 – 29 years. Pakistan Social and Living Standards Measurement Survey (2010-11) found similar results that majority of the population in Pakistan consisted on the young people. Majority 60 % were male while the female were 40 %. Majority 66 % belonged to the nuclear family set up while 34 % were from the joint family set-up. Furthermore 58 % respondents were migrants and 42 % respondents were non-migrants. Brennan (1999) added to the finding that between 1950 and 1975, 32 million new urban dwellers were added annually worldwide about two-thirds in the developing countries. Currently, 59 million new urban dwellers are added annually 89 percent in developing countries. By 2025-2030, 76 million will be added annually 98 percent in developing countries.

Hypothesis No. 1: Rapid urbanization growth is the leading cause of ecological decay in the cities.

Keeping in view the model specification and testing of hypothesis, the results from the regression analysis revealed the majority 68 % were of the view that with the growth of urbanization the greenery decrease in the cities, while 32 % were not agreed. The p-value in the Table No.1 indicates that urbanization reduces greenery and trees. Due to rapid urbanization the cultivated areas are drastically converted into residential areas because each year thousands of people are migrating to urban areas and more land is needed for residence, so trees and greenery are decreasing day by day and causing ecological decay which results in increasing pollution and other environmental issues. These results are similar what Martinez, et al. (2002) has found.

<Insert Table 1 Here>

Hypothesis No. 2: Rapid urbanization is the major determinant of increased nuclear family construction.

Empirical evidence found from the data analysis depicts that the majority of the respondents 66 % were of the view that urbanization is giving birth to the conversion of joint family set-up to the nuclear family set-up. There exists an association between urbanization and change in family system. The Table No. 2 shows the results of binary logistic regression that higher the rate of urbanization greater will be the change from joint to nuclear family. The p-value in the table indicates that there is a significant effect of urbanization on family system so urbanization is the main contributing factor for reducing joint family system and increase in individualism in the society that leads to nuclear family system. Bengtson (2001) has opined that nuclear family is changing its imperative role as the consequence of urbanization wherein with the increase in urbanization, individualism and secularism increases, and the emancipation of women in the resultant factor. This transition proposes that the modal structure of families had changed from extended to nuclear, and its primary functions have evolved from social-institutional to emotional-supportive.

<Insert Table 2 Here>

Hypothesis No. 3: Urbanization results in poor sanitation facilities in the urban areas.

The study revealed that the majority of the respondents 66 % opined in affirmative that increase in urbanization is the major cause of affected sanitation system, while 34 % disagreed with the proposition. So the result of binary logistic regression shows that there is an association between urbanization and poor sanitation facilities in the urban areas. The p-value in the table indicates that urbanization has significant effect on sanitation facilities. So increasing urbanization is the main contributing factors for affected sanitation system in the urban areas that affect the human health adversely. The result is the rapid prevalence of epidemics among the urban dwellers. Among the diseases resulting from poor sanitation, unclean water and poor waste disposal are dysentery, cholera, typhus fever, typhoid and trachoma. These results are similar what has Geoforum and Zoulani (2007) estimated that at least two billion people have inadequate sanitation. By virtue of its cost and water requirements, he further argues that conventional sewerage is an implicitly anti-poor technology. Therefore, simplified sewerage is often the only sanitation technology that is technically feasible and economically appropriate for low income, high-density urban areas.

<Insert Table 3 Here>

Hypothesis No. 4: Urbanization affects the quality of drinking water.

The analysis of binary logistic regression on whether the quality of drinking water is to the association while 40 % responded in the other way round. The p-value indicates that there is significant effect of urbanization on water quality. Water contamination is mainly caused by the poor sewerage system at different parts of urban areas mainly because of the disposal of waste from the industries being mixed with the water supply lines. These results are similar what has Cronin et al. (2004) found that groundwater is a vital source of drinking water in African towns and cities, but this resource often has been compromised by the combined use of aquifers as a repository for human waste. Moreover, degradation of chemical water quality can also impact on health, especially as a result of nitrate contamination associated with on-site sanitation.

<Insert Table 4 Here>

Hypothesis No. 5: Higher urbanization leads towards increased air pollution in cities.

The binary logistic regression analysis on higher the rate of migration from rural to urban areas will be, the greater the air pollution in cities. Empirical evidence depicts that the significant majority of the respondents 71.5 % agreed to the analogy that migration from rural to urban areas increase the air pollution in the cities, while 28.5 % disagreed. The p-value in the table indicates that urbanization has significant effect on increasing air pollution. By urbanization air pollution is increasing in the developing world thus inviting the attention of epidemiologists to address the spread of epidemics resulting from the air pollution. Asthma, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, lead and beryllium poisoning are associated with increasing air pollution. These results are similar what has Brennan (1999) been found that there is a critical linkages between urbanization, the environment, population growth and pollution.

<Insert Table 5 Here>

5. Summary and Conclusion

This paper investigates the relationship between rapid urbanization and socio-ecological problems keeping in view the basic human rights of access to safe and healthy environment, which is being compromised due to unplanned migratory flows of human population from rural to urban areas. The major objective of this study is to analyze the unplanned and haphazard urbanization that is giving birth to environmental issues such as; pollution, poor drainage system, poor quality of drinking water and poor hygienic conditions. This research was carried out in Multan city, Pakistan through field survey of 200 respondents using multistage sampling technique. Self-administrated questionnaire was used as a tool of data collection and the binary logistic regression was employed for the analysis of the data.

The hypotheses formulated for the present study were;

- a) Rapid growth of urbanization is causing ecological decay in the cities.
- b) Rapid urbanization is the major determinant of increased nuclear family construction.
- c) Urbanization results in poor sanitation facilities in the urban areas.
- d) Urbanization affects the quality of drinking water.
- e) Higher urbanization leads towards increased air pollution in cities.

The results depict that urbanization is one of the major causes of converging joint family system to the nuclear family system and its changing function as a consequence. It is also a source of reduction of greenery and trees

in the city. It is causing problem of poor sanitation system and quality of drinking water. Pollution is another outcome of haphazard and unplanned urbanization. The study revealed that the rapid urbanization is creating environmental issues in the urban areas such as air pollution, poor water quality, Sanitation and waste water treatment, Increase the temperature of Earth, increasing slums areas etc. The researcher also found that due to migration from rural to urban areas, the life in the city implicates adversely the quality of life. This study provides better insight on the problems of urbanization in urban areas and will also help policy makers to focus on major areas of improvement such as to check the migration from rural to urban.

6. Suggestions

The paper provides significant impetus to the policy makers and environmentalist alike in terms of devising an ecological strategy. The researcher suggests the monitoring of the migration from rural to urban areas through provision of basic facilities in rural areas. On the other hand awareness campaigns and provision of basic facilities to the rural people (educational facilities, health facilities, food and empowerment in basic decision making) can reduce this problem.

The suggestions discussed below are duly endorsed by the three themes propounded by Vlahov and Galea (2002), as well as by Henderson (2006) who vehemently draws an analogy of the ecological decay with the rapid population growth and its impact on the human health.

- 1) Government should check the migration from rural to urban by providing at least minimum basic requirements of life in the rural areas as education, health and drinking water facilities etc. Apart from devising a mechanism to determine the pace of rural-urban migration. As Cohen (2006) adds by propounding the general convergence of lifestyles between urban and rural areas; which the migration policy should accommodate.
- 2) Government should enforce the annual testing of exhaust emissions of motor vehicles efficiently to maintain the ecological rigor. This suggestion is in lieu to Antharvedi's (2007) discussion that by improving human settlement, creating environmental awareness in the citizens, implementation of integrated planning and management, we can improve the sustainability of the environment.
- 3) Government should introduce an Environmental Impact Fee for all private developers selecting to locate their residential or industrial development in environmentally sensitive areas.
- 4) Government should implement a domestic waste collection and treatment program within the cities to deal with high volumes of uncollected waste and to handle disposal of existing levels of collected waste. In this regard, a national sewerage and pollution control program should be established. This would provide urban centers with assistance to install sewerage/sanitation systems with treatment facilities. Cronin et al. (2004) as well as Bruce et al. (2000) vehemently brings to notice the negligence and compromise of the state towards the ground water. Therefore, the government should impose the realistic standards for the disposal of liquid waste throughout the country.

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Table 1. Hypothesis No. 1: Rapid urbanization growth is the leading cause of ecological decay in the cities

Urbanization results in Ecological decay	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	136	68
No	64	32
Total	200	100

Predictor	Coefficient	SECoef	Z	P
Constant	1.31	0.32	4.18	0
Urbanization	0.76	0.36	2.12	0.034

Likelihood Ratio Test Log-Likelihood = -122.964

Test that all slopes are zero: $G = 4.819$, $DF = 1$, $P\text{-Value} = 0.034$

Table 2. Hypothesis No. 2: Rapid urbanization is the major determinant of increased nuclear family construction

Urbanization leads to nuclear family system	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	132	66
No	68	34
Total	200	100

Predictor	Coefficient	SECoef	Z	P
Constant	-1.30625	0.312660	-4.18	0
Urbanization	3.08964	0.395164	7.82	0

Likelihood Ratio Test Log-Likelihood = -88.863

Test that all slopes are zero: $G = 78.688$, $DF = 1$, $P\text{-Value} = 0.000$

Table 3. Hypothesis No. 3: Urbanization results in poor sanitation facilities in the urban areas

Urbanization results in poor sanitation facilities	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	132	66
No	68	34
Total	200	100

Predictor	Coefficient	SECoef	Z	P
Constant	-2.04307	0.401716	-5.09	0
Urbanization	4.23233	0.490718	8.62	0

Likelihood Ratio Test Log-Likelihood = -67.143

Test that all slopes are zero: $G = 122.129$, $DF = 1$, $P\text{-Value} = 0.000$

Table 4. Hypothesis No. 4: Urbanization affects the quality of drinking water

Urbanization affects the quality of drinking water	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	120	60
No	80	40
Total	200	100

Predictor	Coefficient	SE Coef	Z	P
Constant	-2.41591	0.466747	-5.18	0
Urbanization	3.98279	0.517895	7.69	0

Likelihood Ratio Test Log-Likelihood = -81.248

Test that all slopes are zero: G = 106.709, DF = 1, P-Value = 0.000

Table 5. Hypothesis No. 5: Higher urbanization leads towards increased air pollution in cities

Urbanization results in air pollution	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	143	71.5
No	57	28.5
Total	200	100

Predictor	Coefficient	SECoef	Z	P
Constant	-1.12059	0.297331	-3.77	0
Urbanization	3.57473	0.432582	8.26	0

Likelihood Ratio Test Log-Likelihood = -72.480

Test that all slopes are zero: G = 94.085, DF = 1, P-Value = 0.000

Fiscal Policy, Labour Productivity Growth and Convergence between Agriculture and Manufacturing: Implications for Poverty Reduction in Cameroon

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Abstract

This paper examines the factors that drive labour productivity convergence between agriculture and manufacturing activities in Cameroon over 1969-2005. It is supposed that whenever one sector grows in terms of labour productivity it will also bring benefit to other industries. For instance, agriculture plays a significant role in reducing poverty. The bulk of the poor are engaged in agriculture and so an increase in agricultural productivity has a significant potential for reducing such poverty. Our findings indicate that while government spending on education, health, and road infrastructures promotes convergence, agricultural spending reinforces inequality in sectoral labour productivity by disproportionately increasing non-agricultural sector productivity. Furthermore, increases in manufacturing and service productivity levels both have a positive impact on agricultural productivity in the long-run, with manufacturing equally contributing in the short-run.

Keywords: Convergence, Labour productivity, Agriculture, Manufacturing, Poverty reduction

1. Introduction

Productivity growth appears to have become one of the surest routes to growth and poverty reduction. The literature provides strong evidence that growth reduces poverty (Dollar and Kraay, 2002; CSLS, 2003) and in dynamic economies most economic growth comes from productivity growth (Note 1). There are indications that productivity growth is important for poverty reduction and even appears stronger than the link between growth and poverty reduction (CSLS, 2003) (Note 2). This issue is important especially for African countries that have higher levels of poverty and inequality (World Bank, 1995) and in the light of the first United Nations Millennium Development Goal envisaging the reduction of developing world poverty by half over 1990-2015.

The most popular notion of productivity is that relating to labour and that compares production to the quantity of labour employed in the production process. In this paper, we examine the effect of public expenditure on sectoral labour productivity and also find out if there are spillover effects (i.e., diffusion of productivity or technology between sectors). In sub-Saharan Africa, labour productivity is low especially in agriculture compared to manufacturing. To this end, developing an understanding of the relationship between productivity growth in

agriculture and manufacturing, and on the impact of policies on sectoral productivity convergence can provide insights to government policy action.

The Lewis (1954) theory of structural change is important here, where labour productivity growth and the intensive use of labour can occur either via reallocation of labour or spillovers in production techniques between sectors resulting to productivity convergence. However, convergence may take a long time to occur especially in a low-income, agriculture-based economy such as Cameroon, expected to be in the midst of the transformation process, far from full commercialisation of all labour markets. Based on Rostow's doctrine, this also involves a transition from underdevelopment to development which should pass through a series of stages and as a matter of time (Rostow 1958). This paper has determined that fiscal policy partly explains the convergence of agriculture and manufacturing productivity levels and much time is required for convergence to actually take place. The remainder of the paper is organised as follows. In the next section we present the economic situation of Cameroon, followed by methods and nature of data used and the empirical strategy adopted. The discussion of results follows with a summary of findings and policy implication.

2. Overview of Cameroon economy

Economic growth in Cameroon has been uneven during 1960-2007 both at the aggregate and the sectoral level. After gaining independence in 1960, the country experienced, first, a period of modest, but balanced economic growth, followed by an episode of growth acceleration over 1977-1985—averaging 7 per cent per year. This was driven mainly by the agricultural sector which employed more than 80 percent of the labour force and accounted for 32 percent of GDP. Agriculture was also a major contributor to export earnings through mainly cocoa and coffee (Benjamin and Devarajan, 1986). The manufacturing sector accounted for about 25 percent of GDP as the period was also characterized by early import substitution-based industrialization. Increased oil revenues were also a source of growth as Cameroon became an oil producer in the late 1970s. The peace dividend of the first period, combined with favourable exchange rates and other macroeconomic policies further stimulated this growth process.

However, after 1985, deteriorating terms of trade, a sharp decline in oil output, and a major appreciation of real exchange rates, exposed the structural weaknesses of the economy, and triggered a profound recession with repercussions on public finances. With the support of the Bretton Woods institutions, the country implemented several structural adjustment programs. Economic growth was reignited with exchange rate adjustments and the reform of trade and fiscal policy in 1994. Subsequent to the relative success in its macro-economic stabilisation effort, Cameroon registered an annual average growth of around 4.5 per cent during 1996-2001 despite the continuing decline of the oil sector. Over the same period, per capita income rose annually at about 2 per cent. By 2001, health, education indicators, and access to basic services were still alarmingly low, and in some cases worse than they were in the 1980s (Government of Cameroon, 2003). With the economic situation improving since the mid-1990s, government expenditures and budgetary revenues started increasing and social and infrastructure spending picked up (Table 1). The dramatic social consequences of the negative economic and financial situation experienced in the mid-80s were yet to be reversed by the structural adjustment policies (SAP).

Poverty alleviation became a major policy concern in Cameroon, as evidenced when the IMF-supported Enhanced Structural Adjustment Facility (ESAF) (schedule for 1997-2000) was converted to the Poverty Reduction and Growth Facility (PRGF) in 1999. Between 2000 and 2003, the government of Cameroon formulated a Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP) which documented guidelines for fighting poverty (Note 3). The Government undertook to develop and implement a national employment policy integrated to the poverty reduction strategy. This policy aimed to promote income-generating activities, self-employment of the poor, the development of small and medium size enterprises and to support the initiatives of the poor in the growth sectors. Policies were designed to achieve and maintain a high rate of poverty-reducing economic growth. They involved maintaining macroeconomic stability, consolidating and deepening ongoing reforms to further liberalize and modernize the economy and improve competitiveness. Such policies reconsidered the potential of various economic sectors in which Cameroon had comparative advantage. The Government sought to modernize production facilities, improve food security, and fight against the high cost of living. The objective was to increase output and areas under agricultural exploitation, develop profitable sectors with high productivity and competitive potential, strengthen agricultural extension and counselling, and develop the supply of inputs such as fertilizers and seeds (Government of Cameroon, 2009). Some of the most dynamic sectors in Cameroon are agriculture, forestry, telecommunications, and construction. An important question is whether the economy was characterized by a reallocation of factors of production from low productivity sectors (traditional sectors) to high productivity sectors (modern sectors), thereby equalising marginal productivity of labour between sectors.

Kobou et al. (2008) found that the growth process in Cameroon did not trigger a reallocation of production factors from low productivity to high productivity sectors.

A comparison of the three main sectors suggests that the service sector dominated over the entire study period (Figure 1). Hence agriculture, in spite of being the driving force of the economy, was not the dominant component. Furthermore, there were disconnections between industry and services confirming the low level of integration at least of these two sectors which is also an indicator of the structural weakness of the economy. The share of industry increased considerably between 1976 and 1982, probably reflecting “the oil effect.” The scissors-like movement between 1982 and 1991 seems to mark the passage from agriculture to industry, which lasted only for a short time. Whatever the case, this movement remains artificial. For a long time industry received substantial support, to the disadvantage of the agricultural sector. Such support and oil revenue seem to have restricted the structural transformations of this sector, as well as the possibility for the sector to make a significant contribution to long-term development. However, the declining share of agriculture and or the primary sector was persistent. It should be noted that though the agricultural sector enjoyed rapid long-term productivity growth in the late 1990s (figure 2), the value of productivity remains very low (figure 3), perhaps due to the relatively low price of agricultural goods. What then is the role of fiscal policy in driving agricultural productivity relative to the modern industrial sector?

3. Theoretical and empirical approaches

3.1 Theoretical model and literature review

Similar to the literature on international convergence (Note 4) of labour productivity, national convergence of sectoral productivity levels can also be explained from the endogenous (Note 5) growth model. Productivity convergence and productivity growth are not interchangeable. Sectoral productivity levels can converge while productivity falls or rises in one or both sectors. Nevertheless, the driving forces behind overall productivity growth would equally have an effect on sectoral productivity changes for convergence to occur. However, it should be understood that for sectoral productivity levels to converge, e.g., agriculture (AGRlp) and industry (INDlp) or service (SERlp), the ratios (AGRlp/INDlp or AGRlp/SERlp) should tend to one and this requires that agricultural productivity grows faster than the others. Thus, the sources of productivity growth performances and convergence are the same.

The usual theoretical presentation of these concepts is based on the result of the Cobb-Douglas model using two factors of production, labour and capital, and the embodied technical progress:

$$Y = F (TFP, K, L) = TFP \times K^{\alpha} \times L^{\beta} \quad (1)$$

where Y is the production, TFP is technical progress or total factor productivity, K is physical capital, and L is labour. Taking logarithmic differences, i.e. the rate of growth, the relationship is expressed as:

$$\Delta y = \Delta \text{tfp} + \alpha \Delta k + \beta \Delta l \quad (2)$$

and provides the GDP growth breakdown, split between improvements in technical progress and growth of the two factors of production with α and β representing the elasticities of the production factors, whose sum is equal to one, $\alpha + \beta = 1$.

$$\Delta (y - 1) = \Delta \text{tfp} + \alpha \Delta (k - 1) \quad (3)$$

The relationship (3) determined from (2) provides a breakdown of the change in labour productivity $\Delta (y - 1)$ into two effects: the effect linked to capital deepening or capital intensity $\Delta (k - 1)$ and the effect linked to total factors productivity Δtfp . The multi-factor productivity concept embraces all variables that affect output for any given level of inputs. It accounts for the growth not accounted for by capital accumulation or increased inputs. The components usually included in this unexplained growth are: advances in knowledge (i.e. education and training), research, and efficiency in the allocation of resources. Thus, labour productivity is determined by the amount of available factor inputs, i.e. labour (including human capital), physical capital and intermediate inputs (Vander and Wiel, 1999) (Note 6). It is argued that adequate nourishment, health and education facilities are essential for increasing labour productivity (Corvers, 1997; Vander Wiel, 1999). Inspiring from the link between tfp and labour productivity performance, Rattsø and Stokke (2003) provide econometric results and review similar cases in agriculture and industry.

Heisey (2001) concludes that investment in research and development for agricultural production are necessary for agricultural productivity growth, and in this study, government allocation in agriculture is considered as a proxy. A number of studies have also documented the relation between social spending on education and health—variants of human capital—and productivity of workers. Health can affect productivity, assuming that a

large proportion of the working population must be in good health to function well, though the issue remains under-researched and controversial on the direction of causality between health and income (Harris, 2002). For instance, Acemoglu and Johnson established no causal effect between health and income per capita.

Chang et al (2006) introduce government taxation and infrastructure expenditure in the model proposed by Matsuyama (2002) and shows that, under proper conditions, agricultural productivity has a positive effect on growth via such spending. The government expenditure must be productive in the spirit of Barro (1991), in that the learning-by doing effect of the manufacturing sector is enhanced with the expenditure, hence generating convergence tendencies of sectoral labour productivity levels. Examples of such productive public expenditures include those in the areas of infrastructure, public education, and institutional reconstructions (Chang et al 2006) (Note 7). Lastly, the literature also suggests that free market policies or small governments with open markets that encourage foreign trade foster productivity growth (Edwards 1998). Irz and Roe (2005) point that trade liberalisation can substantially accelerate growth of an agricultural poor country through its effects on agricultural productivity while RattsØ and Stokke (2003) provide a positive link between foreign spillovers (channelled through foreign trade or openness and foreign investment) in industry.

However, despite the various sources of productivity discussed above, sectoral productivity differences arise. Following the writings of Adam Smith, most economists seem to have taken it as axiomatic that productivity grows less rapidly in agriculture than in the manufacturing sector (Note 8). The dual economy model inspired by the work of Lewis (1954) typically features a distinction between a stagnant, traditional rural sector, and a dynamic modern manufacturing sector. However, other offshoots of the model that centre on the agriculture-industry interactions provide better prospects for higher rates of agricultural productivity and growth (Note 9). Thus, analyses on the interactions between agriculture and industry dwells on the literature of structural change embedded on the work of Lewis (1954) to explain productivity growth.

In Lewis model, development is viewed as absorption of labour from the low-productivity rural-agricultural sector into the high-productivity urban-industrial sector. This process should obviously lead to sector labour productivity convergence (i.e. productivity levels growing more equal) or divergence initiated by the reallocation of labour force. As workers migrate to the urban sector, average productivity in agriculture rises eventually, with the disappearance of the disguisedly unemployed labour force and the “commercialisation” of the agricultural sector and thus, the whole economy, leading to increasing agricultural real wage (Todaro, 2000). Gemmell et al. (2000) reiterate that such a situation could only be possible if productivity-enhancing advances in industrial technologies tend to spill over to agriculture. In the case of developing economies where technological advances are generally imported, this might be expected take the form of productivity improvements in industry spilling over to agriculture. To the extent that three sectors compete in factor markets, this will reinforce tendencies towards equality in labour productivity (Gemmell et al., 2000).

RattsØ and Torvik (2003) use a dynamic extension model and assume learning-by-doing in industry and catching-up in agriculture to demonstrate that discrimination against the latter may reduce growth and the technological advantage of industry. Finally, since in most economies, economic growth comes from productivity growth and the latter accounts for changes in poverty better than the former (CSLS 2003), we posit that sectoral productivity growth and convergence can be a solution to the poverty crisis in agricultural economies through the spillover effect.

There is no direct link between productivity convergence and poverty. The existence or not of convergence has uncertain implications for the level of productivity in any sector. However, convergence of productivity levels would reduce poverty if the ratio of agriculture to non-agricultural productivity tended to one, which occurs when the former grows faster than the latter. Productivity growth is the main determinant of income growth (Steindel and Stiroh 2001; Catia, 2003), which explains why productivity growth reduces poverty (Note 10).

3.2 Econometric model and data

Based on the fact that agricultural productivity is low relative to the other sectors in Cameroon, it is hypothesised that fiscal spending which leads to improvements in agricultural productivity more than proportionately to non-agricultural productivity closes productivity gaps or creates convergence. Public expenditure and or fiscal policy should promote productivity growth and convergence via a rapid long-term agricultural productivity growth. There is no definite literature on convergence and fiscal policy but there are possible links between fiscal variables and productivity growth as discussed in the literature above. A priori, the fiscal variables should have positive coefficients mostly benefiting the agricultural sector in line with the existence of an ‘advantage of backwardness’ (Gerschenkron, 1952) where being relatively backward in productivity carries a potential for rapid advance (Abramovitz 1979, 1986).

In a second model, we assume that productivity convergence can occur through technology flow from manufacturing to agriculture i.e., spillover effects (Gemmell et al. 1998; Niels-Hugo and Verner, 2006). Thus, we specify two econometric models. The first describes the link between sectoral differences in labour productivity (i.e. the convergence term) and fiscal measures. The second tests for the existence of sectoral interaction of productivity levels which provides a picture of convergence via spillovers.

Productivity is referred to as output per unit of input such as labour, land, capital, and raw materials. Total factor productivity growth is defined as output growth in relation to a weighted sum of the growth of factors of production (usually labour and capital) and represents technical progress. Labour productivity is much more closely related to potential increases in real income and living standards than total factor productivity (CSLS, 2003), and is our preferred variable in this paper.

Labour input can be measured using total employment, total hours worked, or a quality-adjusted measure of labour input. Like in the literature, we use the aggregate labour force as a proxy for labour input, although it will not capture its quality. Thus, in this paper, labour employed in the main economic sectors including agriculture, industry and service are used as labour inputs to measure productivity in the various sectors respectively.

Assessing whether the productivity gap is closing or expanding takes us to the notion of convergence as earlier mentioned. In this study, convergence in sectoral productivity level is measured in line with the objective of examining the factors that push up agricultural productivity towards the level of non-agricultural (industrial) productivity. For sectoral productivity levels to converge (e.g., agriculture and industry or and service), the ratios of agricultural productivity to either productivity in manufacturing or service should tend to one and this requires that agricultural productivity grows faster than the others.

Pertaining to the benefits of convergence, we assume that a catch-up of agricultural productivity to the level of non-agricultural productivity is a pre-condition for and has a significant impact on long-run growth, where growth is defined as the average rate of change of real per capita GDP, a proxy for increased returns. It is expected that improved growth will help to reduce poverty. In African countries, agriculture is important for growth and contributes a large proportion to GDP. Most of the poor people are dependent on the rural economy for their livelihood and the performance of the agricultural sector has far-reaching implications for food, poverty reduction, and income generation. The Lewis-Ranis-Fei approach also views development as involving the disappearance of the disguised unemployed labour force and the commercialisation of the agricultural sector and thus, the whole economy leading to a rise in agricultural real wage. This occurs with a catch-up in agricultural productivity to that of the urban-industrial sector, consequently leading to an overall rise in output or growth.

The model specification showing the relationship between fiscal variables and convergence as well as that which provides interrelationship between sector productivity levels are broadened to identify and control for other variables that may also have affected convergence or agricultural productivity during that period. For instance, outward-oriented policies should favour foreign trade and thus foster agricultural productivity in an agricultural based economy (Edwards, 1997; Irz and Roe, 2005). Openness may also encourage convergent tendencies through knowledge diffusion and competition or divergent pattern since trade advances international specialisation (Grossman and Helpman, 1991). Secondly, capital invested in a particular sector should raise the stock of capital per worker (i.e., capital intensity) leading to a rise in productivity (Vander Wiel, 1999; Roa et al., 2003). However, the ratio of work force in manufacturing to that of agriculture indicates a possibility of labour mobility between sectors.

The general models are given by the following equations, whereas a definition of the variables used in the above equations are displayed Table 2.

$$(1) \text{AGR}_{ip}/\text{IND}_{ip} = a + b(\text{OPEN}) + c(\text{CAPAGR}) + d(\text{CAPIND}) + e(\text{AGR}) + f(\text{EDU}) + g(\text{HLT}) + h(\text{ROAD}) + i(\text{RLABOUR}) + k(\text{D86}) + l(\text{D94}) + \varepsilon$$

$$(2) \text{AGR}_{ip} = a' + b'(\text{IND}_{ip}) + c'(\text{SER}_{ip}) + d'(\text{D86}) + e'(\text{D94}) + \varepsilon'$$

The sources of the variables as follows: Data on variables used in computing openness were obtained from the IMF's International Financial Statistics. Underlying data for the computation of labour productivity levels comes from World Bank Tables while public expenditure information is from national sources (Ministry of Economy and Finance and the National Assembly of Cameroon) and Amin (1998). Specifically, the sector shares of capital inputs were obtained from estimates of the total capital stock. The aggregate capital stock series obtained from

the World Economic Outlook are disaggregated by share of each sector in total GDP in the initial period (Nehru and Dhareshwar, 1993; Amin, 2002).

We estimate equation (1) and equation (2) using cointegration techniques and an Error Correction Model (ECM) over the period 1969-2005. Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) unit root tests were performed on the variables to determine the presence of unit root and order of integration for the series. The results led us to proceed with tests for cointegrating relationship among combinations of non-stationary series. We test for the existence of long-run relationships using the Engle-Granger two-step procedures. In this case, the equations were first estimated by Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) and unit root tests were performed on the residuals in the second stage.

For equation (2), since the series are integrated of the same order and are cointegrated, a long-run relationship exists among the variables. In such a case, the Engle-Granger representation theorem states that the appropriate form of the model is an ECM (Engle and Granger, 1987). Thus, for equation (2), a short-run dynamic model is determined and is vector autoregressive (VAR) in first differences with the lagged error term (ECT) from the cointegration equation included as an explanatory variable. It has been argued that an ECM provides a more general lag structure which does not impose an overly restrictive structure on the model (Hendry and Richard, 1990) and that it avoids the 'spurious' regression problem (Engle and Granger, 1987).

Equation (2) provides the dual economy model that links up the agriculture to non-agricultural sector and this determines if sectors evolve interdependently to the benefit of another. The modeling follows Gemmell et al. (1998) but we ascribe importance to exogenous events such as trade shocks and policy changes. The arguments offered to account for sectoral interrelationships are that agricultural productivity is positively related to manufacturing and service productivity both in the short-and long-run. Issues also relating to sectoral growth linkages have been addressed in the dual economy model (Gemmell et al., 2000; Niels-Hugo and Verner, 2006).

4. Results

In this section, we present our findings in terms of the role played by Cameroon public expenditure or fiscal policy in productivity convergence between agriculture and the manufacturing sectors respectively as well as the interrelationships between these economic sectors including the service sector.

4.1 Labour Productivity Convergence

Table 3 provides the co-integrating regression results that explain the convergence of agricultural and manufacturing productivity levels. The explanatory power of the models is satisfactory, accounting for about 90 percent of the variations in labour productivity convergence in Cameroon. Government spending on education, health and road infrastructure appear to favour labour productivity convergence. We found that health spending has a significant coefficient; while education spending is insignificant, which implies that public spending in the social sectors has little effect on convergence of labour productivity. Thus, it would appear that government education expenditure is inefficient or poorly targeted. Government spending on roads significantly influence productivity convergence, whereas spending on agriculture does not favour agricultural labour productivity as it reinforces inequality between agriculture and manufacturing productivity levels. There are indications that information networks such as research and extension services in agriculture which account for part of government spending in agriculture lead to stagnant technology. In sub-Saharan Africa, limited research investments and few technological breakthroughs as well as the difficulty of transferring research results to farmers due to limited resources for extension services (Heisey, 2001) may be responsible for the result.

On the other hand, outward-oriented trade policies reinforce agricultural productivity with the possibility of encouraging convergence though it appears insignificant just like the devaluation dummy. Trade enhances convergence through knowledge diffusion, increasing competition and adequate market for goods (Grossman and Helpman, 1991) and is believed to foster agricultural productivity (Irz and Roe, 2005) and thus, convergence. However, convergence reinforced by the economic factors mostly benefitting the agricultural sector is in line with several studies (Gerschenkron, 1952; Abramovitz, 1979, 1986; Martin and Mitra, 2001), which found that being relatively backward in productivity carries a potential for rapid advance.

Capital investment reinforces capital intensity (i.e. capital per worker) and has a positive effect on productivity. This result is in line with the theory of production where, productivity performance is tied to capital inputs or capital deepening (Vander Wiel, 1999). However, while capital inputs in agriculture sector effectively influence agricultural productivity and thus convergence, manufacturing capital favours divergence of productivity levels. Nevertheless, capital in manufacturing still has a role to play in the convergence of agricultural and manufacturing productivity levels. The expansion of the manufacturing sector shall be accompanied in the long-run by the absorption of more and idle (unproductive) labour from the agriculture, resulting to increased

marginal productivity of agriculture. This can occur through technological spill-overs, i.e. mobility of ideas as discussed further below. The prediction that a growing proportion of the work force will be employed outside agriculture and average productivity in agriculture will rise faster than in non-agriculture resulting to convergence—the Lewis-Fei-Ranis model—is evident in Cameroon. As the migration of workers out of agriculture into the non-agricultural sector causes an absolute (Note 11) decline of labour in the former sector, there is a subsequent and remarkable increase in agricultural productivity, enabling the catch-up process or convergence.

4.2 Interdependence of sectoral productivity

Here we verify that there are sectoral linkages or dynamic sectoral interactions, i.e., the process of structural change generate spillovers in production techniques from non-agriculture to agriculture resulting to growth in agricultural productivity. The estimation results based on equation (2) that provides the long-run relationships between sectoral labour productivity levels are given below (t- ratios beneath parameters estimates).

$$\text{Log (AGRlp)} = -5.1 + .14\text{log(INDlp)} + .4\text{log(SERlp)} - .31\text{D86} + .16\text{D94}$$

$$\begin{array}{cccc} (-3.65) & (1.91) & (1.6) & (-5.2) \end{array}$$

$$\overline{R^2} = 0.66 \quad \text{F-statistics} = 14.9 \quad \text{DW} = 1.5 \quad \text{ADF} = -2.64 (0.001)$$

The results indicate the presence of interdependence of sectoral productivity. Our estimated long-run relationship indicates that improvements in labour productivity in manufacturing and services leads to higher productivity in the agricultural sector, suggesting technological spillovers and a possible convergence of sectoral productivity levels over time. The results support the neoclassical argument that higher productivity techniques in manufacturing will tend to spill-over to agriculture, given the fact that the coefficient on service activities is insignificant. Furthermore, labour productivity in agriculture does not Granger-cause productivity elsewhere in the economy but productivities in manufacturing and service activities do Granger-cause productivity growth in the agricultural sector (results available on request). However, agricultural productivity may take a long time to catch up with the non-agricultural sector productivity (especially the manufacturing sector where the gap between them remains wide (see figure 3). Only 0.02 percent of the gap is closed up each year (Note 12). The process of convergence as discussed in the neoclassical theory may therefore be a long one in Cameroon. However, we also estimated an ECM of productivity growth in agriculture to model short-run dynamics. The estimation results are (t- ratios beneath parameters estimates) are presented below.

$$\Delta \text{Log (AGRlp)} = -.01 + .29\Delta \text{Log (INDlp)} - .06\Delta \text{Log (SERlp)} - .63 \text{ ECT}(-1)$$

$$\begin{array}{cc} (1.8) & (-3.6) \end{array}$$

$$\overline{R^2} = 0.29 \quad \text{F- Statistics} = 4.8 \quad \text{DW} = 1.7$$

Based on diagnostic tests, the ECM appears robust. The error correction term has a coefficient less than one and significant at 1 percent with a feedback effect of 63 percent. This means that in both the short and long run, increases in manufacturing productivity level has a positive impact on agricultural productivity. Results are similar to Gemmell et al., (1998) where the dominant short-run effect is one of sectoral competition, and it is the service sector that keenly appears to compete with agriculture. The coefficient on manufacturing and services are both negative and only significant for the latter in Gemmell et al. (1998). The authors conclude that their results lend support to the commonly-held view that for much of the agricultural labour force; it is the service sector that represents the most likely alternative to agricultural employment. Our results only mildly support this view perhaps as a result of the highly-segmented labour market, where labour in agriculture cannot be employed in the service sector consisting of mostly skilled workers except in the long run, after having undergone some training.

5. Conclusions and policy recommendations

The aim of this paper has been to assess the role of fiscal policy and other economic factors such as capital inputs, labour mobility and openness to trade on sectoral productivity convergence and infer the poverty impact of such convergent tendencies seen as a relative gain in agricultural productivity. The empirical literature on sectoral interactions in the process of structural change is vast and seeks to explore the linkages from non-agriculture to agricultural activities and vice versa.

This paper provides evidence that intersectoral linkages promote the catch-up of agricultural productivity with industry and/or service productivity. Furthermore, the convergence process depends on fiscal and other economic factors. The models developed here are embedded in the literature of structural change, namely the

Lewis-Ranis-Fei approach. We assume that development means absorption of labour from the low-productivity rural or agricultural sector into the high-productivity urban-industrial sector, in which case productivity levels should converge. However, we find that technology via knowledge diffusion also plays a greater role just like the actual movement of workers. Productivity convergence coming either from economic factors or indirectly via spillovers from sectoral interaction has the effect of raising output growth via a rise in agricultural productivity. One of the most important arguments is that there are possibilities of a reduction in poverty following increased production, lower prices and farm income.

Taking Cameroon as a case study, our empirical results suggest that fiscal policy partly explains the convergence of agriculture and manufacturing productivity levels. Apart from spending on education, which has an insignificant influence on convergence, perhaps due to inefficiency or poor targeting, other components of public spending such as road infrastructure, health, and agriculture also influence sectoral productivity levels. However, spending on agriculture fosters productivity *divergence*. This is observed as an increase in the gap between agriculture and non-agriculture through a relative gain in manufacturing productivity.

Economic fundamentals such as openness to trade play a limited role in restoring equality in the level of sectoral productivity, whereas agricultural investment capital crowds-in labour productivity convergence. In terms of dynamic sectoral interactions, increases in manufacturing and services both have a positive impact on agricultural productivity in the long run with feedback effect from manufacturing being guaranteed also in the short run. This supports the neoclassical focus on spillovers of production techniques or ideas from manufacturing to agriculture, fostering convergence in sectoral productivity levels.

The main policy recommendation is that poverty reduction in Cameroon could be achieved by government investment on social and road infrastructures. The empirical findings suggest that government spending on roads, health and—to a little extent—education have been effective, but spending on agriculture has been less so in terms of raising agricultural productivity. A second policy implication is that if a particular spending creates divergence in productivity levels as in the case of spending on agriculture and manufacturing capital, they could still in the long run, indirectly raise agricultural productivity via spillovers. Thus, Cameroon could still reduce poverty and enhance growth if spending on infrastructure such as education, health, rural roads, and agricultural equipments and research were rendered efficient and judicious. Nonetheless, adequate time is required for such measures to spur the convergence process. The nature of targeting should also ensure that the agricultural sector continues to benefit from spillovers in terms of labour productivity. Furthermore, attention should be given to interdependencies in sectoral productivity. Specifically, the farming population in the rural areas should be properly targeted to sustain growth in output and productivity. Finally, our work is only a first step in analysing productivity convergence across sectors or region. Using partial productivity indicators such as output per unit of labour only captures trends in output relative to one input and can be misleading in cases where the input mix is changing or where there are technical advances allowing increases in output for a given level of input use. A superior measure such as total factor productivity could be used in future research to overcome these problems.

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Notes

Note 1. Steindel and Stiroh (2001) and Catia (2003) assert that the rate of labour productivity growth can have a large effect on real output and living standards. US labour productivity growth, measured as GDP per hour worked, has been shown to rise faster than that of some large European Union countries and this was accompanied by a relatively high US GDP per capita in comparative terms (Ahmad et al., 2003).

Note 2. Several arguments have been advanced as to why countries in which most of labour works agriculture remain largely food insecure and poor. One argument is that agricultural productivity in sub-Saharan Africa is low and farmers face low-productivity traps. Dorward et al. (2009) note that unstable food prices lead to low producer investment and consumers lock in to low-productivity food crops, which consequently lead to low agricultural productivity. Low productivity leads to low and vulnerable real incomes which in turn lead to low demand for non-agricultural goods and services. Agriculture has failed to get Africa out of poverty, and today many countries are experiencing low agricultural growth, rapid population growth, weak foreign exchange earnings, and high transaction costs (World Bank, 2008).

Note 3. Analysis by the National Statistical Office based on the most recent household survey (2007) indicates that the overall incidence of poverty is still around 40 percent, about the same level as in 2001. In Cameroon, the 2007 level of poverty remains higher for those involved in agriculture (56%) relative to the National rate of 39%

and 31.7% in non-agriculture with the industrial sector poverty rate of 27.6% (Institut National de La Statistique, 2008). These observations raise some interesting evaluative question in terms of pro-poor growth in Cameroon.

Note 4. Empirical tests of convergence hypothesis are mostly concerned with regional or cross country convergence in productivity level of a particular sector (see Biswo et al 2011 for a review). Intersectoral linkages and convergence between sector productivity levels has featured less prominently in theoretical models. For convergence at the national level, agricultural economies like Cameroon, where the low-productivity agricultural sector can benefit from higher productivity techniques in the manufacturing sector through spillovers imported from advanced countries.

Note 5. Endogenous growth models discard the neoclassical assumption of diminishing returns to scale in the aggregate production function and frequently focus on the role of externalities such as human capital in reinforcing the rate of return on capital investment (Todaro, 2000).

Note 6. Several others also emphasised the role of physical capital accumulation as it provides more capital per unit of labour input (i.e., it strengthens capital deepening) including human capital or skills acquired in training and information and communication technologies in creating sectoral/regional differences in productivity levels or growth especially when inter-industry capital intensity persist (Grossman and Helpman, 1991; Roa et al., 2003).

Note 7. Mahran (2000) states that, policies to improve on agricultural productivity should be reinforced by efforts to improve infrastructure, including health and education to pave the way for a positive supply response.

Note 8. For instance, Matsuyama (1992) and Sachs and Warner (1995) conclude that countries with large agricultural sectors face diminished growth prospects.

Note 9. Many developing countries have adopted policies that promote industry over agriculture. According to Bluch and Verner (1999), Martin and Mitra (1999) and RattsØ and Torvik (2003), such measures are not optimal and may reduce the growth of the economy.

Note 10. There is also a huge literature on the role of the agricultural sector and agricultural productivity in reducing poverty, see for instance, Datt and Ravallion (1998), Fan et al. (2002) and Thirtle, Lin and Piesse (2003).

Note 11. It should be noted that the ratio of work force in manufacturing to agriculture is slightly upward trending over the period even though the relative share of labour in agriculture has been constant. The former indicates an absolute decline of labour in agriculture.

Note 12. The average growth rate of the ratio of AGRlp to INDlp is -4% whereas for the technology gap (INDlp/AGRlp), it is 3% over the period of study. Following RattsØ and Torvik (2003), productivity growth in agriculture increases by a multiple per unit rise in the technology gap. In our long-run equation, any rise in manufacturing productivity by 1% initiates a .14% rise in agricultural productivity. Thus, overall, the ratio, AGRlp/INDlp will grow annually at 0.14(3)-0.4 or 0.0 2%.

Table 1. Public spending on key social sectors (% total spending)

Sector \ Year	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2007	2009
Education	18.1	16.4	17.9	18.1	18	23.1	24	22.4	23.8	18.4
Health	4.7	4.7	5.6	5.6	5.3	6.6	7.1	7.1	7.1	5.2
Infrastructure	7.6	11.4	12.2	10.9	9.9	11	14.2	14.1	15	14.8
Social development and employment	1.1	1.0	0.7	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.5	1.1
Rural sector	4.3	4.2	4.5	4.5	4.5	3.9	6.3	6.3	6.7	5.1

Source: The Cameroon Ministry of the Economy, Planning and Regional Development.

Table 2. Definition of variables used in the models

AGR _{ip} /IND _{ip}	Productivity gaps between agriculture and manufacturing or industry (i.e., convergence)
CAPAGR/CAPIND	Capital inputs in agriculture or industry (1987 prices)
LABAGR	Growth rate of labour force in agriculture
Rlabour	Ratio of labour in manufacturing to agriculture sector
OPEN	Openness measured as exports + imports to GDP ratio
D ₈₆	Dummy for the crisis period (1970 to 1985 =0, 1986-2005 =1)
D ₉₄	Dummy for the devaluation period (1970 to 1993 =0, 1994-2005 =1)
AGR _{ip}	Absolute level of labour productivity in agriculture (1987 prices)
IND _{ip}	Absolute level of labour productivity in manufacturing (1987 prices)
SER _{ip}	Absolute level of labour productivity in service sector (1987 prices)
EDU, HLT, AGR, ROAD,	Share of government expenditures in GDP on education, health, agriculture, and road infrastructure.

Table 3. Regression Results of the Convergence Model

Dependent Variable: AGR_{ip}/IND_{ip} (Ratio of agriculture to manufacturing productivity)

Models	1	2	3
Constant	-1.5 (-1.72) ^c	-1.4 (-1.43)	-1.5 (-1.68)
Log(OPEN)	0.04 (0.27)		
Log(CAPAGR)	0.63 (5.10) ^a	0.65 (7.68) ^a	0.63 (4.96) ^a
Log(CAPIND)	-0.77 (-7.17) ^a	-0.78 (-10.26) ^a	-0.77 (-7.0) ^a
Log(EDU)	0.05 (0.771)	0.05 (0.708)	0.05 (0.585)
Log(HLT)	0.29 (1.77) ^c	0.34 (1.80) ^c	0.29 (1.68)
Log(AGR)	-0.20 (-2.03) ^b	-0.20 (-2.01) ^b	-0.20 (-1.75) ^c
Log(ROAD)	0.06 (1.83) ^b	0.07 (1.99) ^b	0.06 (1.76) ^b
RLABOUR	9.8 (2.40) ^b	10.2 (2.64) ^b	9.9 (2.35) ^b
D94		0.04 (0.539)	
D86			0.01 (0.143)
Unit Root Test on ECT (ADF)	-2.64 ^a	-2.64 ^a	-2.64 ^a
R ² Adjusted	0.91	0.91	0.90
F-STAT	38.12	38.5	32.3
D-W	1.68	1.86	1.71

Note: a, b and c indicate levels of significance at 1%, 5% and 10% respectively and t-ratios are in parenthesis.
 Source: Authors' estimations.

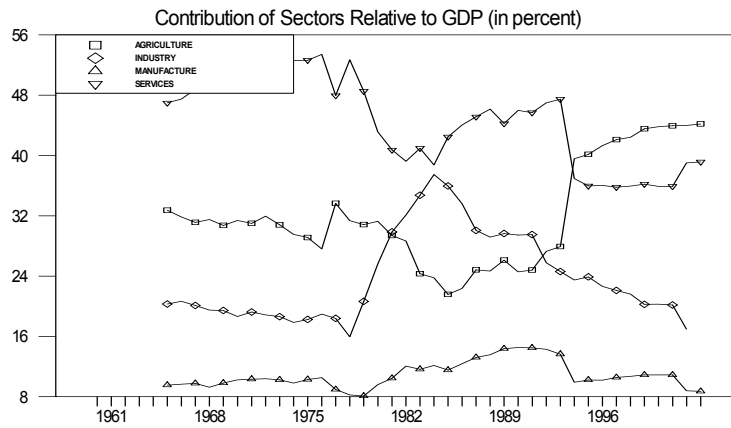


Figure 1. Contribution of sectors in GDP

Source: Koubou et al (2008)

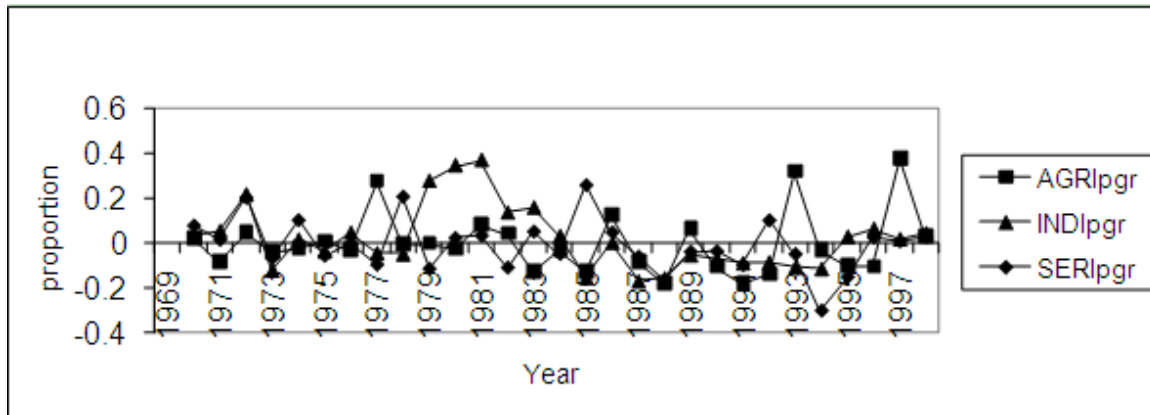


Figure 2. Sectoral productivity Growth Rates

Source: Tabi (2005)

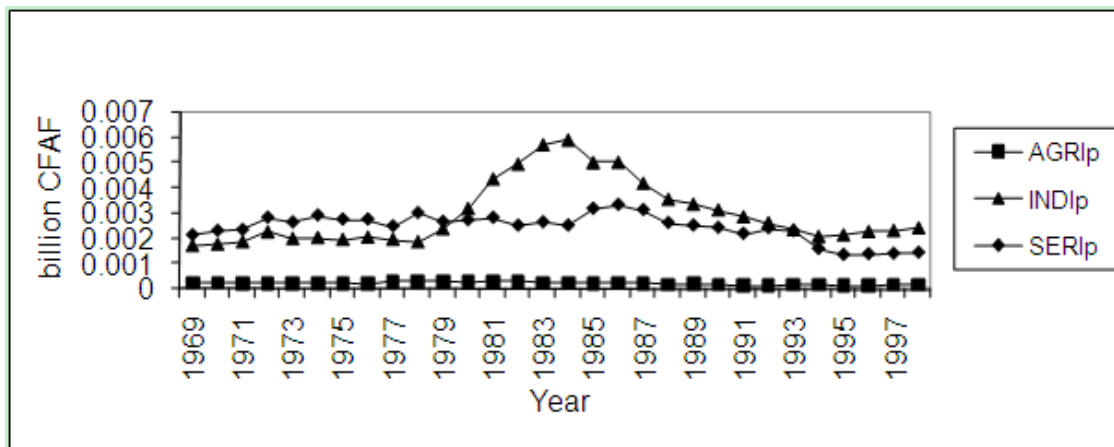


Figure 3. Evolution of sectoral productivity levels

Source: Tabi (2005)

A Framework of Business Process Re-engineering Factors and Organizational Performance of Nigerian Banks

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Abstract

The aims of this paper is to present a framework on the data collected regarding our research study on Effect of BPR factor on organization performance with moderating role of Information technology. A survey method was used to administer 560 questionnaires to Nigerian banks (Commercial, Microfinance and Primary mortgage finance). Data screening and cleaning was conducted to enable satisfy the assumptions of multivariate analysis. Therefore, the assessment of the missing data, outliers, normality, linearity, and multicollinearity were performed. In addition, factor analysis (PCA) was conducted with help of Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS). The results were found to meet the requirement for multivariate analysis.

Keywords: BPR factors, Organization performance, Information technology capability, Data cleaning and screening, Nigerian banks

1. Introduction

The quality and meaningful result in multivariate analysis depend on the initial data screening exercise and many researchers tend to overlook it because of work load attached to it (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010). Hence, the significance of data cleaning and screening exercise need not be over-emphasized as abandoning this initial stage of data examination would affect the quality output. Tabachnick & Fidell, (2007) suggested proof reading of the original data against the data keyed into computer. But, having large data proof reading exercise would be difficult and monotonous. In this situation, the need to use computer software such as SPSS is critical. All hidden errors in data which cannot easily be seen would be revealed (Hair et al., 2010). By conducting data examination, the researcher stand the chance to understand the inter relationship among the variables and meet the assumption of multivariate data analysis. Therefore, the aim of this paper is to explain the relationship between business process reengineering and organizational performance as well as to present the procedure for conducting the data cleaning and screening, missing values, response bias, outliers, principal component analysis, normality, linearity, multicollinearity, homoscedasticity, correlation and reliability test.

2. Literature Review

The Information Systems literature on BPR can be classified into four parts (Thong, Yap, & Seah, 2000). The first part examined lessons learned from BPR approaches which are case studies on critical success factors (Ahmad, Francis, & Zairi, 2007; Aregbeyen, 2011; Broadbent, Weill, & St.Clair, 1999; Caron, Jarvenpaa, & Stoddard, 1994; Davenport & Beers, 1995; El-Sawy, 1997; Herzog, Polajnar, & Tonchia, 2007; Sarker, Sarker, & Sidorova, 2006). The second research team focuses mainly on the inter-organizational aspects of BPR (Abdolvand, Albadvi, & Ferdowsi, 2008; Chatfield & Bjorn-Andersen, 1997; Lee & Clark, 1996; Ranganathan & Dhaliwal, 2001; Riggins & Mukhopadhyay, 1994; Tennat & Wu, 2005). The third research stream investigates the effectiveness of BPR methodologies, tools and techniques (Datta, 1988; Dennis, Hayes, & Daniels, 1999; Kettinger, Teng, & Guha, 1997; Nissen, 2001; Yavas & Yasin, 2001). The fourth research focus that is most relevant to this study is aim at explaining the relationship between business process reengineering (process changes) and organizational performance, moderating role of IT capability. This gives rationale as to why BPR, supported by closely aligned IT, generated value for the firm.

Barua, Lee, & Whinston, (1996) proposed the theory of business value complementarities based on the theory of complementarities suggests that the economic benefit of a factor increases with the use of its complementary factors. In the context of reengineering, IT allows for innovative business processes, new skills, and new organizational structures (Brynjolfsson & Hitt, 2003). Hence, Barua & Whinston, (1998) and Barua et al., (1996) argue that IT is complementary to organizational characteristics and processes, and that investments in IT are less likely to succeed if done in isolation. Devaraj & Kohli, (2000) reported that IT investments contribute to a higher level of revenue when combined with BPR initiatives. However, Loveman, (1990) found no relationship between various IT ratios and performance measures for return on investment. Likewise, Sager, (1998) and Venkatraman & Zaheer, (1990) reveal that IT has no impact on performance. Brynjolfsson, (1993) has suggested that researchers should look beyond conventional productivity. Hence, Bhatt & Grover, (2005); Tippins & Sohi, (2003) started to include IT capabilities in their IT studies and explored the link between various dimensions of IT such as IT knowledge, IT operations, IT object, relationship infrastructure and IT business experience on organizational performance. Finding from their study showed that IT capabilities enhance organizational performance (Powell & Dent-Micallef, 1997; Santhanam & Hartono, 2003). In addition, findings from I.T studies conducted by researchers Adam (1993); Bharadwaj, (2000); Floyd & Wooldridge, (1990); Santhanam & Hartono, (2003) revealed that IT capabilities provide a basis of gaining competitive advantage and enhances organizational performance.

3. Methodology

The data analysis was carried out with help of descriptive and inferential statistics using SPSS version 16 software. Simple descriptive statistics, independent sample t- test, Mahalanobis distance, correlation, and reliability analysis were conducted. The sample of the study population was selected from 1,023 banks (Commercial, Microfinance and Primary Mortgage) registered with Central bank of Nigeria. Stratified cluster sampling techniques was used by selecting the banks covered randomly and the unit of analysis is organization. Hence, the senior managers, managers, HODs and top executive officers are the ones that responded to the questionnaire. Out of 560 administered questionnaires, only 460 were returned and 417 were usable for analysis

4. Result Findings and Discussion

4.1 Response Rate

The data for this study was collected from senior management, executives, managers and head of departments that represent the respective banks in Nigeria. In this study, attempts were made to increase the response rate such as by reminding the respondents through telephone call, SMS and self visits (Sekaran, 2003). As a result of this efforts, 460 questionnaires responded by the banks were returned out of the 560 questionnaires distributed by hand delivery to the respondent banks (commercial, microfinance and mortgage) in Nigeria. This makes the response rate of 82.14%. Out of these 460 responses collected, 417 questionnaires were useable for further analysis making a valid response rate of 74.0%. This response rate is considered adequate considering that, according to Sekaran, (2006) the response rate of 30% is acceptable for surveys. Similarly, 417 responses are greater than Hair et al., (2010) suggested that for regression type of analysis, the sample size should fall between five and ten times the number of independent variables. Given the number of variables in this study, which is eight (8), would suggest a sample size of about 80. Table 4.1 in appendix shows the distribution of required sample and total number of responses by each category of banks.

The data collection period took about five months. The follow up messages were made through text messages, phone calls and e-mails during the period. The data was keyed-in into SPSS (version 16.0) for further analysis.

Forty three (43) questionnaires were excluded in the process of screening and cleaning the data. Errors were checked by analyzing the mean, standard deviation, minimum and maximum scores for all 417 cases on all variables.

4.2 Personal Background of the Respondents

The statistical frequency distribution of key variables in the questionnaires were objectively classified and presented in logical categories to reflect the originality of the study. Subsequently, the desired analytical tables were extracted for the proper data analysis as shown in appendix table 4.2. The descriptive analysis indicates that majority of the respondents in the organization were male (68%). In terms of job title of the respondents, 35% are holding the responsibility of head of department, 30% senior manager's, 20% Deputy General Managers/Assistant General Manager's. Hence, these represent the majority of the targeted respondent for the study. Others include top management (ED/GM) that represents 16%. The respondents represented their organizations that were categorized into three different types of banks viz: Commercial bank 4.3%, of population sample (representing 75% of registered Commercial bank with Central bank of Nigeria). Microfinance bank 74.8% of sample size (representing 35% registered Microfinance bank with central bank of Nigeria. and Primary mortgage banks were represented by 21% of the sample that accounted for 88.75% of registered primary mortgage bank with apex bank. As for the number of employees in these organizations, the highest was 60% for 1-50 numbers of employees including the outsourced personnel. This followed by 15% for above 2,000 employees inclusive of outsourced.

4.3 Factor Analysis of the Research Instrument

Factor analysis was conducted using a principal components analysis (PCA) with varimax rotation method to analyze the underlying structure of the inter-relationships among the variables into a set of common dimensions. This analysis will assess the measurement of convergent and discriminant validity. Convergent validity refers to the degree to which the scale correlate positively or in the same direction with other measures of the same construct. Discriminant validity refers to the degree to which the measurement scale does not correlate or distinct with other measures (Malhotra, 1999). PCA is a method that is used to help investigators represent a large number of relationships among interval-level variables in a simpler way. The method allows the computer to determine which, of a fairly large set of items, "hang together" as a group, or are answered most similar by the participants. The principal components analysis (PCA) was carried out for the items of the variables of this research work. The central idea of principal component analysis is to reduce the dimensionality of a data set in which there are a large number of inter-related variables, while retaining as much as possible of the variation present in the data set. This reduction is achieved by transforming to a new set of variables, the principal components, which are uncorrelated, and which are ordered so that the first few retain most of the variation present in all of the original variables. Computation of the principal components reduces to the solution of an eigenvalue problem for a positive semi-definite symmetric matrix. As for the sample size, a guideline by (Coakes & Steed, 2003); Hair et al., (2010) indicates that a minimum of five subjects per variable are needed for factor analysis. In this study, with 8 variables, a sample size of 417 is higher than the minimum requirement of the desired cases for factor analysis. A sample size of more than 350 requires a factor loading of 0.30 to assess statistical significance (Hair et al, 2010). Hence, the minimum requirement for factor analysis was fulfilled.

4.3.1 Dependent Variable – Organization performance (OP)

Table 4.3 in the appendix shows the factor loadings and communality values for factor analysis of dependent variable (organization performance). At inception, the dependent variable was measured by 20 items in two dimensions was subjected to principal component analysis (PCA) using SPSS Version 16. Prior to performing PCA, the suitability of data for factor analysis was assessed. The factor loading of the items range from 0.770 to 0.984 with 10 items had been removed due to some reasons such as having low MSA value, low communalities value, loading less than 0.50, and cross-loading. The ten (10) deleted items from the initial 20 items measurement of organization performance construct (1, 2, 6,10,11,12,14,16,17 and 19) were those items that indicated failure to fit well with other items in their components. Removing these items with low communality values had increased the total variance explain. Inspection of the correlation matrix revealed the presence of many coefficients of 0.3 and above. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was 0.885 exceeding the benchmark value of 0.60. It shows that the sample size is adequate for factor analysis to be conducted. That is, the ratio of the sample size to the number of items is sufficient for factorability. On the other hand, the Bartlett's test of sphericity is statistically significance, supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix, as the p-value is 0.000. This implied the adequacy of applying the factor analysis. Principal component analysis revealed the presence of three components with eigenvalue exceeding 1. The three components

extracted were named 1) operation cost reduction (OP20), 2) customer service relationship management (OP4), and 3) business operations efficiency (OP8). The percentages of the variance were 50.70%, 19.94%, and 11.26% respectively.

The three-component solution explained a total of 81.90% of the variance. To aid in the interpretation of these three components, varimax rotation was performed. The first component was defined by five items related to operating cost. This includes interest payment (cost) on tenured fund, branches operational cost, cost of recovering bad loans, and provisional cost of having number of bad loans in the organization. The higher loadings will influence the name of the factor (Hair et al., 2010). The higher loadings were level of operating cost, interest cost of tenured fund and branches operating cost. Operating cost and interest cost are part of cost of doing business in organization (Hammer & Champy, 1993). Hence, this factor was named as operation cost reduction. The second component was defined by three items namely customer relationship management, brand name, and customer service delivery. These items were related to customer service relationship management (Bontis, 1998; Bontis, Chua, & Richardson, 2000; Khong & Richardson, 2003; Kotler, 2003). Hence, Customer service management name was used. Finally the third component was represented by two items such as zero error of operational process, and market share in retail, consumer and corporate banking services. Zero error process is a category of efficient service delivery/speed (Hammer & Champy, 1993). Hence, the factor was named Business operations efficiency.

4.3.2 Moderating Variable – Information Technology Capability (I.T Capability)

Table 4.3 in the appendix shows the factor loadings and community values of the results for factor analysis of information technology capability. At the beginning, the moderating variable was measured by 12 items in two dimensions, which were subjected to principal component analysis (PCA) using SPSS Version 16. Prior to the process of performing PCA, the suitability of data for factor analysis was assessed. The factor loading of the items range from 0.650 to 0.794 with 2 items been removed due to some reasons such as having low MSA value, low communality value, loading less than 0.50, and cross-loading. The deleted items from the initial (1 and 2) are those items that indicated a sign of non fit with other items in their components. Removing the non fit items that have low communality values had increased the total variance explain for this study. Inspection of the correlation matrix revealed the presence of many coefficients of 0.3 and above. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy of 0.863 exceeding the bench mark value of 0.60, this implied that, the sample size is adequate for factor analysis to be conducted. Also, the ratio of the sample size to the number of items is sufficient for factorability. On the other hand, the Bartlett's test of sphericity is statistically significance, supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix, as the p-value is 0.000. This indicated the adequacy of applying the factor analysis. Principal component analysis revealed the presence of three components with eigenvalue exceeding 1. The three component extracted were named 1) I.T knowledge (IT Cap3), 2) I.T Operations (I.T Cap8), and 3) I.T objects (I.T cap11). The percentages of the variance were 39.81%, 11.64%, and 10.55% respectively.

The three-component solution explained a total of 61.99% of the variance. To aid in the interpretation of these three components, varimax rotation was performed. The first component was defined by four items related to I.T knowledge. This includes professional qualification, I.T staff proactiveness in ebanking innovation, qualified trained expertise/consultant in computing, and regular training courses for IT staff. The higher loadings will influence the name of the factor (Hair et al., 2010). The higher loadings were professional qualification of IT engineers, proactive innovation in ebanking by I.T staff and qualified expertise/consultant. Professional qualification, expertise consultants and regular training of I.T staff can be viewed as skill knowledge in I.T computing (Tippins & Sohi, 2003). Hence, this factor was named as I.T knowledge. The second component was defined by three items namely technology based link via local area network and wide area network on-line real time (LAN and WAN 24/7), link to branches through WAN, and minimal computer system down time. These items were related to I.T operations (Tippins & Sohi, 2003). Hence, the original name was retained. Finally the third component was represented by three items such as organization IT policy in line with regulators guidelines, monitoring of customer's transaction by IT operations, and computerization of banking operations. I.T objects encompass the comprehensive procedures of operational processes/transactions and requirement for disclosures, oath of secrecy, confidentiality and management of customer's activities. Hence, the factor was named I.T Objects.

4.3.3 Independent Variables: Business Process Re-engineering Factors (BPR Factors)

The independent variables of this study are the BPR factors which includes: 1) Change Management – measured as uni-dimension, 2) BPR Project Management – uni-dimensional, 3) Top Management Commitment – one

dimension, 4) Customer Focus – one dimension, 5) I.T Infrastructure – one dimension, 6) Process Redesign – one dimension, 7) Financial Resources – one dimension, 8) Less bureaucratic structure – one dimension. At the beginning total items measuring the BPR factors were 56 items. These items and dimensions were analyzed using factor analysis to check for their validity. Using the criteria for conducting factor analysis as discussed in section 4.3 above. The analysis extracted nine components. In the process of getting these nine components, 27 items and one construct (Less bureaucratic structure) had to be deleted due to various reasons such as low communality value, loading less than 0.50, and cross loading. Removing items with low communalities values increased the total variance explain. Inspection of the correlation matrix revealed the presence of many coefficients of 0.30 and above. The Kaiser-Meyer-Okin value was 0.750, exceeding the recommended value of 0.6 (Kaiser, 1970, 1974) and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (Bartlett, 1954) reached statistical significance, supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix. Table 4.5 present the factor loadings and communality values for the result of factor analysis of independent variable of the study.

The number of final factors together with the number of items used to measure the particular variable is as follows:

- 1) I.T investment (IT Infra3) – 4 items
- 2) Strategy Alignment (Proj1) – 4 items
- 3) Customer Focus (CF4) – 3 items
- 4) Personnel commitment (TOP7) – 3 items
- 5) Communication (CM8) – 3 items
- 6) Training and education (CM3) – 3 items
- 7) Volume of financial activities (AFR5) – 4 items
- 8) Reward system (CM4) – 2 items
- 9) Strong capital base (AFR2) -2 items

As shown in the table 4.4, Principal Components analysis revealed the presence of nine components with eigenvalue exceeding 1, explaining 16.127%; 11.416%; 8.274%; 6.158%; 5.974%; 4.540%; 4.270%; 3.854% and 3.645% of the variance respectively. An inspection of the screeplot revealed a clear break after the ninth component. Using (Catell, 1966) scree test, it was decided to retain nine components for further investigation. To aid in the interpretation of these nine components, Varimax rotation was performed. The rotated solution revealed the presence of simple structure (Thurstone, 1947), with both components showing a number of strong loadings and all variables loading substantially on components. The nine factor solution explained a total of 64.259% of the variance, with component 1 contributing 16.127%; component 2 contributing 11.416%; component 3 contributing 8.274%; component 4 contributing 6.158%; component 5 contributing 5.974%; component 6 contributing 4.540%; component 7 contributing 4.270%; component 8 contributing 3.854% and component 9 contributing 3.645% respectively.

The first factor was defined by four items and reflected the organization's investment in information technology to achieve proper IT integration, build effective IT infrastructure and redesign core process for efficient service delivery. Thus, this factor was named IT investment. The second factor was dominated by items relating to organization strategic initiative project that aligned with corporate policy. Therefore, this factor was named strategy alignment driven of reengineering project (Zairi & Sinclair, 1995). The third factor was dominated by items relating to customer focus, which are oriented toward finding new ways of adding value to customer (Scherr, 1993). Thus, this factor was named Customer focus. The fourth factor consist of items pertaining to personnel capability to handle related changes recommended by consultant and consider process re-engineering as method to improve process performance in the organization, thus, this factor was named personnel commitment. The fifth factor consists of items related to communication for employee to accept positive changes by involving them in implementation of business process re-engineering. Therefore, the factor was named effective communication. The sixth factor was dominated by training and education of employees in newly introduced core processes for effective service delivery. Thus, this factor was named Training and education. The seventh factor consist of items related to organization volume of financial activities and making use of appropriate software technology to redesign processes thus, this factor was named volume of financial activities to customer. The eighth factor consists of items related to effective reward system that encourage employees to accept changes for improvement. Therefore, this factor was named reward system. The ninth factor consists of

items related to organization adequate capital base to provide a cushion for risk asset and conduct profitable transaction. Therefore this factor was named strong capital base.

4.4 Reliability Analysis

The reliability test for each dimension emerged after factor analysis was conducted. Cronbach's alpha coefficient is widely used as a measure of reliability. A value of 0.7 in the Cronbach's alpha is considered adequate to ensure reliability of the internal consistency of the questionnaire (Nunnally, 1978). The Cronbach's alpha range from 0.60 to 0.99 for the variables in the questionnaire used for the study implies that the instrument is reliable. Flynn, Schroeder, & Sakakibara, (1994) argued that a Cronbach's alpha of 0.6 and above was considered an effective reliability for judging a scale. The generally agreed lower limit for Cronbach's alpha may decrease to 0.60 in exploratory research (Hair et al., 2010). Hence, instrument has excellent reliability as far as internal consistency is concerned. That is, the instrument can give consistent results on the effect of business process reengineering factors on organizational performance of Nigerian banks.

4.5 Modified framework and restatement of hypotheses

The result of analysis indicated that hypothesis needs to be restated and referred to throughout the study. Prior to factor analysis major variables such as Change Management, BPR Project Management, Top Management Commitment, Customer Focus, I.T Infrastructure, Process redesign, Financial resources and Less bureaucratic structure were measured as uni-dimensional. However, after factor analysis they were found to be as follows: 1) Communication; 2) Training and Education; 3) Reward System; 4) Strategy Alignment; 5) Personnel Commitment; 6) Customer Focus; 7) I.T investment; 8) Volume of Financial Activities; 9) Strong Capital base.

The dependent variable (organizational performance) had merged into three dimensions: 1) Operational cost reduction; 2) Customer service management; 3) Business operations efficiency

While the moderating variable (I.T Capability) had merged into three dimensions: I.T Knowledge; 2) I.T Operations; 3) I.T Objects. The modified research model for the study is shown in figure 4.1.

4.6 Preliminary Analysis

Preliminary analysis includes: descriptive statistics for major variables and Inter-correlations of major variables.

4.6.1 Missing Data

On receiving the completed questionnaires, the research assistant checked and ensured that all questions were answered. Where any exception was discovered, the attention of the respondent was drawn to answer appropriately. Hence, this had assisted significantly in reducing the number of un-attended questions in the survey. After the collection stage, the data were keyed into SPSS software in two (2) trenches i.e. the early response and the late response. Preliminary descriptive statistics was run to further confirm identify if any the missing data exist or not. Hair et al., (2010) suggested that any case with more than 15% missing data observed should be deleted as long as the sample is adequate. This suggestion was in line with Tabachnick & Fidell, (2007) that a case of missing data should be simply drop.

4.6.2 Assessment of outliers

The assessment of outliers is another important stage of data screening. The extreme case scores that might have a significant effect on the result either too high, too low or unique combination of values across several variables cases were deleted (Hair et al., 2010). Therefore, using multivariate analysis necessitate identification and treatment of outliers accordingly. Mahalanobis Distance (D^2) was used to identify and deal with outlying cases. The procedure is to run Mahalanobis in the SPSS and then compare the values with that of Chi-square table. These mean that any case with Mahalanobis value above is multivariate outliers and were deleted from further analysis.

4.6.3 Presentation of Descriptive Statistics for Independent Variables

The descriptive statistics shows the minimum and maximum scores, mean values and standard deviation of key variables in the questionnaires using the six Likert-scale criteria ranging from 1 to 6. The mean scores for all variables were in the range of 4.74 to 5.08. Overall the mean for BPR factors variables were between the ranges of 4.78 and 4.96. These generally indicated that the bank managers agreed that their banks were implementing good BPR practices. The dependent variables were assessed using the Likert scale of 1 (decrease significantly) to 6 (increase significantly) over the past three years. The mean score values indicated that most of the banks that participated in the study were doing well in terms of operating cost containment that improved their general performance as showed by the highest mean value of 4.98 with standard deviation of 1.106. This followed by

effective customer relationship management in service delivery that have a mean score of 4.95, standard deviation of 0.903 and error free operational processes mean value of 4.74 with standard deviation of 0.933.

4.6.4 Tests for Violations of Assumptions for Multiple Regressions

To achieve the underlying assumption of the Multiple Regression Analysis, the variables were checked for outliers, normality, linearity, multicollinearity and homoscedasticity in line with the analysis suggested by Hair et al., (2010) and Pallant (2001).

4.6.5 Normality

One of the approaches to assess the normality assumptions is through histogram residual plots. It refers to the shape of data distribution for an individual continuous variable and its correspondence to normal distribution. To meet the assumptions, the distribution of the plot needs to appear normally distributed. The ultimate objective of the research is to make inference, then, screening for normality is an important step in almost all multivariate analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). From figure 4.0 in appendix, it shows the normal histogram pictorially depicts that the normality assumption is achieved since all the bars of the histogram are close to a normal curve. On the other hand, the normal probability plot satisfied the homoscedasticity assumptions of the variance of the random error component since all the points lie along 45° diagonal line. Similarly, the normality assumption for other variables was not violated

In addition the assumptions of Collinearity also need to be met. These assumptions apply to the independent variables, dependent variable, and the relationship between independent and dependent variables is linear. According to Hair et al., (2010), if the analysis does not show any non linear pattern to residuals, it is ensured that overall equation is linear and can be examined through residual plots. Meanwhile homoscedasticity implies equal variances of dependent variable at each observation of the independent variable and similarly can be examined from the histogram of the standardized residuals and the Q-Q plots (Hair et al., 2010). The assumption of independent implies that the samples are independent from one another. In this study, the independent assumption was met because the samples were randomly selected from the population.

4.6.6 Linearity

To check for linearity, this study used the residual scatter plot. If the assumptions are satisfied, the residuals should scatter around 0 or most of the scores shall concentrate in the centre along the 0 point (Flury & Riedwyl, 1988). Figure 4.1 displayed the scattered plot between BPR factors and organization performance. The plot shows that the residual scores were concentrated at the centre along the zero (0) point, thus, suggesting the linearity assumption was met. Similarly, it appeared that the other variables also demonstrated that the linearity assumption was not violated.

4.6.7 Multicollinearity

Multicollinearity is defined as the degree of correlation among independent variables. Independent variable is highly correlated (above 0.90) among themselves (Hair et al., 2010). Verifying the multicollinearity problem can be done through bivariate correlations of all the independent variables. In this study, multicollinearity has been examined between the independent variables (BPR Factors) using Pearson correlation. Multicollinearity increases the variance of regression coefficients and threatens to the validity of the regression equation. The values of Pearson correlations show the relationships between independent variables, and are a method for diagnosing multicollinearity (Allison, 1999). As noted by (Cooper & Schindler, 2003) there is no definitive criterion for the level of correlation that constitutes a serious multicollinearity problem.

The general rule of thumb is that it should not exceed 0.75. Similarly, Allison (1999) and Cooper and Schindler (2003) indicated that correlations of 0.8 or higher are problematic. The result in the table shows no multicollinearity between independent variables because the Pearson correlation indicators for all independent variables are less than 0.7. Another approach is to look at the variance inflated factor (VIF) and tolerance value. It is generally believed that any variance inflation factor (VIF) exceeds 10 and tolerance value lower than 0.10 indicates a potential problem of multicollinearity (Hair et al., 2010). Table 4.5 in appendix shows the Tolerance and VIF values for independents variables

The result in Table 4.5 shows that multicollinearity does not exist among all independent variables because the Tolerance values are more than 0.10 and VIF values are less than 10. The result indicates that the study does not have any multicollinearity problem. The hierarchical regression was subjected to criticism because the interaction term leads to multicollinearity problem (Aiken & West, 1991; Cohen & Cohen, 1983; Frazier, Barron, & Tix, 2004). As a result of centered mean, VIF and tolerance values were within acceptable required range. Thus multicollinearity was not a problem in this study.

4.6.8 Homoscedasticity

Homoscedasticity is assumed when there is no pattern in the data distribution and residuals are scattered randomly around the horizontal line through 0 (Norusis, 1999). The assumption of homoscedasticity requires that the variance of the dependent variable is the same at all values of independent variable or constant variance of error term (Hair et al., 2010). Durbin-Watson can be used to test the independence of error terms (Norusis, 1999). The general rule of thumb is, if the Durbin-Watson value is between 1.50 and 2.50, the assumption of independence of the error terms is not violated (Norusis, 1999). The Durbin-Watson value of 1.938 in this study met the general rule of thumb, and assures the assumptions of independence of error terms is not violated.

5. Conclusion

As the missing values were checked, multivariate outlier had been deleted and data satisfy the normal distribution without any problem of non response bias, the data was fully screened and clean. Furthermore, the evaluation on assumptions of linearity, homoscedasticity, normality, independence of the error terms, and multicollinearity revealed no significant violation of assumption. Hence, it can be concluded that the data was ready for multivariate analysis.

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Table 4.1. Response Rate of the Questionnaires

Response	Commercial	Microfinance	Mortgage	Freq/Rate
No. of distributed questionnaires	21	449	90	560
Returned questionnaires	21	349	90	460
Returned and usable questionnaires	18	312	87	417
Returned and excluded questionnaire	3	37	3	43
Questionnaires not returned	0	100	0	100
Response rate	100%	77.72%	100%	82.14%
Usable response rate	86	69%	97%	74%

Source: Developed for the research

Table 4.2. Demographic characteristics of the respondents

S/N	ITEMS	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
1	Gender:		
	Male	283	67.90
	Female	134	32.10
2	Job Title		
	i. ED/GM	65	15.6
	ii. DGM/AGM	82	19.7
	iii. SM/MGR	125	30.0
	iv. HOD	145	34.8
3	Category of Bank		
	i. Commercial Bank	18	4.3
	ii. Microfinance Bank	312	74.8
	iii. Primary Mortgage Bank	87	20.9
4	Number of employees including outsource in organization		
	i. 1 – 50 employees	249	59.7
	ii. 51 – 100 employees	35	8.4
	iii. 101 – 1000 employees	53	12.7
	iv. 1001 – 2000 employees	19	4.6
	v. Above 2000 employees	61	14.6

Table 4.3. Factor loading and communalities for variables

Dependent Variable:

Organization Performance

Moderating Variable:

I.T Capability

	Rotated Matrix			Communality	
	Component			Initial	Extraction
	1	2	3		
OP20	.984	.054	.084	1.000	.621
OP18	.981	.092	.083	1.000	.640
OP7	.981	.081	.088	1.000	.636
OP15	.978	.080	.068	1.000	.977
OP13	.977	.090	.089	1.000	.725
OP4	.094	.794	.018	1.000	.698
OP5	.051	.785	.131	1.000	.970
OP3	.066	.770	.155	1.000	.967
OP8	.114	.083	.840	1.000	.979
OP9	.075	.180	.812	1.000	.978

	Rotated Matrix			Communality	
	Component			Initial	Extraction
	1	2	3		
ITCAP3	.754	.173	.057	1.000	.602
ITCAP5	.731	.160	.281	1.000	.639
ITCAP4	.730	.250	.163	1.000	.621
ITCAP6	.700	.226	.144	1.000	.562
ITCAP8	.250	.794	.126	1.000	.709
ITCAP7	.256	.735	-.001	1.000	.605
ITCAP9	.196	.714	.273	1.000	.623
ITCAP11	.180	.154	.759	1.000	.633
ITCAP12	.261	-.064	.749	1.000	.633
ITCAP10	.028	.384	.650	1.000	.571

Rotated Component Matrix

Note: major loadings for each item are bolded

Rotated Component Matrix

Note: major loadings for each item are bolded

Table 4.4. Factor loading and communalities for independent variables

	Component										Communi nality	Initial
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9			
IT INFRA3	.773	.036	.021	.172	.114	-.047	.128	-.030	.019	CM1	.968	1.000
IT INFRA4	.755	.008	.039	.168	-.024	.073	.169	-.039	.063	CM2	.626	1.000
EPR2	.722	.019	.059	-.042	-.019	.013	.172	.097	.126	CM3	.695	1.000
IT INFRA2	.551	-.042	.022	.370	.037	-.074	.094	.066	.288	CM4	.967	1.000
PROJ1	-.175	.754	.108	-.033	.093	.019	.055	-.036	.068	CM5	.607	1.000
PROJ4	.033	.740	.092	.102	.061	.031	.022	.107	.032	CM7	.524	1.000
PROJ3	.019	.718	.031	-.005	.004	.099	-.053	.002	.007	CM8	.605	1.000
PROJ2	.167	.710	.093	.166	.001	.064	.107	-.024	-.041	CM9	.601	1.000
CF4	.061	.152	.740	-.020	.227	-.076	-.003	-.095	-.118	PROJ1	.630	1.000
CF3	.064	.095	.735	.096	-.150	.300	-.009	.049	-.012	PROJ2	.586	1.000
CF1	-.007	.051	.734	.111	-.186	.286	.078	.084	-.039	PROJ3	.529	1.000
CF2	.041	.111	.728	-.112	.236	-.284	.045	-.077	.166	PROJ4	.585	1.000
TOPMGT7	.033	-.002	-.034	.792	-.029	.010	.143	.063	.015	TOPMGT5	.552	1.000
TOPMGT6	.210	.124	.016	.772	.053	-.035	.144	-.005	.088	TOPMGT6	.689	1.000
TOPMGT5	.164	.120	.091	.676	.086	-.028	.072	-.055	.172	TOPMGT7	.655	1.000
CM8	-.053	.023	.041	.030	.749	.185	.003	.054	.006	CF1	.685	1.000
CM2	.057	.029	.092	.120	.719	.273	-.013	.088	-.002	CF2	.728	1.000
CM5	.101	.109	-.066	-.029	.705	.257	.067	.032	.102	CF3	.678	1.000
CM3	.056	.065	.107	-.024	.264	.767	-.059	.114	.025	CF4	.656	1.000
CM9	.014	.124	.061	.000	.200	.728	-.017	.102	.029	IT INFRA2	.546	1.000
CM7	-.078	.042	.011	-.060	.320	.638	.042	-.023	-.022	IT INFRA3	.662	1.000
AFR5	.098	.024	.040	.046	.158	-.122	.761	.055	-.090	IT INFRA4	.640	1.000
AFR4	.218	.073	.036	.082	-.059	.062	.713	.055	.037	EPR2	.583	1.000
EPR5	.092	-.005	-.013	.149	.005	.019	.633	-.007	.339	EPR4	.502	1.000
EPR4	.236	.027	.024	.273	-.073	.022	.544	.008	.263	EPR5	.547	1.000
CM4	.036	.032	-.012	.011	.070	.088	.052	.974	-.014	AFR1	.689	1.000
CM1	.024	.023	-.021	.007	.092	.100	.055	.972	-.002	AFR2	.674	1.000
AFR2	.198	.002	-.094	.055	-.042	.058	.069	-.007	.783	AFR4	.582	1.000
AFR1	.091	.077	.069	.234	.168	-.035	.210	-.014	.736	AFR5	.644	1.000

Note: major loadings for each item are bolded

Table 4.5. Tolerance Value and the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF)

Independent variables	Collinearity Statistics	
	Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)		
IT Investment	.704	1.420
Strategy Alignment	.882	1.134
Customer Focus	.906	1.104
Personnel Commitment	.746	1.341
Effective Communication	.716	1.397
Training and Education	.697	1.435
Volume of Financial Activity	.711	1.406
Reward System	.939	1.065
Strong Capital base	.781	1.281

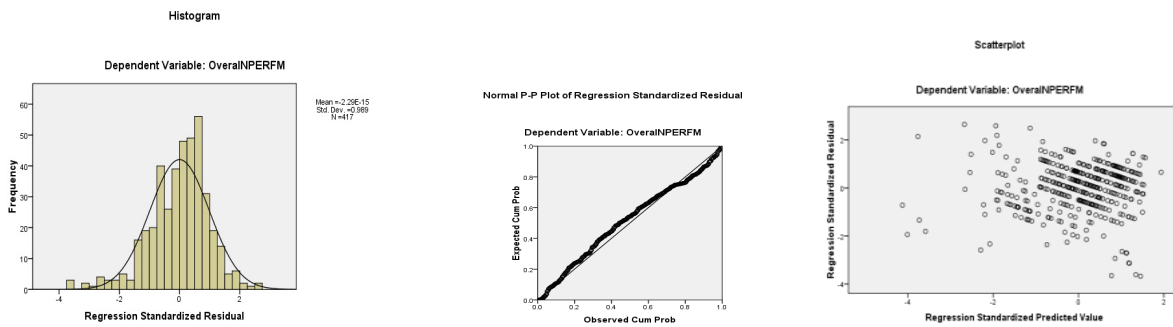


Figure 4.0. Residual plot – BPR factors and organization performance

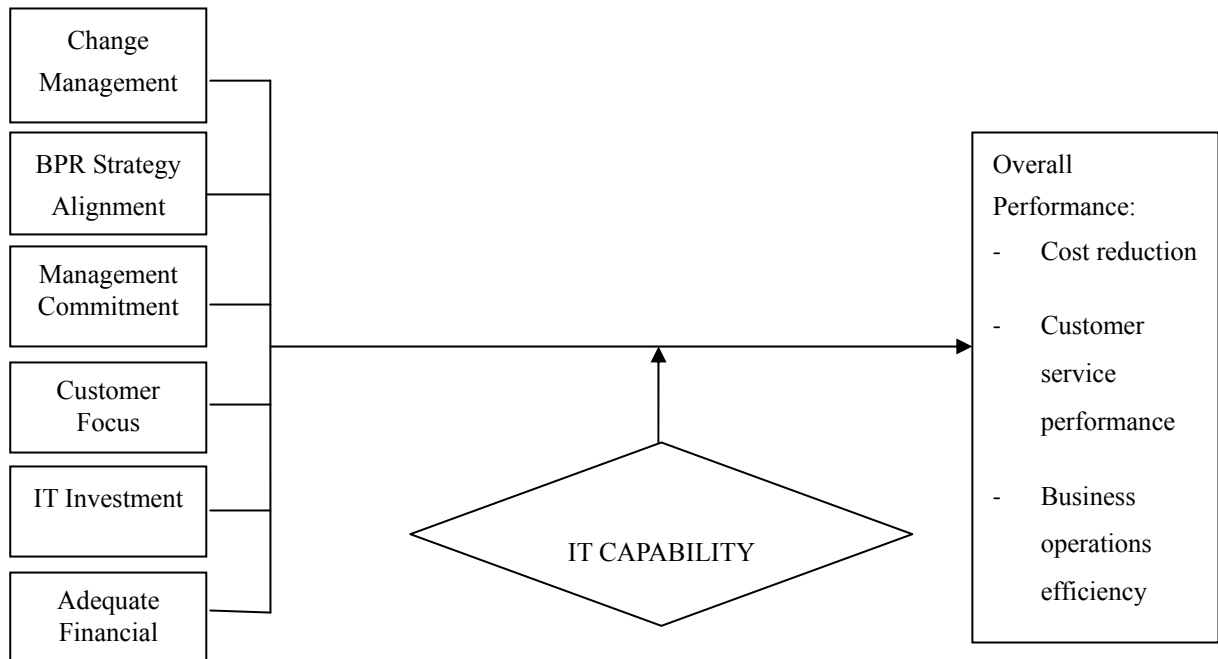


Figure 4.1. Modified research model framework of BPR factors and organization performance

Marital Happiness of Married Couples in the U.A.E Society: A Sample from Sharjah

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Abstract

The goal of this study is to examine the marital happiness of married couples in Sharjah Emirate, UAE, and its determinants. To achieve these goals, data from Family Cohesion Survey (FCS) are used; a cluster sample (1136) was randomly drawn from all local families in the Emirate of Sharjah, U.A.E.; descriptive statistics (percentages, means, and standard deviations) and analytical statistics (multiple regression) are used to analyze the data set. The results of the regression analysis reveal that there are statistically significant relation between couple's communication, education, sex, residence, self-reported health, family size, and religiosity and marital happiness of married couples. However, the analysis result reveals that family income, working status, and age are silent predictors of marital happiness.

Keywords: Marriage, Happiness, Marital happiness, Family, UAE

1. Introduction

The family has always been at the center of life in human societies in general and Emirati society in particular. Family is formulated by legal marriage and built by children. In Arab culture, marriage is both an individual and family matter and a well-defined turning point that bestows prestige, recognition, and societal approval on both partners, especially the bride. Marriage is a social phenomena defined in the Arab culture as a legally and religious sanctioned relationship involving mutual goals, economic cooperation, intimacy, normative sexual relationship, and child bearing. Also, marital relationships involve a complex social interaction including cooperation, division of labor, conflict, and different patterns of resource allocation among spouses and their extended families.

Waite and Gallagher (2000), in their book "the Case for Marriage," they summarized 200 studies that demonstrated the major positive impacts of marriage. They found married people live longer than unmarried or divorced people, and unmarried women have 50% higher mortality rates than married women, and unmarried men have a 250% higher rate than married men (Olson, D., Defrain, J., and Skogrand, L., 2010). Also, marriage is associated with higher levels of personal well-being (Stack and Eshlemen, 1998). In addition, Waite and Gallagher (2000) indicate that married people have higher levels of psychological and physical well-being than single, separated, or divorced individuals. Furthermore, marriage may protect mental health by giving people a great sense of meaning in their lives and allowing them to fill multiple social roles (Olson et al., 2010). In the United States, there is a research evidence that married people experience higher levels of personal happiness than unmarried people (Glen and Weaver, 1979). According to Stack and Eshleman (1998), in their study for 17 industrialized nations, there is a positive relation found between marriage and happiness, and marriage might affect happiness through the promotion of financial satisfaction and the important of health. Finally, Sandhya (2009) found that in urban India, happy couples reported agreement, empathy, validation, support, and fulfilled expectations compared with unhappy couples. Couples' experience and expression of intimacy, affected by social context, also predicted enhanced levels of happiness in marriage, whereas conflict had a negative effect on marital happiness.

Happiness is defined as a personal and subjective phenomenon (Hicks and Platt, 1970). In addition, happiness is a self-perceived subjective indicator of a positive personal feeling (Stack and Eshleman, 1998). Furthermore, Hicks and Platt, (1970) indicate that happiness, success, adjustment, and satisfaction are the terms most frequently used regarding the subjective state of the marital relationship.

The United Arab Emirates (U.A.E) has been undergoing social, economic, and political changes since the mid 1970s because of huge modernization process and planned social change. This modernization transformed the UAE society into a transitional stage where traditional values live with modern ones that affected family functions, roles, authority, and structure. The Emirati nuclear family carries many features of both western model and Arab traditional extended family model, which is characterized by extended relations. Consequently, the arranged and early marriage has been slowly declining in the Emirati society.

Research in the Arab World in general and U.A.E in particular neglected the issue of marital happiness, whereas the body of research has paid more attention to family pattern, forms of marriage, relative marriage, and the effect of work on marriage relationship. The current study is dealing with marital happiness and its determinants of independent variables found in the Family Cohesion Survey (FCS).

2. Research Questions

The following research questions will be addressed in this study:

- 1) How the married couples in Emirate of Sharjah, U. A. E., are distributed to the categories of marital happiness?
- 2) To what extent are the independent variables in this study (sex, place of residence, age, working status, family income, education, self-reported of health, family size, religiosity, and couple's communication) become significant predictors of the reported marital happiness of married couples in Emirate of Sharjah?

3. Literature Review

In U.S.A, previous empirical literature found that socioeconomic status variables are an important explanatory factor of marital happiness. For example, Corra, M., Houvounas, S., Carter, J.S., and Knox, D. (2008) found that individuals with higher income and education reported greater levels of marital happiness. Also, Glenn and Weaver (1978) mentioned that education was associated with happiness of husbands and wives (Campbell, A., Converse, P.E., and Rodgers, W.L., 1976; Gurin, G., Veroff, J., and Feld, S., 1960; Blood and Wolf, 1960; Terman, 1938). In the sixties, Hicks and Platt (1979) found positive relation between occupational status, income, and educational level for husbands in one hand and marital happiness on another. In contrast, Glenn, and Weaver (1978) found no strong positive relation between husband's occupational prestige or family income to the marital happiness of either husbands and wives. Finally, Lee and Ono (2008) found that the American couples are more likely to embrace the bargaining model where their happiness is determined by their own income. Men in the U.S. are more likely to support the specialization model; they are happier if their wives are not working or if they are financially dependent on their wives. Lee and Ono (2008) found support for the specialization model in Japan particularly in the case of women; they are happier if they are specialized in the household and they have a higher household income.

Regarding sex, many studies have shown that men report greater marital happiness than women (Lee & Ono, 2008; Amato, P.R., Johnson, D.R., Booth, A., and Rogers, S.J., 2003; Fanlknepe Davey and Darey, 2005; Henry, Miller and Giarrusso, 2005; Kaufman and Taniguch, 2006; Kiecolt-Glaser and Newton, 2001). In contrast, few studies have found contradictory results (Aldons and Woodberry, 1994). Other researchers found that sex have independent and statistically significant effects on marital happiness, with white and male respondents reporting greater levels of marital happiness than their black and female counter parts (Corra et al., 2008).

With regard to couple's communication, in a national survey of couple communication strengths in the U.S.A., Olson & Olson (2001) found that happy couples agreed more often than unhappy couples that they were satisfied with how they talk to each other as partners, had no trouble believing each other, felt that their partners do not make comments that put them down, were not afraid to ask their partners for what they wanted, and felt free to express their true feelings to their partners. Also, Narvan (1967) found a statistically significant relation between effective communication and marital adjustment. Happily married couples had both better verbal and nonverbal communication than did unhappy couples. Additionally, there is some evidence of a positive relation between affective involvement in marriage and happiness in marriage and between open communication (Olson & Olson, 2001).

Age has been reported to be positively related to the overall subjective well-being of black Americans and to marital happiness (Ball and Robbins, 1984). According to Ward (1993), marital satisfaction is generally high in latter life. Also, research has shown that the relation between age and marital happiness are consistent with the curvilinear relation between the age variable and marital happiness as suggested in the literature. Marital happiness is higher in the two extremes of the age continuum. The youngest (18-24) and the oldest age groups (75+) reported levels of marital happiness, which are lowest in between (Corra et al., 2008). Finally, Ward (1993) found that the reported quality of marital relationship is quite high for the older peoples.

Glenn and Weaver (1978) found religiosity highly correlated with marital happiness for whites in the U.S.A. Additionally, Richard (1993) found (for husbands) that the only statistically significant variable is frequency of church attendance. Husbands who attend church more frequently report greater marital happiness. Finally, Johnson et al., found that a self-report of strong religious commitment was associated with high marital happiness for both husbands and wives.

Research has shown that there is an association between working status, family size, self-reported health, number of children younger than 18 years, and marital happiness. For example, husband's employment is crucial to family financial support, self-esteem, and marital relations (Scanzoni, 1977; Strong & Devault, 1995). Also, a higher total number of persons in the household can be expected to have a negative effect on marital relations (Richard, 1993). In addition, numerous studies have shown health to be positively correlated with various types of subjective well-being for whites (Michalos, 1985). Research has found that having a child younger than 18 years at home was associated with significantly lower marital happiness for black husbands but not for black wives (McLarahan & Adnms, 1987; Umberson & Gove, 1989). Finally, Lee and Ono (2007) found that children are related to lower levels of marital satisfaction for women in both U.S.A and Japan.

4. Methodology

4.1 The sample

In the analysis of this research, data from Family Cohesion Survey (FCS) have been used. The data were conducted by the author funded by the Graduate Studies and Research Deanship at the University of Sharjah, UAE. A cluster sample (1136) was randomly drawn from all local families in the Emirate of Sharjah. The sample's characteristics are presented in Table (1).

4.2 Operational Measurement

4.2.1 Dependent Variables

Marital happiness is measured by responses to a question used by the American General Social Survey, which is as follows: "Taking things all together, how would you describe your marriage—very happy, pretty happy, or not too happy?" "Very happy" is coded 3, "pretty happy" is coded 2, and "not too happy" is coded 1. Response items, such as "don't know" and "no answer," were excluded from the analysis. Ranges, means, and standard deviation of the dependent and independent variables included in the analysis are presented in Table (2).

4.2.2 Independent Variable

Marital happiness has been modeled as a function of sex, place of residence, age, working status, family income, education, self-reported health, religiosity, family size, and couple's communication. The independent variables in this study were measured as shown in Table (1).

5. Analysis and Discussions

In the analysis of this research, descriptive and inferential statistics were used. The distribution of respondents according to their marital happiness is presented in Table (3). According to this table, the majority of married couples (56.3%) answered that they were pretty happy in their marriage, whereas less than third of the married couples (30.6%) classified themselves very happy in their marriage. On the other hand, 13% of the married couples perceived themselves not happy in their marriage. The result of descriptive statistics demonstrated that the majority of married couples classified themselves as very happy or pretty happy; this might be explained by the importance of marriage in the Emirati society where marriage is viewed as a social value, the integration of the traditional values with the modern ones, and the high level of standard living in the UAE. However, still, some married couples did not experience marital happiness, which might be explained by the increase in marital failure. Finally, the regression analysis will explain more of the effect of some independent variables on marital happiness in the study.

5.1 Multiple Linear Regression Analysis

Multicollinearity exists when two or more independent variables are highly correlated (Vogt 1999; Lewis-Beck 1980). The correlation matrix was examined for potential signs of multicollinearity. Table (4) indicates that sex and working status are the two independent variables with the strongest bivariate correlation ($r = 0.450$). Therefore, multicollinearity is not serious among the independent variables in this study.

According to Table (5), knowledge of the independent variables in this study explains approximately 47% of the variance in the marital happiness of married couples in the Emirate of Sharjah, UAE. According to Table 5, the empirical findings in multivariate analysis indicated that couple's communication, sex, level of education, place of residence, family size, religiosity, and self-reported health variables were observed to have a statistically significant relation with marital happiness. However, age, working status, and family income were silent variables in predicting marital happiness.

According to Table (5), the observed data indicate that couple's communication has a statistically significant positive effect ($t = 25.492$, $p = 0.00$) on marital happiness after controlling for the effect of other independent variables in the regression model. The partial standardized regression coefficient ($B^* = 0.599$) indicates that level of communication has high effect on the degree of marital happiness. Also, couple's communication was observed to have the strongest multivariate explanatory factor on marital happiness. Consequently, this finding is consistent directionally with the previous literature. Additionally, this result of the analysis assert that communication is the way humans create and share meaning, both verbally and nonverbally, and the ability to communicate is an essential skill individuals must master if they are to enjoy close relationship. The ability and the willingness to communicate is among the most important factors in maintaining a satisfying relationship, and communication in a positive manner is an important element to compromise and resolve conflicts in a constructive way and develop realistic expectations (Olson & Olson, 2000). Consequently, couple's communication is regarded as a cross – cultural predictor of marital happiness.

The partial unstandardized regression coefficient, B , indicates that the mean level of marital happiness for males is 1.34 higher than the mean level of marital happiness for females after controlling for the effects of the other independent variables in the regression equation. However, the partial standardized regression coefficient ($B^* = 0.098$) indicates that the effect of sex on marital happiness is very weak. The data were consistent with the previous literature. This result can be explained by the male-dominant society where marriage is better for men than women because women are expected to take care of men and play a subordinate role in the marriage institution.

According to Table (5), level of education ($B^* = 0.067$, $t = 2.451$, $p = 0.014$) has a weak and positive relation with marital happiness. This finding is consistent with previous literature. Education may give additional resources, such as income, insight, or status, which contribute to the ability to perform marital roles. However, family income was found to be a silent variable to predict marital happiness. Glenn and Weaver (1978) indicate that higher status persons tend to have more satisfactory marriages than lower status ones, perhaps because low-status marriages are prone to a number of deficiencies such as lack of communication between spouses (Komerov, SKY, 1962). It is possible that high status contributes to success of marriage but tends to lower marital happiness by making the spouses less inclined to terminate emotionally unsatisfying marriages.

Table (5) indicates that self-reported health variable has a weak and positive effect on the degree of marital happiness ($B^* = 0.162$, $t = 6.402$, $p = 0.000$). Consequently, the result of the statistical analysis is consistent with the previous literature. This result might be explained by the positive reflection of health on marital relations. Also, family size was observed to have a weak and negative association with marital happiness ($B^* = -0.083$, $t = -2.977$, $p = 0.003$). This often is attributed to the time, effort, worry, and economic costs associated with raising children as a result of modernization process in the Emirati society. According to Table 5, there is a weak statistical association between place of residence ($B^* = 0.109$, $t = 4.624$, $p = 0.000$) and marital happiness. Urban resident is more likely than rural resident to be happier in their marital happiness because life chances are better compared with rural areas. Furthermore, religiosity is associated with marital happiness ($B^* = 0.054$, $t = 2.360$, $p = 0.018$). The result is consistent with previous empirical literature. Sociologist used to argue that religion is an important aspect of culture, and norms that govern family pattern variations often are affected by the socio-religious climate in a given society (Lutz, 1987). Also, religiosity has been viewed as contributing to marital success or its appearance. Traditional religions stress the importance of children and the marital relationship. Finally, age and working status were not found to have association with marital happiness.

6. Conclusion

Couple's communication was found to have the strongest predictor of marital happiness. However, the rest of the independent variables (sex, education, self-reported health, religiosity, place of residence, and family size) in the study were found to have a weak or very weak relationship with marital happiness. Also, family income, working status, and age were not found to have a statistical association with marital happiness. In summary, married couples who have a higher level of communication, self-reported health, education, and religiosity and lower family size and who are male and urban residents are more likely to be happy than those who have lower level of communication, education and religiosity and higher family size and who are female and rural residents.

A limitation of this study is that its analysis deals with Sharjah Emirate. No data were available in the FCS for other Emirates in the UAE. Thus, further research is needed to explore the determinants of marital happiness in the UAE and the Arab world through adding more independent variables in the analysis.

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Table 1. Distribution of Married Couples by Socio-Demographic Characteristics (N = 1136)

Variables		Frequency	%
Sex	1. Male	780	68.7
	2. Female	356	31.3
	Total	1136	100%
Place of residence	1. Urban	1012	89.1
	2. Rural	124	10.9
	Total	1136	100%
Age	1. 18-29	284	25
	2. 30-41	448	39.5
	3. 42-53	324	28.5
	4. 54-64	80	7
	Total	1136	100%
Working status	1. Working	860	75.7
	2. Not working	276	24.3
	Total	1136	100%
Total family income *	1. Less than 10000	88	7.8

	2. 10000-20000	284	25
	3. 20001-30000	256	22.5
	4. 30001-40000	208	18.3
	5. 40001-50000	140	12.3
	6. 50000 +	160	14.1
	Total	1136	100%
Education	1. Illiterate	88	7.7
	2. Secondary and less	596	52.5
	3. Higher than secondary	452	39.8
	Total	1136	100%
Self-reported health	1. Very bad	12	1.1
	2. Bad	32	2.8
	3. Fair	244	21.5
	4. good	464	40.8
	5. Very good	384	33.8
	Total	1136	100%
Family size	1. Less than 4	400	35.2
	2. 4-7	512	45.1
	3. 8-10	208	18.3
	4. 10 +	16	1.0
	Total	1136	100%
Religiosity	1. No prayers	89	7.0
	2. Pray sometimes	400	35.0
	3. Pray daily	647	57
	Total	1136	100%

*A dollar is equal to 3.6 dirhams.

Table 2. Ranges, Means, and Standard Deviation of the Dependent and Independent Variables (N = 1136)

Variable	Range	Mean	SD
Dependent variables			
Marital happiness	1-3	2.176	.637
Independent variables			
Sex	1-2	1.313	.464
Place of residence	1-2	1.109	.311
Age	1-4	2.176	.886
Education	1-3	2.320	.610
Working status	1-2	1.243	.429
Family income	1-6	3.447	1.51
Family size	1-4	1.859	.756
Religiosity	1-3	2.311	.700
Self evaluation of health	1-5	4.035	.871
Couple's communication*	10-50	38.253	8.99

*Couple's communication index consists of 10 items with Likert scale answer for each item. The index has been scaled from 10 (low communication) to 50 (high communication), with alpha reliability of 0.80.

Table 3. Distribution of Married Couples According to their Marital Happiness Categories

Marital happiness	F	%
Very happy	348	30.6
Pretty happy	640	56.3
Not happy	148	13.0
Total	1136	100

Table 4. Correlation Matrix of the Independent Variables in the study (N = 1136)

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Sex	-									
Age	-0.144**	-								
Education	-0.37	-0.435**	-							
Working status	0.450**	.0550	-0.324**	-						
Residence	0.250**	-0.057	-0.094**	0.276**	-					
Family size	0.020	0.558**	-0.398**	0.145**	0.053	0.041	-			
Family income	-0.089**	0.204**	-0.065*	-0.099**	-0.192**	-0.077**	0.276**	-		
Self-reported health	0.190**	-0.269**	0.272**	0.100**	0.180**	-0.085**	-1.33**	-0.077**	-	
Couple's communication	0.097**	-0.064*	0.133**	0.017	0.097**	0.033	-0.088**	-0.045	0.359**	-

Table 5. Summary of Multiple Effects of Explanatory Factors on Marital Happiness

Variables	B	S.E	Beta	T	Sig T
Sex	1.34	0.043	0.098	3.108	0.002
Age	0.003	0.002	0.050	1.762	0.078
Education	0.022	0.009	0.067	2.451	0.014
Working status	0.033	0.049	0.022	0.669	0.504
Place of residence	0.222	0.048	0.109	4.624	0.000
Family size	-0.023	0.008	-0.083	-2.977	0.003
Family income	4.61	0.000	0.012	0.534	0.594
Self-reported health	.118	0.018	0.162	6.402	0.000
Couple communication	0.042	0.002	0.599	25.492	0.000
Religiosity	1.44	0.050	0.054	2.360	0.018

$R^2 = 0.470$, $F = 99.576$, $P = 0.000$

Establishment of Harmonious Ecological Culture in University Campus

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Abstract

Campus ecological culture is a sort of culture in which human kind gets along well in harmony with the natural environment. It represents the tide of evolvement of relationship between human kind and the natural environment, an important feature that universities are distinguished from other social organizations and an important foundation for sustainable development of universities. Campus ecological culture mainly includes ecologization of concept, ecologization of teaching, ecologization of management and ecologization of behavior. Establishment of campus ecological culture is the essential requirement to carry out the scientific outlook on development in an overall way, the realistic need to realize interpersonal harmony in university campus, an important approach for university students to develop in an overall and free way and a reliable guarantee for university students to survive and develop in a new century. Establishment of campus ecological culture has to insist on human orientation and realization of campus interpersonal harmony, has to carry forward the idea of freedom and realize academic harmony in university campus and has to strengthen environmental establishment and realize campus ecological harmony.

Keywords: Campus ecological culture, Harmony, Development

University is the cradle for growth of talents and is an important base for human culture to get extended and developed. As an important component of social culture, university campus culture influences and stimulates social culture with its high quality culture imbued with the flavor of the era and plays a demonstration and direction role in social culture, with strong cultural feedback function.

With reform and development of higher education, how to strengthen establishment of university campus culture is an important subject that higher education is faced up in a new century. Campus ecological culture is a brand-new campus culture and is a sort of culture in which human kind gets along well with the natural environment in a harmonious way. It represents the tide of evolvement of relationship between human kind and the natural environment and is an important foundation for sustainable development of universities.

1. Basic connotation of campus ecological culture

1.1 Campus culture

Campus culture refers to the particular campus life style that is formed under interaction of internal campus environment and external campus environment by all campus people. From the perspective of cultural pattern, the campus culture in its broad sense can be constituted by the following three patterns.

Campus material culture mainly refers to the material base to establish a campus, such as, campus environment, library data, scientific research equipment, broadcasting media, cultural facility and so on, and activities of concrete public culture, sanitation, sports and scientific practice that are held in the campus. Campus material culture is the hard environment in the campus culture and is the "first image" of the external part of a university.

Campus system culture mainly refers to the civilized and healthy living style, all sorts of rules and regulations, organizations and institutions and informal public groups as well as their functions in the campus and the school badge, school symbol, school song, school motto and so on. It is the basic feature and science of the times and the nation and sediment of the basic spirit of democracy in the campus, which reflects the holistic characteristics

of campus culture.

Campus spiritual culture mainly refers to the concept of value, public opinions of the collective, cultural tradition, academic style and spiritual belief of teachers, students and school staff. It is the central aspect of campus culture, where the spirit of campus culture lies, and is also the point of strength for establishment of campus culture.

1.2 Ecological culture

Ecology is supposed to be a concept of biology. Today, ecological culture has broken through the concept of pure environmental science and has been extended to anthropology, sociology and even the entire field of humanities and social sciences. It is a culture in which human kind gets along well with the natural environment in a harmonious way and it represents the tide of evolvement of relationship between human kind and the natural environment.

From the perspective of evolvement of cultural development, it can be found that human being has gone through the natural culture of the remote antiquity and stepped over the humanity culture of the ancient society and is undergoing the scientific culture of the industrial civilization era. Around the 70s in the Twentieth Century, a new trend appeared in human culture --- ecological culture.

Emergence of ecological culture brought about revolution of human beings in the world outlook. That is to say, human beings replace the philosophy of "anthropocentrism" with the philosophy of respecting nature and reverence for life. Its emergence also makes the thinking mode of people from the mechanical theory to the holistic outlook of interaction and interassociation of things.

1.3 Campus ecological culture

Campus ecological culture refers to the sum of all material and spiritual wealth that is formed and created together by all teachers, students and school staff in the campus under the direction of the ecological value outlook. This is a new type of campus culture, an important feature that universities are distinguished from all other social organizations and an important base and inexhaustible motive force for an university to survive and develop.

In universities, campus ecological culture has two obvious characteristics. The first one is that it is imbued with exuberant and eternal life vitality. The major subjects in universities are young students who bring up cultural prosperity and who are full of youthful spirit; The second is their sustainability and harmony. The development of colleges and universities is the demand of social development and is the need of human progress. It depends upon mutual support, mutual benefit, co-existence and harmonious development of teachers, students and the environment.

The connotation of ecological culture on campus should mainly include ecologization of concept, ecologization of teaching, ecologization of management and ecologization of behavior. Ecologization of concept means that concepts of the teachers and students should come from harmonious development of human and the environment, and integrate cultivation of people into the ecological development of sustained harmony, coexistence and co-prosperity and realize unity of dialectical development of human and the environment. Ecologization of teaching means that teachers and students communicate with each other in the process of teaching in universities, complement with each other in the teaching, have diversified means, integrate arts with science, integrate different disciplines and are imbued with opening up and reform and innovation. Ecologization of management means that management personnel of university administrative management, student management, teaching management and logistics management have to look upon problems and analyze problems from the ecological viewpoint, treat with each ecological element in the educational system equally, follow the principle of ecological balance and incentive and competitive mechanism and deal with imparting, cognition, education and self-education in the process of education among teachers and students. Ecologization of behavior means that behaviors of universities, teachers and students have to reflect the concept of ecology and the norm of all behaviors is sustainable and harmonious development of the environment and human.

2. Important significance of establishment of campus ecological culture

2.1 The essential requirement to carry out scientific outlook on development in an overall way

The great progress of science and technology and the great improvement of social productivity have brought unprecedented wealth to the society and have accelerated the progress of civilization development. However, at the same time, such problems as excessive consumption of resources, serious pollution of the environment and imbalance of the natural ecology also increasingly prominent, which seriously poses threat to human survival and development. Humans become more and more aware that, the ecological environment is one of the core

elements for the sustainable development of the society, and whether we develop economy at the expense of the environment or we develop science at the expense of humanity spirit, human beings will have to pay a heavy price for this.

University campus is the birth place and spreading place of the advanced culture and provides intelligence and cultural support for social development. colleges and universities should implement the scientific outlook on development, insist that each job in the school is developed in a comprehensive, coordinated and sustainable way, vigorously advocate building ecological culture on the campus, make due contributions to promoting the progress of the material civilization, spiritual civilization, political civilization and ecological civilization and bear due historical responsibility for improving the level of social productive forces and increasing the material wealth of the society that higher education is supposed to assume.

2.2 The realistic need to realize interpersonal harmony of university campus

Having walked into the 21st Century, human beings, on one hand, enjoy the well being that has been brought by high material civilization, and, on the other hand, suffer from the purgatory of contradiction of high spiritual culture. The shadow of the society once again is projected to the university campus. As a result, university is no longer a "pure land" and the "free communication of spirit" on the university campus no longer exists.

The reality tells us that in order to improve the quality of life of human beings, it is not only necessary to achieve harmony and intergrowth of human and the nature, but also necessary to attain harmony and co-existence of human and human.

An important aspect in construction of ecological culture on the campus is construction of a harmonious campus in which campus is the carrier and the main features are internal harmony and external success, everybody is in the same boat, logical administration and harmonious people co-exist and everything is in stability and in order. Studying, working and living in this big family, each one can experience the sense of achievement, sense of security and sense of belonging, which helps to form a healthy and progressive, stable and orderly environment in which everything is developed in harmony and everyone has a comfortable mood. Thus, it is the need for development of connotation of the school to establish the comprehensive, coordinated, free and sufficient development of school education and the ecological education theory of benign interaction and holistic optimization and to attempt to set up an interpersonal atmosphere of "human orientation and pursuit of human harmony". Besides, it is also the need to further deepen education and teaching reform, strengthen core competitive force of the school, enhance the cultural brand of the school and realize the target of school development.

2.3 The important approach for overall and free development of university students

Construction of ecological culture on the campus is an important battlefield to strengthen college students' ideological and political education. Campus ecological culture conveys the ideas, beliefs, world outlook, the outlook on life and values in concrete campus cultural activities that people are delighted to see and hear, which has particular and diversified functions of educating. By setting up a common value concept of the public, campus ecological culture forms an invisible centripetal force and cohesive force among young students and brings the behaviors of young students within a common ideal belief and value pursuit.

Ecological cultural construction on the campus is an extremely perfect stage to implement the quality oriented education among university students. In the process of designing campus ecological culture, participation of university students is indispensable. Here on the campus, the imagination space of students gets unlimited extension, their thinking of creation gets greatly developed and their comprehensive capacity gets fully exercised. Through the ecological cultural activities on the campus, not only the cooperative and competitive consciousness of students is cultivated, but also their artistic talent gets manifested, which makes students able to grow in a healthy direction in a happy education, context education and harmonious education.

Ecological cultural construction on the campus is helpful for intelligence development of university students. Worship of scientific spirit and establishment of academic innovation is the important content of ecological cultural construction on the campus. A variety of campus cultural activities that of profound academic atmosphere promote development of students' intelligence, capacity, innovative capacity and academic performance and cultivate students' hard working and plain living spirit, team cooperation consciousness and the capacity in applying the knowledge they have learnt in a comprehensive way.

Ecological cultural construction on the campus helps to improve personality of university students. Mo-tse said, "One will turn grey if died in grey and will turn yellow if died in yellow". The beautiful and clean campus, the colorful extracurricular life and the spiritual atmosphere that is full of youthful spirit all can purify the soul of

university students, make their mentality get improved and their sentiment get edified. As a sort of potential recessive course, ecological culture on the campus is of great importance to cultivation of a perfect personality of university students.

2.4 The reliable guarantee for survival and development of higher institutions of learning in a new century

Construction of ecological culture on the campus helps to form a relaxed and good academic atmosphere. The value of existence of university lies in the fact it is the source of knowledge creation and the base of cultural dissemination. The sufficient academic freedom, fearless criticism on the tradition and brave exploration of the unknown world are the basic security for survival and development of university students. Thus, a relaxed and good academic atmosphere is of special significance to development of university students.

Construction of ecological culture on the campus helps to give full play to the creativity of teachers, students and staff. Creativity is the actual power and motive power source of school life and school survival and development and is the basic condition for coordinated development of education and social progress. This requires us to show respect for the vast majority of teachers' innovative spirit, acknowledge the individual differences of students and ensure that the enthusiasm and creativity of each school member is fully played and practically guaranteed.

Construction of ecological culture on the campus helps to form a stable and orderly campus environment. An important aspect of ecological campus is that the campus is in perfect order, the management order, teaching order and scientific research order of the school all present a continuous, coherent and stable operation state, each one who studies, works and lives on the campus is able to acquire personal and property security and guarantee, the campus structure stability and harmonious relationship are realized and the vast majority of teachers, students and staff are able to start an undertaking and pursue development in a peaceful way.

3. Establishment of ecological culture on university campus

3.1 To insist on human orientation and to realize interpersonal harmony on the campus

Ecological culture on the campus is the soil that is most suitable for life and growth of teachers and students. Construction of ecological culture on the campus has to insist on human orientation and has to adjust all sorts of relationships inside and outside the campus so as to form an ecological system that is developed in a coordinated way.

First of all, it is necessary to coordinate the relationship between competition and cooperation. We should both encourage competition and advocate cooperation. The contemporary society is developed swiftly and changing quickly, in which competition is more and more fierce and opportunities and challenges coexist. Competition should not be avoided and cooperation should not be ignored. Instead, both of the two are dialectical unity. Competition can stimulate potential and make people imbued with vitality and vigor, whereas cooperation is able to make the best of the both worlds, promote each other and strengthen the entire strength. A correct handling of relationships between the two can achieve the effect of mutual promotion and mutual improvement.

Then, it is necessary to coordinate relationship between teachers and students. Teachers and students ought to get along with each other in harmony, insist on personality equality and mutual respect, listen to all kinds of opinions with tolerance, fully reflect the profound humanistic care spirit, replace rigid planning and commanding with communication of soul and enable all positive elements to be extensively mobilized.

Finally, it is necessary to coordinate relationship between the school and teachers. The school ought to ensure that all sorts of reasonable interests of teachers can be attained and provide opportunities and conditions for intelligence and talents of teachers on the basis of respect, stimulation, care and development and create democratic and progressive atmosphere.

3.2 To carry forward the thought of freedom and to realize academic harmony on the campus

A great scholar is one who studies profound knowledge. Dissemination, criticism and exploration of knowledge is the eternal subject of university. University in a new century has to show obedience to the idea of academic freedom and be dedicated to establishment of a perfect academic ecology.

On one hand, university should put forth efforts to cultivate and create an academic atmosphere of worshipping academic knowledge, pursuing excellence and respecting education and innovation, change the campus to an academic palace of free spirit and create unlimited and free developmental space for excellent talents showing themselves. On the other hand, university has to pay attention to cultivating the rigorous learning attitude of teachers and students and their innovation working style, firmly set up self-esteem, self-discipline and the consciousness of cherishing academic reputation, scrupulously abide by academic morality and norm, strengthen

cooperation and cultivate academic teams.

3.3 To strengthen environmental construction and to realize ecological harmony on the campus

"Resorting to mountains to enjoy human nature and resort to lake water to calm down". Perfect campus pattern, architectural style, beautification and greening as well as humanistic flavor implied in the environment are the silent carrier for educating and have unconscious influences upon edifying the sentiment of teachers and students, stimulating their intelligence and accumulating elegant campus culture. Therefore, the shape of university campus is supposed to have certain cultural color and educational consciousness and endow such buildings, facilities and environment as palace, building projects, flowers, plants and trees with rich connotation of ecological culture.

In the first place, in terms of planning of the architectural building clusters, it is necessary to fully reflect the scientific and artistic quality of the building, realize holistic harmony of the buildings, rationality of functions, modernization of facilities, convenience of use, environmental protection of materials and decent appearance and give full manifestation to the ecological and philosophical spirit of unity of nature and human.

Secondly, in terms of greening construction of the campus, we have to reflect the balance of ecological system and make the ecological system not only correspond with the aesthetical rule in appearance, but more consist with the ecological principle and biological features in terms of the holistic structure. Natural harmony should be achieved instead of preciousity.

Thirdly, we should reflect special characters and features of the school and let each corner of the school send out the glorious history and uncommon character of the university and the particular solemnness of the knowledge palace of higher education institutes and present the scientificity, civilization and progress of the modern university at any time.

Finally, we should pay attention to the cultivation of the harmonious ecological humanity concept. We should cultivate, edify and even change the outlook on life, world outlook and ecological outlook of teachers and students and construct ecological civilization from the perspective of unity of ecological law (truth), ecological ethics (good) and ecological environment (beauty).

Universities in the 21st Century are going towards the axis of the society. In face of the historical call, the university campus ought to insist on human orientation, carry out scientific outlook on development, enable the ecological culture to penetrate into the soul of the campus people, pursue harmonious development of human -- education -- environment, create a new ground for campus ecological culture and propel sustainable development of modern universities.

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Effect of Behavioural Family Therapy on Juvenile Delinquents' Relationship in Ahvaz Correction Centre (Iran) and Role of Age on the Process

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Abstract

This study aimed to determine the effect of behavioural family therapy with the juvenile delinquents and also role of age in this regard. The assessed variables consisted of relationships with siblings, peers, and parents as well as re-arrestment. A mixed sampling method, proportional allocation, and paired matched sampling were applied. A sample, with an equation of $n=124$, was taken from Ahvaz Correction Centre which assigned to the experimental and control groups (62 subjects in each group). There were three subgroups of thieving (24), physical aggression (20) and sexual crimes (18) in each of the groups. Instruments included a socio- economic status questionnaire, child's assessment by parent, and judiciary recorded data. The collected data were analyzed by applying repeated measures ANOVA, paired sample t-test and Pearson's correlation statistics. Accordingly, significant differences between the experimental and control groups in all variables were observed. However, all

the subgroups, except in case of re-arrestment, were affected by the therapeutic intervention regardless of the criminal subgroup.

Keywords: Behavioural family therapy, Juvenile delinquents, Age, Ahvaz City

1. Introduction

Delinquency and conduct disorder are the largest group of mental disorders which referred for treatment (Kazdin, Siegel, & Bass, 1990; Van Scott, Spender, Doolan, Jacobs, & Aspland, 2001), and have a destructive prognosis (American Psychiatric Association, 2000; Sue, Sue, & Sue, 2008). In fact, externalizing disorders are the most costly of all psycho-social problems during childhood (Dretzke, Frew, Davenport, Barlow, Stewart-Brown, Sandercock, Bayliss, Raftery, Hyde, Taylor, 2005; Kazdin, 1997) and also have implications in terms of socio-emotional harm for teenagers and fiscal costs on society (Biglan et al., 2004).

Due the effect of the problems and also the high rate of recidivism among juvenile delinquents, which is up to 90% during one year (Snyder, 1998), using effective approaches for the disorders is an urgent issue. Although, evidence-based approaches have been successfully used, among them, the behavioural family therapy (BFT) is well-known; however, not all reported cases were successful. In the following, both successful and unsuccessful cases will be provided.

BFT is a relatively new approach that originates from research involving the modification of children's behaviour by parents (Horne & Sayger, 2000). The approach includes application of behaviour therapy in the family context. According to the approach, family members, especially parents, can play an important role in the process. During the therapeutic sessions, with applying techniques such as role playing, contracting and social skills training as well as appropriate using of reinforcement for their children, parents learn new skills and change their wrong patterns of dealing with the children. The approach has been successfully used for externalizing disorders, such as, childhood conduct disorder (Brody, Kogan, Chen, & Murry, 2008; Connell, Dishion, Yasui, & Kavanagh, 2007; Hutchings, Lane, & Kelly, 2004; Nixon, 2002; Welsh & Farrington, 2006), delinquency and its components (Farrington & Welsh, 2003).

Even though there were many research reports indicating successful results of behavioural family therapy application, some evidences of negative results or unsuccessfulness among families and their children as the targets of the approach reported (Assemany & McIntosh, 2002; Hutchings et al., 2004 2004; Lundahl, Risser, & Lovejoy, 2006; Van De Wiel, Matthys, Cohen-Kettenis & Van Engeland, 2002).

1.1 *The role of age in behavioural family therapy with delinquents*

There are several variables which intervene in the behavioural family therapy process and decrease its effectiveness, including socio-economic disadvantage of subjects, parenting characteristics, home and neighborhood status, child's characteristics, and characteristics of the program. Among these variables, age has a critical effect since majority of delinquents are adolescents, which according to some studies, cannot be benefited from the approach. For instance, Hartman, Stage, and Webster-Stratton (2003) found that the approach was not suitable for adolescents. Basically, the period of 12-18 years of age is very important from criminology viewpoint. For example, a lot of adult prisoners have criminal records during childhood and adolescence (Dretzke et al., 2004, sue et al., 2008).

McCart, Priester, Davies and Azen (2006) found that behavioural family therapy had a significantly higher effect than other approaches in a subset of studies with participants aged 6 to 12 years of age. In line with this finding, Brestan and Eyberg (1998), believe that age is an intervening variable for the approach and BFT is more effective for younger children (preschool age) than adolescents. In addition, Kazdin (1995) reported that the treatment was effective for 63% of children from 3-6 ½ years of age, and less effective at 27% to those children from 6 ½-12 years of age. Lundahl et al.(2006) showed that in general, the approach is a robust intervention to modify disruptive child behaviour in the early age, 5-12. Although greater benefits were found for younger children compared to older children; however such differences were not statistically significant. Counter to these findings, Serketich and Dumas (1996) reported a positive correlation between age and desirable outcomes, $r=.69$, i.e. the intervention was more effective for older groups. However, Cedar and Levant (1991) found no relationship between the variables of age and behaviour correction after a course of BFT. Woolfenden, Williams and Peat (2002) reviewed the effectiveness of the approach on reducing delinquency and its consequences in a meta-analysis of children in range of 10 -17. The researchers reported a drastic decrease in re-arrestment up to 62%, and significant reduction in the time spent by juvenile delinquents in the disciplinary institutions and also running away from home. Farrington and Welsh (2003) in a review of BFT studies (children under 10) found a decrease of 35% in median of offending behaviours in the experimental compared to the control group. Harris

(2007) in a meta-analysis showed that the intervention was effective in reduction of behavioural problem of children with mean age of 6.3 years.

2. Methodology

The statistical population consisted of all adolescents, 13-17 years of age, who were sentenced to stay in the centre by the court. A mixed sampling method includes proportional allocation and paired matched sampling was applied to cover main criminal groups in the centre, physical aggression, thieving and sexual crimes. Initially, the whole sample was selected with regard to the criminal subgroups. Then, subjects were matched to control some effective variables such as socio-economic status and age. Finally, 124 teenagers were chosen, 24, 20, and 18 for subgroups of thieving, physical aggression, and sexual crimes respectively for each of the groups, the experimental and control.

2.1 Research design and procedures

Four different measurements consisting of a pre-test, before treatment, and three post tests in monthly intervals after released from Ahvaz Correction Centre (ACC) were administered. The intervention included seven therapeutic sessions lasting about 90 minutes per session. The average of subjects attendance in the sessions was 9.5 which could cover the intervention and they were trained according to the design.

Intervention: BFT, the applied method was used to show the parents how they can interact in a different manner with respect to consequences of behaviour.

2.2 Subjects' characteristics

The subjects' mean ages were 15.16 and 15.30 for the control and experimental groups, respectively. The educational levels of the subjects were 5.95 and 6.29 like to the above mentioned order. Parents were mainly classified as low socio-economic status with low paying, unskilled jobs and high rate of illiteracy. The mean of the family population of the subjects, for both groups, was 6.4.

The average of the participants' attendance was 6 sessions and attrition rate was .05%, as previously a 6.45% attrition rate was added to the sample it was not effective on the process of data analysis and its validity.

2.3 Instrumentation

Three types of instruments and sources of information were used to gather data. These include: Socio- Economic Status Questionnaire of Monitoring after Release (SES-Q-MAR)-2000, The Questionnaire of Delinquent's Assessment by Parent (Q-DAP-2009), and judiciary recorded data from Information Data Centre of the Judiciary System.

The SES-Q-MAR-2000 was applied to match the subjects, since socio-economic status has been showed a moderating variable in applying the intervention for delinquents. The questionnaire has been used in the prison's system from the year 2000, and indexes of validity and reliability were .78 and .83 respectively (Baratvand & Assadollahi, 2000).

Q-DAP-2009 has 8 subscales; however only three of them were used in this study; siblings, peers and parents relationship with subjects. This questionnaire is self-construct, and each category was covered with six items; validity of the subscales in this study counted as, .80, .82 and .704 for the siblings, peers and parents relationship with subjects respectively. The results were achieved by a panel of professionals including judges, social workers and criminologists who assessed the items. The coefficient indexes with applying Cronbach's alpha for reliability were as .921, .89 and .894 for the variables with the above-mentioned order.

The data was taken from the Information Data Centre of the court system to test hypotheses about the effect of the intervention on the recidivism rate of the subjects.

2.4 Statistical method

The applied statistics method in the study included repeated measures ANOVA, paired matched *t*-test and Pearson's correlation coefficient. At first, a test of homogeneity between the groups, experimental and control was administered. The result for age and SES were: $t(61) = 1.158, p = .251$ and $t(61) = .899, p = .372$ respectively. Thus the groups were homogenous with respect to the variables. In addition to the *t* test, Duncan and Student-Newman-Keuls tests of homogeneity were administered which indicated that the subgroups were also homogenous.

Ethical rules in the study were followed as below; as the main role in the study was upon parents, they were asked to sign an agreement for participating in the program and details were described for them exactly. They

had the right to leave the program whenever they need to do that; however the attrition rate was only .05% which can be compared with 6.45% which have had already predicted based on the previous studies.

3. Findings

Referring to the table 1, all the subjects were affected by the intervention; however the subgroups were not different in this regard. The results showed that subjects' relationship with siblings, peers and parents, could change with the effect of the intervention; and all subjects, regardless of the committed crime, were affected similarly. (Table 1).

The comparison of the imprisonment duration of the subjects showed a different trend with the subscales and overall results of the Q-DAP-2009. Despite the lack of significant difference between the criminal subgroups in other variables, imprisonment duration showed significant differences between the groups. Both subgroups of sexual crimes and thieving were affected by the treatment positively; nevertheless, no significant change was observed between the subgroups of physical aggression in the control and experimental groups. (Table 2).

The result of this study showed that age is an important variable in the process of behavioural family therapy. The results for variables such as the overall score, siblings' relationship, and peers' relationship showed that with an increasing in age of the subjects, the effect of the intervention was decreased. However, the relationship between the subscale of parents' relationship and imprisonment duration with the age of the subjects was not significant. (Table 3).

4. Discussion and recommendations

The findings of this study showed some evidences for both trends in the literature. Some studies (Dishion, Nelson, & Bullock, 2004; Hutchings et al., 2004; Kazdin, 1997; Witt & Witte, 2000) showed that the effectiveness of the treatment reduced as the age of subjects increased. However, some researches (Serketich & Dumas, 1996, Welsh & Farrington, 2006; Woolfenden, Williams, & Peat, 2002) found no significant difference between the subjects with respect to the age.

Relationships between age with siblings, peers and total scales were significant which can be counted as a sign of more stable patterns of behaviour among the adolescents.

It seems that parents' role in family leads to utilization of all subjects regardless of their ages, SES and crime. Lack of relationship between period of imprisonment and age of subjects indicated that age was not a moderating variable in this regard. Probably the same mechanism which affects the parent-child relationship leads to a similar result

Several reasons were cited to explain the ineffectiveness of the approach for adolescents. In some cases of behavioural family therapy, the role of children as the main target is ignored or not insisted. Although the situation for younger children, less than 10 years old, is not effective, the adolescents can take a defensive position (Kazdin, 1997). A situation which is called "premature autonomy" intervenes in the therapeutic process and decreases its effectiveness for adolescents. The situation exaggerates for the group who are high-risk. The concept refers to the parental supervision; however, adolescents withdraw from the monitoring and drive towards peers over time (Dishion et al., 2004).

With respect to the results, probably more than one therapeutic protocol is necessary, since younger children and adolescents are in different levels of cognitive development and psycho-social needs. The protocols should determine necessary sessions and hours for each child with respect to age or more specific psycho-social stage of development.

According to Bank, Marlowe, Reid, Patterson, and Weinrott (1991), and Ledley, Huppert, Foa, Davidson, Keefe, and Potts (2005), using a suitable method of reinforcement which is congruent with age and developmental stage of the target children, ends to better results. Probably "behavioural contract" is the most suitable method of reinforcement for adolescents. It seems that with an increasing in age of the target groups, more complicated methods of reinforcement are needed.

Although there was no systematic research about the effect of family members' legal problems on the prognosis of the treatment in this study, the researchers' observations showed that this should be an impressive variable. Moreover, the result of this study showed that the families needed more help and most of the additional contacts (telephone or live) devoted to them. This service was available for the families and they could talk with the researchers about their problems during the research period, 6 months. Hence, the severity of the children's problems should be included in the therapeutic protocol to get the best result. This situation is called "timing of booster sessions" by Eyberg, Edwards, Boggs and Foote (1998).

Another issue which makes adolescents more vulnerable in comparison to younger children is social demand. Adolescents have to follow some disciplinary and academic rules which impose more stress on them; for the reason they need to be more exposed in the therapeutic process. For the children who have problems in school, whether academic or disciplinary, including teachers and peers (if possible) is a practical solution. Hartman et al. (2003) suggested the concept of "secondary risk factors" to explain less effective of behavioural family therapy for adolescents. The concept includes "school failure, social rejection and deviant peer groups" which intervene in the therapeutic results. In line with the explanations, Bank et al. (1991) suggested a program which is especially designed for adolescents who experienced imprisonment; they should be monitored with respect to their school attendance, association with deviant peers, drug abuse, and involvement in vandalism. Other components of the plan include suitable methods of reinforcement: using behavioural contract, point system and time out as rewarding systems. Researchers of this study suggest using different therapeutic protocols according to criminal subgroups, since the subgroup of physical aggression was not affected by the treatment in the most objective index, imprisonment duration.

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Table 1. Repeated measures ANOVA results

Source		df	<i>F</i> Ratio	<i>P</i>
Total	Groups	1	105.311	.000
	Crime	2	1.568	.213
Siblings	Groups	1	78.356	.000
	Crime	2	1.569	.213
Peers	Groups	1	86.223	.000
	Crime	2	1.126	.328
Parents	Groups	1	94.609	.000
	Crime	2	.928	.398

Table 2. Paired sample *t*-test of imprisonment duration

Source		df	<i>t</i>	<i>P</i> (2-tailed)
Pair1	Groups	1	2.383	.02
Pair2	Physical aggression	20	-.468	.645
Pair3	Sex	17	2.360	.031
Pair 4	Thieving	22	2.590	.017

Table 3. Pearson's coefficient correlations between age and other variables

source	df	<i>t</i>	<i>P</i> (2-tailed)
Overall score	58	-.359	.006
Siblings' relationship	58	-.36	.006
Peers' relationship	58	-.362	.005
Parents' relationship	58	-.241	.069
Imprisonment	61	.209	.105

Analysis of the Real Situation of Teaching Reading Comprehension to First Year Students at the Department of English Language and Literature at Al-Zaytoonah Private University of Jordan

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Abstract

There is a trend in teaching foreign languages that advocates the prime importance of teaching reading as a receptive skill before the other productive skills (listening, speaking, and writing). There is also an increasing feeling among teachers and educators that reading should receive a considerable amount of attention in teaching a foreign language.

Reading is an essential skill for students not only because it is a source of pleasure and getting information but also because it helps them widen and deepen their knowledge of language. Reading in this sense is not the mere mouthing of words and decoding of every word in every sentence. It is rather the activity that enables the students to go deeper and deeper to get the meaning which is intended by the author. It is the activity that depends largely on comprehension. Accordingly, developing reading comprehension is one of the great aims of teaching English. It is reading comprehension that enables students to pursue their studies and to meet their interests in all fields of knowledge. Thus, reading comprehension should receive more emphasis throughout the teaching process.

The importance of this study is to help students realize that they are literary readers and their attempts to go beyond the literal meaning are very limited.

Moreover, this study attempts to make students aware of the fact that reading comprehension is a process of thinking, evaluating, judging, imagining, and problem solving.

The study yields that:

- 1) First year students lack many important reading comprehension skills which they should have in order to understand fully a piece of writing.
- 2) The textbook adopted in teaching reading comprehension is mainly designed to help create readers to whom the absorbing of the literal meaning of a piece of writing is the ultimate aim of reading comprehension courses.
- 3) Little attention is given to teaching other important reading comprehension skills like the inferential and critical ones.

Keywords: Real situation, Teaching reading comprehension, First year students

1. Introduction

To master language is to master its four skills, namely listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Today, especially in designing a foreign language curriculum "... many teachers realize that the skill students need more is reading" (Dublin 1982: 14). According to Rivers (1981: 259) "reading" gives the students "the opportunity to share the thinking of the great minds of another culture and so to widen horizons of their knowledge and understanding". Thiele and Herzic (1983: 277) go beyond this. They consider reading comprehension as a dominant factor in determining whether a learner will be able to master the foreign language or not. They write: "It [reading comprehension] is a pre-requisite for the acquisition of knowledge and may play a dominant role in

determining whether a person will ultimately succeed in mastering a foreign language or not."

2. Significance of the study

The importance of this study stems from its attempt to point out that good readers are engaged in the following activities:

- 1) They actively integrate the text to seek the meaning in the writer's mind.
- 2) They compare what the writer is saying with their own experience both in life and language.
- 3) They adjust their reading approach in accordance with the purpose for which they are reading.
- 4) They delay "the put-down moment" and can tolerate a high degree of incomprehension while they are searching out the meaning.
- 5) They adjust and revise their views in the light of what they read.

3. Purpose of the study

Viewing the real situation of the first year students, it can be maintained that the students lack most of the characteristics listed above. According to Al-Rufai (1977: 49) Arab readers are "Word by word readers. That is to say, they only pay their attention to pronouncing words without taking into consideration the deep meanings which the writer may want the reader to grasp."

This study aims at:

- 1) finding out the sources which cause the problems encountered by first year students attending reading courses.
- 2) suggesting a better situation to teach reading.

4. Review of related literature

4.1 Reading comprehension in definition

Giving a satisfactory definition for reading comprehension is not an easy task and still constitutes a problem. The problem stems from the fact that reading comprehension is an involved area. It involves in many fields of study, such as cognitive psychology, psycholinguistics and linguistics. It also embraces a number of mental processes. Spiro, Bruce, and Brewer (1980: XV) emphasize this fact. They write "one problem faced by anyone seeking to understand current beliefs about comprehension is the interdisciplinary nature of research in this area. There are no readily available syntheses of the relevant work in the diverse discipline of cognitive psychology, artificial intelligence, linguistics, and reading education."

To shed more light on the notion of "reading comprehension" the researcher will tend to define the two words that form the notion.

Viewing reading books and articles written by those who have the interest in reading researches, one finds many definitions for "reading". These definitions can be categorized into two main categories. First, there are definitions that talk about "reading" as if it is only the mere mouthing of words, which is true in the early stages of reading. Second, there are definitions that lay great weight upon the meaning of what is read as the ultimate goal for "reading".

Flesch (1955: 110), for instance, defines "reading" as "getting the meaning of words formed by letters on a printed page and nothing else". This definition can be classified within the first category. Harris (1970: 3), on the other hand, defines "reading" as "the meaningful interpretation of written or printed verbal symbols." Accordingly, the accuracy of "reading" depends upon the reader's perception and apprehension of the words written by the writer, and thus upon understanding of the meaning he intends to convey.

As for the definition of the second word in the term "reading comprehension", specialists also face many problems because "comprehension", as it is seen by Smith (1963: 257), "is a big blanket term that covers a whole area of thought-getting processes in reading".

For Lunzer and Dolan (1980: 257) "comprehension" is conceived of as "a measure of the pupil's ability and willingness to reflect on whatever it is he is reading." This means that the reader does two things in his reading process; one of them is certainly reading, and the other one is not only understanding but in some sense thinking.

In spite of the separate definitions of the two words which form the notion "reading comprehension", they stand in a close relationship to each other. Fairbanks (1937: 81) shows this close relationship between "comprehension" and "reading". He found that poor readers made an average of 5.8 oral errors per 100 words; on

the contrary, good readers made only 2.1 errors per 100 words. More relevant is the fact that in 51 percent of the cases the errors of the poor readers tended to change the meaning, but the errors of the good readers never did. The good readers also corrected their own errors more often than the poor readers did. Fairbanks concludes that the basic problem of the poor readers is the lack of comprehension. Thus, effective reading is not only a process in which the reader reconstructs a message put in graphic symbols by the writer, but also one of seeking the meanings beyond the surface level of the graphic symbols.

In brief, the above opinions and views clearly show that comprehension is the ultimate objective of all reading. To make use of this fact, specialists believe that reading instruction for all levels should be a matter of developing comprehension, as Tinker and McGullough (1975: 197) point out:

"The fundamental goal in seeking to produce nature readers is to have them able to comprehend whatever printed materials will serve their purpose, no matter how difficult these materials may be. The acquisition of a sight vocabulary and of skill in recognizing words, and of verbal facility in general, all are aimed at promoting the understanding and interpretation of the meanings embodied in printed symbols."

How difficult to give a comprehensive and unified definition for the term "reading comprehension" can also be seen from considering its components (skills).

4.2 Reading comprehension skills

To many experts and specialists the "reading comprehension" process can be broken into a number of skills. These skills are interrelated and the acquisition of certain ones will pave the road for acquiring others. Thonis (1970: 67) writes:

"Each skill in every phase of growth in reading becomes an essential building block which adds to the learner's strengths, and make it possible for him to add new, more difficult skills"

He adds that "skills development must proceed along an orderly and sequential path so that success in simple skills at an early level may support the more difficult." (Ibid)

Listing these skills in one unified form, or giving more weight for one skill than another is not possible for reasons mentioned by Lewis and Sisk (1963: 111):

"No matter how one lists the various reading abilities [skills], it is practically impossible to isolate them or to give priority to one skill. All comprehension skills are interrelated, and the sequence of skills is therefore almost impossible to determine accurately"

The interrelated nature of the reading comprehension skills makes it difficult to see them as separate entities. No one can put a firm border between them, because the comprehension of a piece of writing is the immediate outcome of the interrelationship between these different skills. Lewis and Sisk cite an example of the interrelation of comprehension skills:

"if asked to state the first or basic comprehension skills required, many people would name the ability to grasp main ideas. But by what process does one arrive at the main idea except by putting together details? And one must understand the relationship of these details to one another. Therefore, the ability to select details is basic, as the ability to weigh the comparative importance of details." (Ibid)

To explain the difficulty of giving a unified definition for the term "reading comprehension", the researcher introduces below some lists of reading comprehension skills. Each list gives a number of skills which are considered essential to comprehend a piece of writing.

Hildreth (1965:455), for instance, defines "reading comprehension" as comprising the ability to:

- 1) follow the sequence of ideas .
- 2) grasp details .
- 3) catch the general significance and implications of statements made, and
- 4) to evaluate them and make inferences from them .

Carrol (1973:2) finds that only five skills are worth noting.

- 1) Remembering the meanings of words.
- 2) Following the structure of a passage.

- 3) Finding answers to questions answered explicitly or in paraphrase.
- 4) Recognizing the writer's purpose, attitude, tone, and mood.
- 5) Drawing inferences from the context.

Kelly and Greene (1953: 2) consider seven skills to be indispensable to effective reading:

- 1) Skimming to locate passages containing answers to specific questions.
- 2) Careful and critical reading to identify details necessary to answer specific questions.
- 3) Selecting the central idea or theme of a paragraph or a passage.
- 4) Making generalization from a series of related statements.
- 5) Drawing inferences from material read.
- 6) Summarizing in a few words the gist of a paragraph.
- 7) Remembering material read in the light of a specific purpose.

According to Dechant and Smith (1977:239-240), the good comprehender should possess twenty-two skills.

Viewing the above-listed and mentioned skills, one can notice that there is no complete agreement among scholars and specialists of reading as to the exact number of skills. Moreover, the above lists of the skills show that there is no agreement on what skills good comprehenders are expected to develop, nor on the grouping of these skills into distinguished levels (Jenkins and Panny, 1980: 56). It seems that the only principle that necessitates such grouping is of a pedagogical nature (Pumfrey, 1977: 40-42).

There is another view than breaking down the process of "reading comprehension" into skills. It believes that "comprehension is one unified whole called the reading comprehension skill. (Lunzer et al, 1979:37).

Lunzer and Dolan (1980: 77) argue that there is no research evidence which supports the idea of breaking down the comprehension process into discrete skills. They write that:

"It is too easy for the naive or uninformed to assume that comprehension is really divisible into separate skills. Research evidence does not support this notion. Many studies have failed to identify any discrete skills or sub-skills of comprehension. More often than not, they tend to show comprehension as more of unitary and invisible trait.

The researcher of this study favours the view of the multiplicity of "reading comprehension skills", because it gives him the ability to diagnose those skills that are mastered by the first year students and those which are not.

The view of the multiplicity of "reading comprehension skills" seems to gain a great support by the majority of writers on "reading comprehension".

Smith (1978: 190) is one of them. He thinks that "there is a feeling that comprehension itself can be broken down into a series of "comprehension skills".

Moreover, the view of multiplicity of "reading comprehension skills" has its pedagogical advantages, particularly in the organization of reading materials as well as in the construction of exercises written to strengthen specific skill(s). This view seems also to gain "face validity in terms of students' acceptance". (Brown and Hirst, 1983: 139).

4.3 The levels of reading comprehension skills

Many of those who are involved in studying the comprehension process hold the belief that comprehension skills can be classified into different levels. Burns and Roe (1976: 208), for instance, mention three of them, namely literal, interpretive, and creative.

Zintz (1980: 230) holds the same view. He states that "comprehension, or the understanding of what the author has written, takes place at different levels of complexity according to the nature of the materials and the purpose for which the reading is intended". Then he classifies the skills into the following:

- 1) Literal comprehension or the pre-interpretive skills.
- 2) Interpretive skills,
- 3) Evaluative skills. (Ibid :231)

Accordingly, the efficient reader is the one who not only recognizes the meanings he gets from the written materials, but also the one who has the ability to interpret, evaluate, and reflect upon those meanings.

According to Logan et al (1972: 372) and Spache (1961: 52), the "reading comprehension skills" can be classified into the following three levels:

- 1) Literal level.
- 2) Inferential level.
- 3) Critical level.

The literal level of comprehension is the direct level in which one identifies what the words say; it does not involve determining what the words beyond their literal meaning mean. It deals with facts, such as dates, names, places, and with all that can easily state and comprehend, once the meaning of unknown words is known. Sometimes, the literal level is called "receptive level, since this type of comprehension involves merely the intake of information" (Herber, 1967: 139). Nevertheless, it is an essential one because it constitutes the first step towards a complete understanding of a written message.

For Thomas and Robinson (1977: 133) four skills are essential to gain the literal meaning. These are:

- 1) Grasping directly stated details or facts.
- 2) Understanding main ideas.
- 3) Grasping the sequence of time, place, ideas, events ...etc.
- 4) Understanding and following directions.

A number of studies have shown that most of the directed questions to students inside the classroom tend to test mainly literal comprehension, yet fail to motivate them to cope with problems concerning the inferential and critical levels.

The inferential level of comprehension is commonly defined as:

"... arriving at something that was not directly communicated. What the something is depends on the explicit context. It may be a conclusion, an inference, a predication, identification of a cause." (Durkin, 1978:441)

The inferential level is the reaction of the reader to what is read; so it is, as Gans (1963: 198) says, "a highly personal process".

Tinker and McGullough (1975: 23) emphasize Gans's view by stating that the "interpretation of word meanings is often in terms of the reader's related experience". They add that "a reader will react in his own individual ways to the textual material and its wider references and implications in proportion as his background of experience is uniquely his own" (Ibid)

When the student reaches the second level in his reading process, this means that he goes deeper and deeper toward the third one, which is to the Critical, or Evaluative level of "reading comprehension". This level is identified by a variety of names, such as applied, creative, associational, and expressive. When dealing with the critical level of comprehension, the reader makes use of the skills which belong to the literal and interpretive levels. He gets the facts and information from the first level and the interpretation of these facts from the second. This view is emphasized by Herber (1970: 63) who believes that the reader "takes the product of literal, what the author has said, and the interpretive, what the author meant by what is said, and applies it in some pragmatic exercises."

Durrell (1949: 203) explains that the critical level includes such skills as:

- 1) judging suitability of material for particular purposes,
- 2) distinguishing between facts and opinions,
- 3) discovering evidence of bias of prejudice and other evaluation skills.

He adds that "critical reading may be concerned with the form of presentation of the ideas, the choice of vocabulary, sentence organization, paragraph structure, illustrations, or general quality of the writer." (Ibid)

Teachers and experts of "reading comprehension" believe that the critical level is essential for students, especially for those who are enrolled in reading comprehension courses, because understanding sentences and paragraphs does not necessarily mean that the students completely comprehend the reading materials.

Teaching students to be critical is not an easy job, "because of lack of classroom time or adequate regard of its importance or because the teacher is unsure of his ability to pursue it". (Gans, 1963: 198)

In spite of being difficult to be taught, the critical level should be emphasized by teachers in the classroom

through all the academic stages.

Wiriyachitra also believes that the critical level "should be taught in the developmental reading program, from the beginning... through the upper levels...." (1982: 23)

5. Data collection Procedure

To achieve the purpose of the study, a questionnaire was used. The questionnaire contains twelve questions which are expected to cover most of the areas related to the present study. The questionnaire is so constructed to suit the first year students' linguistic level. (see appendix no. 1)

Since the questionnaire is constructed to investigate the real situation of teaching "reading comprehension", it tries to elicit the students' opinions about the value of the reading comprehension classes. In other words, the questionnaire consists of questions which aim at investigating the actual difficulties the students face in "reading comprehension courses". In addition, the questionnaire attempts to elicit the students' views on the activities followed by the teacher inside the classroom. There are also questions aiming at getting the students' opinions about some points related to the textbook used in teaching "reading comprehension". Finally, there is a question which aims at encouraging the students to give their suggestions for better teaching of "reading comprehension" and to mention problems they may face throughout their studying this course.

Each question has its alternatives, some questions have three alternatives, others have four or six. The number of the alternatives depends on the nature of the question itself.

5.1 Subjects

The total number of the students who respond to the questionnaire is 92. But, it is worth mentioning that the total number of the students is not equal to all questions, because answers to certain questions are mainly determined by the answers awarded to the various items of the preceding questions.

5.2 Administration

Before handing over the questionnaire to the students, a few copies were shown to some teachers, in order to check its clarity and to include more relevant points or to exclude irrelevant ones.

However, prior to the distribution of the questionnaire the first year students were made familiar with the purpose behind it. Moreover, the researcher of this study read and discussed each question and its alternatives individually, using their mother tongue to avoid misunderstanding and to get reliable results. To get more confident answers, the students were asked not to write their names on their questionnaire copies.

6. Interpretation of the results

To achieve a satisfactory analysis of the questionnaire results, the researcher discusses each question separately. Question no. 1 is generated to investigate whether the students are aware of the importance of reading comprehension classes or not.

<Insert Table 1 Here>

Table no. (1) clearly shows that the students are aware of the significance of "reading comprehension courses". Most of the respondents (93%) agree that reading comprehension classes are most important or as important as any other classes. Only a very small number of the students (7%) thinks that reading comprehension classes are less important than any other ones. Accordingly, it can be inferred that the students' motivation is high when they attend reading comprehension classes.

Question no. 2 investigates the reasons behind the students' awareness of the significance of reading comprehension lessons.

<Insert Table 2 Here>

As it can be clearly seen from table no. (2), the majority of the students think that reading comprehension classes are important because they give them the opportunity to know the meaning of words and because they familiarize them with the grammatical structures of English.

Accordingly, it seems that they think that the reading comprehension task is no more than knowing the meaning of words and the grammatical structures.

However, as it is clear from their responses, the students fail to identify the main aim of reading comprehension classes, namely to think creatively. Another group of students, more than 21% believes that reading comprehension lessons not only give them the chance to know the meaning of words and grammatical structures, but also they motivate them to think deeply about what they read. This group of students thinks that their

acquaintance with the meaning of words and grammatical structures must be used as a means to an end (thinking deeply) and not as an end by itself.

Question no. 3 attempts to find out the elements to which the students give more attention when they read. It also attempts to see to what extent the students are concerned with the meaning beyond that of the literal one.

<Insert Table 3 Here>

Table no. 3 indicates that the majority of the students (83.6%) pay more attention to vocabulary, grammatical structures, and to getting the general meaning (to a, b, or c respectively). This means that they concentrate their attention only on the skills which belong to the literal level, and not on those of the inferential and critical one. Only 11% from the students' answers indicates that the students pay their attention to getting the deep meaning of the written passage, an activity which belongs to the inferential and critical levels.

Questions no. 4 and 5 attempt to know about the kind of questions and activities which are more emphasized inside the classroom.

<Insert Table 4 Here>

Table no. (4) shows that the questions which aim at developing the literal comprehension skills are overemphasized. This is clearly seen by the answers a, b, and c. Only (16%) of the responses claims that the questions which demand deep thinking are practiced in the classroom.

As for question no. 5 of the questionnaire, the table below clarifies the activities on which the teacher concentrates throughout his teaching process.

<Insert Table 5 Here>

According to table no. 5, there are some activities practiced which have little to do with the developing of the comprehension skills. These are the activity of pronunciation and of writing. These two skills can be developed in courses mainly devoted to them, such courses are " phonetics " and " writing ".

Question no. 6 is about knowing whether the students face any problems with reading comprehension lessons or not.

<Insert Table 6 Here>

Table no. (6) shows that the majority of the students answer a and b which testify that this group of students faces difficulties in their reading comprehension courses; whereas only a minority of the students ,c, claim that they do not face any problems.

Question no. 7 is designed to identify the areas that cause the difficulties for the students who answered a and b of question no. 6.

<Insert Table 7 Here>

(70%) of the respondents faces problems in "reading comprehension" because of their insufficient previous knowledge of English. Only (12.6 %) of the students' problems goes back to the textbook. This indicates that the textbook suits the students' linguistic background. Yet (9.8%) of the respondents attributes their difficulties to the methods followed by the teacher inside the classroom ; whereas only (8 %) claims that their problems are caused by a, b, and c.

Question no. 8 is constructed to those who answered alternative a of question no. 7. It aims at identifying those aspects of the textbook which cause their problems.

<Insert Table 8 Here>

Table no. (8) submits that (67 %) of the respondents' attributes their problems to the difficulty of vocabularies; whereas (22 %) attributes the problems to the topics of the textbook. Only (11 %) faces difficulties caused by the grammatical structures of the passages used in the textbook.

Question no. 9 aims at knowing whether or not the textbook reflects cultural aspects of the English society or nearly similar ones to those of the Jordanians' or none of them.

Understanding the culture of a foreign nation is a fundamental element in the teaching process of its language.

In a foreign language text, we extract three levels of meanings; lexical, grammatical, and cultural meanings (cf. Fries, 1963: 104- 12). The cultural meaning is the most difficult one, since it involves the values, the beliefs, and the attitudes of a speech community (Williamson, 1988: 8).

Reading is an interaction between writer and reader. Such an interaction can by no means be achieved without

understanding the culture of the target language.

<Insert Table 9 Here>

Table no (9) makes it clear that the majority of the students (57 %) do not believe that the textbook familiarizes them with the English culture. Other students answer alternative b. This group claims that the textbook reflects nearly similar cultural aspects to theirs. Only (16 %) of the students' responses testifies that the textbook provides them with the English cultural background.

Language and culture can not be separated. Neglecting cultural aspects "destroys the unity of language, severing it from its social context ... the one can not be learned without the other" (Abdur Rauf, 1988: 44).

Question no. 10 aims at finding out whether the students prefer topics of their own or those set by the teacher or by both of them.

<Insert Table 10 Here>

Table no (10) clearly reveals that the majority of the students, c, believe that it is much better in a class of "reading comprehension" to read topics chosen by both, by the teacher and the students. This means that the cooperation between the teacher and the students is a very important aspect in reading comprehension lessons.

Question no. 11 is constructed to know whether the textbook reflects the students' interests or not.

<Insert Table 11 Here>

According to table no. (11) the majority of the students' answers (a and b) reveal that the textbook reflects their interests in reading. Ones' interest in reading material is an integral feature of the learning process, since it motivates the students to overcome their difficulties. According to Tinker and Mc Gullough (1975: 310) "interest breeds motivation ... The absence of the students' interests in certain subjects will complicate the reading task". Brown and Hirst emphasize this idea. They confirm that "a frequently crippling source of difficulty is the student's lack of interest in the subject" (1983: 141).

Question no. 12 intends to give the students the chance to comment on the problems they face in reading comprehension classes. The students are given the right to write their answers in Arabic, since their ability to express themselves in English is not well established. Their comments are summarized as follows:

- 1) The students are not well equipped with the techniques that enable them to overcome the difficult vocabularies they encounter in their reading. They need practice in word-attack skills to help them read.
- 2) The topics they read are not beneficial. There is no value in them, since the topics are not written to widen their knowledge and experience of life.

As for the suggestions, the students mean that:

- 1) the topics should be more vivid, chosen according to their past experience, interest, and according to their linguistic background knowledge.
- 2) it is better to use a textbook that consists of short stories, short dramas, essays, etc., to motivate the students to read deeply and give them pleasure in reading.

7. Conclusion and suggestions

7.1 Conclusion

The main aim of this study was (a) to point out the certain problems encountered by the first year students at the English department of Al-Zaytoonah Private University of Jordan, and (b) to find out what causes them, and to suggest a better situation to teach "reading comprehension".

As a result, the study yields the following points:

- 1) First year students lack many important "reading comprehension skills" which they should have in order to understand fully a piece of writing. Students, for instance, lack the ability to answer questions that demand the possession of skills involving deep thinking.
- 2) Little attention is given to teaching skills which belong to the inferential and critical levels. The questions and the activities carried out inside the classroom are almost geared towards teaching the skills of the literal level (see questions 4 and 5 of the questionnaire pp. 18 - 19).
- 3) The textbook does not provide the students with the necessary cultural background which can help them in the teaching process (see question no. 9, pp. 23 - 24).

- 4) First year students are not aware of the nature of "reading comprehension" (see question no. 2, pp. 16 -17). They think that the reading comprehension process is a decoding one. So, their attempts to go beyond knowing the literal meaning are limited.
- 5) As noted above, the first year students have not developed well controlled reading comprehension skills. This may confirm that previous stages (secondary schools) of teaching reading comprehension had not offered students the chance actually needed for enhancing their reading comprehension skills.

7.2 Suggestions

In the light of the above findings, the following suggestions can be given:

- 1) It is important to identify those reading comprehension skills which first year students can work with. To identify these skills, it is advised to form a committee from those who have a long experience in teaching reading comprehension.
- 2) On the basis of the identified skills, a reliable and valid test for the new comers should be constructed. The aim of such a test is to diagnose the skills to which more time and efforts should be administered in the early week of the first semester.
- 3) It is more practical to use a textbook which is designed to teach the reading comprehension skills individually. Such a textbook will provide both the teacher and the students with paragraphs and short passages with their necessary exercises. These passages and exercises are designed to teach and to give practice only in the skill which is intended to be taught. Such a textbook can be used in the first semester. It will also help the teacher to concentrate in his teaching on those skills which the students lack. For the second semester the students should learn to use the learned skills in longer articles, in short stories, in short dramas, and in essays. Moreover, the textbook should familiarize the students with the culture of the nation of the language in question.
- 4) It is also advisable to construct and administer a simple questionnaire to new comers. This questionnaire should concentrate on knowing the students' interests in reading. The teacher can make use of the information he gets from such a questionnaire. He, accordingly, can provide his students with authentic materials.
- 5) The questions which are directed to the students in the classroom should concentrate not only on practising those skills which belong to the literal level, but also on the skills that belong to the inferential and critical levels.
- 6) Activities in reading comprehension courses should concentrate more on those skills that contribute to the developing of critical readers.
- 7) Because of the importance of the reading comprehension skills, it is to be recommended that the number of hours devoted to teach them should be increased. It is highly recommended that the study of reading comprehension should be included within the curriculum for other stages than the first one, if any good results are to be obtained.
- 8) It is to be advised to give the teacher who teaches reading comprehension the freedom to choose among the different textbooks.

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Appendix no. 1

Questionnaire For The First Year Students At The Department Of English Language And Literature At Al-Zaytoonah Private University Of Jordan

This questionnaire is for my private research only, the information given will not be used for other purposes. Please put a tick (√) inside the brackets next to the answer acceptable to you.

By "other lessons" is meant the lessons you take in your study of English, e.g. Poetry, Grammar, Prose, etc. You can write your answer to question no. 12 in your native language.

1- The lesson of reading comprehension is:

- a- most important ()
- b- as important as any other lessons ()
- c- the less important ()

2- If your answer to item no. 1 is (a) or (b), is this because:

- a- reading comprehension lessons help you to understand the meanings of vocabulary ()
- b- reading comprehension lessons help you to understand the grammatical structures. ()
- c- reading comprehension lessons help you to understand the foreign culture ()
- d- reading comprehension lessons motivate you to think critically about what you have read ()
- e- all of the above ()

3- When you read a topic in class, you usually pay more attention to:

- a- vocabulary ()
- b- grammatical sentences ()
- c- understanding the foreign culture ()
- d- getting the general meaning ()
- e- getting the deep meaning ()

4- The questions used by the teacher in the classroom deal mainly with:

- a- the meaning of words ()
- b- the grammatical structures ()
- c- the general meaning of the passage ()
- d- the deep meaning of the passage ()

5- The activities which are done inside the classroom concentrate on:

- a- pronunciation ()
- b- writing ()
- c- knowing the meaning of words ()
- d- knowing the grammatical structures ()
- e- knowing the general meaning ()
- f- knowing the deep meaning ()

6- Do you face any problems with reading comprehension lessons

- a- yes ()
- b- to some extent ()
- c- no ()

7- If your answer to question no. 6 is either (a) or (b) is this because of

- a- the textbook ()
- b- methods of teaching ()
- c- your previous knowledge of English in the secondary school ()
- d- all of the above ()

8- If your answer to question no. 7 is (a) is this because of

- a- vocabulary ()
- b- grammar ()
- c- the foreign culture ()
- d- the topics ()

9- Do you think that the textbook you are studying reflects

- a- English cultural backgrounds that can not be found in Jordanian everyday life ()
- b- nearly similar cultural backgrounds that can be found in both the Jordanian and English everyday lives ()
- c- none of them ()

10- Do you prefer to read in the reading comprehension lessons topics of

- a- students' choice ()
- b- the teacher's choice ()
- c- both students' and the teacher's choice ()

11- Do you think that the textbook in your hand reflects your interest in reading

- a- yes ()
- b- to some extent ()
- c- no ()

12- Do you have any comments or suggestions to put forward about the problems you face in reading comprehension lessons.

Table 1. students' opinions about whether or not they are aware of the importance of reading comprehension lessons (R.C.Ls)

The lesson of reading comprehension is:					
	a	b	c		
	Most important	As important as other lessons	The less important	Total of answers	Total of students
No. of respondents	36	50	6	92	92
%	39	54	7		

Table 2. students' views concerning the actual benefit they get from reading comprehension lessons

If your answer to question no. 1 is a or b , is this because:							
	a	b	c	d	e		
	R.C.Ls help you to understand the meaning of vocabulary	R.C.Ls Help to understand the grammatical structures	R.C.Ls help you to understand theforeign culture	R.C.Ls help you to think critically about what you have read	All of the above	Total of answers	Total of students
No. of respondents	30	25	—	18	13	86	86
%	35	29	—	21	15		

Table 3. Students' views of the elements of reading comprehension they give more attention to

When you read a topic in the classroom, do you usually pay more attention to:							
	a	b	c	d	e		
	vocabulary	grammatical structures	understanding the foreign culture	getting the general meaning	getting the deep meaning	total of answers	total of students
No. of respondents	27	16	5	34	10	92	92
%	29.3	17.3	5.4	37	11		

Table 4. Students' views of the questions asked by the teacher in the classroom

The questions used by the teacher in the classroom deal mainly with:						
	a	b	c	d		
	the meaning of words	grammatical structures	the general meaning	the deep meaning	total of answers	total of students
No. of respondents	25	10	42	15	92	92
%	27	11	46	16		

Table 5. Students' views of the activities used inside the classroom

When you read a topic in the classroom, do you usually pay more attention to:							
	a	b	c	d	e	f	
	pronunciation	writing	knowing the meaning of words	knowing the grammatical structures	knowing the general meaning	knowing the deep meaning	total of answers
No. of respondents	21	5	21	4	30	11	92
%	23	5	23	4	33	12	

Table 6. Students' opinions about whether they face problems in reading comprehension lessons or not

Do you face any problems with reading comprehension lessons:					
	a	b	c		
	yes	to some extent	no	total of answers	total of students
No. of respondents	19	52	21	92	92
%	20.6	56.5	22.8		

Table 7. Students' opinions about the source of the problems they face in reading comprehension lessons

If your answer to question no. 6 is either a or b is this because of						
	a	b	c	d		
	the textbook	the methods of teaching	your previous knowledge of the English language in the secondary school	all of the above	total of answers	total of students
No. of respondents	9	7	50	6	71	71
%	12.6	9.8	70	8		

Table 8. Students' opinions about the aspects of the textbook that cause problems to them

If your answer to question no. 7 is either a or b is this because						
	a	b	c	d		
	vocabulary	grammar	the foreign culture	the topics	total of answers	total of students
No. of respondents	6	1	—	2	9	9
%	67	11	—	22		

Table 9. Students' views of the culture the textbook reflects

Do you think that the textbook you are reading, reflects:					
	a	b	c		
	English cultural backgrounds	nearly similar cultural backgrounds that can be found in Jordanian life	none of them	total of answers	total of students
No. of respondents	15	25	52	92	92
%	16	27	57		

Table 10. Students' views of the choice of topics in the textbook

Do you prefer to read in the reading comprehension lessons topics of:					
	a	b	c		
	students' choice	teachers' choice	both of them	total of answers	total of students
No. of respondents	7	22	63	92	92
%	8	24	68		

Table 11. Students' opinions about whether the textbook reflects their interests or not

Do you think that the textbook in your hand reflects your interests:					
	a	b	c		
	yes	to some extent	no	total of answers	total of students
No. of respondents	25	32	53	92	92
%	27	35	38		

To Learn Democracy in Competitive Democratic Election and Learn to Safeguard Democratic Rights of the Party Members --- Review and Reflection on the First County-level Competitive Direct Election Experiment among Party Representatives of the Communist Party of China (CPC)

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Abstract

How a ruling party in a developing country learns democracy in practice and learns to safeguard the democratic rights of the Party members and constructs a corresponding democratic safeguard mechanism in modern democratic social construction is an important subject that is faced up by the ruling party of each developing country. Located in the western part of China, Yucheng District Ya'an City in Sichuan Province, for the first time, conducted a competitive direct election experiment among Party representatives of the CPC in 2002, and pioneered competitive democratic election, which offered new thought and experiences for the CPC to learn democracy in competitive democratic election and construct democratic rights safeguard mechanism of the Party members.

Keywords: Learn democracy, Competitive direct election, Mechanism of democratic rights safeguarding of Party members

1. Study of classical Marxism writers on the inner-Party democratic election thought

The original meaning of "democracy" means that a decision is made according to the will of a majority of people. Just as Lenin said, the Communist Party was constituted by a large number of party members who volunteered to take part and was "organized in a democratic way". Thus, party members are the subject in the Party. The core to develop inner-Party democracy is to respect and safeguard the democratic rights of party members and institutionalize their rights. In the process of establishing the political party of the working class, Marx and Engels applied the democratic social management pattern into inner-Party activities and deeply expounded the importance of inner-Party democratic construction.

According to Marx and Engels, inner-Party democracy was based on inner-Party election system. For instance, "Communist League statute" abandoned the features of schools, classes and conspiracy, etc., of its predecessor "Germany League of the Just" and stipulated that, all party members were all equal and were obliged to help each other at all occasions; the leading organs of the party at all levels, from the grass-root to the central organs, had to elect from bottom to top and could be removed at any time; the congress was the supreme organ of power of the whole party and determined all significant issues of the party; the central committee was the executive organ of the supreme power of the party and was obliged to report its work to the congress etc.

In his book "On the History of the Communist League" that was written in 1885, Engels pointed out that inner-party election was an important reflection of inner-party democracy and that the organization of the party "was totally democratic and all of its committees were constituted by election which could be removed at any time. It was just this point that had jammed the path of any conspiracy maniac who requested for dictatorship."

Lenin thought that “the party was organized in a democratic way”, since all the principals, all the leading personnel and all the organs of the party were constituted by election who had to report their work to the party members and might be replaced at any time”.

Thus, it can be seen that, the above statements by the classical Marxism writers clearly indicate that, “the authority of the Party comes from the vast majority of the party members and the leading organs at all levels of the party have to be absolutely elected in a democratic way from bottom to top. It is also indicated that, the functions of these leading organs are generated by the entrusting mode of election by the vast majority of party members. Without democratic election, there is no so-called leading functions, let alone the Community Party in its real sense.” Statement of these Marxism leaders about inner-Party democracy and inner-Party election thought lays an ideological foundation for the CPC to learn democracy in a democratic election in a new period and construct a democratic safeguard mechanism.

2. Inner-Party democratic election of CPC since 1978 and discussion on the democratic rights safeguard mechanism thought of party members

Although the inner-Party democratic election thought and principles of CPC have been reflected in the Party Constitution and the conference documents of the 8th National People’s Congress, etc., for a long time, the CPC only had the name of inner-Party democratic election principles, and actually had the leading system and organizational system of top-to-bottom cadre and Party representative appointment system as a result of the traditional political and cultural influences for thousands of years and the inertia effect of the class struggle thinking of the revolutionary party.

Ever since the reform and opening up in China, the CPC has emancipated the thoughts of its people and has conducted orderly theoretical and practical innovation in inner-Party democratic election and democratic rights of party members, especially the safeguard mechanism. Then, the ideological understanding has had a new breakthrough. “Multiple Norms about Inner-Party Political Life” was passed in the Fifth Plenary Session of the Eleventh Central Committee of the Party and on the basis summarizing experiences in dealing with inner-Party relations since the Central Committee of the CPC was established, and especially for more than 30 years of its being in power, made several regulations about how to realize democracy of inner-Party political life and, for the first time, clearly proposed the method of multi-candidate election in inner-Party election. That is, “the multi-candidate election method should be used in an election that the number of candidates is larger than the number of those to be elected, or firstly candidates are elected for preliminary election by the means of multi-candidate method and then a formal election is made.”

The Central Committee of the CPC stipulated in “Provisional Regulations for Election of Grassroots Organizations of CPC” in 1990, “Election ought to respect and guarantee the democratic rights of the Party members, fully carry forward democracy and embody will of electors.”

In 2002 when China entered a new century, Chinese President Jiang Zemin proposed out, “Inner-Party democracy is the life of the Party and has important demonstrative and driving effect on people’s democracy. We should establish and perfect inner-Party democratic system that fully reflects the will of Party members and the Party organizations on the basis of safeguarding democratic rights of Party members, with the emphasis of improving the Party Representative Congress System and the Party Committee System, starting out from reform system and mechanism”. He also put forward the task of “reforming and perfecting inner-Party election system” from the perspective of developing inner-Party democracy, strengthening the Party’s vigor and unifying the Party.

Then, the Central Committee of the CPC promulgated in 2004 the important inner-Party regulation “The Rights-safeguarding Regulation for CPC Members” that was tried for implementation in the 1990s. The superior leaders of CPC came to a common sense that, “Election is one of the major means to realize inner-Party democracy and only if democratic election is implemented within the Party, is it likely to construct a prestigious and potent leading group among the Party members and the public.”

In 2005, the present Chinese President Hu Jintao further pointed out that “Party members are the cells of the body of the Party and the behavioral agent of the Party”. The 17th CPC National Congress developed this “basic” and “subject” thought and for the first time, the political report in the congress of Party representatives clearly proposed, “respecting the subject status of Party members, safeguarding the democratic rights of Party members, propelling publicity of Party’s affairs and building inner-Party democratic discussion environment”, in which the fundamental requirement of developing inner-Party democracy was made clear.

At the time of propelling economic system reform, the Central Committee of CPC also propels inner-Party

democratic construction and proposes the orderly Chinese political and democratic path that pushes forward people's democracy by means of inner-democracy. On one hand, policies made by the leading personnel of the Central Committee of CPC are promulgated from top to bottom. And on the other hand, the grass-root organizations of local Party conduct democratic practice from bottom to top.

Inner-democratic election is the foundation to realize inner-Party democracy. However, how to elect satisfying candidates of the Party members by means of election, and especially competitive election, regularize, institutionalize and normalize the measures of election has become a central aspect in inner-Party democratic construction ever since the reform and opening up in China.

In 2002, the Party organization of Yucheng District Sichuan Province which is located in the western part of China, for the first time, carried out the county-level direct election experiment among the Party representatives, which offered new thought and knowledge for competitive and democratic election and safeguarding of democratic rights of Party members in a new situation.

3. To learn democracy in competitive direct election of Party representatives and learn to establish democratic rights safeguarding mechanism of Party members

“Openness”, “justice” and “standardization” are the three principles for construction of the competitive direct election and removal system among the grass-root Party organizations in Ya'an City.

With the above as the point of strength, the grass-root Party organizations in Ya'an City took the lead in trying the competitive democratic election, pursued unification of form and content, actively carried out the Party representatives' democratic election project of “letting the Party members be the masters”, aroused the consciousness of Party members in the rights, mobilized the Party members to actively take part in supervision and management, etc., and initially pioneered Chinese Party representatives' direct election mechanism and corresponding three principles, which offered new thought and experiences for inner-Party democratic construction of the Central Committee of CPC.

3.1 The “six procedures” mechanism of openness, equality and transparency in the procedure of getting registered

Firstly, the eight procedures and specific operational flow for direct election among Party representatives should be publicized in face of all the Party members. The vast majority of Party members are entitled to know the inside story and their enthusiasm and initiative in participation of the election should be stimulated.

Secondly, the mechanism of “no threshold” should be initiated. The unique mode in the past in which the organizations recommended was broken through and at present each party member is entitled to take part in direct election of party representatives. Whether the candidates are officials or common people that have the will to participate in the direct election of party representatives have to be active to go to the branch to which they are attached to sign up for participation and break through constraint of identity. All candidates have to face up with the same democratic electoral procedure, namely, “sign up --- recommending the initial person elected for the representative candidates --- initial approval --- recommending preparatory person elected for representative candidate --- qualification approval --- public notice --- electing formal representative --- public notice”. This zero starting point mechanism without setting of threshold has effectively stimulated party members' enthusiasm in democratic participation in politics and management and has broken through the out-dated thought of “electing officials from officials and official ontology”, etc.

Thirdly, design of equal ballot ticket. The former old framework has been changed that ranked according to the positions of cadres. At present, names of all candidates (volunteering to sign up or organize, recommended by the public, cadres or the common public) are printed on the same ballot according to the strokes of their family names to ensure openness and justice of the election procedure.

Fourthly, establishment of regional ballot mechanism. It is necessary to break through former rigid quota restriction and the quota of representatives is confirmed according to the classification of election district and the quantity of party members.

Fifthly, establishment of limited ballot mechanism. In order to reflect diversification of candidates for party representatives, expand their representativeness, put an end to “election of officials from officials” and protect the democratic rights of the vast majority of party members in election, election of party representatives in Yingjing County in 2006 stipulated that, candidates above the section-level cadres should not be higher than 58% of the total candidates, candidates in the first line of production should not be lower than 42% and women also had a certain proportion of election.

Sixthly, establishment of examination and approval mechanism. In the new mechanism confirmed by direct election of party representatives, according to the election procedure, election committee only examines and approves the preparatory candidates by considering the representativeness of the candidates and no longer examines and approves the candidates to be elected.

According to statistics of relevant data about Yucheng District and Yingjing County, the quota of party representatives for one district and one county in 2002 were 325, and there were actually as many as 2000 people who applied to sign up. In 2006, there were more than 3000 party members among 4095 in Yingjing County who took an initiative in applying to sign up for the direct election and the number accounted for approximately 70% of the total party members.

3.2 Survival of the fittest competitive mechanism in the procedure of competitive election

The scholar Yu Keping thought that, democracy is just like a peg-top and only if it revolves, it has its significance. However, the breakthrough to “let the democratic peg-top really revolve is to execute competitive election”. The “survival of the fittest” in election of grassroots party representatives in Ya’an City is mainly reflected in the following two aspects.

Firstly, competitive election speech mechanism. A candidate has to have his own competitive election project by means of on-the-spot investigation and survey. In the day of election, he is supposed to face directly with all party members, go to the stage to give a speech for competitive election, explain his competitive election outline, accept questioning of other party members and makes commitment to solution of a problem, etc. The vast majority of party members should independently decide to elect whom as the party representatives through the competitive election mechanism, but should not be subordinate to the organizations or others, which reflects the subjectivity of their rights.

Secondly, secret ballot mechanism. A secret ballot place should be set up. On one hand, the multi-candidate direct election and secret ballot mode can ensure “whether one will be elected is directly decided by the party members themselves”, which fully reflects sufficient safeguarding of democratic rights of party members and the practical implementation and strengthens the political responsibility sense of those to be elected and their sense of being the “master”. On the other hand, the candidate can be faced up with great competitive pressure and strengthen their political mission sense of performing the obligations of party representatives.

According to relevant data statistics, in the first county level direct election among party representatives in Ya’an City, five section level cadres failed to be elected, one district committee member failed to be elected and one township committee secretary failed to be elected.

3.3 Report evaluation and on-field removal mechanism in the annual report procedure

Party representatives are automatically elected by the vast majority of Party members, while whether the Party representatives are qualified during their resumption and whether they should be removed depends on the vast majority of Party members who have the final say. Ya’an City initiatives an open annual reporting on-spot removal mechanism at a regular interval for party representatives. The essence of this mechanism is to abolish the lifelong tenure of party representatives so as to safeguard the supervision rights, management rights and decision making rights of the vast majority of Party members.

In the first place, the party representatives ought to report their work which should be assessed. In the annual reporting assessment mechanism, all party representatives who have been elected have to make a public report about their performance situation, implementation and effects of the significant events they have promised in their day of election and receive questioning and assessment on their performance by all the party members in face of all in the election district.

In the second place, on-spot assessment and secret ballot writing mechanism. The secret ballot writing mechanism should be established. The vast majority of party members in the election district are required to give a score and write their ballots independently in a secret ballot writing room so as to practically ensure that the democratic rights of party members are effectively and independently executed.

In the third place, on-spot immediate removal conversation principle. After the party representatives report their work on the spot and are assessed, the assessment scores are publicized immediately which include three levels, namely, excellent, qualified and unqualified. With the critical point of 30% as the unqualified annual assessment, if the party representatives attain more than 30% in being unqualified, the procedure of removing party representatives will be automatically started. For those party representatives who are close to the 30% of critical point, the organizations will start the special conversation within the Party organizations to supervise their performance of obligations and to see how they behave in the future.

The party members said, we had no idea whether we were qualified for party representatives. However, at present, everything is different. The party representatives report their work before us and of course we have a clear idea about what they have done and whether they have done it well or not.

4. To learn democracy in competitive democratic election and several thoughts in learning to construct democratic rights safeguarding mechanism of Party members

The grassroots Party organizations of Ya'an City, for the first time, conducted county level direct election among Party representatives, broke through the old thought from the thinking concept to operational procedure, returned the rights to the whole Party members and the flower of democracy were in full bloom. The principle of openness, justice and competition and relevant mechanism stimulate the Party members to take an initiative in executing self-consciousness and enthusiasm of democratic rights and the strong sense of responsibility among democratic representatives. Representatives elected by people represent the will of the vast majority of people and possess sufficient representativeness and authority, which, without doubt, unprecedentedly strengthens the centripetal force of the Party members in the career of the Central Committee of CPC and the innovative vigor of the Party organizations of CPC. Initial establishment of direct election and mechanism principles of Party members in Yucheng District in Ya'an City, without doubt, has brought new thought and new knowledge to democratic construction with Chinese characteristics and post-developing countries and their democratic construction of the ruling parties.

4.1 Competitive election and relevant mechanism can, likewise, grow on the trunk of inner-Party democratic construction of CPC with Chinese characteristics, but it needs emancipation of thought and the open mind to be good at learning human civilization achievements

Gradual construction of competitive and direct election and relevant mechanism of local grassroots organizations of CPC in 2002 indicates that democratic politics is the common value of human beings, but has clear-cut regional and epochal characteristics when democratic system is at different areas and at different time.

How to deal with multi-candidate election, how to have knowledge in competitive election and how to construct democratic rights safeguarding mechanism by means of election needs to break through the thinking cage of the surname of socialism and the surname of capitalism in election. We need to have the scientific idea of Deng Xiaoping that "socialism may exist in the market economy and capitalism may exist in the planned economy" and the clear judgment on the current situation, let alone the large emancipation of thought and the open mind to learn human civilization achievements.

The essence of a lot of problems in a new situation is how to practically guarantee people's democratic rights and ensure the democratic rights of Party members. In order to realize that, it is necessary to continuously emancipate the thought and have the courage to break through the set thought and experimental thought that do not fit in with the development of the times. According to the democratic principle of Marxism, competitive election and relevant mechanism are the means. It is the necessity of social development for Marxism ruling party to propel realization of the political system in which people are the real master in the human history by democratic means and reality that fits with the times.

Only the ruling party that takes responsibility for its people can have the courage of and be good at referring to other countries in terms of both knowledge and action and the historical and realistic experiences of other ruling parties in competitive election, so as to accumulate new experiences in safeguarding the democratic rights of the Party members, create an inner-party democratic path that fits in with the national situation of China and the actual situation of the Party, push forward democratic construction and development with Chinese characteristics with a cohesive force of the Party.

4.2 Confirmation of the subjective position of Party members is the core to innovate democratic rights safeguarding mechanism of Party members and to strengthen the cohesive strength of the ruling party

The essence of securing innovation of the effective mechanism of democratic rights of Party members is to base on Party members, practically guarantee the subject position of the vast majority of Party members, construct a long-term effective democratic rights safeguarding mechanism, let the vast majority of Party members make suggestions with the identity of being a master and manage the decision making. Only in this way, can the ruling party be always filled with vitality, vigor and cohesive strength.

The development process of gradually constructing democratic safeguarding mechanism of Party members by means of competitive democratic election is to let the party members reflect freely and independently and participate in inner-Party affairs, and is to create conditions to construct relevant mechanism to enable the vast majority of party members to tell the truth, put an end to copy mechanically the top leaders and the books, and to

return rights to the vast majority of common Party members.

Only if we let the vast majority of Party members really place themselves at a position of being the master from thinking to action, can we break through such feudal privilege thinking and thought residual of “selecting officials from officials and official ontology”, let the vast majority of Party members execute the democratic rights and perform their obligations by means of the mechanism and procedure they recognize and really make the Party members integrated into one whole with the career of the ruling party and come into common sense.

4.3 Construction of democratic rights safeguarding mechanism in election depends on organic integration of multiple factors under leadership of the CPC

It is proved by the history that, only with political or organizational guarantee under a potent ruling party or political power, it is possible for China that has a large population to offer necessary social environment for reform, especially political reform. The first county level competitive direct election among Party representatives in 2002 was proposed, continuously insisted and improved by the Party committee of Yucheng District with support of Party committee at a higher level, which proved their courage and insight of “crossing the river by feeling the stones”. This experiment indicates again that, the ruling party is the key to take the path of democratic rights safeguarding mechanism by means of election in such a large country like China.

Renovation requires a relaxed political environment and democratic atmosphere in which one can tell the truth and say true words and requires the top leaders of the CPC to have the state of self-revolution of “being willing to part with or use and daring to catch them” and the courage of positively emancipating the thought. In a certain sense, the degree of thought emancipation of the leaders of the ruling party determines whether the democratic rights safeguarding of Party members is implemented or not. It is necessary to construct democratic rights safeguarding mechanism of Party members through election and it is more expected to form mutual restraint and supervision mechanism within the leading group of CPC, so as to avoid that the top leaders have the final saying and avoid any attacking or retaliating on the common Party members. It is necessary to construct democratic rights safeguarding mechanism of Party members through election and it is more necessary to require the vast majority of Party members that have a subject position to continue to improve their democratic quality, thinking state, political intelligence, initiative in participating in inner-Party democratic construction, and to put an end to canvass and bribery, etc.

4.4 It is a self-revolution launched by the CPC to construct democratic rights safeguarding mechanism in the competitive election

Pu Zhong, Secretary of Commission of Yucheng District in Ya'an City, made such an evaluation, “Trial on the permanent tenure is no easier than a revolution, in which one might remove his own authority.”

Democratic rights safeguarding mechanism of party members is a footstone of inner-Party democratic construction in a new period. The meaning of constructing democratic rights safeguarding mechanism and its innovation in the process of election lie in that the new mechanism will abandon the feudal privilege thought of leaders having the final say, a small group having the final say and those within the party having the final say. On the pre-condition of insisting on and improving Chinese democratic management of CPC and scientific decision making and collective leadership system, it is necessary to direct, protect and guide each party members to participate in and manage inner-party affairs within the stipulated scope of the Party Constitution, supervise the initiative and enthusiasm of the Party, fully execute democratic rights of the Party members and pool the wisdom of the masses. Without doubt, construction of democratic rights safeguarding mechanism of party members is a brand-new self-renovation. Such democratic practices as county level direct election in local grassroots are being continuously propelled. Then, how should the direct election and mechanism system of the provincial first level be constructed? How should the direct election mechanism and system of the first level of the Central Committee of the CPC be constructed? Governing a big country is just as cooking a small fish. It can be said that, there is still a long way to go for the democratic election system of the CPC and it still needs to be continuously explored.

4.5 It is a path of democratic construction with Chinese characteristics to promote social democratic development with inner-Party democratic development

Democracy is a kind of system, a basic value and is more a practical action. Democratic politics requires unification of form and content. Just as Yu Keping says, “Likewise, democracy in China can't go without election by people, supervision of authority and participation of citizens, but the election system, supervision system and participation system have obvious Chinese characteristics.” Similarly, inner-Party democratic construction will be of Chinese characteristics, namely, to refer to experiences of all other countries in the world

in the experiences of construction of the ruling party, to set foot in the realistic China at the initial stage of socialism, to keep established in the current economic and social development level of China, the Chinese history and the realistic national situation of Party situation, and to continue to reform and innovate.

As a ruling party that has a large population of 1.3 billion and great differences in different areas, it is doomed by the history that inner-Party democratic construction of the Central Committee of CPC is an important part of democratic construction with Chinese characteristics and will demonstrate and push forward social democratic construction. It is a process that integrates the organic and coordinated development of such relations as decentralization and concentration of innovative power, concentration and democracy, local and whole and personal rights and organizational rights and interests, generally presenting a progressive path and exhibiting a trend of an explorative experiment of grass-root organizations from bottom to top, stabilization by legislative means from top to bottom and progressive development from local to whole.

Success of the reform and opening up in China has come from revolution in the economic field and also from reformation in the political system. Although inner-Party democratic experiment that is represented by new mechanism and new principles in the direct election process of grass-root Party representatives in Ya'an City still needs to be institutionalized and normalized in continuous experiment, innovation of its ideas and practices, without doubt, will have significant innovative and demonstrative meaning to the inner-party democratic construction and Chinese democratic construction and development in the past ten years.

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A Comparative Study of Organizational Climate and Job Satisfaction in Public, Private and Foreign Banks

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between measures of organizational climate and measures of job satisfaction as applied to executives of public, private, and foreign banks. Another purpose of this study was to determine whether perceptions of different employees are different about organizational climate and job satisfaction or not. Based on the previous relevant research studies 14 factors were identified for each of both organizational climate and job satisfaction. Data was collected through personally administered questionnaires based on 42 questions from the 12 branches of banks under consideration. Fourteen questions were related to organizational climate, other fourteen for job satisfaction and the same numbers of questions were used to investigate the impact of organizational climate on job satisfaction. Two hypotheses were formulated and tested through Kruskal Wallis test, where as multiple regression analysis were used to investigate the impact of 14 sub factors of organizational climate on job satisfaction.

Keywords: Organizational climate, Job satisfaction, Banking sector, Pakistan

1. Introduction

Organization development (OD) is a response to change, a complex educational strategy intended to change the beliefs, attitudes, values, structure of organization so that they can better adapt new technologies, markets, and challenges, and the dizzying rate of change itself. In this era of intense competition and globalization very few people will disagree that the success of any organization is a direct reflection of its managerial effectiveness and efficiency. It has been generally observed and widely believed that organizational behavior, an area of organizational development is generally ignored in Pakistani organizations. A branch of management sciences with the name of organizational behavior, based on theories and models provide detailed information about the behaviors and attitudes of people in organizational setup.

Even though organizational development depends upon number of factors but to understand needs, concerns, and perceptions of employees the organizational climate needs to be assessed. Organizational climate refers to a set of measurable properties of the work environment, that are perceived by the people who live and work in it, and the influence their motivation and behavior. Wendell et al, (2004) explains that organizational climate is people's

perception and attitude about the organization - whether it is good or bad place to work, friendly or unfriendly, hardworking or easy-going, and so forth where as the organization culture is the deep-seated assumptions, values, and beliefs that are enduring, often unconscious, and difficult to change. He also argued that climate is relatively easy to change because it is built on employees perceptions.

Several of these areas of similarity are apparent through even a simple comparison between well-known definitions of culture and climate. Schein (1992) defined that culture is a pattern of shared basic assumptions that the group learned as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems. Tagiuri and Litwin defined climate as the relatively enduring quality of the total organizational environment that (a) is experienced by the occupants, (b) influences their behavior, and (c) can be described in terms of the values of a particular set of characteristics (or attributes) of the environment. Although Tagiuri and Litwin's definition places more emphasis on the way in which the social environment is experienced by the actors, and Schein's definition places more emphasis on how the social environment is created by the actors, both authors focused on the collective cognitive representation of patterns of social learning over time.

The two literatures present contrasting perspectives with little overlap in style or substance. This contrast tends to support perhaps the most widely accepted distinction between the two phenomena: Culture refers to the deep structure of organizations, which is rooted in the values, beliefs, and assumptions held by organizational members. Climate, in contrast, portrays organizational environments as being rooted in the organization's value system, but tends to present these social environments in relatively static terms, describing them in terms of a fixed and broadly applicable set of dimensions. Thus, climate is often considered as relatively temporary, and subject to direct control.

Organizational climate has a major influence on human performance through its impact on individual motivation and job satisfaction. Climate does all this by creating expectations about what consequences will follow from different actions. Employees expect certain rewards and satisfaction on the basis of their perception of the organization's climate. Individuals in the organization have certain expectations, and fulfillment of these depends upon their perception whether organizational climate suits according to their needs or not (Lehal, 2004). So, organizational climate is directly related with the performance of employees working in any organization.

Rice (1982) has investigated the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational climate and asserted that people were the heart of any enterprise because their ideas, attitudes, and efforts were key causes of success. Findings pointed out that for maximize performance, people needed to be satisfied at work. This was best accomplished by understanding their ideas, capabilities, feelings, attitudes, hopes, dreams, and goals and nurturing an organizational climate which supported them.

1.1 Problem Statement

This study will investigate the differences between public, private, and foreign commercial banks in relation to the organizational climate and employee's job satisfaction in the banking sector of Pakistan. The study is conducted in Karachi but the results can be generalized to whole banking sector Pakistan.

2. Literature Review

Effectively managing human resources in the organizations is a big concern both for HR managers and the policy makers of the organization and banks are no exception to this. To have a satisfied, motivated, less stressed performing workforce an organization must have consistency amongst its structure, system, people, culture and good fit with the strategy. Impact of different factors on job satisfaction has been analyzed in the literature. Some studies focus on demographic determinants of workers job satisfaction but, the others relate it with nature of work and working conditions at the workplace. Similarly, fair promotion system in the organization, job autonomy, leadership behavior, social relations and the job itself are also among the important factors of job satisfaction (Dawson, 1987).

Employees' attitude towards their organization which has great impact towards their working ways and contributions, in consequence organizational climate causes organization performance because this relates directly to employees' motivation. Employee's perception to organization as defined in six factors Stringer (2002). The Organizational climate is positively related to the job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The higher organizational climate will lead to higher job satisfaction and more organizational commitment (Pati & Reilly, 1977; Mahajan, Churchill, Ford, & Walker, 1984; Putti & Kheun, 1986; Ruth, 1992; Gratto, 2001; Clercq & Rius, 2007). Yi-Jen, (2007), has found a positive relationship between job satisfaction and

organizational climate in his study on Taiwan service industry. Similarly another study on the Indian Oil industry has also shown a positive relationship between job satisfaction and organizational climate (Jain et al 2007). Hunjra et al (2010) found in their study in the banking sector of Pakistan that organizational climate is one of the key factor of job satisfaction.

Babakus et al. (2003) found that the study of job satisfaction is an essential factor to develop the employees' service ability and still strongly affected the quality of service. Working environments strongly affect the job satisfaction level of employees of any organization (Mulige and Mueller, 1998). Snipes, Oswald & Armenakis, (2004) explained that Intrinsic factor effect job satisfaction more than extrinsic factors except in rewards or aspects gained. Karatepe et al, (2006) argued that job satisfaction back-up is the role to keep employees in long term employment.

Job satisfaction is often thought to be the gratification of strong needs in the workplace or the degree of discrepancy between what a person expect to receive from work and what that person perceives is actually received. There are six attributes, Work itself, Supervision, Colleagues, Compensation, Promotions, and Overall job security that appear to contribute to employee's job satisfaction (Lehal, 2004).

For the success of banking, it is very important to manage human resource effectively and to find whether its employees are satisfied or not Workforce of any bank is responsible to a large extent for its productivity and profitability. Efficient human resource management and maintaining higher job satisfaction level in banks determine not only the performance of the bank but also affect the growth and performance of the entire economy (Thakur, 2007). Despite prevalence of out dated system in an organization empowered work teams may work and flourish, but ultimately it will require the revision to improve the organization's system (Emery, 1992).

2.1 History of Selected Banks

National Bank of Pakistan (NBP) was established on November 9, 1949. NBP's deposits increased by Rs. 70 billion to Rs. 466 billion and its capital adequacy ratio is well above the banking industry average. As per "Euromoney", UK March 2005, NBP is one of the "Top 100 Banks of Asia." Muslim Commercial Bank Limited (MCB), the largest private sector bank in Pakistan with a network of 946 domestic and five foreign branches was established on 19 July 1947 at Calcutta by Ispahanies and Adamjees groups. MCB has become the only bank to receive the Euromoney award for the fourth time in the last five years. Standard Chartered is named after two banks, which merged in 1969. They are originally known as the Standard Bank of British South Africa and The Chartered Bank of India, Australia and China. Standard Chartered is the largest International Bank in Pakistan. SCB is also the oldest foreign bank, with a presence of more than 150 years in South Asian region. Standard Chartered employs more than 700 people and has 29 online branches in Pakistan.

3. Data and Methodology

Based on quantitative nature of this research study, researcher has adopted both the Descriptive as well as Analytical approaches in which the quantitative tools (Box plotting, Stem and leaf display, line Graphs and Spearman's rank correlation coefficient, Kruskal Wallis test and Multiple Regression analysis) are used to analyze the data. The total numbers of selected bank's branches in Karachi are 220, and 4,280 employees are working in these branches. Through convenience sampling, four (04) branches for each bank were visited and researcher was able to survey 90 executives. For this study, primary data was collected through personally administrated questionnaire based on 14 sub factors for each of both the organizational climate and job satisfaction.

4. Data Analysis and Interpretation.

The data collected through structured questionnaire, consisting of 42 questions are analyzed under three separate headings; organizational climate, Job satisfaction and effect of organizational climate on job satisfaction. A comparison has been made on the basis of box plots for three banks; National Bank of Pakistan (NBP), Muslim Commercial Bank (MCB), and Standard Chartered Bank (SCB). In figure 5.1, on x-axis, researcher has placed the minimum and maximum range of score for all the 90 respondents, which stretches from 14 to 70.

The vertical line in the interior of the box indicates the position of medians. The location of boxes shows that the most favorable climate prevails in SCB and the least favorable in NBP. Now, from the position of Q3 to the largest observation and Q1 to the smallest observation, one can judge the skewness. In the case of NBP, the position of Q1 is much closer to the smallest observation, which means that this bank is most positively skewed, among all the banks. In the case of NBP, there is only one outlier, the value of which cannot be covered in boxes. No outliers are present in the case of the other banks. The outlier shows that this respondent is very

different from the group and has a very different perception of the organizational climate. Ultimately his/her problems are different from rest of the respondents. So this respondent (executive) should be taken separately, in order to solve his/her problems. The maximum variation can be seen in the case of MCB as the long tail length in this case indicates that perceptions of various executives are not the same about the organizational climate.

Comparative study of the three banks on the basis of box plots (see figure 5.2) indicates the range of scores, i.e. from 14 to 70 for job satisfaction.

The location of median clarifies that executives working in SCB are very much satisfied. The least satisfied executives are working for NBP. Skewness can be seen with the help of Q1, Q3, Smallest observation, and largest observation. In the case of SCB, the position of Q1 is much closer to the smallest observation than Q3 to the largest observation. It indicates that SCB is positively skewed. The Q3 for the other two banks are closer to the largest observation indicating the negative skewness for MCB and NBP. One outlier is also there for NBP again, so this executive should be treated separately from rest of the respondents as he/she has a very low satisfaction level with relatively different problems.

The maximum variation can be seen in the case of NBP as the long tail length in this case indicates that the views of various executives are not the same about job satisfaction. Even though these executives are working with more or less same facilities and advancement opportunities in job but reacting differently for job satisfaction.

For the purpose of knowing inter-relationships between organizational climate and job satisfaction researcher has applied the Spearman's rank correlation method. The relationship between organizational climate and job satisfaction indicates that if a person is satisfied from his/her job, salary, promotions, coworkers etc, he/she will also perceive the climate of organization in which he/she is working more favorable for him/her. If any executive perceives organizational climate unfavorable he will be relatively less satisfied with his job.

In the case of NBP the value of correlation coefficient is 0.685, at 0.01 significance level which is quite close to +1. This strong positive relationship indicates that more the executives are satisfied, will perceive favorable organizational climate or conversely less the executives are satisfied will perceive unfavorable organizational climate.

In the case of MCB the correlation coefficient is 0.406, at 0.05 significance level. Even though it is not as much stronger as for NBP but still a positive one. It indicates the same relation (as in the case of NBP) but with relatively less intensity. Where as the SCB is concern it has a 0.429 correlation coefficient at 0.05 significance level, which is little better than MCB but less than NBP. This positive correlation is also indicating the similar relationships (as in the case of NBP) between organizational climate and job satisfaction.

For the purpose of testing the significance of these relationships, t-test has been used. The calculated value of t in case of organizational climate and job satisfaction for NBP, MCB, and SCB are 20.945 and 30.484, 21.173 and 40.779, and 28.945 and 56.400 respectively. Whereas the table value of t at 5% level of significance for NBP (34 degrees of freedom), MCB (30 degrees of freedom), and for SCB (24 degrees of freedom) are 1.6905, 1.697, and 1.714 respectively.

All the table values of t are less than the calculated values, which indicates that the relationship between organizational climate and job satisfaction for all the three banks is very significant.

To find out the difference in perception of executives across the banks and to test the hypotheses H1 and H2 Kruskal Wallis test or H-test has been employed.

To test the hypothesis #1 regarding organizational climate that is;

H0: For organizational climate the mean value of 90 executives of the three banks is the same.

H1: For organizational climate the mean value of 90 executives of the three banks is not the same.

The calculated value of chi-square is 35.227 and the table value of chi-square with $(3 - 1) = 2$ degrees of freedom at 5% level of significance is 5.991. As the calculated value of chi-square is more than the table value, H0 is rejected. It tells that in respect of organizational climate, the mean value of 90 executives of the three banks is not the same, which is also very evident from the table 5.1.

To test the hypothesis # 2 about the job satisfaction that is;

H0: With respect to job satisfaction, the mean value of 90 executives of the three banks is the same.

H1: With respect to job satisfaction, the mean value of 90 executives of the three banks is not the same.

Again the chi-square will be considered. The calculated value of chi-square is 37.322 and the table value of chi-square at $(3 - 1) = 2$ degrees of freedom with 5% level of significance is 5.991. As the calculated value is greater than the table value, H_2 is also rejected. It can be concluded that the 90 executives of the different banks under study feel different for job satisfaction or their job satisfaction level is not equal.

For the purpose of knowing the effect of organizational climate on job satisfaction, organizational climate has been taken as an independent variable which has further 14 sub factors; structure, responsibility, reward, initiative, support, standards, conflict handling, identity, leadership, empowerment, human relations, communication, decision making, and equity.

It is an effort to find out those sub factors of organizational climate, which have marked influence on job satisfaction. For the above said purpose multiple regression analysis method has been applied. The results obtained are available in Table 5.2 and Table 5.3.

R square describes the strength of relationship between all the independent variables and dependent variables, and if the value of R square is closer to 1, stronger the association it predict. In this particular case R square is 0.616 (see table # 7.2) that is strong enough to describe the relationship between one dependent and 14 independent variables.

The calculated value of F (15, 74) is 7.920 as compared to table value, which is 1.81, it further indicates the significance of R square as a whole.

It is a general rule that variables having a t-ratio equal or above 2 are more significant. Therefore researcher will follow the same rule of thumb. According to the Table 5.3, out of 14 selected sub factors of organizational climate, "Structure" affects job satisfaction maximum (with t-ratio = 2.478 and coefficient = 3.399). It indicates that more the effective structures available, more the executives are satisfied.

The t-ratio for "Identity" is 2.287 with 2.419 coefficient proves that the sense of loyalty and belongingness, developed among the executives of banks, affect the job satisfaction. If executives feel pride in belonging to their organization and being the members of well functioning team, they will be gratified with their jobs. "Human Relation" is the last factor that has a positive t-ratio, above 2 with 2.542 coefficients. It reflects that the executives are enjoying their jobs more, if the supervisor and the colleagues are friendly and cooperative to them.

All the three variables discussed above, also have a great significance that is even less than 5% (structure = 0.015, identity = 0.025, and human relation = 0.043).

"Equity" and "Empowerment" with t-ratio -2.856 and -2.095 respectively have a negative relationship with job satisfaction. These factors if present, will effect job satisfaction negatively. It indicates that the executives may not like equity and empowerment. It can be further interpreted that the executives are seems to be happy if management is promoting executives on the basis of experience instead of performance, and similarly executives are also seems to avoid the delegation of authority. Both the variables are also very significant at less than 5% level of significance.

5. Conclusions

After a close scrutiny of these factors, this study concludes that the overall perception about organizational climate at SCB has turned out to be most favorable of all the three banks under consideration. Where as the organizational climate at MCB and NBP is perceived to be relatively less favorable. Further more the perception of NBP's organizational climate stood out to be least favorable. On the other hand the similar outcomes were found regarding the job satisfaction.

In the subsequent study the researcher has tried to investigate the relationship between the two variables; "The organizational climate" and "The job satisfaction". Hereby the study reveals that out of 14 sub factors of organizational climate three are positively related to the job satisfaction, such as; organizational structure, identity, and human relations. Whereas for the executives of all the three banks, the two factors: equity and empowerment are negatively related to the job satisfaction.

6. Recommendations

Out of 14 sub factors of organizational climate three factors; organizational structures, identity, and human relations have a positive and significant relation with job satisfaction. Two factors; equity and empowerment are negative but significantly related to job satisfaction. Keeping in view these five factors' suggestions are as follows:

6.1 Structure

A clear structure, chain of command, coordination mechanism, and communication systems enhance the performance of employees. Therefore all the three banks should work more on building effective structures, just to give clarity about the roles and responsibility to the executives. More the executives are clear about their roles and responsibilities, greater they get job satisfaction.

6.2 Identity

Identity of an individual in collective reference has always been important motivating factor for employees. There is a need to encourage individual's initiatives in work which give executives their own identity within the framework of organization. A potential source of individual identity is very much linked to organization's identity. Therefore, banks should enhance organizational image and identity in banking industry so that executives feel privileged to have organizational identity of their own.

6.3 Human Relations

There is a need to further build human relations in the three banks so that a better team work can be promoted. Senior management should encourage the initiatives of their executives so that their confidence can be ensured.

6.4 Equity

The concept of equity is not appreciated by the executives as the test reveals. Therefore, there is a need to promote the advantages of equitable treatment of executive in their banks so that the executives should not be threatened by this practice.

6.5 Empowerment

Empowerment is also not appreciated by the executives. There is a need to further provide opportunities to executives to take more responsibilities by undertaking motivational course of actions. The threat of "empowerment" can be overcome by having clear policies on the following:

6.5.1 Delegation of power

Management should empower the executives and believe in the ability of their people and give them the support they need to achieve organizational goals. A key element of this support is the communication of a strategy or direction, and detailed operational plans to the executives. Management should provide freedom to executives to decide how to deliver the required results through innovation, decisiveness and action.

6.5.2 Training

Banks should provide training to all the executives, irrespective of their qualification and skills regularly. Training bring positive change, and enhance employee's knowledge, skills, behavior, aptitude, and attitude towards the requirements of the job and the bank.

6.5.3 Decision Making

Management of the three banks should consider few guidelines while they make decisions. The decision-making model should be explicit and understood by all team members. It also clearly describes who makes the decision and how others will be involved. These will not only help in letting the executives know what to expect but also help in building support for the final decision.

6.5.4 Rewards

Fairness as perceived by the employees is very important for rewards, Management should compensate the executives on fair bases this will attract, retain and motivate professionals. Ultimately the executives will move towards the higher levels of job satisfaction and will be available for future challenges.

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Table 5.1.

Kruskal Wallis Test (Ranks)

	GROUPS	N	Mean Rank
Org. Climate	NBP	35	27.33
	MCB	31	48.58
	SCB	24	68.02
	Total	90	
Job Satisfaction	NBP	35	26.69
	MCB	31	48.97
	SCB	24	68.46
	Total	90	

Test Statistics

	Org. Climate	Job Satisfaction
Chi-Square	35.227	37.322
df	2	2
Asymp. Sig.	.000	.000

Appendix I, critical Value of Chi-Square (3-2) = 2 degree of freedom, at 5% level of significance, the Table value = 5.991.

Table 5.2. Multiple Regression Analysis for Organizational Climate and Job Satisfaction

R	R Square	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
.785*	.616	7.920	15	74	.000

Table 5.3. Coefficients

Factors	Coefficients	T-Statistics	Sig.
STRUCTUR	3.399	2.478	.015
RESPONSIBILITY	.559	.402	.689
REWARDS	1.417	1.378	.172
INITIATIVE	2.174	1.887	.063
SUPPORT	.188	.170	.866
STANDARD	-1.071	-.835	.407
CONFLICT	-.895	-.577	.566
IDENTITY	2.419	2.287	.025
LEADERSHIP	-.582	-.420	.676
EMPOWERMENT	-3.051	-2.095	.040
HUMAN RELATIONS	2.542	2.057	.043
COMMUNICATION	-1.828	-1.077	.285
DECISION MAKING	3.869E-02	.025	.980
EQUITY	-3.104	-2.856	.006

- Dependent Variable: job Satisfaction

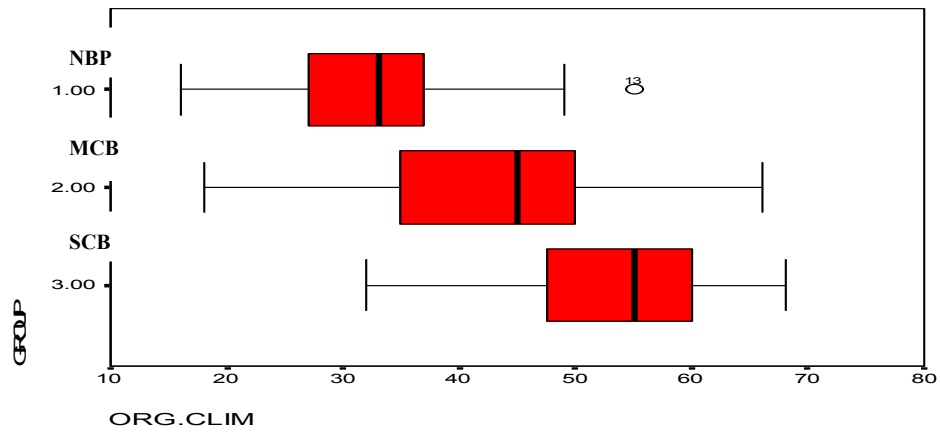


Figure 5.1. Organizational Climate and Box Plots

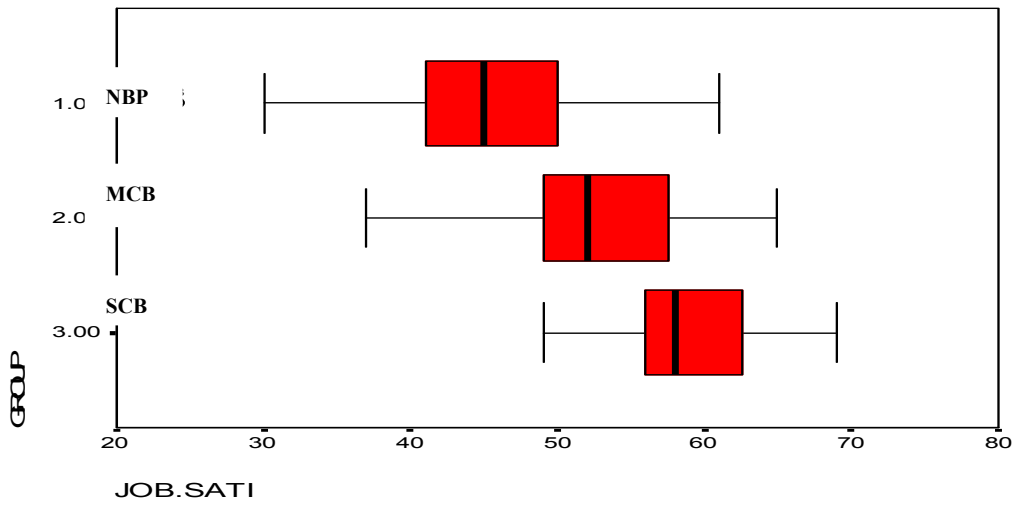


Figure 5.2. Job Satisfaction and Box Plots

Problems in Remote Accounting Processing of Construction Enterprises and Their Solutions

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Abstract

Aiming at the problems in respect of security, importance and timeliness brought by evidence transmission in remote accounting processing of construction enterprises, this paper tentatively puts forward solutions including temporary entry in book based on photographs, increasing stationed accountant(s) and use outer network or data conversion technique to realize data transmission, and employing financial representatives, etc.

Keywords: Remote accounting business, Original evidence, Booking evidence, Cloud storage

1. Presentation of problems

In one of actual research/survey to a construction enterprise (hereinafter shortened as “this enterprise”), which was offering aid construction of Beichuan, the hit area in 5.12 earthquake and the construction project group was very far from the headquarter, the cost accountant of this enterprise, Chen, has ever asked a question: when revenue of this enterprise totally enters the basic account in bank, while all expenditures necessary for construction work are paid by the bank opened in the construction place, during the final accounting for revenue, following difficulties will come out in financial processing: the construction project group had many charges against revenue, in other places and part of expenditure cost was rather high, e.g. expenditures such as acquiring raw materials and employing local workers or employees in local place, etc. considered from the importance principle, such expenditures have influenced the enterprise’s profit greatly, and must be entered into the account and disclosed timely; considered from accounting aging, such expenditures must be reflected in the year that they incurred. Considered from taxation, such expenditures should also be written into the cost of the same year, otherwise, the matching relationship will be influenced, and the profit may be highly increased falsely or even worse, resulting in false profit (actual loss), the tax basis will then be influenced seriously. However, if we consider based on accounting practice, the occurrence of business transaction and relevant original evidence is in other places far from the headquarter, for the reason of security and timeliness, these information cannot be transmitted timely (the security of sending by post or express delivery is not so absolutely reliable, and to take remedial measures for the missing of some evidence is extremely difficult.) and financial department cannot book the account.

2. Adoptable solutions

After a long thought and discussion with many experts and scholars, the author puts forward following solutions which are recognized and adopted by the enterprise:

2.1 Remote temporary entering into account

This is the initial solution that the author presented and it is also the one that the enterprise adopted later.

2.1.1 Making responsibility clear and definite

The original evidences acquired by outside project groups during their transactions are signed by the responsible persons, project leader and certifier, and also the dates are also signed in the blank space of these evidences. The signer will bear corresponding responsibilities.

2.1.2 Collect electronic data

Acquire electronic data photograph of original evidences with scanner or camera (High resolution cell phone may be used if scanner or camera is not available in those construction sites.) and save these data in a specific location of specific devices or PC hard disc for remote transmission.

2.1.3 Transmit electronic photographs

These photographs are sent to the financial department of the headquarter by QQ, MSN, Email (large attachment may be used), network hard disc, skype, UC, Group Share, etc., and received by appointed personnel. Meanwhile, backup files, short messages and call recordings, etc, are saved for future reference so that these backup files may provide proves for determining responsibility in case of error during checkout to prove the sender and receiver are both specific personnel. And these backup files cannot be deleted until original evidences are filed. If the personnel and technique is good enough, these photographs may be sent after processed, e.g. encryption and compression processing to prevent from virus's and Hacker's interference. The received electronic photograph data should be marked or saved to a specific location to avoid retransmitting and avail for future reference.

2.1.4 Replace original evidence to enter book account

Print out the received remote electronic data, photographs, and enter them into book account instead of original evidences (such photographs should be attached onto the reverse side of accounting evidences with pins or paper clips.) in normal accounting way. Relevant booking evidences and attachments should be saved in a specific clip in specific filing cabinet for an easy search and replacement, but not be filed as normal original evidences; meanwhile, to be registered into the memorandum book stating detailed information including bookkeeping evidence number, original evidence name and serial number, date of entry in account and the date, amount and item that original evidence said, as well as the responsible persons including the operator, acceptance maker and approver.

2.1.5 Storage of outside original evidences

The original evidences are the basis of the most legal validity, therefore, they should be kept in a safe place---the received outside original evidences should be kept by specific personnel and should be placed in a save to prevent from missing. When an outside transaction comes to the end, evidences should be collected and put into control as soon as possible. The electronic data, photographs of those original evidences which electronic data has not been acquired should be collected as soon as possible and send to headquarter.

2.1.6 Filing management

Check the original evidences one by one when it is accepted; replace formal replacement photographs; cancel the records on the registration book; destroy formal replacement photographs that had been entered in the account; bind the accounting vouchers/evidences in a volume and file them for daily management.

2.2 Increase outside-stationed accountant posts

If a construction project group has too many transactions and more accountants are necessary, the number of such accountant need to be considered. If the number are over 2, normal internal regulations may be applied; if only 1 accountant is assigned, more power (incompatible post restrictions or limits may be widen if necessary, e.g. in network accounting system, if 1 outside-stationed accountant is assigned, different log-in account and power may be set to complete bookkeeping and auditing, the accounting information may enter the database on the server) must be given to him or her for a convenient daily processing. Further, based on secondary account and sub-ledger, send the amount incurred and balance of relevant account to the financial department of headquarter for a summary and treatment. By this way, it ensures a timely accounting treatment of enterprise

accounting information and also is in favor of a timely binding and filing of evidence documents for the financial department.

The original evidences on which the electronic evidences are based and booking evidences prepared by outside-stationed accountant(s) should be recheck and audited actually by relevant principals when they are submitted to the financial department for filing. In case that any problem is found, Correction by Using Red Ink may be applied for correction. They method may probably result in those mistakes hard to be found timely and also cause the internal work quantity of the enterprise a increase sharply in a short time.

If we use network accounting information system, the outside-stationed project group can be set as an office terminal and network co-working can be done. Should in condition that electronic notes and electronic signature are applied in the future, all accounting work can be completed as if in one office. Nowadays, the technical bottleneck is the security of remote log-on and data transmission. After all, the external network is in high risk of contracting virus and hostile attack. Therefore, Hacker guard settings are very important.

Against such problems caused by external network, currently two methods may be used for completing remote financial software: one is to apply VPN (Virtual Private Network) which is complex to set but very safe, and VPN also requires the support of the enterprise firewall; the other is to make Port Mapping on the firewall, almost all routers or firewalls support this. And the setting is rather easy but security is a little bit lower. The financial staff must set hosts document on their computers when they use external network so as to identify correctly the real IP of the computer at financial software server end. Should ERP network storage under "Cloud" be realized, users would not worry about data missing, software updating or virus acctack, etc. because the "Cloud" service has professional IT team to manage the information, has advanced database to store data, its strict permission administration strategy may help the user and appointed personnel to share data.

I also have another assumption. If remote treatment online cannot be realized, we may install all financial software that are used by the financial department in the local financial computer which the project is located, and transmit the generated database files of same type back to financial department of the company, then entering account can be done timely. As for booking evidence serial number, they can generate automatically or be coded manually. Some financial software has evidence guide-in function, e.g. there is an import tool under UFIDA software's general ledger, it may move evidences into one accounting mode and then line backward the numbers automatically. If the system is defined to line number manually, it may define the evidence number as user required. However, the precondition for doing these operations is that the accounting mode information (data structure of relevant information such as items and departments) should be ensured consistent, then each information of outside project may be moved into the general ledger subsystem and be accounted in normal way monthly.

In my opinion, if there is no evidence import or export function in the financial software in use, based on the current technique, many database may import or export between each other or may import to EXCEL or text file firstly, then import to another database. The only troublesome is that the field sequence in database import and export needs to be processed carefully. For which, we may set the relevant conditions for field sequence by Microsoft query tool in EXCEL.

2.3 Account by agency bookkeeping

Finding financial agency company or certified accountants' firm or individual financial personnel as agency in local place where the project construction site is located to keep accounts may save more labor cost than assigning accountant from the headquarter. These agencies' familiarity to the enterprise's affairs is much lower than the accountant staff from the enterprise, but their advantage is that they are the local people and are much easy to contact with relevant administrative departments, e.g. local industrial and commercial administration or taxation department, etc. The other aspects are basically as same as those abovementioned in part 2.2.

3. Conclusion

In doing remote accounting information processing for the construction enterprises we have come to the conclusion: as there are no particular rules in laws, regulations or systems, according to the legislative spirits of related laws such as tax laws, company laws, accounting laws together with current digital photography technology, network transmission technology, accounting requirements accounting personnel can reasonably solve problems. Accountants can also further utilize computer terminal technology, data base management, by increasing stationed accountants and employing financial representatives while keeping data transmission and data security to realize remote accounting processing of construction enterprises.

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Examining the Effect of Amanah Ikhtiar Malaysia's Microcredit Program on Microenterprise Assets in Rural Malaysia

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Abstract

Microenterprise often considered as an antecedent for generating income and employment, which leads to a decline in overall poverty rate and other aspects of sustainable socio-economic development. The objective of this study is to identify the impact of Amanah Ikhtiar Malaysia's (AIM) microcredit program on microenterprise assets owned by poor women in rural Peninsular Malaysia. In order to advance our understanding on the topic, contribute to the existing literature and to obtain the above mentioned objective, we employed a cross sectional design with stratified random sampling method. Data was collected from 281 rural clients selected from seven branches in five states in Peninsular Malaysia. Findings showed that the current market value of livestock's, agricultural/production equipments, agricultural stock/raw materials, enterprise assets and motor vehicles owned by old client respondents were relatively higher than that of new client respondents. Study also revealed that the mean market value of microenterprise assets owned by old clients is significantly higher than that of new clients. Therefore, there is a need to give emphasis on providing adequate training, favorable environment, and flexible and diversified loan programs in order to promote sustainable microenterprise development.

Keywords: Microcredit, Poverty, Microenterprise, Assets, Malaysia

1. Introduction

Reducing poverty and unemployment rate through promoting microenterprise development are often the most frequently stated objective of sustainable socio-economic development programs. As well paid employment opportunities are limited in developing economies; a large segment of the population tends to push for more profitable alternatives which resulted in increasing the rate of new microenterprises (ADB, 1997). As reported by ADB (1997), microenterprises account for more than 60% of all enterprises and up to 50% of paid employment. The overwhelming growth of microenterprises in Asian economies is remarkable as they contribute significantly to the development of these emerging economies. The growth rate might surpass other stakeholders of businesses in terms of their contribution to GDP of these economies. Access to finance, business development training and supportive environment are considered as the key elements for the development of sustainable

microenterprises (USAID, 2011). The vital role of microfinance organizations in developing microenterprises are well documented in the microenterprise development literature.

Microenterprises are generally owned by low-income households, are, therefore, found to be the most vulnerable to decapitalization to meet household requirements in all types of emergencies. As mentioned by ADB (1997), fixed assets and inventories are often sold to meet the consumption requirement, which bring the microenterprise to its end. Supportive financial services can support and promote microenterprise development by providing a safety net of essential social services, consumptions and emergencies. Microfinance organizations of all over the world are providing supportive financial services for microenterprise development. Microcredit is a collection of banking practices appeared to provide small loans and accept small saving deposits. Microcredit, as defined by Robinson (2001), is a small scale financial services – commonly credit and savings – provided to poor and hardcore poor people who farm, fish or herd. The Asian Development Bank (2009) defines microcredit as the provision of a wide range of financial services which includes small amount of loans, small deposits and microinsurance to poor microentrepreneurs. Since microcredit has been providing financial supports as a development initiative commonly to the poor rural women in order to enable them to initiate or improve the income generating activities through microenterprises, it is therefore expected that the small amount of collateral free credit and training provided by Amanah Ikhtiar Malaysia would lead to an increase in microenterprise assets owned by poor clients and their households in rural Peninsular Malaysia.

1.1 Microcredit and Microenterprise Assets

Assets, important indicator of household's economic well-being, are commonly considered to be more stable over time. They are the stock of wealth; therefore represent the long-term effects of income flows and expenditures (Barnes, 1996). As assets are the foundation of future consumption and wealth, therefore, they are considered as important indicator while measuring the impact of microcredit programs. When micro entrepreneurs utilized the received microcredit to accumulate assets, it increases the asset directly. Microcredit helps generate additional income and stock of capital as a result of multiplier effect as Barnes (1996) pointed out that the additional assets also lead to an increase in income and further accumulation of assets. Microcredit also enables micro entrepreneurs to better manage existing assets, ability to take risk and reduce liabilities. These factors are expected to lead to an increase in microenterprise assets owned by borrower's households.

Within the expanding scope of microcredit, it is necessary to provide solid definition of microenterprise in order to understand the potential contribution of microcredit on microenterprise assets. Microenterprise, as defined by ADB (1997), is a '*non-crop enterprises employing less than ten workers, including the owner-operator and family workers*'. ADB's (1997) definition of microenterprise also implied an implicit income and asset limit because as they reported '*it is widely understood that microenterprises are enterprises of the poor*'. The concept of 'implicit income and asset limit' is not widely practiced in order to identify microenterprises. As mentioned by Alam and Miyagi (2004), commonly microenterprises in Bangladesh are engaged in poultry, livestock, dairy, rice/oil mills, agricultural equipment making, and trading in inputs such as seeds and fertilizers, to non-firm enterprises such as petty trading, small business in transport, timber, bakery, medicine/pharmacy, and enterprise manufacturing bricks, ring slabs. Because of the difficulties in defining microenterprise by sectors, the government commonly sets the label based on the value of the total microenterprise assets. As in Bangladesh, if the total value of the capital invested in the business is less than BDT1 million (about USD15000) is considered as microenterprise (Alam and Miyagi, 2004). In Malaysia, the National SME Development Council defines micro enterprises as companies with sales turnover of less than RM250,000 or full time employee less than 5 for manufacturing/agro-based industry or sales turnover of less than RM200,000 or full time employees less than 5 for others (Bank Negara Malaysia, 2004). From the previous discussions, we can conclude that microenterprise assets are measured as the net worth of livestock, agricultural/production equipments and stocks, enterprise assets, vehicles and orchard minus liabilities. Liability includes all formal and informal debts.

1.2 Study Context: Amanah Ikhtiar Malaysia (AIM)

AIM established in 1987, usually provides small scale financial services and training to poor and hardcore poor only, in order to improve their socio-economic condition. AIM follows group based Grameen Bank (a Bangladeshi microfinance organization) microfinancing model, which has been simulated by many MFO's all over the world. The client selection procedure of AIM starts with measuring potential clients' average monthly household income. Households with average monthly household income below the poverty line income (Poverty Line Income or PLI has been calculated by the Malaysian government since the year 1976. It was estimated based on the necessity of food and other basic needs) would be considered as absolute poor, while households with average monthly household income below half of the PLI would be categorized as hardcore poor. Therefore,

households whose average monthly household income falls below the PLI, including both poor and hardcore poor households, are considered to be eligible to obtain microcredit from AIM. AIM offers three economic loans namely I-Mesra loan, I-Srikandi loan and I-Wibawa loan. AIM also provides I-Penyayang loan or recovery loan. In addition, AIM provides education loan (I-Bistari) and housing/multipurpose loan known as I-Sejahtera. In the provision of AIM practices, no legal action is used to deploy if the borrowers fail to settle their payments. As of August 2010, AIM has extended their outreach to 87 branches in Malaysia. There are 60497 groups in 6646 centers, currently serving a total of 254,116 clients with a 99.42% repayment rate (AIM, 2010). Since AIM is the only microfinance organization operating at national level and outreached more than 82% of the poor and hardcore poor households in Malaysia, this study therefore selected AIM in order to measure the impact of microcredit program on microenterprise assets owned by poor rural households in Peninsular Malaysia.

2. Review of Literature

Extensive and up-to-date literatures on the positive role of microcredit organization on microenterprise development are available in socio-economic development literatures. The importance of such literatures is uprising in economic literatures as microcredit becomes a phenomenon in reducing poverty as well as generating microenterprises. As reported by Alam and Miyagi (2004), MFO's (Microfinance Organizations) provided microcredit to 44.49% in small business, 17.73% in livestock rearing, 12.74% in agriculture and 4.84% in fishing sector in Bangladesh. The studies conducted to measure impact of microcredit on microenterprise developments indicate a positive effect of microcredit on microenterprises. Study conducted by Hossain (1988) noted that the amount of working capital invested in client's microenterprise, increased by an average of three times within a period of 27 months. The investment in fixed assets is about 2.5 times higher for the clients with more than three years' membership than for those who joined during the year of the survey. About one third of the members were unemployed before joining microfinance program (Hossain, 1988). A study conducted by Sutoro (1990) showed that respondents' enterprise income increased by 93%, 26% of increase appeared in the ownership of productive machineries, about 16% increase in the ownership of business vehicle and 76% of increase in household income. Sebstad and Walsh (1991) also noted a positive impact of microcredit on microenterprise sales. Mosley (1996) conducted a study in Bolivia and noted that respondents enterprise income increased by 91%, 39% borrowers became employed after participation and 26% used loan for new technology – mostly sewing machines. Kamal (1999), when measuring the impact of ASA's (Association for Social Advancement) microcredit programs in Bangladesh, noted that 90.42% of the sampled respondents reported an increase in business capital after participation. Dunn and Arbuckle (2001) conducted a study in Peru where the authors found that there were substantial increase in microenterprise income, asset and employment among participants than that of non-participants. The study of Islam (2007) pointed out that borrowing working capital by poor clients' increases investment in working capital and assets. The study of Rahman, Rafiq and Momen (2009) mentioned that age, education and number of gainfully employed members had a significant positive effect on household income and asset. Panda (2009) in his study in India asserted a significant increase in borrower's household income (11.41%) and asset position was 9.75% higher than non participants and the savings increased by 42.53%. A positive link between microcredit and employment was also explored in this study. Panda (2009) also noted an increase in annual employment days among the clients.

Studies that estimated the impact of AIM's microcredit schemes showed a similar positive effect. Gibbons and Kasim (1990) showed a significant increase of client's monthly household income from an average of RM142 per month to RM220. Their study also illustrated that the female participants experienced a higher increase in monthly household income compared to male participants. The Second Internal Impact Study (1990) was conducted by AIM's research and development unit. This study showed further overall improvement among participating households' living standard. The government of Malaysia initiated an impact assessment study on AIM's microcredit schemes by a team of Social Science and Economic Research Unit (SERU) of the Prime Ministers Department in 1990. SERU (1990) noted that the overall household income was more than double for those households who participated in AIM's microcredit schemes. The SERU study also found a significant impact on household's quality of life, which is based on the ownership and quality of housing, type and quality of household assets, agricultural land and savings. The increase in household income also facilitated an increase in expenditure on food, nutrition, education and reinvestment. The Third Internal Impact Study (1994) reconfirmed the earlier findings in non-monetary impact of microcredit on poor households. This study also found an improvement in the percentage of owner occupied house to 85% compared to 80% prior to participation. The use of electric household products also showed some slight improvements. Study conducted by Salma (2004) translated that the household income, expenditure, savings and assets have increased for both AIM and PPRT (*Projek Perumahan Rakyat Termiskin*) participants compared to non-participants. It is important

to note here that, these increases are higher for AIM clients than PPRT clients. Salma (2004) concluded that the microcredit program generated direct and higher contribution to generate income than non microcredit programs. A recent study conducted by Saad (2010) indicates a positive effect in human development in rural Malaysia, including improved health condition of the clients as well as improved education level of clients' children. Saad (2011) in her study titled '*Selecting High-Income Generating Activities for Micro-entrepreneurs: The Case Study of Amanah Ikhtiar Malaysia*', identified that economic activity in the trading sector were more beneficial for the clients than other activities. Activities that generate high income include rubber trading, sales of cooking gas, hawking night market, sales of cosmetics, paint products, used cars health products, and food.

3. Research Methods

3.1 Research Hypothesis

As mentioned by Hulme (1997), "behind all microfinance programs is the assumption that intervention will change human behaviors and practices in ways that will lead to the achievement (or raise the probability of achievement) of desired outcomes." The conceptual model of impact chain presents a complex set of links as each 'effect' becomes a 'cause' in its own right generating further effects. One of the most complex conceptual models for impact assessment was presented by Chen and Dunn (1996), called Household Economic Portfolio Model (HHEP). The researchers confirmed the usefulness of HHEP model in addressing the fungibility and attribution issues. In this research, hypothesis was used to test only a portion of the implications given by the model. The objective of this study is to measure the effect of AIM's microcredit program on microenterprise assets in rural Peninsular Malaysia. In support of the research objective, the following specific alternative hypothesis is investigated: *Hypothesis 1* (H_1): Participation in AIM's microcredit program leads to an increase in the current market value of microenterprise assets owned by poor rural households in Peninsular Malaysia.

3.2 Research Design

As mentioned by Montgomery and Weiss (2011), impact assessment methodology addresses how participation in microcredit program affects the selected variables with how those same selected variables would be in the absence of microcredit program. The most appropriate method to address the question would be by employing an experimental design. Since it is just not possible to control all the factors while measuring the impact of microcredit (Hulme, 2000), therefore, full experimental approach is not feasible for assessing the impact of microcredit programs (see also Khandker and Pitt, 1998; Swain and Varghese, 2009; Montgomery and Weiss, 2011). This study uses a quasi-experimental approach to measure the impact of microcredit. In quasi-experimental approach control and treatment groups are used to measure the impact of AIM's microcredit programs. This study selects control and treatment groups from AIM's client base. The control group are those participating less than or equal to 60 months and the treatment group as those participating more than 60 months.

This research employed a cross-sectional design to measure the impact of AIM's microcredit schemes in rural Peninsular Malaysia. It is adopted the group statistics that has been most often known as 'average effect of treatment of treated', which measures the impact on the outcome of one group compared to others. The average program impact is estimated by comparing the average outcome of the members of treatment group (old respondents) with the same average outcome of the members of the control group (new respondents).

3.3 Sample Selection and Data Collection

This research employed a stratified random sampling method and collected data through face-to-face structured interviews. AIM's microcredit program currently offers financial services through 87 branches in 13 states in Malaysia. Among the 87 branches, 7 branches were randomly selected from five states, where poverty rate is relatively higher compared to other states. Out of seven branches, two were from Kedah (Cawangan Baling and Cawangan Pendang), two were from Kelantan (Cawangan Machang and Cawangan Tumpat) and one branch each from Perlis (Cawangan Perlis), Perak (Cawangan Batang Padang) and Terengganu (Cawangan Besut). A team of nine Research Assistants together with the Project Manager then visited each of the branches from 18th April, 2011 to 9th May, 2011. Respondents were randomly selected during the centre meetings. After the data collection team had explained the purpose of the study a total of 286 respondents agreed to be interviewed and complete data were collected from a total of 281 poor rural clients, of whom 99 were new clients (participating AIM's microcredit program for less than or equal to 60 months) and 182 were old clients (participating AIM's microcredit program for more than 60 months).

4. Summary of Findings

Participation in AIM's microcredit program conceptualized by two indicators, number of months as client and total amount of credit received. The mean number of months among selected old clients was 122.54 months with

a standard deviation of 46.68, which is significantly higher (p -value of Mann-Whitney Test is 0.00, which is less than the chosen 5% level of significance) than the mean number of months new clients participating AIM's microcredit program – 26.42 months with a standard deviation of 19.02. The mean amount of credit received by old respondents was RM24642.30 with a standard deviation of RM28531.77. The mean amount of credit received by new respondents was RM8347.47 with a standard deviation of RM8916.05. It was noted that the deviation in the distribution of total amount of credit received by all clients was very high, due to the level of 'need for credit' and 'opportunity to invest credit in economic activities'. The p -value for Mann-Whitney test is 0.000, which is less than the chosen 5% level of significance, indicating that the total amount of credit received by old respondents also significantly higher than the new respondents.

In order to investigate the effect of microcredit on microenterprise assets, it is important to explore how respondent used the credit they received. As presented in Table 1, only 36.7% of the total respondents reported that they used entire amount of credit they received from AIM in economic activities. For new and old respondents these rates are 68.7% and 19.2% respectively. This clearly indicated that among the sampled clients higher proportion of old respondents did not used credit in economic activities. Therefore, AIM needs to identify old clients using credit in non-economic activities and the risk associated with the trend of using credit in non-economic activities. However, data were also collected on the proportion of loan respondent using in economic activities. It is noted that on average, about 80% of the total loan received by respondents used in economic activities.

This study also investigated the type of economic activities respondents used the credit received from AIM's rural microfinance program. As shown in Table 1, only 13 out of 281 respondents or 4.6% of them reported that they invested credit in manufacturing activities. For new and old respondents these numbers were 3 out of 99 and 10 out of 182 respectively. It is noted that 123 out of 281 respondents or 43.8% of them, which was the highest proportion of respondents, invested the loan they received in trade or retail activities. 46.2% of the old respondents reported that they invested loan in trade or retail activities, which was higher than the proportion of new respondents. About 39.4% used loan in trading or retail activities. The proportion of respondents who used credit for service, agriculture/fishing and other activities were 14.6%, 32.7% and 3.9% respectively. The p -value for Pearson's Chi-Square test was 0.614, which was higher than chosen 5% level of significance, indicating no association between types of economic activities for which respondents use the loan and respondent's participation status – new and old.

The number of respondents, proportion of respondents, mean and standard deviation of current market value of livestock assets, agricultural and/or production equipments, agricultural stock/raw materials, enterprise assets, vehicles and orchard are presented in Table 2. As shown in Table 2, out of total 281 respondents, only 29 of them reported to have livestock assets. The mean market value of livestock owned by old respondents is relatively higher than that of new respondents. Only 24 out of 281 respondents or 8.5% of the respondents reported to have agricultural / production equipments. It was noted that the mean market value of agricultural/production equipments owned by old respondents also much higher than that of new respondents. In regard to agricultural stock or raw materials, 27.0% of the total respondents reported to own them. However, a relatively higher proportion of new respondents owned agricultural stock or raw materials and the mean market value of agricultural stock or raw materials owned by old respondents was much higher than that of new respondents.

163 out of 281 respondents or 58% of the respondents reported to have enterprise assets. The highest proportion of respondents owning enterprise assets indicated that a huge proportion of clients were involved in small-scale enterprise activities. The mean market value of enterprise assets owned by new respondent's RM5723.70 with a standard deviation of RM3910.80. It was also noted that the mean market value of enterprise asset owned by old respondents, which is RM10541.92 with a standard deviation of RM8859.07, were relatively higher than that of new respondents.

In regard to motor vehicles, 210 out of 281 rural clients or 74.7% of them reported that their households owned motor vehicles. The proportion of new and old respondents households own motor vehicles were 80.78% and 71.4%. The mean market value of motor vehicles owned by new respondents was RM7347.50 which was lower than RM8366.15, the mean market value of motor vehicles owned by old respondents. It was noted that the deviation in the distribution of approximate market value of motor vehicles owned by respondents households were very high. The mean market value of orchard owned by 27 new respondents' households was RM3122.22 with a standard deviation of RM2482.60.

In regards to savings, the mean amount saved by new respondents was RM446.36 with a standard deviation of RM171.93. The mean amount of savings by old respondents households were RM758.62 with a standard deviation of RM989.52. as of unpaid loan, as shown in Table 2, 209 out of 281 respondents or 74.4% of them reported to have unpaid loan. The mean amount of unpaid loan among new respondents was RM3053.68 with a standard deviation of RM3335.73. The mean amount of unpaid loan for old respondents was RM5986.36 with a standard deviation of RM7604.60.

4.1 Testing Research Hypothesis

The market value of microenterprise assets owned by respondents was calculated by adding the current market value of livestock assets, agricultural and/or production equipments, agricultural stock/raw materials, enterprise assets, vehicles and orchard owned by respondent's households, savings and unpaid loan is subtracted from the total. The mean and standard deviation of the market value of microenterprise assets owned by respondents presented in Table 3. It is important to note that the mean market value of microenterprise assets owned by old respondents' households was higher than that of new respondents. The p -value of Shapiro-Wilk test of normality was 0.000, which was less than chosen 5% level of significance, indicating that the normality assumption was violated. A non-parametric Mann-Whitney test was therefore conducted. The p -value for Mann-Whitney test was 0.000, which is less than the chosen 5% level of significance, indicating that the mean market value of microenterprise assets owned by old respondents were significantly higher compared to new respondents. Result showed that participation in AIM's microcredit program led to an increase in microenterprise assets owned by client's households in rural Peninsular Malaysia.

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

The primary objective of AIM's microcredit projects is to improve the income generating activities through providing access to financial services and training. Findings of this study indicates that respondents participating significantly higher number of month as client are receiving significantly higher amount of credit, current market value of the assets - livestock's, agricultural/production equipments, agricultural stock/raw materials, enterprise assets and motor vehicles owned by them (old clients) were relatively higher than that of new respondents. A relatively higher proportion of old respondents also reported to use credit in trade or retail activities than that of new respondents. Study also revealed that the mean market value of microenterprise assets owned by old respondents is significantly higher than that of new respondents. This indicates the positive effect of AIM's microcredit program on microenterprise assets in rural Peninsular Malaysia. In order to foster the development, AIM should, therefore, review the current policy and microcredit methodology and offer more diversified products and services. Clients need for consumption credit or a safety net program is vital for promoting microenterprise development. The credit services can be diversified by expanding group loan size, provide working capital loan, fixed asset loan, seasonal agricultural loan, car loan, consumer loan, emergency loan and parallel loan.

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Table 1. Participation and Uses of Loan

		New Clients (≤ 60 Months)	Old Clients (> 60 Months)	Total Clients
N		99	182	281
<i>Number of Months as Client</i>	Mean	26.45	122.54	88.69
	SD	19.02	46.68	60.41
	Shapiro-Wilk Test of Normality, p -value = 0.000			
	Mann-Whitney Test, p -value = 0.000 < 0.05			
<i>Total amount of Credit Received</i>	Mean	8347.47	24642.30	18901.42
	SD	8916.05	28531.77	24796.40
	Shapiro-Wilk Test of Normality, p -value = 0.000			
	Mann-Whitney Test, p -value = 0.000 < 0.005			
<i>Respondents Used Entire Amount of Loan in Economic Activities</i>				
Yes	N	68	35	103
	%	68.7%	19.2%	36.7%
No	N	31	147	178
	%	31.3%	80.8%	63.3%
Total	N	99	182	281
	%	100%	100%	100%
Pearson's Chi-Square Test, p -value =				
<i>Proportion of Loan invested in Economic Activities</i>	Mean	88.94%	75.49%	80.23%
	SD	19.07%	15.72%	18.12%
<i>Types of Economic Activities respondents used the loan</i>				
Manufacturing Activities	N	3	10	13
	%	3.0%	5.5%	4.6%
Trade or Retail Activities	N	39	84	123
	%	39.4%	46.2%	43.8%
Service Activities	N	16	25	41
	%	16.2%	13.7%	14.6%
Agriculture / Fishing Activities	N	37	55	92
	%	37.4%	30.2%	32.7%
Other Activities	N	4	8	12
	%	4.0%	4.4%	3.9%
Pearson's Chi-Square Test, p -value = 0.614 > 0.05				

Table 2. Microenterprise Assets, Savings and Unpaid loan

		New Clients (≤60 Months)	Old Clients (>60 Months)	Total Clients
N		99	182	281
<i>Current Market Value of Livestock's</i>	N	7	22	29
	%	7.1	12.1	10.3
	Mean	3965.14	7122.18	6360.13
	SD	2926.00	7271.40	6586.33
<i>Current Market Value of Agricultural / Production Equipments</i>	N	9	15	24
	%	9.1	8.2	8.5
	Mean	666.66	2350.00	1718.75
	SD	324.03	5049.18	4030.85
<i>Current Market Value of Agricultural Stock / Raw Materials</i>	N	33	43	76
	%	33.3	23.6	27.0
	Mean	3061.81	7960.27	5833.31
	SD	3060.81	7684.21	6560.26
<i>Current Market Value of Enterprise Assets</i>	N	50	123	163
	%	50.5	62.1	58.0
	Mean	5724.70	10541.92	9064.24
	SD	3910.80	8859.07	7990.70
<i>Current Market Value of Vehicles</i>	N	80	130	210
	%	80.8	71.4	74.7
	Mean	7347.50	8366.15	7978.09
	SD	5632.90	8086.90	7252.90
<i>Current Market Value of Orchard</i>	N	13	14	27
	%	13.1	7.7	9.6
	Mean	3192.30	3057.14	3122.22
	SD	2556.51	2506.82	2482.60
<i>Total Savings in Group Fund</i>	Mean	446.36	758.62	681.17
	SD	171.93	989.52	988.29
<i>Unpaid Loan Received from AIM</i>	N	73	136	209
	%	73.7	74.7	74.4
	Mean	3059.68	5986.36	4964.12
	SD	3335.73	7604.60	6583.44

Table 3. Mean Difference in Microenterprise Assets

	New Clients (≤60 Months)	Old Clients (>60 Months)	Total Clients
N	96	172	268
Mean	10947.19	16603.87	14577.60
Standard Deviation	6945.95	11171.76	10221.71
Shapiro-Wilk Test of Normality, p -value = 0.000 < 0.05			
<i>Mann-Whitney Test</i>			
Mean Rank	108.52	149.00	
Z - value	-4.100		
p-value	0.000 < 0.05		

Brief Analysis of Establishment of Effective English Classroom Teaching Model

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Abstract

Classroom teaching is the major battle field for implementation of quality oriented education and the primary means of teaching is classroom teaching. Thus, it is a target that is constantly craved by the vast majority of education practitioners to study reform of classroom teaching, attempt to improve quality of classroom teaching, make limited classroom teaching hours give out unlimited vigor of life and enable students to really become the subject of learning. This article discusses effectiveness of improving English classroom teaching by analyzing the phenomenon and causes of low efficiency of classroom teaching, exploring practice of effective classroom teaching and improving efficiency of classroom teaching.

Keywords: Improvement, Effective classroom, Operation strategies

Effectiveness of classroom teaching is the lifeblood of teaching. What students learn, what improvements they have made and what development they have obtained are the issues that need to be taken into consideration in reform of English curriculum. Achievement of effective classroom teaching can not go without effective teaching strategies. As one of the subjects that have strong practicality, English has its peculiarity in the teaching strategies. In the process of teaching, teachers should employ scientific methods and strategies, effectively realize the teaching target, stimulate students' learning interests and enhance students' English level and capacity.

1. Problems existing in English classroom teaching at present and the causes for these problems

For the time being, reform of new curriculum is being propelled deeply and reform of classroom teaching has acquired substantial progress. However, as a result of inappropriate understanding and comprehending of the idea of new curriculum by the teachers and lack of necessary experiences and capacity among the implementers, the problems of formalization and low efficiency in reform of classroom teaching are becoming more and more obvious. And a large majority of students are still marking the time in their accumulation of knowledge and improvement of skills. As a result, what more input gets in return is less teaching effect. The problem of low efficiency in English classroom teaching has not yet been resolved and the problems of ambiguous teaching target and inappropriate teaching design still exist to a different extent. There are also some other problems, such as, ineffectiveness and low efficiency in cooperative learning, abuse of courseware and ignorance of practical efficiency, loose and low efficiency of classroom organizational rhythm. Classroom teaching is short of due living significance and life value and creativity of students is restrained. The reasons for all the above phenomena can be summarized as follows.

In the first place, the idea of teaching is outdated and the teaching target is ambiguous. The teaching idea guides and directs the teaching behavior. At present, some teachers fail to persist in the brand-new human oriented education idea that is required by the new curriculum aimed for all students and aimed at development of students. Instead, these teachers violate the subject idea that puts emphasis on communication, significance and application of language teaching. Since teachers have no appropriate understanding in the situation of students, they ignore that the teaching target should be specific and explicit, ignore the requirement of outcome goal, and merely lay special emphasis on language knowledge, ignoring the situational dialogue and cultivation of oral communication and the capacity of reading and comprehension. In the classroom, such phenomena may occur as perversion of difficulty and easy points, too much embedding, too difficulty points or too easy points.

In the second place, design of teaching is not appropriate and teaching activities are blind. In terms of design of classroom teaching, although teachers attach importance to designing the target of language competence, the technique of target design is relatively laggard and defining of the target content is disorderly and ambiguous. Too much emphasis is put on grammar and vocabulary, choice of words and special cases of grammar. In classroom teaching activities, some teachers only rest content with a variety of group activities or competition activities with the purpose of publicity stunt. Group cooperation activities help to improve students' participation in language practice. However, not all teaching activities can be finished through group activities and usually group activities are not designed for perfect individual activities, such as, reading text and writing of short essay, etc. In the meantime, race to be the first to answer a question in a competition is also conducted in a chaotic situation.

In the third place, classroom organization management is low in efficiency and questioning of teachers is not appropriate. In terms of classroom organization, the phenomenon of misplacement of roles of teachers and students still exists and group activities are nothing more than something to create a lively atmosphere, remaining at formal hasty interaction and blind designing of group activities. For example, group activities are also designed for silent reading of text, which lacks rational operation methods. In terms of classroom questioning, some teachers do not take into consideration of reality of students and do not question with much concern. Their questioning lacks necessary foreshadowing and their means of questioning is too simple and repeated, which causes feedback of students seem somewhat redundant, just as in the case where several students answer one question at the same time. The questioning is not deep-going and what teachers finish is only a presupposed questioning, but they ignore the fact they can explore more information to question, which may give rise to lose of the opportunity of innovation among students.

2. Establishment of effective English classroom teaching model

2.1 Design model of effective English classroom teaching model

In the process of English teaching, the effective teaching model of the four aspects of "automatic learning, automatic development and vivid classroom" is implemented, namely, project setting --- project completion --- project presentation --- project evaluation and stimulation.

The basic train of thought for design of this model is project setting --- project completion --- exchange and presentation --- evaluation and stimulation. This model uses the method of systematic analysis to analyze the "learning content" and "situation of students" and process appropriately the content. On that basis, teachers together discuss and decide whether the content of each class is defined as one or more projects, and then students finish the project and/or projects by individuals or in the form of group cooperation before the class starts or in the class. In the class, each group exchanges and presents the achievement and/or achievements of the project and/or projects and teachers give timely evaluation and stimulation on presentation of individuals or groups. This sort of classroom differs from the pattern of single knowledge impartation in the traditional classroom teaching of teachers lecturing and students listening and teachers speaking and students taking notes. In this sort of classroom teaching, students are required to participate within enthusiasm to reflect the initiative of students. Teachers should not only be concerned with what students are learning, but also concerned with how students can learn actively with joy and cultivating the innovative and explorative spirit of students.

2.2 The basic framework of effective teaching model of the four aspects of "automatic learning, automatic development and vivid classroom"

2.2.1 Project setting (teacher behavior)

"Project setting" refers to projectization of English text knowledge and constructs a "bridge" for transferring knowledge into capacity. In the process of completing a specific project task, the former knowledge and experience are applied and new knowledge is learnt in the process of detecting problems, analyzing problems and resolving problems. The basic requirement of project setting contains three aspects. Firstly, setting of a project has to be formed by collective preparation of instruction by a teaching and research group. Secondly, setting of a project has to be based on the precondition of fully studying the new "Curriculum Standard" and situation of students, with the core of knowledge focus in the subject and with the purpose of overall development of students' body and mind. Thirdly, the project setting should strive to be concise and enlightening, moderate in difficulty of content and stimulating students' interests.

2.2.2 Project completion (students behavior as the major part, assisted by teacher behavior)

"Project completion" mainly means that students complete a project by individuals or in the form of a group cooperation, in which students go into deep learning, training and evaluation in connection with the problems

that have been discovered in “project setting”, so as to resolve effectively the profound problems in the text course. “Project completion” is usually completed by teachers and students together. (1) This procedure requires teachers to convert their role. The role of teachers is converted from the traditional dominant player of teaching to the facilitator and assistor of teaching activities. In the process of teaching, teachers appear among students with the roles of a consultant, partner, friend and so on. The teaching method is transferred from an emphasis on “method of teaching” to an emphasis on “method of learning”. Thus, in order to complete a teaching task, teachers have to make great efforts and energy. (2) This procedure requires students to participate actively. In the first place, students are required to have the consciousness of active participation. Students may encounter with a lot of problems in the process of learning, some of which can be resolved by reading the teaching material or a reference book, some of which can be resolved by mutual communication and discussion among students and some of which can only be resolved by direction and guidance of teachers. In the second place, students are required to have the capacity of discovering a problem, resolving a problem and comprehensive application of capacity. The learning process of students is finished by completing a specific project task. This specific task embeds teaching content into the task and makes the process of students completing the task not only one to learn the content of the text, but also one to apply the teaching content in an overall way. In that way, learning of knowledge and application of knowledge are combined together in an organic way. Secondly, students are required to focus on consciousness of grasping a method and innovative consciousness. The teaching method of project setting helps to cultivate the innovative consciousness and practical competence of students. In the process of project setting, teachers do not set any limitation to the method of completing a project or the form or content of the works finished, but only provide the materials that are required for completing a project. This leaves sufficient space for students to give full play to their imagination and free writing.

2.2.3 Exchange and presentation (mainly students behavior)

Exchange and presentation is to learn the thinking process and resolving method of a problem. Teachers are supposed to be good at organizing an interactive communication and encourage students to have positive thinking and let them share the achievements of learning through exchange and presentation. (1) Exchange and presentation has some requirements on students. In the class, students are required to write on the blackboard, make a presentation, exchange their ideas and give a speech, propose a question and interact with each other (with no limitation of the pattern and subordinate to the real need of teaching). First of all, the students who make a presentation are required to be loud and clear, with clear enunciation and teachers should listen to students and pay attention to their response. They are not supposed to frequently interrupt students’ speech. Instead, they ought to pay attention to listening and summarizing. (2) Exchange and presentation has some requirements on teachers. Teachers should observe the answers to the questions of students’ discussion and writing on the blackboard in the process of exchange and presentation, listen to the speech of students, further control the situation of students and consider adjusting the problems of interaction and the major points of lecturing and directing, etc. When teachers make evaluation on exchange and presentation of students, they ought to pursue the stage of “Not everybody is required to succeed, but everybody is required to make a progress.” The purpose of that is to encourage students to take part in the exchange and presentation with enthusiasm and initiative, to build up a democratic atmosphere, advocate innovation of students and put all efforts to continuous progress and development of students.

2.2.4 Evaluation and stimulation (mainly teacher behavior)

“Evaluation and stimulation” is to give reflective and diversified evaluation on the learning effect and process of students in the process of learning so as to achieve the purpose of consolidating and strengthening knowledge and skills, perceiving knowledge and improving the significance of knowledge. Evaluation and stimulation can be fulfilled through the following four aspects. (1) In the first place, teachers centralize the problems that are collected in students’ self-learning and presentation or give immediate direction or evaluation, for which the mode of interaction between teachers and students can be employed and teachers can also finish this alone. The process of direction can also be centralized in terms of the time and can also be conducted in the process of students’ self-learning and presentation. In terms of content, in addition to encouraging and developmental evaluation, there should also be some direction and improvement of knowledge so as to enable students to obtain much in terms of knowledge and competence, etc. (2) Teachers may give students enough time to guide them in summary of a class and make students further clear about the major content of learning in the class. They can sort out the knowledge that has been learnt in the class to form a network pattern and give a test of classroom target-hitting in connection with the teaching target of the class and the topic designed. The topic of the test should focus on the important point, difficult points and points that are likely to make mistakes in the knowledge that has been learnt in the class, with moderate difficulty of content and appropriate amount of questions. (3)

Teachers may propose a question or resort to other means to examine whether students are able to grasp the basic knowledge that is required to grasp in the class and present the network relation of the knowledge they have learnt. They should give feedback on the results in the class and make evaluation on performance of students in the class. When necessary, teachers can assign appropriate amount of homework to further consolidate the knowledge they have learnt. (4) In the aspect of testing, teachers should give a flexible test to test students' efficiency. Content of test can be either exercises that are intensively compiled or oral communication between teachers and students and between students and students, or extension and expansion of more profound knowledge and competence application of students. Teachers can resort to flexible and variable class testing to consolidate students' knowledge and further direct students to internalize and expand the knowledge they have learnt so as to achieve the effect of learning to meet practical needs.

2.3 Strengthening teachers' reflection on classroom teaching

1) Teachers in an effective classroom teaching must be reflective ones. Survey and analysis of behaviors in the process of teaching and the results generated thereby may enable teachers to continuously update their teaching concepts, improve their teaching behavior and enhance their teaching level. Reflection on teaching can be further divided into reflection prior to behavior, reflection in behavior and reflection after behavior in the process of teaching. Reflection can be realized by deciding whether project setting suits with the reality, whether implementation of project corresponds with the new teaching idea, whether project completion has resolved actual problems and whether classroom effect has achieved the anticipated target, etc.

2) Teachers are supposed to continuously reflect on their daily teaching behaviors. From preparation of teaching and classroom teaching, teachers can propose a series of questions with a rhetoric question. They can continuously ask "What kind of teaching is effective?", "Is my teaching effective?", "Is there any teaching that is more effective than my teaching?", "Do I always take an attitude of respect and encouragement towards my students?", "Do I feel that students have interest in learning content I choose?", "Which methods and means I often adopt to stimulate students' enthusiasm and interest and to encourage them to take an initiative in participating learning activities?", "Does my teaching design correspond with the understanding level and knowledge rules of my students?", "Is my teaching method enlightening and directive?", and "Is the space of thinking and training of competence I offer to my students enough?", etc. In this way, teachers can grow up continuously, obtain experiences in the practice of teaching and then apply these experiences in teaching and gain perfect teaching effect. These questions are not only reminding students, but also stimulating them, and meanwhile, leading teachers to continue to discover new problems in reflection and seek for approaches to resolve these problems.

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Politics of Power Acquisition and Decision-Making Implementations by Manipulation: The Paradigm of Nigeria Leadership

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Abstract

This paper examines how the modern politics of power acquisition and decision-making implementations has become the paradigm of the Nigerian leadership. It has also become a pivotal paradigm in helping as instrumental for violence in the said society. Imperatively, war can be possible through decision making implemented wrongly, either by a local government, State, federal government or even by an individual. Also, Scholars of conflict had enormously argued that conflict can occur as a result of various reasons such as, geographical proximity, group identity, deliberate manipulation of negative perceptions by Political power leaders, competition of resources, weakness of political institution transitions to democracy to mention but a few. However, the main focus of this paper is the implementation of Shari'a law in Nigeria and how the decision and the implementations has led to bloody war in the north. The implications had been overwhelmingly diverstating in the country. Uncountable lives have been lost via mayhem bloody wars, homes, properties and enumerable destruction of things and displacement. The economic implication of ethnic conflict has resulted in unequal distribution of resources among individual, groups and regions within the country. Therefore, political power-holders' decision-making is one source that could lead to ethnic conflict in a multi-cultural and ethnic country like Nigeria. Decision-making approach was used to examine the scene of conflict by focusing only on the religious conflict in the North. In Nigeria, religious conflict also involving ethnic conflict caused Muslims and Christians represented by different ethnic groups and regions.

Keywords: Power, Politics, Decision-making, Ethnic conflict, Religious conflict, Government, Shari'a law

1. Introduction

Nigeria is one of the most ethnically complex countries in the world with more than 200 ethnic groups with population, more than 150 million. The country is potentially one of the Africa's richest states however, ethnic problem together with years of military rule and rampant corruption have kept the majority of Nigerians impoverished. Ethnic problems in Nigeria are closely linked with other divisions in the country. The three main ethnic groups are the Hausa-Fulani (21 percent), the Ibo (18 percent) and the Yoruba (11 percent). These ethnic groups dominate different parts of the country, creating both regional and ethnic divides. The Hausa and the Fulani are north-ward, the Yoruba are concentrated in the west, and the Ibo live in the east. Each ethnic group has its own dominant language and culture but the most complicating ethnicity in Nigeria is religion. The northern part of the country is dominated by Muslims while the southern and eastern regions are populated mainly by Christians. Besides, economics has been at the heart of the nation's ethnic struggles. The country's petroleum wealth is located in the Ibo region in the southeast. Political and military divided also bring this country in ethnic conflict. Northerner primarily the Hausas, have ruled the country for most of its history. They have controlled the military regimes and the leadership seats of the nation. The Yoruba blame the northerners for the country's political and economic problem and have led the pro-democracy movement against military rule. The discovery of petroleum in the Ibo region heightened competition among the regions. The Ibo believed that the independence of their region would protect their interest. In 1966, the Ibo region declared its independence for the state of Biafra. After three years of warfare, more than a million people died. The brutality of the Biafra war and the domination of the country's resources and politics by military regimes from the north continue to

influence ethnic relations in Nigeria (Payne & Nassar 258-259). In July 1998, the military leader released a plan to return power to civilian rule after three decades since independence in 1960 and to move the nation on a path of political and economic reform. On 29 May, 1998 was set as the date for swearing in a new civilian president (Payne & Nassar 1998:221). However, in 2000, ethnic violence erupted as a result of the imposed of shari'a or Islamic law on Christians living in the northern part of the country. Between 2000 and 2007, more than 54,000 people were killed in conflict between Muslims and Christians.

The main focus of this paper is the implementation of Shari'a law in Nigeria and how the decision making implementation via power manipulation has led to bloody conflicts in the country. In general, a reasonable number of bloody events which had occur in Nigeria are also due to the process of decision making implementation and power manipulation by those legitimate power holders that cannot meet the requirements of the respective ethnic group. Therefore, decision-making implementation and power manipulation are one of the vital attributes that can lead to conflict in any multi-racial country such as Nigeria. Two recommended approaches are used to further examine the scene of conflict by focusing only on the northern region conflict between Muslims and the non-Muslims counterpart in the country, Nigeria. These approaches are further emphasized below in sub-title number four.

2. A Leader and Leadership

Becoming a leader in a multi-ethnic society like in the case of Nigeria, and yet remain committed to democratic principles or a norm is a difficult task. It is because amalgamating diverse ethnic groups with their respective cultural ties, into one political system, that could mean housing together the basic problem of ethnic conflict as well.

In the light of the above statement, it has created uneasy situation in governing the said society. In explaining this, Dike argued that *"given the presence of politically assertive ethnic groups, the stability and survival of the present democratic politics depends on how the leader controls the potential ethnic disputes that would result"* (Dike, 2008), and it takes a committed leader in his leadership to accomplish a propitious change in a society where the masses have been pre-occupied with the struggle for daily survival. Since the independence in 1960, Nigeria has mostly been under the claws of the military rule. The dominance, predominance, and prolongation of military rule in Nigeria combined with corruption to undermine due process, the rule of law, transparency, accountability, and efficiency in government (Dike, 2008). Before further emphasize, this work will consider what a leader is. A 'leader' is as diverse as the myriad of books and articles written on the construct. Every one writer has defined leadership from their different views. No matter the angle from which the definition of leadership is viewed, a leader is one who exerts unusual influence and considerable power, (Dike 2008). McFarland had argued that a leader is one who makes things happen that would not happen otherwise. He further said, If the leader brings a changes that he intended, he has exercised power, but if the leader causes changes that he did not intend or want, he has exercised influence, but not power" (MacFarland, 1969 pp.167-178; Kofele-Kale, 1976 p.81).

Sidney Hook shares a similar view as McFarland. In his work, "The Hero in History", Hook depicted a heroic leader as one who makes things happen that ordinarily would not have happened. "The hero in history," he said "is the individual to whom we can justifiably attribute preponderant influence in determining an issue or event whose consequences would have been profoundly different if he had not acted as he did." The hero is "an event-making individual who re-determines the course of history" (Hook, 1943, p.229). Indeed, leadership scholars have as well shared similar views such like that of Hook and McFarland, they argued that the characteristics of leadership are influence and power. Accordingly, a person who is endowed with these qualities in the context of a group, community or nation has the personality of a leader (Kofele-Kale, 1976, p.8). Henry Kissinger (US Secretary of State in Nixon Administration) pointed out in one of his famous speeches that a leader has the power to invoke the 'alchemy of great vision.' This, in other words, means that a leader should possess the power or influence of transforming something common into something precious (Dike, 2008).

John Gardner has pointed out that the task of leaders is to help societies "understand the problems that all must face, to aid in the setting of goals and priorities, to work with others in finding paths to those goals chosen, maintaining public morale, and motivation and nurturing a workable level of public unity" (Gardner, 1978, pp.132-135). Leaders must activate existing institutions in pursuit of the society's goals or, when necessary, help redesign institutions to achieve that result. Leaders must also help people know how they can be at their best "...with malice toward none, with charity for all..." In a free society leaders perform these functions within a framework of constraints. This includes an uncorrupted electoral process, the rule of law, institutional checks and balances and a free press (Ibid., 1978, pp.132-135). Frankly, the checks on power must be in working

condition, or the laws of the land would be circumvented. In this essay a "leader" refers to persons who occupy important positions in the formal polity such as Presidents, Prime Ministers, Ministers, Governors, Legislators, Party Officials, Local Government Chairmen, Council Members and of course, the local Chiefs.

2.1 Types of Leaders

There are many leadership types and each has peculiar attributes, this article discusses only two types of political leadership found in contemporary African societies namely, Instrumental leadership and societal. The "Instrumental" leader uses power and influence primarily in the pursuit of private (personal, close family, cohorts) goals. Community objectives are secondary to an instrumental leader. The main concern of the instrumental leader is how he can use his office to achieve personal objectives. He may not be lacking in social or community commitments, but in practice more considerations are given to self over the interests of the society which he governs (Eulau, 1963, p.96). The "Societal" leader is a public servant first and only secondarily a private person. While the instrumental leader uses his position to promote private and selfish goals, the societal leader subordinates private narrow goals for broader community objectives. To him, power and influence are important only if they can be used to solve human problems. While the societal leader is likely to resign when he is convinced he cannot influence changes to the benefit of the public, the instrumental leader would hold on to power as long as his private objectives are achieved. He does not care whether the community derives any benefit from his rule, or not (Kofele-Koale, 1976, p.82). Having analyzed above the problem of Nigeria's past leaders, it is clear that the majority of them were instrumentalists and opportunists. General Abacha for instance, was holding on to power, grabbing and hoarding as much money as he could possibly put his hands on without minding the effect of his behavior and actions on the society. General Babangida and others like him are guilty of the same crime. What factors contribute to the upsurge of instrumental leadership in Africa, and indeed, Nigeria? Time will fail in exploring into the attributes of sustained instrumental leadership and the problems thereby, take for instance, in the case of the said Nigeria, though this work must not deny saying that Leaders make things happen; they are wave makers. A society without talented and committed leaders will retrogress or at best remain stagnant. That has been the problem with Nigeria. A careful examination of the attitude and behavior of the leaders of post-colonial Nigeria shows that many of the civilian, as well as military leaders were mired in the pursuit of selfish personal goals at the expense of broader national interest or needs. In other words, they were 'instrumental' leaders, or what David Apter called "consummatory" leaders (Apter, 1960).

Chinua Achebe in his book, "The Trouble with Nigeria" commented that *"the trouble with Nigeria is simply and squarely a failure of leadership." He pointed out that "there is nothing basically wrong with the Nigerian character, there is nothing wrong with the Nigerian land or climate or water or air or anything else, but leadership"* (Achebe, 1983, p.1). The lack of selfless, non-corrupt and committed leaders has contributed greatly to the sociopolitical and economic predicaments facing Nigeria today. Corruption and lack of committed leadership could be traced back to the First Republic (1960-1966). It has been noted that ethnic acrimony and corruption among the founding fathers of the nation prompted the first military coup on January 15, 1966. Clearly, not everybody has the leadership acumen to lead an organization, not to mention ruling a country. And clearly no society should expect to have an endless succession of great and extraordinary leaders like Roosevelt of the United States, Churchill of Britain, or De-Gaulle of France. At the same time, "no society can function well with fools, rascals, or non-leaders in leadership positions" (Gardner, 1978 p.133).

3. Review of Past Research Related to Ethnic Conflict

There have been many writings by various scholars who viewed ethnicity as a cause of many conflicts in Nigeria. Handelman (2000) stated that inter-tribal conflict has a number of occasions, sparked great violence in Africa. Countries such as Nigeria, Ethiopia, Rwanda, Burundi, Uganda, Sudan and Zaire have been torn apart by civil wars that have been largely of particularly ethnic based. Ethnic divisions are more important to understanding Nigerian society than social or labor divisions because Nigerians differentiate themselves less by class or occupation than by ethnic group. This phenomenon (variously labeled ethnicity, ethno nationalism or tribalism) involves adherence or loyalty to a particular region or tribe, a sense of exclusivity and discrimination against people from other regions or tribes. The source of ethnic conflict, whether it is between major groups, or between larger groups and smaller minority groups, is not found in bigotry and prejudice the real heart of ethnic conflict in Nigeria is that hostility derived not from ethnic differences but from competition between different peoples for wealth and power. Politicians from each group seek to obtain greater political power and economic benefits for their own people rather than seeking the good of united Nigeria. In this context, the most important to Nigerian development is the linkage between ethnic groups and political parties. Ethnic based interest groups and parties impeded political development and national unity by engendering mutual mistrust, but, on the other hand, the

affiliation of ethnic groups with political parties tended to transfer ethnic conflict into nonviolent arena of political interaction.

Regarding to the statement above, why other multi-ethnic countries and divided societies can't manage their conflict? The countries like Belgium, the Netherlands, Austria, Switzerland, Lebanon and Malaysia. Nordlinger (1972) claims that these six divided societies were free of conflict for long periods of time because elite leaders of protagonist groups were both dominant and politically skillful. By politically skillful, he means that they successfully implemented one or more of six conflict regulating practices: (i). a stable coalition between governing parties; (ii). The principle of proportionality; (iii). Acceptance of a mutual veto; (iv). Purposive depoliticization; (v). Mutual adjustment of conflicting values and interests through compromise and (vi). Concessions by the stronger group. When conflict regulation succeeds, "at least one of the six practices is invariably present (Nordlinger 1972: 20).

From the scholars' reviewed statements, they explained how ethnicity can cause a conflict, but this work explored the case of ethnic conflict in a different perspective, especially that of the Nigeria. Some scholars agreed that conflict is as a result of ethnicity, but they failed to realize that conflict is the result of a decision-made, which the implementation of it by power manipulation results in commotion or violence action and this singleness may draw in more or less people into participation. This paper tried to picture the ever lengthening ethnic conflicts in the country with the familiar but misappropriated and misused two English words, "Fact" and "Truth". These two words seem to mean one thing, but in actuality, their meanings are not the same at all even though the words might seem dependent to the other in a way. The "Fact" about ethnicity stirring conflict, might not be the "Truth" about the same conflict that seems to have been stirred by ethnicity. "Facts can mean and be looked upon as "colour" or "Paint" or even as a way to "justify" a matter, which obviously, might not be the root of a particular problem. In this case, there is no doubt that a colour-blinded short-sighted eyes can nicknamed every ethnic conflict to have been the product caused by ethnicity. The word "Fact" is the immediate or present condition of a particular thing, place, person, state, etc., at the moment of time it was seen. Whereas the "Truth" is the original state of things, etc. People who are confused and misappropriate the two words no doubt can accept that conflicts are product of ethnicity. It could be a colour, masque, painting or even justification in disguises! On this paper, the presenter critically dogged into why Nigeria cannot manage their conflict as compared to Belgium, the Netherlands, Austria, Switzerland, Lebanon and Malaysia. And some of these peaceful countries were also colonized by British, like in the case of Nigeria.

In holistic view, the presenter agrees that various ethnics in Nigeria cannot cause the conflicts recorded in Nigerian history rather, there must be an unidentified and hidden root (selfishness and self-interest) which seem to be in operative system that keeps bearing fruits, generating and intensifying fire of ethnic conflicts in Nigeria. The method is so predictable and so certain that one would think that the people would have learned the lesson and applied the correction, but, no! Even the proceeding new Nigerian leaders and rulers fail to see that the colonial masters may have handed over to them, but the colonial construct-program is still in place, left to continue running and to achieve its goal without failing, regardless of new operators, so called indigenous leaders. The ex-colonial masters (British) do not seem to mind, because the program works in their favor, just as designed. Meanwhile, the peoples of Nigeria keep suffering. British giving power and office of leadership to the northern traditional rulers were purposeful or intentional. To them, after taking time to study the people of Nigeria, they could fish out the elements that could dance in accordance to their lay down rules and of colonial patterns, to achieve their goals in the country. The traditional rulers continued to control the areas they did before the arrival of the British. The British had some power over them and could influence them to implement certain policies. However the northern part of Nigeria essentially remained traditional. The rest of the country came under British control direct rule. The traditional institutions were challenged by Westernization. The different approaches used by British reinforced the regional differences in the country (Payne & Nassar 2008:259).

The concept of politics is diverse. Aristotle and Plato defined politics as a concern with general issues affecting the whole community. This involves the pursuit of the public interest, the operation of the state, and the formulation and execution of public policy. Contrasting public concern with private matters, they viewed the public concern as morally superior. Thus, political leaders have the responsibility to conform to constructive ideas and actions with "perfect goodness" (Andrain 1975, pp.12-20). In addition, It is the art or science concerned with winning and holding control over a government. It involves competition between various interest groups (parties) or individuals for power and leadership in a government or other group. The winning party guides, influences policies and the distribution of resources in that polity (Dike, 1999). In other words, politics does involve the struggle for power and wealth, that is, the production, distribution, and use of scarce resources. Historically, some leaders have sought the common good and others a private good. But without the 'politics of

virtue' (that is, doing what is right), a leader may not bring about the necessary changes that would benefit the general public. How does one differentiate actions that are common from those that are for private? The effects of a particular policy decision and the implementations are the determining factors.

The process of making and implementing decisions involves cooperation and competition, both of which may lead to social change. As many writers have noted, many factors are involved in social change; no single factor can adequately account for it (Lauer 1982, p. 37). And as a society, our needs can be fulfilled only through the cooperative efforts of everyone. Change or social change is defined as "significant alteration of social structures." And social structures here mean the "patterns of social action and interaction," which include norms, values, and cultural phenomena (Moore 1967, p.3). Others have defined change as "variations or modifications in any aspect of social process, pattern, or form;" it is also "any modification in established patterns of inter-human relationships and standards of conducts" (Fairchild, ed. 1955, p.277, as cited in Lauer 1982, p.4). Lack of political ideology is a serious problem in Nigerian politics. Strangely, some politicians are known to have discounted the importance of ideology in politics. And since some of them are not committed to politics or democracy ideologically, they tend to waffle on issues. Consequently, nobody is held responsible for any policy failure in the society. For our politicians to behave, we should devise means to hold them responsible for their actions or in-actions.

4. Decision Making Approach and Power Manipulation in explaining the Northern Region Conflict

In the light of the primary discussion of decision making approach and Power manipulation theory below, this paper brings the conflict and political process approach introduced by Conn (1971) to be useful to explaining the relationship between conflict and decision-making process. This approach is further modified to be consistent with this presentation questions about how far decision-making implementations has caused ethnic conflict in Nigeria. The two approaches guiding this research article are the primary discussion of the decision-making approach which argues that all human activities are founded on decisions. In other words, behind or underlying every human endeavor is a decision or some decisions taken by concrete person or persons. Thus, understanding human activities would generally demand the determination of underlying decision or decisions that triggered off the activity or activities. Indeed, both decision making approach and manipulation theory emphasizes mainly on the concept of personality with the concrete person or persons who takes the decision(s) that targeted for a specific result(s) in the form of behaviours. In Nigeria, religious involvements on ethnic conflict caused by Muslims and Christians counterpart represented by different ethnic groups and regions, the growing economic disparities may increase the fear of those ethnic groups that are disadvantaged. This has warranted that the ignorant masses are often being remote and mobilized by the political class to engage in conflict crisis, in the name of religion in order to achieve their selfish political interests. In the same vein, similar ethnic political based movements have arisen in Nigeria. Therefore, decision making approach applied via manipulation either by individual, local government, state or national and legitimate political power holders can constitutes the basic unit in the analysis of human actions. Conn stated that political decision-making has been the product of autocratic rules. According to him, there are several types of variables considered by the actors before deciding whether to engage in conflict such as;

- *goals* or survival-will depend upon such simple needs as food, shelter, protection from predators, and protection of the species.
- *Resources*-the resources at the disposal of the individual combatant also influence his behavior and attitude toward engaging in conflict. The attainment of a particular goal may be important to an individual but his choice of arena for the satisfaction of that goal will vary according to his resources.
- *Institutions and structures*-societies and government develop institutions in order to implement and regularize the desired norms of conduct. The nature of the political order is usually characterized the basic charter of constitution of a society. A constitution stipulates the institution comprising the political structure, the procedures of government, and the appropriate channels for the exercise of political power.
- *Norms and mores of conduct*-The norms of conduct exert an official and unofficial power in determining the type of conduct which will be pursued by persons or parties in conflict situations. Combatants are expected to adhere to these norms, and violating them often brings punishment.
- *Strategies*-is the particular set of tactics, moves, or behavior which the actors adopt to achieve his goal. The type of strategy a person pursues may be varied. He may employ a single strategy or multiple strategies. He must consider whether it is an insider strategy (that is one that can be pursued within acceptable framework which the society has set up, or an outsider strategy, one that the society may regard as illegitimate). Conn (1971) discussed a process of conflict resolution within the political arena. The first two are the potential

actors can operate. Conflicts naturally will arise as these individuals or groups, each with their own goals, interact. Many of these conflicts, however, do not become political in nature. They will both be unimportant and tend to fade away from or they will be worked out by the parties to the disputes through the use of non-political channels or was mentioned as *political channels bypass*.

Each actors mention below, has certain goals and demands which may clash with those of other interested parties. At first, his desires may be diffuse and unarticulated, but as he sees that the conflict is important and has political ramifications, he will tend to enumerate his demand as positively and distinctly as possible. It is here, with the *generation of demands* that the first phase of conflict within the political process actually begins, it is here that the participants strive for activation or politicization of their conflict. They will attempt not only to state their demands in politically attractive terms but also to formulate strategies and enter into political coalitions in hopes of winning their case. They will try to put themselves in the most advantageous position possible as they enter into the second phase of the process, political decision-making. In decision-making process, the coalitions and alliances (or individual, where no alliances are formed) present their demands and direct them toward those institutions which are designed to handle such demands. If the coalition is successful, some form of decision will be made. The third phase is *execution and integration of decisions*. This phase can be the end or, in a sense, the beginning. Sometimes the decision will be executed or implemented; the new status quo will be integrated into society, and the conflict will be effectively resolved. On the other hand, attempted execution of a decision may lead to new stumbling blocks and new conflicts will emerge. In this case the entire process will begin again.

Each solution and its resulting action affect the status quo, alter relationships among people, and may itself generate new conflict. Any political decision may become the basis for further activity. Even in decision or failure to take action can change the existing environment. It encourages a mood or feeling about the responsiveness of political institutions and thereby influences the level and nature of future demands. According to Conn, there are four major categories in decision-making process. These are avoidance, tabling, acceptance and rejection. Conflict and political process by Conn (1971) only explains the relationship between conflict and decision-making process as a resolution to resolve the conflict. Conn however did not realize that sometimes the decisions taken by the government can lead to conflicts such as in Nigeria case. In my opinion, decision-making will not only be as a method to solve the conflict, it is also a way that could lead to conflict if the decision taken became contrary to the requirements of the public. I agree with the statement of Heywood (1994) that decision making can be a form of domination or control that could lead to ethnic conflict, while the mechanism that controls this decision-making is completely dominated by those with political power. Dahl (1963) in his book, *who governs?* Described power as a question of who gets their way, how often they get their way, and over what issues they get their way. The attraction of this treatment of power is that, it corresponds to the common-sense belief that power is somehow about getting things done, and is therefore most clearly reflected in decisions and how they are made.

Heywood (1994) stressed that, power is a form of domination or control that forces one person to obey another. And that in political life power is very commonly exercised through the acceptance and willing obedience of the public. Those in power do not merely possess the ability to enforce compliance, but are usually thought to have the rights to do so as well. This highlights the distinction between power and authority. What is it, however, that transforms power into authority, the perception that power is exercised in a manner that is rightful, justified or acceptable. Legitimacy is usually seen as the basis of stable government, being linked to the capacity of a regime to command the allegiance and support of its citizens. All governments seek legitimacy, but on what basis do they gain it, and what happens when their legitimacy is called into question?

Heywood describes that power can be explain in three phases. First it can involve the ability to influence the making of decisions; secondly, it is reflected in the capacity to shape the political agenda and thus prevent decisions being made; and thirdly, it may take the form of controlling people's thoughts by the manipulation of their needs and preferences. Heywood opinion supports the statement of Bachrach and Maratz (1981), who said that power is reflected in the decision making process, i.e. to the extent that a person or group consciously or unconsciously creates or reinforces barriers to the public airing of conflicts, that person or group has power. Bachrach and Maratz also emphasized non decision-making process as the second face of power. This means that decision making approach to power encourages attention to focus upon the active participation of groups in the process; non-decisions highlight the importance of political organization in blocking the participation of certain groups and the expression or particular opinions.

Based on the model presented by Conn (1971) and decision-making approach by the Heywood (1994), Dahl (1963) and Bachrach and Maratz (1981), an operating model has been developed to guide this paper. Figure 1 (below) describes the application of the decision-making process in the examination of ethnic conflicts in Nigeria. It will expose the fact that certain persons take certain decisions that result in the conflicts registered among the ethnic

groups in the country. These groups are the people who have the power to rule, control and manipulate others. Most of the conflicts in Nigeria arise from certain decisions taken by certain persons or groups and through manipulation, tried in enforcing into the masses.

The northerners and non-northerners constitute two different groups and each has certain peculiar interests and goals that shape the character of their members. The appreciation of these fundamental factors will certainly help in furthering this paper in the right direction leading to correct findings and conclusions. In the assessment of ethnic conflicts in Nigeria, the leadership or government of the day should be based on the perspective examined below, perhaps start by identifying those that actually took the vital decisions that sparked out the ethnic conflicts. In most cases, the government has gone against those directly involved in ethnic conflicts while leaving out the persons acting behind the scene, but who are the instigators of the conflicts. Thus, decision-making perspectives highlight the need for a new methodology or approach by the government. The truth here is that, if those acting behind the scene and those who play the major role are apprehended, the problem of ethnic conflicts could be better curtailed than where those who are incited are dealt with. Essentially, decision-making approach raises some critical points. One, who are the instigators of ethnic conflicts in Nigeria, Are they government officials, important private citizens, or traditional rulers? Whose interests do they project or promote? Does the Nigerian context encourage ethnic conflicts? Has the government done enough in stemming the tide of ethnic conflicts in Nigeria?

The legitimates people who had acquired and are in control of power and state apparatus for example, Political party leaders, Police, Army, to mention few can manipulate ordinary people or civilians through their decision for Political survival. Through national resources, for instance, oil revenue, through law, Policy, Constitution. The cause of conflict in Nigeria is not because of ethnicity and religion only, rather, ethnicity and religion is served as a mask to the main core of the Nigeria ethnic conflict problem which is wrong decision making implemented via manipulation from those legitimized and in control of Political Power. Ethnic conflict in Nigeria are the potential work of the state Politicians who are using the media in convening and injecting a negative and false information to the public and at the same vein, using the poor, illiterate, religious fanatics and unemployed youths as an instruments for war and in turn, pays them.

Nigeria is a state where the winner takes all mentality is on climax, zero-sum political games are been practiced in the day light, centralization and personalization of power via manipulation of both the law and the poor masses, unaccountability and transparency, and so on are boldly in the daily life of the leaders.

5. Ethnic Conflict as a Result of the Decision-Making Implementation and Power Manipulation

That Nigeria had not only one but two constitutions also make things worst on ethnic conflict. The Clifford Constitution (1922) created a legislative council; here the north was excluded, with the first-ever African elected members in British Africa. From 1922-1939, British gave not the privileged to the Northern Nigeria in political issues, indeed, it enabled the South to become, for a temporary period, more politically advanced (Nmoma 315).

The Richards Constitution (1946) stated the Nigeria must allow for “unity in diversity” within separate regions and legislatures; this separation of powers served to prevent single ethnic group domination and present territorial politics as the only viable option for political advancement, with each region united by a history of advantages and disadvantages. The constitution provides for freedom of religion, including freedom to change ones religion or belief, and freedom to manifest and propagate ones religion or belief in worship, teaching, practice, and observance; however, the government restricted these rights in certain respects. The implementation of expanded version of Shari’a law in 12 northern states continued during the year. The constitution prohibits state and local governments from adopting an official; however, some Christians alleged that Islam had been adopted as the de facto state religion of several northern states that have reintroduced Shari’a criminal law and continued to use of state resources to fund the construction of mosques, the teaching of Alkalis (Muslim judges), and for Christian pilgrimages to Jerusalem. In general states with a Christians or Muslims majority would make Plateau state center of Christianity. Both the federal and the state governments were involved in religious matters, including the regulation of mandatory religious instruction in the public schools, subsidies construction of churches and mosque, states sponsor participation in the hajj, and pilgrimages to Jerusalem. Muslims in some predominantly Christian states complained about religious discrimination.

Violent religious clashes broke out in the city of Kaduna in northern Nigeria on February 2000 and have continued throughout the week. Kaduna is the second largest city in the north. The clashes followed a march by tens of thousands of Christians to protest the proposal to introduce Muslim shari’a law as the criminal code throughout Kaduna state. Reports speak of rival armed gangs of Christians and Muslims roving the streets. Churches and mosques have been put to the torch. Corpses were seen lying in the streets and people's bodies hanging out of cars and buses, apparently killed while attempting to flee the violence. Local human rights workers said that more than

400 had been killed as a result of the clashes. Since the northern state of Zamfara brought in shari'a law in November 2000, it has become the focus of media attention, with a recent case in which a youth received 100 lashes for having sex before marriage, reports of the banning of women football teams and the establishment of women only taxis. Whilst the introduction of shari'a in Zamfara was peaceful, it has provoked widespread opposition in Kaduna, where unlike most northern states it has roughly equal numbers of Christians and Muslims. Shari'a has become the battle cry of vocal northern political elite, who are using the Muslim religion to advance their own regionalist ambitions belonging mainly to the Hausa ethnic group, they have pushed religion and ethnic issues to the force since President Obasanjo was installed as a civilian president last May 1999. Similar ethnic-based political movements have arisen in the south and west of Nigeria, with groups like the Oodua Peoples Congress calling for self-determination for the Yoruba, and the emergence of Ijaw, Ogoni and other movements in the Delta region. Religious and ethnic conflicts are likely to escalate as two other northern states, Niger and Sokoto have bills to enforce shari'a law that took effect in May 2000. The northern states of Kano and Yobe are expected to follow suite, Sources (Online):

<http://www.wsws.org/articles/2000/feb2000/nige-f28.shtml>

The constitution states that a Shari'a court of appeal may exercise such other jurisdiction as it may be conferred upon it by the law of the state. States interpreted this language as granting them right to expand the jurisdiction of their existing Shari'a court to include criminal matters after the adoption of Shari'a in Zamfara. Other states implemented forms of Zamfara such as Sokoto, Kebbi, Niger, Kano, Katsina, Jigawa, Yobe, Bauchi, Brono, and Gombe (See Map 1). Adherence to Shari'a provisions was compulsory for Muslims in some states and optional in others and enforcement varied by locale.

In November 2001, Kaduna state established a modified version of Shari'a law. The criminal and procedural codes did not come into effect until July 2002, and national human right groups reported that the court in Kaduna issued several sentences for minor offenses in September. These sentences did not include corporal punishment. Christian and Islamic groups planning to build new churches or mosques were required to register with the corporate affairs commission (CAC). The CAC did not deny registration to any religious group during the year. However, some religious groups experienced delay in obtaining permission from local zoning board to build houses of worship. Many nascent churches and Islamic congregations ignored the registration requirement, and a small number had their place of worship short down because of enforcement of zoning laws. Some people claimed that enforcement of these laws was selective. In August 2005, the Christian association of Nigeria (CAN) issued a communiqué in which they criticized the destruction of churches in the north, Sources (Online): http://www.anglican-nig.org/CAN_reaction.htm.

Christians in the predominantly Muslim northern states alleged that local government officials used zoning regulations to slow or stop the establishment of new churches. Officials responded that many of these new churches were being formed in residential neighborhoods not zoned for religious purposes. They CAN offices in Zamfara and Sokoto states alleged that local authorities delayed or denied to Christians certificates of occupancy (COS), which were required to show title to land. Zamfara and Sokoto state officials denied that religious discrimination influenced the cases sited by CAN. State officials said the satification boards were dealing with a large backlog of cases for all people, regardless of religious faith. Muslims complained that they were denied permission to build mosques in predominantly Christian southern of Abia, Akwa-Ibom. Although the government does not prohibit or discourage conversion from or to a particular religion, there was a media report that two men were brought to trial by Zamfara state from converting from Islam to Christianity. Persecutors sought the death penalty; However Shari'a code did not explicitly criminalize apostasy and he determines there were legal bases for the case. Nevertheless, he gave the men three days to reconsider their alleged conversion and for the Zamfara government to furnish a legal base why he should hear the case. The men were accused of joining the evangelical church; however, they claimed that they were never Muslims but were ethnic Magazawa, An Hausa sub group that has long practiced Christianity. There was no further action in this case by year's end. Sources (Online): <http://www.house.gov/international-relations>.

Report were common that state and local government officials discriminated against persons practicing a religion different from their own, notably in hiring or awarding contracts, and private businesses frequently were quietly of informal religious and ethnic discriminating in their hiring practices and purchasing patterns. Unlike in the previous years, there were no reports that political party members were suspended because of religious belief or adherence. According to media reports on 21st July 2002, nurses in the Federal Medical Center in Azare, Bauchi state were fired for not wearing compliant dresses, and the Zamfara state government required Muslim dress for secondary students. As a result of ethno-religious violence related to the expansion of Shari'a criminal law in 2000 and several northern states governments continued to ban public proselytizing during the year, although

it is permitted by the constitution. The Katsina and Plateau state governments maintained a ban on public proselytizing for security reasons during the year; however, some groups were allowed to carry out activities despite these formal bans, which generally were enforced on a case by case basis, Source (Online): <http://www.allafrica.com>.

Unlike in the previous year, there were no reports that missionaries were harassed for proselytizing. Both Christian and Muslim organization alleged that the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and the Immigration Department restricted the entry into the country of certain religious practitioners, particularly persons suspected of intending to proselytize. Proselytizing did not appear to be restricted in the southern part of the country. The government continued to enforce a ban on the existence of religious organization campuses of primary schools, although individual students retained the right to practice their religion in recognized places of worship. According to the constitution, students were not required to receive instruction relating to religion other than their own; however, public school students in parts of the country were subjected to mandatory Islamic or Christian religious instruction. State authorities claimed that students were permitted to decline to attend these classes or to request a teacher of their own religion to provide alternative instruction. However, there were no teachers of Christian religious knowledge in many northern schools. In Enugu and Edo states Muslim students could not access “Islamic religious knowledge” in the public schools. Although distribution of religious publications generally remained unrestricted, the government periodically continued to enforce a ban on published religious advertisement. The Christians in Zamfara state reported that the state government restricted the distribution of Christian religious literature. Sources (Online):

http://www.4humanrights.org/ng/International_Religious_Freedom_Report_2003.html.

The government acknowledged the legal authority of states to implement criminal Shari’a. Although expanded Shari’a law technically do not apply to non-Muslims, some non-Muslims, especially in Zamfara states, have been affected by certain social provision of the law, such as the separation of the sexes in health facilities; bans on the sale of alcohol and alcohol consumption; and decision by some entrepreneurs not to engage in certain activities because of concern for Shari’a restriction. In some states, cases involving only Muslims must be heard by a Shari’a court. Other states with sixth Shari’a law still permitted Muslims to choose common law courts for criminal cases: however, societal pressure forced most Muslims to use the Shari’a court system. There were no challenges to the constitutionality of Shari’a during the year. A number of states sanctioned private Shari’a enforcement groups that formed in states with expanded Shari’a law. Zamfara state vested the local vigilante group with full powers for arrest and prosecution because the state believed police were not enforcing the new Shari’a law. Jigawa state also mobilized a state wide Shari’a enforcement committee to arrest, detain, and prosecute Muslim offenders. Informal Shari’a enforcement groups may have been used for some law enforcement functions in other northern states as well. On 20th November 2002, protesters destroy the Kaduna office of This Day newspaper after the paper published an article about the miss world pageant that many Muslim felt insulted their religion. More than 200 persons were killed and thousands with fled their home seeking protection at government facilities, mainly military installations. Two Christian clerics died and several churches reportedly were burned. More than 100 persons were arrested, and investigations into then violence were ongoing at year’s end. Despite widespread calls from elements of society, the responsible journalists weren’t jailed nor were the newspaper shut down. In December of the same year, the Zamfara state Deputy Governor pronounced a, “fatal” death sentence against Isioma Daniels, the journalist responsible for the November This Day article. Most Muslim leaders and the government strongly criticized Deputy Governor Shinkafi’s statement saying that the fatwah was wrong and that Shinkafi did not have the legal or religious authority to order it, Sources (Online): <http://www.allafrica.com/stories/200211300099.html>.

Religious differences often corresponded to regional and ethnic differences. For examples, the northern region was predominately Muslim. Many southern ethnic groups were predominantly Christian, although the Yoruba were approximately 50 percent Muslim, but Muslims and Christian were found in large number in the middle belt. In many areas of the middle belt, Muslim Fulani tended to be hardest while the Muslim Hausa and most Christian ethnic groups tended more towards farming or urban living. It often was difficult to distinguish religious discrimination and tension for ethnic, religion, economic and land use competition. Often religious tensions underscored what were predominantly ethnic and economic confrontations during the year. The middle belt experienced recurring ethno-religious violence during the year but overall violence decreased markedly from the previous year’s levels. In February 2002 between 60 and 100 persons were killed when Yoruba youth clashed with Hausa residents in the Idi-Araba area in Lagos. The incident was caused by inter-ethnic tensions but had some religious overtones (The Post Express, 5 February. 2002). There also were several incidents in which

Muslim youth vandalized Christian churches. For example, in June there were unconfirmed reports that Muslim youths set fire to four churches Dutse, Jigawa State (Coleman, 1958).

Ethnic-religious conflict continued in many parts of Plateau during the year. There was no single incident that matched the violence and destruction of the September 2001 fighting in and around Jos; however, repeated outbreaks of violence caused dozens of death and resulted in the destruction of places of worship, shops and homes. According to local leaders and other observers, because of this violence, Muslim moved away from Langtang and Christians vacated the village by year's end. Existing tensions between Christians and Muslims caused minor incidents, such as a traffic accident, to escalate into communal violence. For example, a dispute apparently began after a Muslim man proposed marriage to a Christian woman. The woman's brother beat her, and when her fiancée intervened, a fight ensued. What began as a family dispute quickly expanded to other parts of the community, assuming ethnic and religious overtones as it spread. The Plateau state government convince in the Plateau state peace summit to address the problem of communal and religious violence in the state. An NGO that specialized in conflict resolution also was involved actively in the state. There were no developments in the 2001 and 2000 incidents of inter-relations violence.

Therefore, based on ethnic conflict above, this research establishes that there is some group of people involved; First Muslims and Christians in the north. The conflict between these groups was extremely intense in 2002. Muslim based armed groups include the Arewa People's Congress (APC), Hisbah Groups (Islamic vigilante groups that enforce adherence to Shari'a), the Zamfara State Vigilante Service (ZSVS), and Al-Sunna Wal Jamma (also known as the Taleban and Bokoharam – meaning; education is evil group).

- There are numerous small Christian militias. While some of the armed groups are clearly motivated by religion, often religion is used as a cover for disputes over land and cattle that have traditionally occurred between farming communities (who are mostly Christian or practice indigenous African religions) and cattle herders (who are mostly Muslims.) This is especially true in Plateau state where the most violent episodes of religious violence have occurred.
- Sunni and Shiite Muslim communities in the northern state of Sokoto. Minority ethnic groups have exploited the religious component of these conflicts in order to further engage in farming and cattle rustling disputes in this mainly agrarian state. While both Christians (who are mainly farmers) and Muslims (primarily cattle herders) have pointed to identification cards recovered during combat as proof that their adversaries are religiously motivated, its true role is insignificant except for the fact that the various ethnic groups involved just happen to belong to one or the other. The Fulani and Wase militias are exclusively Muslim, for example, while the Taroh and Gamai militias are non-Muslim—and are made up of Christians and practitioners of African traditional religions (IRIN news.org, June 6, 2005).
- Hundreds of armed gangs, known as "cults" also contribute to violence in Nigeria. Cults may be involved in a number of activities such as organized crime especially the theft of oil, vigilante actions/community self-defense, ethnic and/or religious violence and party politics (hired by local politicians to help influence political outcomes). They are usually made up of a small number of poor youths who view the gangs as one of the few opportunities for economic gain and protection. The largest among them include the Bakassi Boys in south-eastern Nigeria and the Niger Delta Vigilante (NDV) active in Rivers state. The Niger Delta Vigilante is led by Ateke Tom, one of the most wanted men in Nigeria, and has an active membership of several hundreds. It has a small fleet of speedboats used in the transporting of stolen oil and kidnappings. The oil-producing Niger delta of south eastern Nigeria has been plagued by powerful armed gangs for several years. Some of them have been set up to fight for the interests of rival ethnic groups and several make money from crime, particularly the theft and smuggling of crude oil and kidnapping for ransom (IRIN news.org, June 21, 2005).

6. Conclusion

In a multi-ethnic and cultural country, any decision or legislation should take into account the sensitivity of each ethnic group. In several countries, religion may be a sensitive issue; otherwise this issue is often used by interest groups for their political survival. As a result, if not addressed will lead to conflicts of religion/ethnic. However, religious conflict also broke out due to ethnic disputes that have occurred previously. Some northern states government's decision to introduce Shari'a law has increased the anger among Christians, especially in the north. This is because; the implementation of Shari'a law in a manipulative method which also involves those Christians victims who live in the north. In this context, decision-making approach and manipulation theory has been able to explain the real causes of ethnic conflicts in the northern region and in Nigeria in general. This approach is able to identify the actor who is behind the conflicts, the decision that was taken by them and the

consequences of these decisions have been the result of religious conflicts in disguised in Nigeria. Finally, it is quite unfortunate to say that, Nigeria has been having many non leaders occupying the country's leadership seats. The disaster that marked the administration of Alhaji Shehu Shagari, Babangida's atrocious regime, and the horrible looting that occurred during the time of General Sani Abacha are quick reminder of the paradigmatic life-styles of the Nigerian political power leaderships. This political power intoxication is a never ending dramatic game which goes around like a chained circle in connecting all politicians in the seat of leadership into the dungeon of perpetual corruption, uncivilization and undevelopment.

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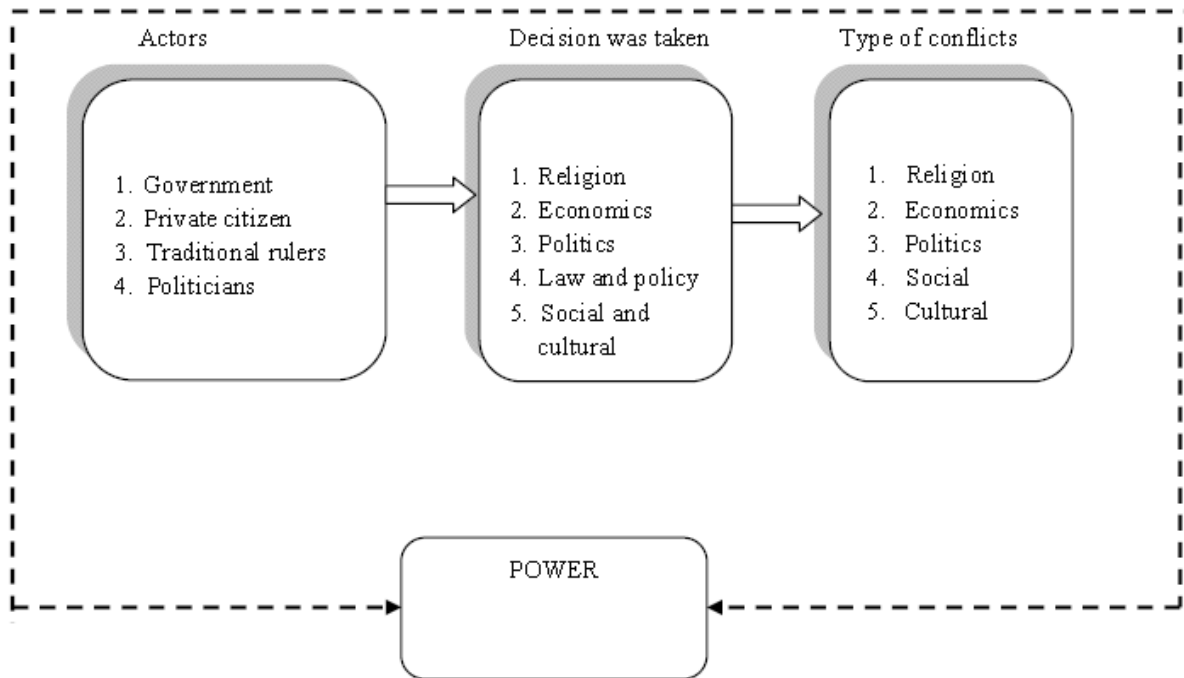


Figure 1. Decision-making and Ethnic Conflict in Nigeria



Map 1. States with Sharia law in the Northern region

Manipulation in Poetry Translation

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Abstract

Traditional poetry translation studies often emphasize on the reproduction of the form or meaning and the translatability of poetry, not beyond the constraints of linguistic analysis. This paper sets out to discuss English translation of Chinese poems within a larger social, political and cultural context. According to André Lefevere, the leading representative of "Cultural school", translation is a rewriting or manipulation of an original text mainly influenced by three social and cultural factors, that is, ideology, dominant poetics and patronage. Translation doesn't go on in a vacuum and is bound to reflect a certain ideology and poetics. Translators from different social-historical backgrounds are manipulated by different ideology, poetics and patronage, and often rewrite the original to different degrees to meet the target cultural demands in different times.

Keywords: Manipulation, Ideology, Poetics, Patronage, Poetry translation

1. Theoretical Review

Traditional translation theory tended to stress linguistic equivalence and maintained that equivalence to the original is the basic and fundamental quality that a translated work should possess. This source-oriented approach dominated the study of translation for a considerable period. Around in the 1950s and 60s, culture-orientation started to emerge in social sciences, such as literary criticism, which is one of the most important developments to impact on translation theory by shifting its focus from the author and the original work to the reader and the context of reception. This shift is very important to translation theory since in the first place a translator is a reader of the original work, and his or her interpretation of the original is thus both authorized and contextualized. Translation studies were no longer confined to the text itself, instead in close connection with the social and cultural context. The descriptive, target-oriented and inter-disciplinary turn in translation studies provided an impetus for manipulation theory. Manipulation stresses the translator's role and the various constraints at the receiving end rather than the equivalence to the source. According to Hermans (Hermans, 1999, p.8), the name was proposed by André Lefevere who attempts to study translation from a sociological perspective, that is, how translational activities operate and function in the target society. For Lefevere, any work is not translated in a vacuum, which serves the needs of the ideology and poetics of a given society. Ideology and poetics, for him, are the two major factors that constrain the production and the reception of translation. He thought society is a super-system and literature is one of the subsystems, or "system of systems". There are two control factors influencing the interaction between literary system and other systems. The first operates within the literary system, represented by "professionals", such as critics, reviewers, teachers and translators. The other, outside of the literary system, is called "patronage". The first factor functions within the literary system, but according to the parameters set by the second factor. Lefevere's theory of manipulation successfully places translation within a larger social, political and cultural context and allows us to observe the way in which translation interact with the target environment. His theoretical framework has been employed by many scholars to study specific cases and has been proved quite enlightening and fruitful. It is therefore believed that this framework will help throw some new light on the study of poetry translation. As for poetry translation, one of the most prevalent discussions on it is whether the form and meaning in the original can be well reproduced in translation from the perspective of linguistic analysis. Different scholars hold different ideas to

themselves, for example, the Chinese translator Xu Yuan-zhong said, “a poetic translation should be as beautiful as the original in sense, in sound and, if possible, in form” (Xu Yuan-zhong, 1988, p.6). Witter Bynner thought it was possible to achieve “verbal parallelism, but nothing...of the pattern of tone and rhythm” (Bynner, 1978, p.9). James J.Y.Liu once said, “Admittedly, the music of poetry can never be fully reproduced in translation, even with two related languages like, say, French and Italian, let alone two widely different ones like Chinese and English” (James J.Y.Liu, 1962, p.20). Obviously it’s difficult to translate poems from Chinese to English because of the difference of language, poetical conventions, cultural context and so on. Fortunately we can still enjoy many good translations of Chinese poems due to translators’ efforts. But why different translators interpret the same poem in different ways? Is it the pure accidental choice of translators or the choice manipulated by a certain social and cultural factors? And how do the translations function in the target culture and interact with the target literary systems? This essay sets out to answer the questions by discussing poetry translation from three main control factors: ideology, poetics and patronage raised by André Lefevere.

2. Manipulation of Ideology

By “ideology”, Lefevere understands, “a set of discourses which wrestle over interests which are in some way relevant to the maintenance or interrogation of power structures central to a whole form of social and historical life” (Gentzler, 2004, p.136). This term is taken by him in a sense not limited to the political sphere; rather, “Ideology would seem to be that grillwork of form, convention, and belief which orders our actions” (Lefevere, 2004, p.16). Ideology is the key notion in Lefevere’s theory of manipulation, which refers to the translator’s ideology which he/she willingly accepts or the ideology imposed upon the translators by patronages. If translations are not in conflict with culture’s ideology (standards for acceptable behavior in the target culture), they are easier to be published and accepted in the target culture. Therefore ideology always determines the choice and reception of the subject matters of original texts in translation. For instance, before the early 20th century, most eastern countries were considered inferior to the western world and eastern literature was always ignored and treated as “low” literature. However, the first decades in the 20th century were actually the prosperous period for the Chinese poems translated and accepted in America. Why did this happen? There were some social and cultural reasons for this phenomenon. As we all know, during the first two decades, the world experienced great changes in political and economic area, which led to changes in every aspect of life including changes in literary system. The most important event during this period was the First World War (1914-1918), which had a profound impact on the whole society. Shortly after the war there appeared an economic boom, but the unexpected economic crisis befalling America in 1929 fragmented many people’s dream, so that “excitement and enthusiasm subsided to make way for disillusionment” (Chang Yaoxin, 1990, p.217). Meanwhile western faith, which is closely connected with Christianity, seemed to be pulling apart after the war. It seemed that “there was no mythical center with god expelled from the universe... with nothing to mediate between man and his cosmos” (Chang Yaoxin, 1990, p.217). When the loss of faith was intensified, a new remedy must be found to eliminate people’s chaotic and fragmented sense of life and remain the stability of the whole society. Rightly in the Tang poems permeates the sense of “oneness in man, nature and eternity” (Bynner, 1978, p.4), which can help westerners find an inner peace and a good will toward life. On the other hand, after the First World War America broke through its isolation geographically and proved its economic and political position in the world. American intellectuals were eager to broaden their vision, some of whom took great curiosity in the mysterious eastern civilization. Therefore Chinese civilization, “to be not only the oldest civilization still vigorous but to be a civilization profoundly informed as to lasting values” (Bynner, 1978, p.11), aroused great interest in western world. No wonder Chinese poems, the essence of Chinese classical literature and traditional culture, caught western intellectuals’ eye. Therefore the first upsurge of the English translation of Chinese poems appeared in America in the early 20th century. Many translations of Chinese poems are published during this period, such as Ezra Pound’s *Cathay* (London, 1915), Amy Lowell and Florence Ayscough’s *Fir-Flower Tablet* (New York, 1921), Witter Bynner’s *The Jade Mountain: Three Hundred Poems of the T’ang Dynasty* (1929), W.J.Bainbridge-Fletcher’s *Gems from Chinese Verse* (Shanghai, 1918) and *More Gems from Chinese Verse* (1919), J Whitall’s *Chinese Lyrics* (1918), J. L.French’s *Lotus and Chysanthemum* (1928).

As we have mentioned, ideology is considered by Lefevere as one of the three major factors exerting tremendous influence on translators, possesses a much broader sense than we might expect. It is not limited to the political sphere and can also be understood here as systems of ideas based on value judgments and attitudes, or the propositions and assumptions people hold, that influence people’s thoughts and behaviors. Lefevere pointed out, “The ideology dictates the basic strategy the translator is going to use and therefore also dictates solutions to problems concerned with both the ‘universe of discourse’ expressed in the original (objects, concepts, customs belonging to the world that was familiar to the writer of the original) and the language the original itself is

expressed in.” (Lefevere, 2004, p.41) For example, when Bynner translated names of place and persons in Tang Poems, he tried to make a careful adjustment by eliminating the names not highly important to the sense of a poem. In other ways he substituted some general geographical terms for specific place names in the original. In the case of Du Fu’s poem “Both Sides of the Yellow River Recaptured by the Imperial Army”, Bynner translated the lines as “Back from this mountain, past another mountain, / Up from the south, north again---to my own town!”, in which the general geographical terms “this mountain”, “another mountain”, “south”, “north” are used to replace four specific place names in the original: “Ba Xia”, “Wu Xia”, “Xiang Yang”, “Luo Yang”. Though Bynner’s translation is easier to be understood by the western readers since they are unfamiliar with Chinese names of places, the places in the translation are located so roughly that target readers can’t feel the sharp shift from water route to land route as Chinese readers can. As Burton Watson said, in a country as old as China, place names naturally come to have rich historical or legendary associations and “their mere mention in literature is sufficient to call up scenes of departed glory, fierce battles, the excitement of a bustling city, or the loneliness of the frontier” (Watson, 1971, p128). From this aspect, Bynner’s translation strategy in dealing with names of places still has some shortcomings. Similarly when translating other terms, natural and familiar in Chinese, but exotic or quaint in English, Bynner often employed the ones westerners are familiar with. Taking the translation of instruments as an example, he translates “Hu Jia ”(a kind of ancient instrument used by ancient people in the northern border of China) into “Flageolet”, and translates “Bi Li”(another kind of ancient instrument in China) into “Reed-pipe”. Obviously the terms of western instrument completely destroys the atmosphere of the original poem. It should be noted here that Translators are always caught in the paradox between his ideology and his status as a professional. They can’t produce a text opposite to their ideology, at the same time they must convince other professionals that they are worthy of being a translator. Nobody can escape one’s own ideology, which suggests that claiming objectivity is “dishonest” (Gentzler, 2004, p.138). Faithful translation is utopia to be thought as the only translational strategy possible or allowable, because translation always takes place within a certain social and cultural context.

3. Manipulation of Poetics

According to Lefevere, dominant poetics consists of two components: literary devices and the concept of the role of literature. The former includes the range of genres, symbols, leitmotifs and prototypical situations and characters and the latter is the relation of literature to the social system in which it exists (Munday, 2001, p.129). The first component exerts more conservative influence on the literary system; while the second component tends to exert more innovative influence. He sees the dominant poetics as tending to be determined by ideology. For the convenience of discussion, poetics here will be subdivided into two smaller categories: literature poetics, which refers to a social group’s reading anticipation to literary works in a given time, and translation poetics, which refers to what a social group thinks of translation in a given period, namely, what translation is or what translation should be.

As we have stated, the early 20th century was actually the prosperous period for the Chinese poems translated and accepted in America, which is closely related to the modern English poetry movement at that time, such as Imagism. Since traditional English poetics, characterized with “its iambic pentameter, its verbosity, and extra-poetic padding” (Chang Yaixin, 1990, p.219) can’t express the temper of the new age, intellectuals wanted to break through obsolete themes, abstract preach, verbose expression and constrained form so as to develop a rich rhythm and splendid thoughts. In the first years of 20th century, a group of English and American poets came together to write poetry in a new way, to express themselves through a series of clear, exact images. They were greatly inspired by the Chinese classic poetry, such as Ezra Pound, the leader of Imagism, who borrowed heavily from Chinese poems. His nineteen poems contained in *Cathay*, strictly speaking, are imitations of Chinese poems. As Lefevere said, translations deeply “affect the interpenetration of literary systems” (Lefevere, 2004, p.38) not only by creating the image of one writer or work in another literature, but also by introducing new things into the first component and paving the way to changes in its second component. In Pound’s poems, he frequently used deformation and disembodiment borrowed from Chinese poems. In simple words, he omitted some syntactic and logic elements which is necessary in standard English, to highlight the effect of images, such as the line “Desolate castle, the sky, the wide desert”. In short, the translation of Chinese poems and the modern English poetry movement interact or influence each other, which exert innovative impact on the evolution of western poetics. It is difficult to distinguish whether the western modern poetry movement enhanced the translation of Chinese poems or it was the other way round. Hence translation plays an important part in the evolution of the literary system, because “the struggle between rival poetics is often initiated by writers, but fought and won or lost by rewriters” (Lefevere, 2004, p.38). Translation is “as important as original writings in the establishment of the poetics of a literary system”. (Lefevere, 2004, p.28)

The change of dominant poetics in a literary system may influence the translation poetics greatly. Since the dominant poetics in English poetry tended to shift from regular form to free verse after the modern English poetry movement, the style of poetry translation varied correspondingly. For example, in Giles' translation of Li Bai's poem "Farewell", he adopts the rhyme scheme of end rhyming "ababcdcd" and the rhythm of iambic tetrameter such as the following "Where blue hills cross the northern sky, / Beyond the moat which girds the town, / 'Twas there we stopped to say Goodbye! / And one white sail alone dropped down". Compared with Giles' version, Witter Bynner, who was greatly influenced by modernism in poetry, used free verse in his translation without using strict meter or rhyme, but that are still recognizable as "poetry" with a certain form. He translates this poem as follows "With a blue line of mountains north of the wall, / And east of the city a white curve of water, / Here you must leave me and drift away / Like a loosened water-plant hundreds of miles..." Based on linguistic analysis, both of their translations have advantages and disadvantages. Giles' translation is not as clear as the original and sometimes even not understandable mostly due to his pursuit of rhyme scheme. On the contrary, Bynner's translation reproduced the meaning and poetical flavor of the original poem well, but failed to reflect the strict rhyme scheme of Chinese regulated verses. It seems to be unfair for some English-speaking readers who can only have the impression that all Chinese poetry is written in a kind of rimless verse due to the free verse translation. However, both of their translations won the favor of critics, scholars as well as common readers at their times, because they conformed to the dominant poetics at their own times. The former conforms to the Victorian poetic style, while the latter go with the trend of free verse.

4. Manipulation of Patronage

By patronage, André Lefevere means, "any kind of force that can be influential in encouraging and propagating, but also in discouraging, censoring and destroying works of literature" (Gentzler, 2004, p.137). Patrons may be persons (influential and powerful individuals), groups of persons (a religious body, a political party, a social class, a royal court, and publishers) and the media. Patronage, outside of the literary system, is usually "more interested in the ideology of literature than in its poetics" (Lefevere, 2004, p.15), while professionals, within the literary system, such as critics, reviewers, teachers and translators are more concerned with poetics. However, there can not actually be such a clear division. Some are themselves professionals and also representatives of patronage. Patronage basically consists of three elements: ideological component, economic component and status component. Patronage can be either differentiated when the three components are independent on each other, or undifferentiated when its three components are "all dispensed by one and the same patron" (Lefevere, 2004, p.17). In the second case, the patron's efforts are primarily directed at preserving the stability of the social system as a whole. The literature opposing to the authority of patronage will experience great difficulty in getting published through official channels or will be reduced to the status of "low" or "popular" literature. Thus translators usually have to meet the requirement of patronage to get their translations published or accepted in the target culture. A good example is provided by James Legge's translation of Chinese Classics. When Legge, as an active missionary, first tried to start his massive translation project in Hong Kong later in the 1850s, the London Missionary Society and Anglo-Chinese College are the patrons for him. But the support came with two rigid stipulations: first, the expense of printing of the translations at the Mission Press would be borne strictly by the "liberality" of Legge's generous friend, Joseph Jardine, without any demand on the Society; second, "those sentiments of Confucius which are at variance with the Christian truth" would not "be accompanied by annotations in refutation of the one and in confirmation of the other" (Girardot, 2002:63). Obviously the Society's stipulation reflects the ideological manipulation, here referring to the religious interference with the translation, which imposes on translators to modify some parts in their translation in conformity with the ideology of the target culture. Possibly for this reason, when Confucian teachings are in conflict with Christian beliefs, Legge always chooses to ideologically distance himself from the former one. Another example is illustrated by the publication of the anthology *Sunflower Splendor: Three Thousand Years of Chinese Poetry* (1975) compiled by Irving Yucheng Lo. The anthology was published just at the turning point of Sino-American relationship. Considering the masses' expectation of resuming the relations, American organizations and institutes sponsored the publication enthusiastically, such as The Asian Literature Program from The Asian Society, The Office of Research and Advanced Studies and The East Asian Studies Program from Indiana University. As mentioned above, patronage also acts within the constraint of ideology. However, present-day developments in the literary system in Europe and the Americas show that the undifferentiated patronage is based mainly on economic component or profit motive rather than on ideology as it was in most literary systems in the past.

5. Conclusion

Traditional western translation theories focus on the "equivalence" and "faithfulness" between the source text and the translated text from the perspective of linguistic analysis. The writer and the source text are often considered

to be sacred and infrangible, while the roles of the translator and the readers are ignored in literary translation. However, with the “cultural turn” in translation studies, more and more scholars begin their studies of translation from a cultural angle. They go beyond the limitation of language and focuses on the interaction between translation and culture. Translation is no longer considered as a mechanical activity, but a creative one within constraints of certain social and cultural factors. As for poetry translation, it also experiences the development from linguistic analysis to cultural criticism. The traditional poetry translation studies often emphasize on the reproduction of the form or meaning and the translatability of poetry. Undoubtedly traditional methodology has made an important contribution to the studies of poetry translation, but can't provide the answer to all the questions. Therefore different tools and methodology are required for conducting studies in translation. Lefevere's manipulation theory successfully places translation within a larger social, political and cultural context and stresses the translator's role and the various control factors in translation, which pave new ways to poetry translation studies. He pointed out that there were mainly three social and cultural factors that influence translation, that is, ideology, dominant poetics and patronage. Apart from this, he stated that translation was a kind of rewriting of the original. In order to meet the target cultural demands in different times, translators from different social-historical backgrounds, manipulated by different ideology, poetics and patronage, often rewrite the original to different degrees. It is from his theoretical framework that we can have a comprehensive understanding of translation activities in poetry translation.

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