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THE CORROSIVE IMPLICATION OF CORRUPTION ON BUSINESS IN SOUTH AFRICA

MARIA MATSHIDISO KANJERE

ABSTRACT
In recent years, South Africa has experienced an unprecedented level of corruption, which pervades the public and private sectors. Diverse corruption saga exists in government entities, parastatals, and private companies including auditing firms. It has become a natural fibre of the modern society that is driven by materialism. What is surprising is that the corruption that is happening at the small scale is being highly tolerated; people tend to focus on grand corruption. Therefore, this paper argues that corruption, irrespective of its size, is corrosive as it impacts negatively on the economic growth of South Africa, depletes the resources, discourages investors, distort flows to the stock market and hampers corporate governance.

Thus, an extensive literature review was conducted to study the implication of corrupt activities on business in South Africa. Findings from the literature showed amongst others that corruption has fermented economic policy uncertainty and political instability in the country, in the same vein corruption has heightened job losses, unemployment, income inequality and the current downgrade of the South African economy to junk status. Hence, there is a marathon of commissions of enquiry that are aimed at investigating the anomalies in both government and private sector.

The corrosiveness of corruption knows no colour or creed; it has affected all the individuals and businesses alike. Although various initiatives to curb such corrupt activities have been put in place by public policy makers; the initiatives have not yet realised expectations. The paper recommends that in order for the initiatives in tackling corruption to succeed, they will have to be supported by all the structural organisations, businesses, individuals and all citizens of the Republic of South Africa. Furthermore, commission of enquiries will need to be placed under the judiciary to avoid political interference and to enhance their effectiveness and efficiency.

Key words: Corruption, Business, Poverty, Job losses, Job creations, Economy and Sectors.

INTRODUCTION
The corrosive nature of corruption in South Africa has gradually degraded the economic status of the country to that of junk. Phakgadi (2018) reported that, “Business Leadership South Africa’s Busi Mavuso says many economic and political problems that South Africans experience are rooted in corruption, state capture and political patronage, resulting in a trust deficit between government and investors”. Most investors have since disinvested in the country due to corruption; that has led to a number of international rating agencies, namely, Moody’s, Fitch and Standard Bank and Poor’s, downgrading the economy of the country. The downgrading of the economic status of the country led to the interests’ hike, less spending by consumers and less investments on business.

It is prevalent for investors to look for opportunities elsewhere when business is slow or the political environment in a particular country is not conducive for investment. “There is evidence that corruption reduces private investment in a country, particularly foreign direct investment” (KPMG, 2017). Therefore, any reports on corruption, greatly affect the strength of the currency and the business activities of the day, especially in developing countries.

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Gossel (2017) observed that South Africa as a developing country, with its fragile economy, is also embroiled in a multifaceted crisis amongst which high unemployment and high inequality levels can be cited. As a result, many South Africans find it hard to have a decent livelihood. Money earmarked for improving the lives of many South Africans is diverted into the hands of the few elite, hence there are numerous reports and investigations on grand corruption that has escalated into state capture. Transparency International (2016) defines grand corruption as the abuse of state resources at the highest level of power to benefit the few individuals at the expense of the majority of the population. If not curbed, grand corruption can lead to violation of human rights as individuals would be stealing from the government purse that is earmarked to improve on the facilities, public buildings and delivery of quality services.

As the result of grand corruption, the state has also failed to collect enough tax revenue as certain companies and individuals protested on paying tax that would be misused. Mahlakoana (2017) states that corruption in South Africa has made the government to fail to meet its revenue targets. Corruption can therefore be perpetuated by individuals or by the organisations themselves. Breit, Lennerfors and Olaison (2015) state that corruption in any organisation can be done by one employee or several employees, individuals on behalf of the organisation or by the entire organisation where it is institutionalised. Hence, corruption in the country cuts across various sectors and individuals irrespective of their colour or creed.

Masenya (2017) maintains that corruption in the public and private sectors appear in the form of bribery or extortion during business transactions. Nevertheless, Bauer (2007) identified a number of corrupt activities common to both government and businesses; bribery, nepotism, falsification of records, fraud, victimisation, greed, ghosting, theft, favouritism and conflict of interest. A number of corrupt activities occur through tender system when government has to do business with private companies, individuals involved often want to unduly benefit from the transactions, on the same vein, government officials also solicit bribes. KPMG (2017) asserts that in the survey which it conducted, South African companies says that 34% of companies are expected to pay bribes to get awarded public procurement contracts, and on average, the bribe amounts to 2% of the value of contracts. Thus, the tendering system is one of the major sources of corruption in South Africa, especially where State Owned Entities are involved.

Nevertheless, other businesses like KPMG and Steinhoff had their own corrupt scandals that marred the business environment. More often than not, corruption takes place under the watchful eye of the law, wherein there are legislations and agencies that are assigned to deal with the matter. Osrecki (2015) confirms that it is easy to create anti-corruption agencies that are susceptible to political interference and manipulation as opposed to those that are independent and credible institutions, which are void of political interference and are powerful institutions that are capable of implementing legislation. Most anti-corruption agencies end up being powerless tools that fail to act on their mandate. Therefore, the objectives of this paper are formulated as follows;

To investigate the nature of corruption in South Africa and particularly in business.
To determine the implication of corrupt activities in businesses in South Africa.

ANTI CORRUPTION AGENCIES IN SOUTH AFRICA

South Africa has a number of anti-corruption agencies which have less capacity to can be able to uproot sophisticated and well-orchestrated corruption in many organisations. KPMG (2017) stipulates that the culture of corruption has weakened the institutions tasked with the law enforcement. Hence, corruption prevails despite a number of anticorruption laws, and commissions that are put in place to prevent, detect and arrest the corrupt individuals. Some
individuals that are well connected to the prominent politicians, are not afraid of anti-
corruption mechanisms or anti-corruption agencies operating in the country.

Anti-corruption agencies are put in place to safeguard democracy of the country and to
create a safe environment for investors. However, Masenya (2017) maintains that South Africa
is still stuck in corruption whilst the anti-corruption agencies remain powerless. The anti-
corruption agencies and agencies created to safeguard democracy of South Africa, include,
Office of the Public Protector, National Prosecuting Authority, Asset Forfeiture Unit,
Independent Police Investigating Directorate, Auditor General, South African Receiver of
Revenue, Financial Intelligence Centre and Anti-Corruption Task Team.

Office of the Public Protector

The Office of the Public Protector is mandated by the Constitution of South Africa to
investigate maladministration and abuse of power in government affairs. The Office has the
power to investigate any level of government or public entity for unlawful enrichment or breach
of ethics code (Corruption Watch, 2018). It is one of the institutions that were established in
terms of Chapter 9 of the Constitutions to protect democracy and fight corruption. The Office
of the Public Protector is independent of government and political interference; the incumbent
has to serve a contract for a period of seven years which is non-renewable. The constitutional
mandate of the office makes it a crucial tool of fighting corruption in the public sector.

The Public Protector that put the office into the spotlight was Advocate Thuli Madonsela
who was fearless in investigating prominent cases. She faced a number of threats and
opposition but she stood firm in her course for justice. Pilane (2018) highlighted five prominent
cases that Advocate Thuli Madonsela investigated, amongst which was Inkadla security
upgrade in the house of the former president of South Africa, an unauthorised upgrade that
costed the South African taxpayers an estimated amount of R246 million. The Public Protector
found that the former president of the country had violated the Executive Ethics Code; he was
later instructed to pay back the non-security upgrades of the project from his personal funds.
The saga gave South Africa negative publicity and had an effect on the confidence of the
investors. Du Preez (2016) confirmed that corruption brought about by the former president of
South Africa, posed as a danger to South African’s economy.

National Prosecuting Authority (NPA)

The National Prosecuting Authority is another institution that institutes criminal
procedures on corrupt activities on behalf of the state, and is accountable to parliament. It is
governed by the National Prosecuting Act no.32 of 1998, and the accountable officer in the
institution is the Minister of Justice and Correctional Services (Government of South Africa,
1998).

At the national level, the National Director of Public Prosecutions who is appointed by
the president of the country heads the institution. The National Prosecuting Authority has a
number of specialised units, namely, Special Commercialised Crime Unit which was
established to prosecute serious economic crimes, Asset Forfeiture Unit which is responsible
for seizing all the assets used in criminal and corrupt activities and many other units. The
National Prosecuting Authority has however been marred by a number of corrupt activities that
alluded to political interference. Omar (2017) observed that political pressure can get in the
way of prosecuting executive members of parliament. She pointed out to the case that involved
the former president of South Africa, wherein it took almost a decade to finally announce that
he will be prosecuted on the post-apartheid- arms deal case that involve 783 charges that
include fraud, racketeering and corruption. If the National Prosecuting Authority fails to act on
its constitutional mandate due to corruption that can pose as a threat to business.
Independent Police Investigative Directorate (IPID)

The Independent Police Investigative Directorate is a statutory body that was established in April 1997 as part of the post-apartheid reforms. The unit investigates and litigates all corruption related cases involving national and municipal police. It ensures an independent oversight of South African Police Services (SAPS) and Municipal Police Services (MPS). In the past deaths of individuals in custody, corruption and criminal offences that were allegedly said to have been committed by the police were not properly investigated. Rademeyer and Wilkinson (2016) reported that 1 448 serving police are convicted criminals that have been convicted of serious crimes such as corruption, rape, murder and theft. Some corruption activities in the police services include the dodgy appointment of family and friends of senior officers to the top Crime Intelligence positions (Newham, 2018). Therefore, costs associated with crime and corruptions are high for businesses operating in South Africa because police officers can be easily bribed. Business Portal (2015) reported that some police officers requested bribes from foreign owned businesses to protect the businesses from xenophobic attacks. Weak Independent Police Investigative Directorate that focuses on petty corruption above the institutionalised corruption can exacerbate such act of soliciting bribes from business owners.

A study was conducted at the University of KwaZulu-Natal to investigate the prospects of the Independent Police Investigative Directorate to play an effective role of ensuring accountability in South African Police Services and of being an effective oversight to the police. One of the major findings in the study was that there was a systemic corruption in the police services, which is characterised by weak management. Therefore, pursuit of corruption at micro-level was not yielding the desired results. The focus should be at the systemic corruption that operates at macro-level. The study then concluded that Independent Police Investigative Directorate should investigate violations underlying the police services over that, which are committed by individuals. The study then recommended that Independent Police Investigative Directorate should avoid investigating systemic corruption in the areas where the directorate does not have expertise; instead, such cases should be referred to the Secretariat that is an independent body that is tasked to advise the Minister of Police (Vawda and Mtshali, 2013).

South African Revenue Service (SARS)

Another institution that is tasked to fight corruption is the South African Revenue Service which was established through legislation to contribute directly to economic and social development of South Africans by collecting tax and encouraging compliance to customs. Business Portal (2015) reports a low risk of tax administration in South Africa as compared to the entire region, but a high risk in import and export of commodities due to corruption. Some of South African Revenue Service officials have been convicted of soliciting bribe from importers who wanted their consignment to be released. Dentlinger (2018) confirms that the head of SARS admitted that there has been governance issues and corruption at SARS, an act that is negatively affecting the importers and exporters and as well as the morale of the tax payers. Government is also not seen to be effectively fighting corruption in the tax sector, an area that can be used to curb fruitless and wasteful expenditures. Instead there is a constant increase in tax including Value Added Tax (VAT) which was increased from 14% to 15% in 2018.

Therefore, tax evasions are also some of the prevalent corrupt activities amongst businesses in South Africa. Viljoen (2016) argues that tax evasion is not only a global phenomenon but an ancient times practice. Taxpayers have always sought methods of
minimising their tax liabilities in a number of ways, an act that is ancient and that can be observed in modern businesses. Businesses want to generate as much finances as they can.

**Financial Intelligence Centre (FIC)**

Financial security is paramount to South African government. Hence, there is the Financial Intelligence Centre that is being established to create a safe environment in the country, with a purpose of supporting the financial system in South Africa. The centre promotes compliance to the Financial Intelligence Centre Act, 2001 (Government of South Africa 2001), and it fights corruption such as money laundering and financing of terrorist’s activities, through provision of financial intelligence to relevant officers mandated to prosecute and make arrests. All types of businesses are required to report suspicious transactions and to identify their clients. Accountable and reporting businesses are also required to register with Financial Intelligence Centre, and that non-complying businesses could be fined. Portfolio Property Investments (2018) maintains that as much as Financial Intelligence Centre is delivering on its mandate, criminals will always find different ways of hiding their money which was obtained through illegal means. Some monies that might have been accumulated through drug trafficking, bribery or illegal sales of various commodities are often invested in property. There is a lot of money that is invested in property, and which is directly linked to corruption.

**PRINCIPAL AGENT THEORY**

Stephenson (2015) states that corruption is a typical example of a principal-agent problem. A principal-agent problem occurs when one or more actors, which could be individuals or organisations (agents), are entrusted with the authority to act on behalf of the other individuals, group or cause (principal), and the agents act based on their own interest rather than that of the principal. The agent thus in the process abuse the authority and power that is given to them by the principal.

The application of the principal-agent-theory in the public sector then put the politicians in the position of the principal, who is given power by the agents, who in this case are the electorates, to act on their behalf. The agent being the politician is often uncontrollable and in some instances unaccountable, because the principal cannot always monitor him. The same applies to the businesses sector where in companies act as agents and the investors as principals, thus agents can sometimes betray the trust of the principals.

For example, in South Africa certain companies and individuals were said to have colluded with the former president to betray the trust of the electorates by stealing national resources and by illegally influencing the appointment of cabinet ministers, Board of Directors and Chief Executive Officers (CEO) of State Owned Entities (SOEs); the phenomenon was described as the state capture. Madia (2017) reported that the then Deputy-President of the country Mr Cyril Ramaphosa said; “We now know, without any shred of uncertainty that billions of Rands of public resources have been diverted into the pockets of a few in the form of the state capture”. It has been known for some time that the Gupta family in South Africa are looting the state resources and are also implicated in the state capture, because they are said to have powers to influence the appointment of cabinet ministers and board of directors in many State Owned companies. Thus, this example stated above demonstrates how agents can betray the trust of the principals, in this case the electorates in the public sector.

**LITERATURE REVIEW**

Corruption is generally associated with the public sector because this is where the elected officials embezzle the purse of the electorates. However, the concept corruption is sector neutral; and furthermore, corruption can be equally observed in the private sector. Some researchers further argue that corruption is the concept that has been coined and popularised
by the Western countries. De Maria (2008) argues that the concept corruption is invented by the Western business. Hence, it is more often used to describe non-Western business activities and their governments. It is further argued that neoliberal forces are behind the popularisation of the concept corruption.

Researchers should therefore ensure that they give an objective view of corruption and that they portray the dominant understanding of corruption by identifying its major actors and interested parties that drives anti-corruption initiatives. Therefore, as they criticise corruption, they should in the process generate creative alternatives that can lead to new approaches and practical ways of preventing and combating the existing corruption.

Corruption is generally regarded as an activity that takes place in a dysfunctional organisations or where the relationship between public and private sector is characterised by inappropriate conducts. In contrast, Dzimbiri (2009) argues that most African organisation do not have the African features and as a result are deemed to be dysfunctional. The argument further suggests that not all corruption has to be perceived in negative lenses. There is corruption that is geared towards making things happen where there are stiff bureaucratic processes; in that case, bribe is used to grease the unmovable wheels. Osrecki (2015) agrees that companies rely on deviance behaviour in some instances to get things done and to adapt to certain situations. Therefore, in some quarters, corruption is counted in the same breath as the production means, which is land, labour, capital and knowledge.

If corruption in some areas is associated with the production means, therefore fighting it will prove to be difficult. Breit, Lennerfords and Olaison (2015) observed that it is difficult to fight corruption, which is institutionalised. Nevertheless, the World Bank, United Nations and Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) have led global efforts to eradicate corruption. Breit, Lennerfors and Olaison (2015) confirm that anti-corruption industry which include the OECD, World Bank, United Nations Convention and United Nations Global Compact have successfully portrayed corruption in a negative form and as an element that has to be eradicated. Hence, some countries such as Sweden and Norway have taken a lead in eradicating corruption to an extent of prohibiting giving of chocolates or fruit baskets to government or business associates. In some countries, the acts of exchanging gifts are perceived as a gesture for hospitality and formation of rapport before any business transactions can take place.

**IMPLICATION OF CORRUPTION ON BUSINESS**

South Africa is ranked number 61 out of 168 countries that are perceived to be corrupt by Transparency International in 2015, an element that negatively affect private investment (KPMG 2017). Private investment is an important component of any country that has to develop. OECD (2002) observed that foreign direct investment is at the heart of any open and effective international economic system, because it serves as a major catalyst to development.

**SOUTH AFRICA CORRUPTION INDEX 1996-2018**

Trading Economics (2018) reported that out of 100 countries surveyed, South Africa scored 43 points on the Corruption Perceptions Index. Corruption Index in South Africa averaged 46.79 Points from 1996 until 2017, reaching an all-time high of 56.80 Points in 1996 and a record low of 41 Points in 2011. Therefore, this implies that corruption has been a worrying factor in South Africa irrespective of who is the president of the country; it only varies in intensity. See the graph below on the varying perceptions of corruption over the years, zero means the country is very corrupt and 100 means that the country is very clean. On the average of 46.79, which is below 50 points score, South Africa is generally perceived as a corrupt country.

However, with the election of the new president, corruption is being directly confronted, even though significant change is yet to be achieved. In the first quarter of 2018, South Africa
is said to have been ranked number 71 with the average score of 43 points, 180 countries were ranked in total (Rising, 2018).

**Figure 1: South Africa corruption index**

![South Africa Corruption Index](source: tradingeconomics.com | Transparency International)

Corruption dampens the competitiveness of companies and innovative practices. Groenewald (2017) contends that corruption serves as the biggest hurdle to creating a competitive business in South Africa. Nevertheless, in the African context, South Africa remains amongst the top competitive and innovative country.

In addition to corruption, some of the problems experienced by business South Africa is restrictive labour regulations, inadequately educated workforce and inefficient government bureaucracy (Groenewald, 2017). The country has also experienced pervasive corruption in the area of tendering or in the area of doing business with government. Tender system is the most problematic area that is frequently associated with corruption. In that area, government officials collude with companies to inflate commodity prices with the hope of receiving kickbacks. The practice has eroded large amounts of money from government to the pockets of few individuals.

**IMPLICATION OF CORRUPTION ON INVESTORS’ CONFIDENCE**
The more corrupt the country is, the less likely it is to attract foreign direct investment. This is because corruption erodes the investors’ confidence. Madlopha (2018) observed that corruption does not only impact negatively on foreign investors but also on local investors. He stated that corruption could make the local investors to hold back on their major projects. In a Grant Thornton survey, 58% of executives interviewed indicated that they were purposefully delaying their expansion projects in South Africa.

**SOUTH AFRICA BUSINESS CONFIDENCE 1975-2018**

Business Confidence in South Africa increased to 45 Index Points in the first quarter of 2018 from 34 Index Points in the fourth quarter of 2017. Business Confidence in South Africa averaged 44.64 Index Points from 1975 until 2018, reaching an all-time high of 91 Index Points in the third quarter of 1980 and a record low of 10.20 Index Points in the third quarter of 1985. The confidence of the investors is based on a number of elements, amongst which good governance and minimised corruption can be cited. Therefore, if one can compare the points scored in the graph below, with those scored in the graph above, one would observe that the confidence of investors is also boasted by the political stability of the country.

Figure 2: South Africa business confidence

![South Africa Business Confidence Chart](source:tradingeconomics.com)
Minimum

IMPLICATION OF CORRUPTION ON SOCIO-ECONOMIC FACTORS

Corruption has a negative impact on the distribution of welfare income and resources to the relevant beneficiaries. It is therefore not surprising to note that South Africa is one of the most unequal countries in the world in terms of wealth distribution. Thus, with the rise of corruption, the poor are more likely to suffer because they solely depend upon the state’s resources for survival. Kelbrick (2018) observed that corruption undermines the social justice as well as the rule of law, and it in turn erode the resources that are meant for the poor.

More often than not, welfare beneficiaries suffer the most as resources earmarked to improve their livelihood is diverted or misused. For example, in the Free State Province the money that was going to be used in the farm that was to alleviate poverty in that province was diverted to the Guptas to run their wedding at Sun City. Thus, corruption gradually erodes governance structures as it serves as a hurdle to quality livelihoods of the majority of poor South Africans by contributing to high inflation rates and taxes. Countries that have a high corruption perception index tend to spend less on key economic fundamentals (Kelbrick, 2018).

CONCLUSION

The objectives of this paper were stated at the end of the introduction and have been realised through literature review. The first objective was stated as follows,

To investigate the nature of corruption in South Africa and particularly in business.

Through literature review it has been established that corruption in South Africa has a corrosive nature in business. It negatively affect creativity and healthy competitive environment, as some businesses may rely on bribing government officials to get huge contracts. This practice is embroiled in the tendering system of doing business with government.

Furthermore, corruption pervades all sectors of the economy in the country. It has also negatively affected the anti-corruption units in the sense that they are marred by political interferences. As a result, the anti-corruption agencies have become ineffective, and are not realising the expected outcomes. The second objective was stated as follows,

To determine the implication of corrupt activities in businesses in South Africa.

Corruption has negative implications for businesses in South Africa, because it scare off the investors by affecting their confidence in the country. Most investors tend to invest their financial resources in the economically sound environment and politically stable country that has minimal corruption. The graphs presented above demonstrated that the higher the corruption perception index, the lower the investors’ confidence.

Nevertheless, irrespective of high corruption perception indexes and the corruption that has escalated to the state capture, South Africa is still the most innovative and progressive country. The country has to work hard to minimise corruption, an element that the current president is driving, the process will not be easy though, as some senior officials still want to benefit from the corrupt system.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The paper advocates for a consented, collaborative and duly centralised efforts to combat corruption as part of recommendations. It argues that fighting corruption has to be an initiative of all structural organisations, businesses, individuals and all citizens of the country. Civic education towards obtaining buy in of the initiatives to fight corruption will have to be
conducted. Thus, the civics will be taught not to participate, tolerate or turn a blind eye on corrupt activities.

Efforts to fight corruption should involve strengthening of anti-corruption agencies by appointing the right people into the right positions. This act will eliminate nepotism and other form of political interference, which often delay or deny justice in a number of instances. Thus, social justice and law enforcements will have to be duly practised at all times.

REFERENCES


EXPLAINING AND FORECASTING FOR THAI CLOTHING EXPORT UNDER ASEAN FREE TRADE AREA (AFTA)

SUVEENA RUNGROD RUTTANAGORN¹, KWANRU ETAI BOONYASA NA², SIRIPORN SILAPAVANICH³ AND KUNNIKA JAKOR⁴

ABSTRACT

Thailand’s textile industry plays a vital economic role as the country’s major export industry as well as the main source of employment, and currently is renowned globally as an exporter of textiles and clothing. The purpose of this paper involves explaining and forecasting the export value of Thailand’s clothing industry to the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) using a mixed-method of investigating the effects of intra-regional trade of the ASEAN Free Trade Area (AFTA) on Thai clothing export. The result indicates that, after the ASEAN Economic Community’s creation in 2015, many efforts, not only in tariff elimination and reduction but also in integrating industry-focused efforts aimed at removing non-tariff barriers, have had a positive impact on Thailand’s textile industry. In addition, the forecasting result of monthly data time series analysis for the period 2010 to 2017 shows that Thai clothing export will increase significantly from 2017 to 2021.

Keywords: Forecasting, Thai, Clothing, Export, AFTA.

INTRODUCTION

Thailand’s textile industry holds an economic position of importance as the foremost export industry in addition to providing the main source of employment, and possesses a global reputation as a producer and exporter of textiles and clothing. With over 50 years of development, Thailand’s textile and apparel production has become an integrated and diverse industry which includes meditech, agrotech, hometech, mobitech, protech, buildtech, clohtech, geotech, indutech, oekotech, packtech and sporttech. In 2016, Thai textile and clothing export revenue was valued at almost USD 7 billion, contributing to over 3% of total exports, with countries in the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) (23%), the US (16%), Europe (13%), Japan (11%) and China (7%) as key customers (Thinkasiainvestthailand.com, 2018) (see Figure 1). With a complete value chain, Thailand has roughly 4,700 textile manufacturers, ranging from fibers, yarns, dyeing to clothing (Thailand Board of Investment, 2018).

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Even though Thailand’s textile industry has developed significantly over the past five decades, the yearly turnover of Thailand’s garment industry is slightly decreasing. The textile industry is seeing mounting challenges from higher wages and worker shortages since 2015, particularly in labour-intensive industries like garments. Therefore, many garment makers shifted their production base to neighbouring countries because of lower labour cost, tariff exemptions and bountiful raw materials (Fernquest, 2015). In addition, Jantarakolicaa and Chalermsook (2012) found that the Thai export in textile and garment products is significantly influenced by its export price and the exchange rate volatility. Higher exchange rate volatility can cause decrease in export quantity. Furthermore, their study also found significant impacts of the subprime crisis on Thailand’s economy through the sharp drop in Thai textile and garment export during that period.

As we know, Thailand is a newly industrialized country, and its economy is heavily export-dependent, with exports accounting for more than two-thirds of its gross domestic product (GDP). As a result, international marketing is crucial in any response with a view towards future export growth. The purpose of this paper involves explaining and forecasting the export value of Thailand’s clothing industry to ASEAN, which is the biggest international market for Thai clothes. We employ a mixed-method of investigating the effects of intra-regional trade of the ASEAN Free Trade Area (AFTA) on Thai clothing export.

LITERATURE REVIEWS

The standard theory begins in 1954 with Johnson arguing that, in the absence of trade agreements, countries would attempt to exploit their international market power by taxing trade, and the resulting equilibrium would be inefficient for all countries involved. He suggested that international trade agreements can be seen as a way to prevent such a trade war. This idea was later confirmed in modern game-theoretic terms by Mayer (1981), Grossman and Helpman (1995) and Bagwell and Staiger (1999). In these models, as Bagwell and Staiger emphasize, even politically-motivated governments engage in trade agreements only to correct for terms of trade externalities, and they found that politics does not affect the motivation to engage in trade agreements.

The ASEAN Free Trade Area (AFTA) agreement was signed on 28 January 1992 in Singapore. AFTA now comprises the ten countries of ASEAN. All members were required to sign the AFTA agreement to join ASEAN, but were given longer time frames in which to meet AFTA’s tariff reduction obligations. “The main objectives of the AFTA are to: 1) create a single market and an international production base; 2) attract foreign direct investments; and 3) expand intra-ASEAN trade and investments.” The primary goals of AFTA are: 1) to increase ASEAN’s competitive edge as a production base in the world market through the elimination, within ASEAN, of tariffs and non-tariff barriers; and 2) to attract more foreign direct investment to ASEAN. Currently, this liberalisation of trade in the ASEAN region through elimination of both intra-regional tariffs and non-tariff barriers has contributed towards making

![Figure 1: Thai textile and clothing exports, 2016](image)

**Sources:** 1) Thai Customs; 2) Thailand Textile Institute
ASEAN's manufacturing sectors more efficient and competitive in the global market (Malaysia Free Trade Agreements, 2018).

After increasing level of integration by AFTA, ASEAN created the ASEAN Roadmap for Integration of Textiles and Apparel Products Sector (ARITAP). ARITAP covered the full textile and clothing supply chain, including raw fibers (raw cotton, wool, and polyester staple fibers), yarns, fabrics, and finished apparel or textile articles. ASEAN planned to 1) pursuant to which ASEAN is committed, to deepen and broaden its internal economic integration and linkages with the world economy to realise an ASEAN Economic Community; 2) turn the diversity that characterises the region into opportunities and business complementation to make ASEAN a more dynamic and stronger segment of the global supply chain; and 3) carry out an initial round of negotiations and conclude the roadmap for the full integration of the textiles and apparel products sector in ASEAN (ASEAN, 2018).

All these lead to the elimination of tariffs on intra-ASEAN trade in textile and clothing industries, as well as other measures to encourage integration. Maggi and Rodriguez-Clare (2005) found that the immediate tariff cut is a reflection of the terms-of-trade motive for the agreement, while the domestic-commitment motive is reflected in the gradual phase of trade liberalization. They also concluded that the speed of trade liberalization is higher when capital is more mobile across sectors. Hamid and Aslam (2017) investigated intra-regional trade effects of the ASEAN Free Trade Area in the textile and clothing industry by focusing on trade competitiveness and complementarities. The results for both revealed comparative advantage, and intra-industry trade in the context of the textile and clothing industry shows that most ASEAN countries compete predominantly in trade of unprocessed products or raw materials. Consumers or finished products do not exhibit a high degree of competition among ASEAN countries, which suggests that product diversification has enabled ASEAN countries to actively export to the global market.

**METHODOLOGY**

This study employs mixed methods research that includes documentary research and Time Series Analysis on yearly data from 1987-2013. There are four components of Time Series Analysis: trend, cyclical variation, seasonal variation, and irregular variation (Pillai and Bagavathi, 2008). Secular trend (Tt) is the long-term trend of Thailand clothing export in ASEAN. Cyclical variation (Ct) is a typical business cycle consisting of a period of prosperity followed by periods of recession, depression, and then recovery with no fixed duration of the cycle. Hence, there are fluctuations unfolding over more than one year in time above and below the secular trend. Seasonal variation (St) is series fluctuating with the seasons. Because it is unpredictable and cannot be projected into the future, we cannot calculate Irregular variation (It).

The equation of Thailand clothing exported to ASEAN can be written as:

\[ TCX = Tt \times Ct \times St \times It \]

The linear equation to describe growth in Thailand clothing exported to ASEAN is:

\[ T = a + bt \]

Where:
- \( TCX' \) is the projected values for a selected value of \( t \).
- \( a \) is the Y-intercept. It is the estimated value of net \( TCX' \) when \( t = 0 \).
**RESULTS**

Documentary research indicates that Thailand is one of a limited number of countries in the world able to supply the complete textile industry chain from provision of raw materials, through the different steps of production processes to the finished end product. Furthermore, after the ASEAN Economic Community’s creation in 2015, many efforts, not only in tariff elimination and reduction, but also in integrating industry-focused efforts aimed at removing non-tariff barriers, have had a positive impact on Thailand’s textile industry. However, as a consequence of AFTA, Thai garment exports might suffer a decline with more manufacturers expanding to neighbouring ASEAN countries to exploit cheaper costs and more favourable tariff benefits.

**Table 1: Model summary of linear trend, quadratic trend and exponential trend**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model Summary</th>
<th>Linear</th>
<th>Quadratic</th>
<th>Exponential</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>R Square</td>
<td>Adjusted R Square</td>
<td>Std. Error of the Estimate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linear</td>
<td>0.274</td>
<td>0.272</td>
<td>3261179.901</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quadratic</td>
<td>0.392</td>
<td>0.388</td>
<td>2990659.192</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exponential</td>
<td>0.362</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>0.532</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For Time Series Analysis, Table 1 shows model summary of linear trend, quadratic trend and exponential trend. We can see that quadratic trend gives the highest Adjusted R Square, which is 0.388 (see Table 1). Hence, we select quadratic model for this analysis, which the equation:

\[ T = a + bt + ct^2 \]

Where:
- \( T \) is the projected values for a selected value of \( t \).
- \( a \), \( b \), and \( c \) are the numerical coefficients.

To get the coordinates of the point on the line for March 2017 to December 2021, insert the \( t \) value in the equation. Then
The results are presented on an annual basis as shown in Table 2. The actual export values of Thailand clothing to ASEAN market for January 1992 to February 2017 are used to forecast values for March 2017 to December 2021. It can be seen that Thai garment exports will continue to increase slightly after February 2017 (see Table 2).

**Table 2: The forecasting results of Thailand clothing export to ASEAN from March 2017 to December 2021.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Month</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>S</th>
<th>TCS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mar-17</td>
<td>12604603.</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1280046</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apr-17</td>
<td>12686001.</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>1058063</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>May-17</td>
<td>12767783.</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>1252468</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jun-17</td>
<td>12849950.2</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1285329</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jul-17</td>
<td>12932502.</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>1284882</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aug-17</td>
<td>13015439.</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1371749</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sep-17</td>
<td>13098760.</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1404095</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oct-17</td>
<td>13182466.</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>1504330</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nov-17</td>
<td>13266556.</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>1519485</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dec-17</td>
<td>13351031.</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1419014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jan-18</td>
<td>13435891.</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>1167982</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feb-18</td>
<td>13521136.</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>1117035</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mar-18</td>
<td>13606765.</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1388638</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apr-18</td>
<td>13692779.</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>1142032</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>May-18</td>
<td>13779178.</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>1351682</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jun-18</td>
<td>13865961.</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1386956</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jul-18</td>
<td>13953130.</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>1386285</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aug-18</td>
<td>14040682.</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1479803</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sep-18</td>
<td>14128620.</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1514489</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oct-18</td>
<td>14216942.</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>1622380</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Tt = 5658765.475 - 35358.188 (t) + 192.349 (t2)

It can be deduced that Thai garment exports will increase gradually.
DISCUSSIONS

From Figure 2, the forecasting result of monthly data time series analysis for the period 2010 to 2017 shows that Thai clothing export will increase significantly from 2017 to 2021. Even though this is a good sign for Thailand’s clothing industry, in order to capitalize on ASEAN market opportunities, textile producers and exporters need to consider upgrading their production towards technical textiles, as well as exploring product design to meet ASEAN consumer needs. Furthermore, in order to maintain Thailand’s position in the global apparel industry, the Thai government and policy makers should look to improving tariff and other benefits for manufacturers, and continue cooperating with ASEAN countries with a view to future sustainability.

Figure 2: Total Thailand clothing export values to ASEAN for January 1992 to February 2017 and the forecast values for March 2017 to December 2021.
Notes: TCS = TCX’ is the projected values for a selected value of t. 
TOTAL is total Thailand clothing export values to ASEAN.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The purpose of this paper involves explaining and forecasting the export value of Thailand’s clothing industry to the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) using a mixed-method of investigating the effects of intra-regional trade of the ASEAN Free Trade Area (AFTA) on Thai clothing export. Documentary research shows that Thailand is one of the few countries in the world which can provide within the textile industry the raw materials required throughout the various steps of the production processes up to the final end product. However, because of AFTA, Thai garment exports could see a reduction due to an increasing number of manufacturers expanding to neighbouring ASEAN countries in order to benefit from cheaper costs and more favourable tariff arrangements. Even so, the forecasting result of monthly data time series analysis for the period 2010 to 2017 indicates that Thai clothing export will experience significant increase from 2017 to 2021. Although this is a positive sign for Thailand’s clothing industry, in order to make the most of ASEAN market opportunities, textile producers and exporters should consider upgrading their production in the direction of technical textiles, as well as looking to product design in accordance with ASEAN consumer needs.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

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REFERENCES


UNDERSTANDING THE TAX MORALE OF SMALL AND MEDIUM ENTERPRISES: A SURVEY OF BUSINESS OWNERS

FARHEEN TAORAUB¹, HEMA SOONDRAHM² AND BHAVISH JUGURNATH³

ABSTRACT

Taxpayer compliance research has tended to focus on why people evade their taxes rather than on why the vast majority of people do willingly comply with their tax obligations. This intrinsic willingness of complying with tax obligations is characterised as 'tax morale'. The main aim of this research is to seek out factors that affect the tax morale of small and medium enterprises in Mauritius. The factors were based on previous literature and were broadly categorised into demographic, corporate and governmental. There is limited research on tax morale focusing on small and medium enterprises. A survey was conducted among 250 business owners and the results analysed. It was found that the majority of the owners have a relatively high tax morale.

Keywords: Tax morale, Small Enterprises, Business Enterprises, Business owners.

INTRODUCTION

The concept of tax morale began to draw increased interest of tax scholars in the 1990’s but was however considered only as a key factor in explaining tax compliance, as established in the study conducted by the Cologne school of tax psychology (Strümpel, 1966). This was later criticised and as such several studies were conducted on the tax morale concept in itself. It was defined as “an intrinsic motivation to pay taxes” in the literature of diverse studies (Frey, 1997; Torgler, 2007). The factors affecting tax morale will be studied in this research and it will be at SMEs (Small and Medium Enterprises) level given the decisive role that they play in the Mauritian economy. Past studies conducted on tax morale were mostly at individuals’ level, therefore this study will add to the literature review by investigating tax morale at firms’ level, more precisely on SMES in Mauritius.

According to the SMEDA (Small and Medium Enterprise Development Authority) Act 2009 amended in 2015, the distinction between micro, small and medium enterprise is based on their annual turnover basis as shown in Table 1 below.

Table 1: SME definition

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Enterprise</th>
<th>Annual Turnover (Rs. Millions)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Micro</td>
<td>&lt; 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small</td>
<td>2 – 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>10 – 50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The latest Census of Economic Activities (CEA) in 2013 shows that Mauritius comprises of some 108,000 SMEs whose contribution is predicted to have touched 40% of GDP and reached 55% of total employment as illustrated by Table 2.

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Table 2: Value added, GDP and employment of SMEs for 2002, 2007 and 2013

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Value added of SMEs (MUR million)</th>
<th>GDP at basic prices (MUR million)</th>
<th>% Contribution of SMEs to GDP</th>
<th>Employment in SMEs</th>
<th>Total Employment</th>
<th>% of Employment in SMEs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>43,400</td>
<td>125,777</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>235,000</td>
<td>493,000</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>83,640</td>
<td>215,449</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>268,900</td>
<td>523,700</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>127,736</td>
<td>322,937</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>301,000</td>
<td>552,000</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Statistics Mauritius

LITERATURE REVIEW

The word “tax” emerges from the Latin word “taxāre” or “taxo” which means to condemn, charge and enumerate. As such, several definitions have been given to tax. One can be Organisation for Economic and Cooperation Development (OECD 1996) which defines tax as a mandatory, unreturned payment made to the government. Another one is according to James and Nobes (1998) who explained tax as an obligatory levy made by public authorities in return of which nothing is received directly. Likewise, Bastable (1892) highlighted that tax involves sacrifice and a deduction in income on behalf of the donor. As quoted by Benjamin Franklin: “In this world, nothing can be said to be certain except death and taxes.”

Therefore each and everyone have to pay tax in his lifetime irrespective of his/her income level. The same applies for SMEs. Further, Omotoso (2001) defined tax as a compulsory charge on the income of companies and individuals by the State as required by its dictum. Also, according to Christensen, Clinse and Neubig (2001), small business owners are liable to collect as well as to remit taxes. Hence, they are vital players in an economy’s tax system. Moreover Pillay (2014) stated that there are three types of taxes that SMEs pay. These are corporate tax, employee tax and Value Added Tax (VAT). Corporate tax commonly called as corporation tax is a direct tax levied directly on the profits of the company and is payable by the company itself. In Mauritius, the corporation tax rate on chargeable income of companies is 15%. On the other hand, the employee tax is the Pay As You Earn (PAYE) system which is a structure whereby tax is detained by employers from their employees’ emoluments that are imputable to tax at the time they receive their salaries. Each month, the tax withheld is remitted to the Mauritius Revenue Authority (MRA). As far as VAT is concerned, it is an indirect tax imposed on domestic consumption of goods and services, except those that are exempt or zero-rated. It is administered and collected at each transaction stage of the commercial cycle, that is, from raw materials to the final sale based on the value or price added in the chain of production at each stage. However, VAT is also payable on the importation of goods in Mauritius, irrespective of whether the importer is a taxable person or not. Alike the corporation tax rate, the Mauritian VAT rate also is 15%.

Tax morale is the moral obligation to pay taxes and hence the belief that by doing so, contributes to society. Likewise, several meanings have been given to tax morale. As mentioned before, it has mostly been defined as the “intrinsic motivation to pay taxes”. In other words, it is a person’s internalised disposition to incur tax as depicted by Ahmed and Braithwaite (2005) and Tekeli (2013). Additionally Kornhauser (2007) defined tax morale in a more complete characterisation by describing it as a combined name for all non-rational factors and motivations such as social norms, personal values and various cognitive processes. He believed that the latter strongly affect individual’s voluntary tax compliance. Along with personal value, tax morale is also related to citizen’s duty. This is supported by Orviska and Hudson (2003) study where they linked tax morale to civic duty. In respect to this, Graetz and Wilde (1985) argued that civic responsibility and respect for the law may be the most suitable definition given to tax morale. On the other hand, the latter is defined as the norms of behaviour.
governing taxpayers’ (citizens) relationship with their government by Song and Yarbrough (1978). Besides, Pope and McKerchar (2011) pointed out that tax morale is compatible where compulsory laws and regulations are not present, that is, morality of tax is most evident when taxpayers are not forced to comply. This is backed by the definition of tax morale given by OECD (2013).

From the various definitions above, it is understood that tax morale affiliates to the demeanor of individuals which triggers them to pay tax. Notwithstanding, practically all preexisting research has concentrated on individual’s tax morale (Pope and McKerchar, 2011) and there are very few studies such as those of Ahmed and Braithwaite (2005), Alm and McClellan (2012), Mickiewicz, Rebman and Sauka (2012), Abdixhiku (2013) and Yücedoğru and Hasseldine (2016) that investigated tax morale at firm level. Among these researches, only Yücedoğru and Hasseldine (2016) concentrated on SMEs tax morale and its influence on their taxpaying behaviour. It was Jackson and Milliron (1986) who first construed a definition of tax compliance where someone who files a timely and an accurate full paid return without enforcement efforts of Internal Revenue Service (IRS), is defined as a compliant taxpayer. According to McKerchar and Evans (2009) and Mohdali (2013), tax compliance studies are often based on three major models, namely the general deterrence model, psychological model and fiscal-psychological model (Parlaungan, 2017).

From the researches done based on these three models, it can be found that there is wide acknowledgement that taxpayer compliance is influenced by non-economic variables which in the maximum utility model, is neglected. Broadly, Luttmer and Singhal (2014) defined tax morale as non-pecuniary motivations for tax compliance in conjunction with factors that do not fall within the standard expected utility framework. They emphasised on the alteration between tax morale and utility in the economic sense even though they took into account the elements of benefit and loss which may subsist. They therefore concluded that tax compliance lured by an elevated level of tax morale can affect taxpayers and eventually be economically beneficial.

On the other hand, Kornhauser (2007) pointed to the direction of tax morale through an individualised method known as the ‘carrot and stick approach’, for encouraging tax compliance. This method identifies that different taxpayers have distinctive taxpaying behaviours and attitudes that are influenced by the tax authority and which changes over time. She stated that this model seeks to make compliance easier for taxpayers but however for those who fail to comply, strict penalties should be enforced against them. Consequently, it can be observed that there are many studies that demonstrated tax morale correlates with tax compliance (Riahi-Belkaoui, 2004; Ahmed and Braithwaite, 2005; Kornhauser, 2006; Frey and Torgler, 2007; Torgler, Schneider and Schaltegger. 2009; Halla, 2010; Pope and McKerchar. 2011; Alm and McClellan, 2012, McKerchar, Bloomqvist and Pope, 2013; Babu and Chariye, 2015; Yew, Milanov and McGee, 2015).

SMEs’ tax morale is consistent with the compliance decisions of corporate taxpayers’ interest that differ from those of individual taxpayers. As such, distinctive sets of determinants are likely to have an effect on their tax morale level. These distinguished sets of constructs are taken into account by firms’ owner-managers while operating their enterprises. These factors can be interpreted as company related concerns. Moreover, given that classical economic theory picturises a firm as profit maximiser or the maximiser of expected utility of profits, this therefore allows the framework for individuals devised by Allingham and Sandmo (1972) that can be enforced almost alike to SMEs. Both companies and individuals are subject to the social norms that may impact on their inherent motivation to incur taxes even though they are evidently different from each other. Furthermore, given the fact that any firm’s decisions are naturally made by the person who own and manage it, this evidently implies that most of the factors that influence tax morale of individuals seem likely to filter down at firm’s level as well.
Consequently, Yücedoğru (2013) devised SMEs’ tax morale model (Figure 1) in reference to Ajzen’s (1991) theory of planned behavior. The prime theory behind this model is to illustrate SMEs’ tax morale resulting from owner-managers’ decision making process whereby he highlighted the two distinct roles of SMEs which are SMEs’ decision makers as an individual and SMEs’ manager as decision takers. This model of Yücedoğru (2013) consists of three main categories which are personal norms, corporate norms and perceived behavioural control. He stated that SMEs’ owner-manager, being an individual; make management decisions based on their social positioning, norms and personal beliefs which he entitled personal norms. In correspondence to the latter, SMEs shoulder the responsibility and accountability of the firm on its owner-manager because of which besides personal norms, they are loaded with additional factors fundamental to the survival of SMEs. These constructs are presented under the heading of corporate norms by this model and they are identified as compliance costs, professionalism, tax advisor’s effect and company structure that are said to have an impact on tax morale of SMEs. Last but not the least, perceived behavioural control factors is explained as SMEs’ capability to illustrate tax morale in their taxpaying decisions. These factors are the size of economic obligations and risk preferences which are believed to relate directly with SMEs rather than with the owner-managers’ personally.

**Figure 1: Model of tax morale of the SME and its determinants**

Along with the above mentioned factors of Yücedoğru, there are several other factors that affect the tax morale of firms. One is the demographic factors (Torgler, 2007) of SMEs owner-managers. These demographic elements are age, gender, educational level and religious background of the individuals owning and managing the SME. In addition to this, according to Alm and McClellan (2012), ‘tax inspection’ and ‘taxes as obstacle’ are two important factors that have an influence on a firm’s tax morale. They used tax inspection as a variable for the measurement of tax enforcement which was based on whether a firm is inspected by the tax
authorities during its year of operations and on the other hand, they used tax as an obstacle as the other variable whereby they addressed tax rates and tax administration as a hindrance to doing business. Furthermore, trust in government is another fundamental element that affects tax morale of taxpayers.

As confirmed by Torgler (2012), the bond between public authorities and taxpayers appears to be pivotal concerning tax morale. Expressed differently, level of tax morale rest upon whether taxpayers have faith in their State Regimes, whereby high level of compliance is influenced with higher degree of trust. On the other hand, according to Torgler (2004), corruption level is observed to influence tax morale. He further added that when there a large number of corrupt colleagues, there might be a crowding-out effect of morality among tax administrators. Additionally, governmental fiscal policy is another factor which helps in determining tax morale of taxpayers (Alm, McClelland and Schulze, 1992; Guth, Levati and Sausgruber. 2005). Last but not the least, Hite and Roberts (1992) stated that fairness is expressively linked to a notion of an amended tax system and he found that there is a connection between tax evasion and fairness. Relating to this, Alasfour, Samy and Bampton (2016) declared that equity and fairness of the taxation system’ perception is associated with tax morale. As discussed above, with some notable exemptions, former literatures have generally not provided an extensive dimension on how the concept of SMEs’ tax morale is framed. However, from the above discussion, it can be seen that some factors that affect individuals’ tax morale are going to influence tax morale of SMEs’ owner-managers as well. These factors are grouped under the heading of socio-cultural, demographic and attitudinal factors.

METHODOLOGY

Apart from the motivation that there is no previous study on Mauritian SMEs’ tax morale to the authors’ knowledge, other research objectives behind undertaking this dissertation are as follows:

- To establish the relationship between tax morale and tax compliance at firms level.
- To ascertain the effect of demographic factors of owner-managers of SMEs on the tax morale of their firms.
- To scrutinise the corporate/institutional factors on the tax morale of SMEs.
- To assess the government-related elements on SMEs’ tax morale

According to Check and Schutt (2012), survey research is defined as “the collection of information from a sample of individuals through their responses to questions”. It is mostly known for its flexibility where a wide range of data collection can be obtained. One way of carrying a survey is through questionnaire. The latter has been used for the collection of data purpose for this study since it is more efficient in collecting quantitative data from a large sample within limited amount of time. The questionnaire was designed in a streamlined form to stimulate the response rate supplemented by a covering letter in which the reason for the study was explained. It contained closed-ended questions of diverse formats, namely: multiple choices, dichotomous answers, filtered questions and for respondent’s self-assessment, the 5-point Likert scale was adopted. The questions were split into 5 sections which are as follows: Section A and B focused mainly on the personal characteristics of the respondent and his/her firm respectively, whereby a total of 6 multiple choice questions and 3 dichotomous questions were asked. Section C contained 4 questions with dichotomous answers of ‘yes’ and ‘no’ and these questions were about tax morale and tax compliance. Section D was about tax morale and the corporate factors and there were a total of 13 questions out of which 5 were 5-point Likert Scale starting from ‘strongly disagree’ and end till ‘strongly agree’ and the other 8 were dichotomous within which 2 were filtered questions for which proper notes was given so as to facilitate respondent from answering. The last section which is section E dealt with tax morale and governmental factors where in all 6 questions were asked and all of them were on the 5-
point Likert scale. A sample of 250 SMEs was chosen from the latest SME list obtained via SMEDA MYBIZ. In order to ensure a high degree of representatives of the population, the stratified sampling method has been used. Frankel, Wallen and Hyun (2012) stated that “stratified random sampling is a process in which a certain subgroups or strata are selected for the sample in the same proportion as they exist in the population”. Therefore, the stratification was made based on the districts in which the SMEs are located so as to give every SMEs of the island an equal chance of selection. The questionnaires were mainly administered via emails while some questionnaires were also distributed in form of hardcopy following the confirmation of certain appointments with SMEs owner-manager.

RESULTS

The Cronbach’s alpha is 0.863 which implies that the variables are highly reliable. Therefore, the survey is valid and advanced analysis can be executed. Tax morale which is the dependent variable has a mean of 0.70 and a standard deviation of 0.454 which illustrates that majority of respondent were agreeable to the fact that they have a moral obligation to incur their firms’ tax expenses. Overall it can be observed that most of the independent variables have a mean that falls rightly within the range indicating that they all have an influence on tax morale and the standard deviation are fairly coherent given that all variables are normally spread out over their range of values. The one having the highest mean of 4.24 is tax obstacle 1 (Tax rate and tax administration are obstacle to doing business) which implies that this independent variable has the strongest influence on tax morale. Likewise, its standard deviation (0.726) also is highly concentrated. On the other hand, the one having the lowest mean among the independent variables is tax audit 2 (Have you ever been inspected by tax officials from MRA?) with a mean of 0.23 which ultimately indicates the weakest influence on SME’s tax morale. This is so because small businesses are less likely to attract tax authorities as spelled out by Alm and McClellan (2012). For hypothesis testing, two hypotheses are formed where one is denoted by \( H_0 \) (null hypothesis) and the second one by \( H_1 \) (alternative hypothesis).

Tax Morale and Tax Compliance - For understanding the complying behaviour of SMEs, the question “Do you disclose all income earned for tax purposes?” was inquired. The hypothesis formed were:

- \( H_0 \): Firm’s tax morale and tax compliance are not correlated
- \( H_1 \): Firm’s tax morale and tax compliance are correlated

The \( p \) value (Asymp.Sig) is 0.00 being lower than 0.05 and implies that we reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternative one. Therefore, it can be concluded that firm’s tax morale and tax complying behaviour are correlated which is line with past studies as mentioned in the literature review.

Tax Morale and Tax Evasion - For tax evasion, the question “Would you cheat on tax by incurring less tax expense if you have a chance?” was put forward. The following hypothesis was composed: The chi-square test result for SMEs tax morale and tax evasion where the \( p \) value being 0.00 is below 0.05 implies that \( H_0 \) must be rejected and conclude that these two are correlated.

Corporate Factors

Our results point to a relationship between a firm’s compliance cost and its tax morale. This can be backed by the study of Evans et al (2001). We also conclude that there is indeed an association between the professionalism of SMEs and their tax morale like in the study of Yücedoğru and Hasseldine (2016). Respondents were asked whether they employ a tax advisor to do tax related work for their firm and if no, do they prepare their own tax bill? Only 31.5% SMEs employ a tax advisor and the rest (68.5%) arranges their own tax bill. This is so because all those who organises their own tax bill believe that by doing so, they better comply with
their firm’s tax expense representing 75.2%. Our results provide evidence of a relationship between a firm who employs a tax advisor and its tax morale as the p value is 0.00 which is below 0.05, hence rejecting H0. This is backed by the study of Hasseldine et al. (2007). There is also certainly an association between the tax burden that SMEs bear and their tax morale as in the study of Bernasconi et al. (2014). It was noted that 60.9% of SMEs are able to submit their VAT return on time without any struggle and 39.1% do struggle in submitting their VAT return.

For this study, we are using the binary logistic regression because of the dependent variable being a categorical (dichotomous) one. It is one of the Generalised Linear Models (GLM) to analyse the effect of the independent variables on the log-odds of the dependent variable (Tax Morale).

The equation used is as follows:

\[
\ln \frac{P_i}{1-P_i} = \alpha + \beta_1(X_1) + \beta_2(X_2) + \beta_3(X_3) + \beta_4(X_4) + \beta_5(X_5) + \beta_6(X_6) \\
+ \beta_7(X_7) + \beta_8(X_8) + \beta_9(X_9) + \beta_{10}(X_{10}) + \beta_{11}(X_{11}) + \epsilon
\]

Dependent Variable: \(\ln \frac{P_i}{1-P_i}\) is taken as \(y = 1\) if respondents are intrinsically motivated in paying their firm’s tax expense and \(y = 0\) if they are intrinsically demotivated in incurring their firm’s tax expense.

Explanatory Variable: \(x\) is the hypothesis used in influencing independent variables
\(\beta\) : Coefficient of \(x\)
\(\epsilon\) : Stochastic error term

Table 3: Equation variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>X1: Compliance Cost</th>
<th>X7: Tax Audit</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>X2: Professionalism</td>
<td>X8: Govt Trust</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X3: Company Structure</td>
<td>X9: Govt Policy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X4: Tax Advisor</td>
<td>X10: Integrity of Tax Officials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X5: Tax Burden</td>
<td>X11: Equity and Fairness of Taxation System</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X6: Tax as Obstacle</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(\epsilon) : All other variables such as corruption and money laundering</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Upon the above explanations, the following logistic equation is formed:

\[
\ln \frac{P}{1-P} = b_1 \times \text{Compliance Cost} + b_2 \times \text{Professionalism} + b_3 \times \text{Company Structure} + \\
+ b_4 \times \text{Tax Advisor} + b_5 \times \text{Tax Burden} + b_6 \times \text{Tax Obstacle} + b_7 \times \\
\text{Tax Audit} + b_8 \times \text{Govt Trust} + b_9 \times \text{Govt Policy} + b_{10} \times \\
\text{Officials Integrity} + b_{11} \times \text{Equity and Fairness}
\]

Where \(P = \) Probability of SMEs being intrinsically motivated in paying tax

It was observed that the Omnibus Test shows a chi2 of 240.702 with 11 degree of freedom and a significant value of 0.00. The latter being below 0.05 implies that the model is significant and was able to distinguish between SMEs having and not having tax morale. The Hosmer and Lemeshow Test also supports the model as being worthwhile given that its significance value is greater than 0.05 (0.996). Moreover, the Cox & Snell R2 and the Nagelkerke R2 values give an indication of the amount of variation in firms tax morale explained by the model. Here, the model as a whole elucidates between 64.1% and 96.1% of the variance in tax morale status of SMEs.
Table 4: SPSS logistic regression

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tax Morale</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>Std Error</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>Odds Ratio</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Compliance Cost</td>
<td>-1.149</td>
<td>1.343</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.392</td>
<td>0.317</td>
<td>0.923 - 4.408</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professionalism</td>
<td>2.385</td>
<td>0.555</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>10.861</td>
<td>3.657 - 32.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Company Structure</td>
<td>1.210</td>
<td>0.910</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.184</td>
<td>3.353</td>
<td>0.563 - 19.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tax Advisor</td>
<td>2.735</td>
<td>2.556</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.996</td>
<td>15.40</td>
<td>4.524 - 17.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tax Burden</td>
<td>-4.433</td>
<td>0.960</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.012</td>
<td>0.002 - 0.078</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tax Obstacle</td>
<td>-1.629</td>
<td>0.832</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.048</td>
<td>0.196</td>
<td>0.038 - 1.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tax Audit</td>
<td>0.318</td>
<td>0.399</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.387</td>
<td>1.679</td>
<td>0.519 - 5.432</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Govt Trust</td>
<td>0.962</td>
<td>1.515</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.526</td>
<td>2.616</td>
<td>1.343 - 25.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Govt Policy</td>
<td>1.248</td>
<td>1.374</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.364</td>
<td>3.484</td>
<td>0.226 - 25.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Official’s Integrity</td>
<td>2.087</td>
<td>1.008</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.038</td>
<td>8.062</td>
<td>1.118 - 25.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equity &amp; Fairness</td>
<td>2.910</td>
<td>1.161</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.012</td>
<td>18.333</td>
<td>1.887 - 20.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>-19.915</td>
<td>4.945</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 illustrates the beta (B) coefficients along with the standard (Std) error, the significance value (p), the odds ratio and the 95% confidence interval of the eleven independent variables against the dependent variable (Tax Morale). The logistic regression equation is as follows when expressed in terms of the eleven variables used:

\[
\log \left( \frac{p}{1-p} \right) = -19.915 - 1.149 \times \text{Compliance Cost} + 2.385 \times \text{Professionalism} + 1.210 \times \text{Company Structure} + 7.735 \times \text{Tax Advisor} - 4.433 \times \text{Tax Burden} - 1.629 \times \text{Tax Obstacle} + 0.518 \times \text{Tax Audit} + 0.962 \times \text{Govt Trust} + 1.248 \times \text{Govt Policy} + 2.087 \times \text{Official’s Integrity} + 2.910 \times \text{Equity and Fairness of Tax System}.
\]

However, it is noteworthy that only five of the independent variables (professionalism, tax burden, tax obstacle, official’s integrity and equity and fairness of taxation system) plus the constant made a unique statistically significant (p<0.05) contribution to the model.

CONCLUSION

Based on a deductive and quantitative approach, tax morale has been surveyed on 235 SMEs in Mauritius for our research. The survey has helped in achieving the objectives of this study and as such light has been shed on tax morale at SMEs level. It has been found that tax morale of SMEs owner-manager is high in Mauritius as 71% of respondents have agreed to the fact that they do have a moral obligation in incurring their firm’s tax expenses. In consonance with past studies, our study also has revealed a direct positive relationship between SMEs tax morale and tax compliance. As far as the variables are concerned, all of them somehow do influence SMEs owner-managers’ tax morale. Among the factors, based on our findings, it is observed that the four demographic variables have the least influence on SMEs tax morale as compared to the corporate and governmental variables which significantly affect tax morale. In addition, out of the seven variables of the corporate factors, it can be perceived that professionalism, tax burden and tax obstacle are the most influencing which therefore implies that Mauritian SMEs operate professionally but they do perceived tax as being a major hindrance in doing business. On the other hand, trust in government, officials’ integrity and fairness of tax system are three governmental factors which have the major impact on SMEs tax morale and based upon our analysis, it was seen that Mauritian SMEs have an intense faith on the Mauritian State which can be due to the enforcement of several exemptions regarding fiscal policies. They also believe in the fact that most of the tax officials are uncorrupted and that our taxation system is fair and equitable.

REFERENCES


“YOU DO NOT THROW AWAY HISTORY, YOU FIGHT”: CONVERSATIONS ABOUT JUSTICE

LEILA KAJEE

ABSTRACT

Education is certainly not a neutral entity: it is imbued with power struggles, transgressions and dichotomies. Schools, for instance, are capable of reproducing social inequalities, just as they are of transforming our social world. Freire (1970) recognised this contradiction: although education can serve to maintain opposing social orders, it is also used to liberate people and transform society. South Africa is no longer a new democracy, having overcome apartheid in more than two decades ago. However, the South African education system has long been a contentious one, with Jansen (2012), at one point, claiming that it could be a threat to our democracy. This paper argues that justice should be core to the classroom. I engage with multiple notions of justice, then report on a study conducted with pre-service teachers in the field on how they make sense of justice. The paper concludes with implications for teaching and learning.

Keywords: Social justice, Pre-service teachers, Politics of recognition, Discomfort.

INTRODUCTION:

No pedagogy which is truly liberating can remain distant from the oppressed by treating them as unfortunates and by presenting for their emulation models from among the oppressors. The oppressed must be their own example in the struggle for their redemption. (Freire, 1970, p. 54)

Education is a fundamental human right. Yet education is not a neutral entity: for Foucault (1994), education is imbued with power struggles, transgressions and dichotomies. Schools, for instance, are just as capable of reproducing social inequalities, as they are of transforming our social world. Freire (1970) recognised this duality: his contention was that although education can be used to liberate people and transform society, it can also serve to maintain opposing social orders. The South African education system has long been a contentious one, with Jansen (2012), at one point, claiming that it could be a threat to our democracy. Evidence of the latter abounds given media reports of racism and other transgressions in schools: a teacher who was fired for racism at St Johns, a private school in Johannesburg (Timeslive, 2017); a teacher who was accused of molestation at Parktown Boys, a Johannesburg boys school (Rahlanga, 2017); and racial intolerance, for example black boys sent home for “objectionable” hairstyles (Sokanyile, 2017).

Given the current state of schooling, as evidenced by the previous examples, post-apartheid South Africa could be considered a post-conflict society, and, in Jansen’s view, should be characterised by post-conflict pedagogy (Jansen, 2009). To elucidate, post-conflict pedagogy is critical pedagogy that recognises the power and the pain at play in school and society, and their effects on young people, and then asks how things could be better (Jansen, 2009). Post-apartheid South Africa is plagued with pain. Yet efforts to manage this pain seem to be ineffectual, and although schools have integrated, we are still plagued with media reports such as those just cited.

INSIGHTS TO FREIRIAN CRITICAL PEDAGOGY

Education is a political act and given the unfeasibility of remaining neutral, educators have to make political choices (Freire, 2000). Critical pedagogy, which involves teachers and learners

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in a dialogic relationship, evidenced by mutual respect, represents an approach that leads to conscientisation and empowerment (Freire, 2000). This dialogic relationship is empowering and transformative. Teachers too may act as agents of social equality and justice, as transformative intellectuals, or as agents of conflict. Teachers have the ability to promote inclusiveness among students, or encourage social divisions based on ethnic, religious, racial or gender differences (Novelli and Sayed, 2016). They have the ability to support dominant oppressive hegemonies, or to resist them.

My work with pre-service teachers (PSTs) in a Faculty of Education at a university in Johannesburg motivates this paper. Work in the faculty is underpinned by notions of justice, yet I am often recipient of student narratives about the contradictions between theory and practice in their teacher-training programme. The view many students hold is that they are provided with theoretical training, however, much of what occurs in schools, has less to do with issues of justice, and more to do with bureaucracy and administrative tasks. Matters that strike deeply in their hearts seem to be marginalised: how to focus on teaching and learning when schools appear to be struggling with issues of gross injustices?

My aim in this paper is to address the aforementioned gap, by presenting thoughts of how PSTs, specialising in English Language Education, and in their final year of study, engage with notions of justice. The questions raised are: How do pre-service teachers engage with and negotiate issues of social justice, and what implications does this have for the classroom? The first part of the literature is framed by theoretical discussions of justice, thereafter I provide details of the study and a discussion of data.

FRAMING THEORIES OF JUSTICE:

While teacher-education programmes oft make the claim of preparing socially just teachers, one struggles to recognise notions of justice intrinsic in core teaching. Often, justice is perceived “just good teaching”, thus deconstructions of justice become necessary. Essentially, social justice refers to fair and just relations between individuals and society; it involves breaking barriers for social mobility; breaking the cycles of oppression; and examining systems of power and privilege. Defined by Bell (1997, pp. 3-4) as “full and equal participation of all groups in a society that is mutually shaped to meet their needs…while the process of social justice should be democratic and participatory, inclusive and affirming of human agency and human capacities for working collaboratively to create change”. Inclusivity, participation, and equity are core concepts. Nieto (2006, p. 2) adds that social justice “challenges, confronts, and disrupts misconceptions, untruths, and stereotypes that lead to structural inequality based on race, social class, gender, and other social and human differences.” Thus, challenging the status quo and counter-hegemony are inherent concerns.

Sen (1984; 2001) and later Nussbaum (2000; 2006), as promoters of the human capabilities approach to social justice, discuss people’s positioning in terms of what they are able to do with personal, social and material resources, or, to lead “the good life”. Inequitable distribution results in achievements and freedoms that are seen in terms of a person’s ability to do different things s/he has reason to value. The aim being to contribute to a better world, and to respond to injustice. A foundational concept is substantive freedom: to live a life that is valued; to achieve important things in life; to participate in society; to flourish; and to have a range of capabilities (what people are able to do and be, for instance, to hold a decent job, have a family, practice religion, educational access, freedom from violence).

Rawls’ (1971) notion of distributive justice refers to the socially just distribution of goods in society, such that goods that are distributed (economic wealth, social position, access) are done fairly and equally. The disadvantaged should be the prime beneficiaries. Rawls’ “justice as fairness” gives rise to two principles: first, that society be structured so that its members are given liberty, and second, that should inequalities be worse off, this should be the situation as
better than under equal distribution. Rawls’ (1971) distributive notion grew from liberal democratic theory, the focus being on equality of individuals to pursue their own ideas of the good life. Injustice is seen as inequality and manifests in exploitation. The remedy in this view is redistribution of goods, power, and opportunities.

For Fraser (2008; 2009) the ability to participate in an equitable way as full partners in interaction with others and full members of society (participatory parity) is the ultimate goal of social justice (Bozalek and Leibowitz, 2010). To achieve this needs a redistribution of resources (economic), recognition of status (cultural view of justice) and Fraser later added social belonging and representation (political). Recognition has to do with how people are regarded in relation to the social markers or distinctive attributes that are ascribed to them. Social belonging is about inclusion and exclusion, that is, who counts as a member of the community entitled to make justice claims.

Examples of a distributive notion of justice in education took the form of compensatory programmes, bridging courses and add-on curricula (Cochran-Smith et al., 2009). To many this manifested as a superficial approach, that does not address the roots of the problem. Furthermore, to focus only on equality and redistribution alone is inadequate, and fails to recognise whole social groups such as gay, lesbian, black liberation, and so on (Cochran-Smith et al., 2009). A distributive notion today then would focus rather on democracy and struggles for recognition of social groups based on culture, race, gender, religion, language, sexual orientation, that is, the politics of identity and difference (Cochran-Smith et al., 2009).

THE STUDY:

This paper reports on a qualitative case study conducted with 25 final-year Language Education pre-service teachers at a university in Johannesburg, South Africa. Twenty-five participants represented all the students I had to supervise during their work-integrated learning (WIL) in schools. WIL refers to the period when education students go out to schools on supervised teaching practice. Case studies are designed to gain deep understanding of situations and meaning for those involved. They are in-depth, descriptive pieces of research that focus on bounded instances (Lankshear, 1999; Yin, 1994; Yin, 2017). The interest is in the process rather than outcomes, in context rather than a specific variable, in discovery rather than confirmation. I drew on Candappa’s (2017) justification for the case study, which lies in its potential for learning, and its explanatory power. Using Denzin and Lincoln’s notion that qualitative researchers deploy a wide range of interconnected methods, hoping always to get a better fix on the subject matter at hand (1998, p. 3), as well as Candappa’s “multiple sources of evidence” (2017, p. 181), I used group interviews and lesson observations as methodology. The participants were interviewed in five groups of five, for about ninety minutes per group. The sample constituted ten male and fifteen female participants, between the ages of 21 and 25 years old (referred to as T1-T25). The group represented a spread of black, white, Indian and colored students. The latter terms are apartheid nomenclature, but continue to be used for current post-apartheid understandings. The focal concern of the group interviews was the participants’ understandings of social justice. The interviews were conducted just prior to their seven-week work integrated learning (WIL) session. Thereafter I report on two of the 25 lessons I observed during WIL in order to engage with how they enact (or not) social justice in specific moments of their teaching. The data was analysed using Braun and Clarke’s (2006) model for thematic analysis. Patterns were identified in the data transcripts on students’ views of social justice. These were coded using specific categories and themes.
DATA AND DISCUSSION

Extract 1:

T5: But the past brought us here to this point. Our history is the foundation, hurt, inequality, apartheid, this is what we build on, not to forget. You do not throw that away. You fight.

T1: Ja, but now it is decolonization, isn’t it all about justice in the first place?

T2: I remember when I was little, family members talking about strikes and marches that they went on, the stones, fire, violence that happened when they march for equality. Social justice is equality not apartheid. It is time to stand together as one for what is right, for a united future. As a teacher it means we must all have the same, resources, textbooks, facilities. We must all be qualified for our jobs.

T1: But now we are still marching, burning, did they get justice? If so where is it? I am tired, every time we want something we need to destroy? This is not justice. We need to accept that violence does not get us anywhere, there are other ways to get justice. It’s not like in the past. Now we must participate in school decision-making, what we teach, we must be part of the curriculum. We have a right to discuss topics we want.

In Extract 1 the pre-service teachers (PSTs) delve into their memories which range in view from distributive notions of justice (T2 “We must all have the same”), to the role of history: justice must follow apartheid. The ideology of marginalisation is deeply embedded. Their families resisted dominance and hegemony for justice during an apartheid regime. The view proffered by T2 is that we have fought for justice and cannot allow it to slip away now. South Africa achieved its democracy just more than twenty years ago, in 1994, after resisting a long spell of apartheid rule. T1 wonders if we are not merely slipping between concepts, given current protests and calls for decolonised curricula at South African universities. Some resistance is expressed, not to the dominant class, but to the idea of what the pain of resuscitating these memories does to learners today (T4). T5’s response is that the “hurt” (pain) is too deeply embedded, and serves as a foundation for counter-hegemony. Fraser (1995; 2005) and Lederach (1997), in their four-phase model of addressing social justice refer to reconciliation, which deals with past, present, future injustices, in order to develop new relationships of trust, to addressing historical and current injustices of hegemony as a process of social control. The model, cited by Rubagiza, Umutoni and Kaleeba (2016, p. 207), is useful with its suggestions for peace building:

Redistribution (addressing inequalities): equitable access to education, non-discrimination in resource allocation, and education outcomes for equal opportunity;
Recognition (respecting differences): respecting diverse identities in and through education for example in terms of language, gender, religion, ethnicity, culture;
Reconciliation (dealing with past, present, future injustices): justice dealing with the past, developing new relationships of trust. Addressing historical and current injustices;
Representation (encouraging participation) Ensuring equitable participation in governance and decision-making at all levels of the education system. Such a model would take into consideration macro- and micro issues to do with justice.

Black pain and discomfort:

The hurt referred to (T13) is reminiscent of Soudien’s (2015) discussion of black pain, contextualised in the arena of higher education. Soudien is convinced of the hurts that remain after the dismantling of apartheid. Zembylas (2015) too, in his work on a pedagogy of discomfort, also engages with student pain and suffering. His view is that the pain, discomfort and suffering felt by students is pedagogically valuable in learning about victims of injustice (Boler and Zembylas, 2003; Zembylas and McGlynn, 2012). The work alludes that a pedagogy
of discomfort (Boler, 1999; Boler and Zembylas, 2003) is a teaching practice that can encourage students to move outside their comfort zones and question their beliefs and assumptions. In a pedagogy of discomfort, Boler (1999, p. 177) proposed a teaching practice that “begins by inviting educators and students to engage in critical inquiry regarding values and cherished beliefs, and to examine constructed self-images in relation to how one has learned to perceive others”. Thus, it is important to give students the opportunity to deconstruct their worldviews. Discomforting feelings are therefore important in challenging dominant beliefs and normative practices that sustain social inequities, and create opportunities for individual and social transformation (Boler and Zembylas, 2003). Concerns have also been raised about ethical implications of pedagogies that evoke discomfort, pain and suffering (Boler and Zembylas, 2003). Such concerns, according to the writers, need safe spaces in classrooms. A safe space does not necessarily imply one that is free of discomfort. In fact, Boler and Zembylas (2003) argue there are no safe classroom spaces if we consider that conditions of power and privilege always operate in them. What is important is that teachers, whether creating safe or discomforting conditions, open up the space so that students engage in critical enquiry. Safe spaces are not restricted to the absence of discomfort but rather a way of thinking, feeling and acting that fosters critical rigor (Davis and Steyn, 2012).

Homosexuality and disrupting silence: politics of recognition

Extract 2:

T4: Teaching is a political game. If a teacher who is responsible for young lives cannot make young people aware and responsible, then what point is there? The teacher is an intellectual, an activist for good.

T5: Equity is for all, all race groups, gender, gays and lesbians. To have a gay teacher is seen as alien. This is a reality, equality for all. When we had a gay teacher, the learners would laugh and the teachers would say nothing, so I said this is not on. It is the teacher who must quash these views, fight for those who are oppressed.

T12: I am doing my teaching practice (WIL) at a Muslim school. In Islam and Christianity homosexuality is forbidden, so how do we support gay teachers…even learners for that matter? If a religion does not permit it? Even though homosexuality exists in these religions, it is still not culturally acceptable, or talked about.

T17: I had this experience with a group of Grade 10s at my school, they were all black students but had narrow views on homosexuality. They spoke about the church, the bible as reasoning. I think as teachers we must not promote homophobia at all. But (T12) is right, how do we as students bring it up if the school feels differently? This is justice for all. But I don’t know how to handle it when the learners just stay silent, they do not want to discuss certain issues, even say if they are gay…they are afraid. Maybe it’s better then we don’t deal with it.

The idea of “teacher as activist” advocates ideas for learners to engage with, they are concerned with community activities and participate in activism (Cochran-Smith et al., 2009). Participants’ discomfort at bringing up issues related to sexuality draw on notions of heteronormativity in schools today, and discussions of sexuality become riddled with shame and stigma (Bhana, 2012; Msibi, 2012). However, with an increasing number of homophobic attacks in South Africa, it is imperative that we focus on Constitutional clauses which preserve our human rights (SA Constitution, 1996). Today, a distributive notion of justice would focus on democracy and struggles for recognition of groups based on culture, race, gender, religion, language, sexual orientation, that is, the politics of recognition, identity and difference (Cochran-Smith, 2004).

“Silence”, as referred to by T17 has thought-provoking subtexts. Appelbaum (2003), who refers to the notion in his work, presents classroom data from his research on homosexuality.
In his study, one student is seen as openly resistant to homosexuality, for religious reasons, which silences a gay student in class. Often silences are a result of hurtful discussion, and Appelbaum (2003) explains them as representing a “culture of power”, where unjust social relations that exist in society at large are mirrored. His view is that power has functioned historically to silence and marginalise certain social groups through the schooling process, but progressive educators, committed to social justice disrupt such social relations. Bhana (2012, quoted in Bhana, 2012) comments on the major role played by religion in South Africa. She quotes Richardson (2004) who notes the strong Calvinist tradition that impacts on gay and lesbian learners. Colonialism also helped produce the strong Christian ethos among Africans (Epprecht, 2004, quoted in Bhana, 2012). Thus, homosexuality is constructed as sinful and shameful. Petrovic (1998; 1999; 2002) argues that teachers whose religious views preclude their ability to give positive recognition to the worldview of gay, lesbian and bisexual students should be censored. Charles Taylor therefore argues for a politics of recognition; “…our identity is partly shaped by recognition or its absence, often by the misrecognition of others, and so a person or group of people can suffer real damage, real distortion, if the people or society around them mirror back to them a confining or demeaning or contemptible picture of themselves” (quoted in Appelbaum, 2009, p. 153). Non-recognition is a harmful form of oppression (Taylor, 1992, p. 25). Petrovic (2002) adds that groups that are victims of exploitation, marginalisation, powerlessness, cultural imperialism and/or violence deserve recognition. With regard to education, therefore, justice demands countering oppression sustained through schooling with the positive recognition of oppressed groups.

SOME IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHING:

From interviews with the PSTs, it is evident that while PSTs are exposed to theories of justice, they may not always be able to enact justice in the classroom, that is, through transformative practice. Several PSTs are also discomforted by these conversations. Teacher education must be connected to strategies that open up broader participation by all social groups. Given the discussion, the following points emerge for me as being essential to a just approach to teacher education:

Teaching practice: Teaching must amalgamate knowledge, teaching methods, advocacy with and for students, parents, colleagues, communities, social movements (Cochran-Smith, 2004). This involves how teachers think about their work, how they form relationships with their students, and how they work with learners, colleagues and parents, communities, social groups.

Learning environment: Creating a learning environment that promotes critical thinking and supports agency for social change and recognising learners is essential. The environment needs to be responsive to the needs and identities of diverse students.

Critical content: Freire says an educator can never be neutral. Thus critical thinking and analysis of oppression are essential to content. Content must be subject to debate and critique, and the voices of marginalised groups, gay, lesbian, women, poor, must be heard. Here Freire’s praxis loop is important, information needs to be combined with tools to critique power and inequality in society. This has implications for teaching and learning through safe spaces in which to talk about traumatic events. We cannot afford to be parochial.

Action and social change: After learning about privilege and oppression learners may engage with their own privilege. “Educators need to disrupt the notion that silence is patriotic and teach students that their rights as citizens in society carry responsibilities – of participation, voice, and protest- so this can become a society of, by, and for all of its citizens” (Hackman, 2005, p. 106).

Personal reflection: Teachers must reflect on themselves and what informs their practice. Hooks (1994) says that the ability to be critically reflective lends itself to an effective social justice teaching environment. We have to interrogate ourselves for instances of our own
privilege. Self-reflection enables one to confront one’s privilege, and provides the teacher and learners with sites to take action, creating the self as a “site of change” (hooks, 1994).

**Politics of emotion:** Change is complex, challenging and contested in recently deracialised and deracialising institutions (Jansen, 2009). Critical dialogues, referred to as post-conflict pedagogy, involve a process that transforms black and white alike, in remembering the past together. Jansen (2009) offers several theses as a platform for thinking about a new politics of emotion:

- Recognise the politics of emotions that energise behaviours, they are characterised by pain and anxiety.
- **Change strategy cannot create victims:** Young white second generation students are also victims (Jansen, 2009), but have to come to terms with the realities of their parents’ and grandparents’ behaviour. According to Jansen (2009), they might see themselves as white victims (trekkers, white poverty, imprisoned in British concentration camps). Therefore when black and white meet and confront in classrooms, “the clash of martyr logical memories” (Hoffman, 2004, pp. 140-141 quoted in Jansen, 2009) is on display. Problems must be named and confronted.

We must engage emotionally with students in their world.

**CONCLUSION**

This paper, through interviews with 25 English Language Education PSTs, as well as observations of two teaching moments, provided discussion of how PSTs engaged with notions of justice. Essentially post-conflict pedagogy is proposed to comprise three elements: the disruption of received knowledge, the significance of pedagogic dissonance, and the importance of hope (Jansen, 2009, p. 153). To disrupt received knowledge refers to confrontation among South Africans, with their respective memories of trauma and tragedy. Jansen’s (2009) view is that we should confront our pain, we should no longer remain silently polite, or hide our resentments. It is time for pedagogic dissonance, which occurs when stereotypes are shattered. Discomfort is inevitable at this stage, either on the part of teachers, or of learners. In addressing discomfort, Boler and Zembylas (2003) draw on Foucault (1994) who introduced an ethic of discomfort, which requires of participants (teachers and learners) to critique their assumptions, and become witness rather than spectators or observers of social injustices. Third, a post-conflict pedagogy is founded on hope (Jansen, 2009, p. 154), a hope for the future that can be accomplished through critical dialogue.

**REFERENCES:**


THE ABDOMEN: A COMPARATIVE HISTORY OF THE ANATOMICAL TERMS IN ENGLISH AND ROMANIAN

ABSTRACT

The main purpose of this paper is to trace the origins and evolution of the anatomical terms as they appear in the English and Romanian languages, with reference to the abdominal cavity. The better to explore this topic, I will compare and contrast the etymology of the analysed terms from a diachronic perspective. Furthermore, I will investigate the cultural backgrounds, traditions and beliefs which have influenced the semantic changes of these words. I will also explore the different subsidiary meanings by analysing the idiomatic expressions, phrases and other contextual uses of these words in the two languages. This morphological and semantic itinerary will try to ascertain the extent to which their present meaning is similar to their original significance and how different their evolutions are in English and Romanian.

Keywords: Anatomical terminology, Etymology, Cultural history, Abdomen.

INTRODUCTION

Etymology denotes the origin and evolution of words, and it often provides captivating information about lexical items and their meanings. The purpose of this study is to analyse the English and Romanian terms designating the abdomen. Is there a similar manner to refer to this body region in English and Romanian? Do people understand the same thing by using familiar terms in the mentioned languages? What was the initial meaning of the familiar words and how has it evolved? Have they developed new connotations? How many of these informal words have become obsolete, competed by the formal, more prestigious, medical terms? We might think that naming a body part would designate the same thing in different languages, since our anatomies are the same everywhere. But is this true? Which is the semantics and the referential range of the anatomical terms in these languages or across the two languages? In both English (En) and Romanian (Ro), stomach (En) / stomac (Ro) are used as the equivalents of belly / burtă. Belly / burtă could stand for abdomen too, but also for paunch (En) / burduhan (Ro), and the same applies to pântece (belly / paunch), which can also signify womb (of a pregnant woman).

This analysis aims to determine similar patterns of semantic changes of the Romanian and English anatomical terms over time, since etymology provides information not only about languages, but also about a shared linguistic background. Although English and Romanian pertain to different phyla, they stem from a distant Indo-European ancestor, having been shaped under the influence of Latin and French loanwords, especially in the field of anatomy.

In this research paper I use two complementary sources: (etymological) dictionaries and works in both English and Romanian languages. Together, they offer a wide understanding of the semantic evolution of the analysed anatomical terms. A first step was to identify the roots of each investigated word and then to trace the morphological and semantic alterations to the present day. I then compared the change process in the two languages, in order to observe similar patterns and phenomena.

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LINGUISTIC BACKGROUND

Albeit a field of innovation, medicine remains a domain essentially affiliated with Hippocrates’ terminology, as far as anatomy is concerned. Inheritor of the Greek language, Latin naturalised a considerable part of the Greek lexicon, thus exerting a double influence on modern languages such as English and the Romance languages. The creation of scientific Latin was necessary and important since it considerably facilitated communication among scholars. Moreover, the Renaissance period was marked by the direct discovery of the scientific classical texts. Therefore, European languages adopted and developed scientific terminologies derived from the etymons of Latin and Greek. This also applies to English and Romanian, since the two classical languages account predominantly for the origins of both modern English and Romanian anatomical terminology: 86% of English anatomical terms (Turmezei, 2012) and 90% of Romanian anatomical words (Melnic, 2001).

Sakai (2007) identifies five stages in the evolution of the anatomical vocabulary. Firstly, the ancient, oldest works, written by Galen of Pergamon, comprised a few Greek colloquial anatomical words translated and adapted into Latin. Secondly, Vesalius’ Fabrica, written in Latin in the early 16th century, featured only slight enrichment of the anatomical terminology. Thirdly, Sylvius (Paris) and Bauhin (Basel) coined a significant number of specific anatomical terms. The fourth stage marked a translation from the anatomical works written in Latin in the 17th century to those edited in modern languages in the 18th and 19th centuries, when the terminology, although innovative, was neither well delineated nor coherent from one author to another. And lastly, since the publication of the first international Nomina anatomica, at the end of the 19th century in Latin, still the international standard on human anatomic glossary, (now Terminologia anatomica), terms have constantly been revised.

Development of the English anatomical terminology

Along with medical progress and, implicitly, the advancement of the anatomical terminology, the two languages evolved, in general, due to cultural and scientific progress and to socio-economic transformations. The creation of coherent anatomical lexicons in English and Romanian was a long process, built on the confluence of several languages. In this paper, I focus mainly on the influence of Latin and Greek on the studied languages.

Despite its Germanic core, the English language has been greatly infused with lexical elements of Latin origin. Firstly, Latin words entered the Old English lexicon, emerging after Christianisation age; but, as Lounsbury (1894) states, they were not numerous (around 600) and some disappeared until the advent of Middle English. A major change occurred after the conquest of England by the Normans in 1066. After 1250, during the early and late Middle Ages, Norman French and Central French had a major and definitive influence on the English vocabulary (Hickey, n.d.: 8). Thus, English came closer to Greek as well, since many of the Latin words had Greek origins.

But English also adopted loanwords directly from Greek, especially in the scientific fields such as medicine, including anatomy. In the 16th and 17th centuries, subsequent to the Renaissance and the Enlightenment, renewed interest in classical languages and the study of human anatomy led to a substantial development of the English medical lexicon. Major works of anatomy and medicine were translated into English, especially from Latin and French. Thus, the number of loanwords from Greek and Latin, adopted directly or through other Romance languages, such as Italian or French, increased sharply, definitively altering the lexical structure of English. At the beginning of the 17th century, more than 60 percent of these new words were of Latin or French origin, whereas “only 20 per cent derived from Germanic patterns of word formation” (Stehling, 2014, p. 16). Hence, as McKeown and Smith (2016) argue, Modern
English was permeated with classical words, whose influence has been so strong that a native English speaker understands the medical terminology of Latin or Greek origins more easily than German medical vocabulary. Consequently, approximately 50 percent of the medical/anatomical English vocabulary originates in Latin or Romance languages “and medical English tends to follow the Romance pattern except in placing the adjective before the noun” (Wulff, 2004, p. 187).

The terms analysed in this paper are pairs/groups of common, familiar terms, doubled by Latin neologistic synonyms which entered the English language for scientific purposes. Stomach (attested in 1374), belly (950) or paunch (1375) were doubled by the more precise term abdomen (mentioned for the first time in 1541). The loanword intestine (1535) corresponded to the familiar terms entrails (1300), bowels (1325) and guts (1000). Liver (888) is the only term in this series which continues the Old English form lifer and has no neologistical equivalent, except the Greek hepar (mentioned in 1693 in the phrase Hepar Sulphuris, as certain compounds of sulphur had the colour of liver). The gall-bladder was first mentioned in 1676, but gall (825) and bladder (700) are words which were present in Old English. Cholecyst is a later borrowing, from the 19th century (1866).

Džuganová (2002) observes that, by borrowing Latin anatomical and medical terms, English also imported an intrinsic tendency manifested in Latin: that of using Greek lexemes in order to designate pathological conditions, while using or creating its own terms in order to name anatomical components. It is a phenomenon also manifested in English, especially in the formation of compound words, using Greek combining elements (roots, prefixes and suffixes). Moreover, English appears to form neologisms from non-native elements in a substantially easier manner than other German languages, due to the assimilation of the borrowed Romance lexemes (Harbert, 2006).

Towards a Romanian anatomical lexicon

As for the Latin terms in Romanian, they either continue the original legacy of the Latin language or are relatively recent loanwords from French or Latin. Some of the inherited words have become obsolete or rarely used, being replaced by neologisms. Words which designate parts of the human body are primarily rooted in Latin, as they have been frequently used since the formation of the Romanian language. Romanian has inherited about 2000 words from Latin, 500 of which are Pan-Romanic words (Sala, 2006).

As in English, Latin constitutes the main source of Romanian anatomical terminology, whereas Greek is the origin of Romanian clinical terminology as Mincu (2018) asserts. According to Sapovici (2015), Greek lexical elements entered the Romanian language in a first phase during the 1st-6th centuries, through Latin. In a second phase, Byzantine Greek terms poured into Romanian through the Slavic languages, between the 7th and the 15th centuries. The most important stratum, comprising numerous Neo-Greek words, was formed in the 18th–19th centuries, during the so-called period of Romanian Hellenism, when the Greek language of administration, medicine and other fields exerted a strong influence on the Romanian vocabulary. Romanian scientific terminology originates in the works of the illustrious scientist and politician Dimitrie Cantemir (1705) who created the first explanatory dictionary model as an addendum to his novel Istoriiia ieroğlifickă (“History of Hieroglyphics”). Among the 280 terms explained, some belong to the field of anatomy. There were many Greek loanwords in Dimitrie Cantemir's Romanian writings and in the works of the first Romanian or Greek physicians from the 18th century. The term stomac (stomach) is one of the earliest anatomical terms of Greek origin certified in Romanian. However, as mentioned earlier, Romanian anatomical terms are predominantly of Latin origin.

The oldest surviving document written in Romanian (although in Romanian Cyrillic) dates from the first half of the 16th century (1521). It was not until the 17th-18th centuries that
medical or anatomical terms were specified in written works: pântece (belly) is mentioned in the 18th century (Caproșu, 2008, p. 31): matrice sau altă roșătură în pântece (“matrix or other burning sensation in the belly”). This is when the first lexicographical works were published.

The first medical text written in Romanian is considered to be the manuscript Alegerile lui Ippocrat (known as “Hippocrates's Choices”: an inaccurate translation of the original Greek title, Hippocrates's Aphorisms). The Romanian text was translated from Greek, in the middle of the 18th century, and it contained loanwords such as: melanholie (archaic form of melancholy), melanholicos (unadapted form of melancholic, later replaced by melancolic) and numerous loan translations of Greek origin. Nicolae Kretzulescu, the author of Manual de anatominie descriptivă (“Reference book of Descriptive Anatomy”) is considered the founder of the Romanian anatomical terminology (19th century), introducing many French loanwords, e.g. abdomen, duoden (duodenum) and intestin (intestine). Flaiser (2011, p. 26) observes that Latinate words appear now not only in translations, but also in the original writings of the first Romanian physicians, in popularisation works and, later, in medicine treatises and textbooks (late 19th century).

The 19th century in Romania was marked by a powerful tendency of re-Latinisation (or re-Romanisation) by means of the French loanwords (abdomen, colecist). These neologisms doubled the general, familiar terms of Latin, Greek, Slavic, Hungarian and Dacian origins, which gave medical language an archaic facet (mai (liver), mațe (bowels), foale (belly) etc.). The elite, in an attempt to modernise Romania, turned to Western models, and the closest was the French system. As Romanian and French had similar lexical and grammar structures, borrowed words were easily adapted in Romanian, they were naturalised through phonetic adaptation and morphological integration.

Most of those terms borrowed from Latin or Greek, directly or via other languages, belong now to an international medical lexicon, and are therefore present in both English and Romanian specialised terminologies.

Emergence of anatomical languages

In addition to the standardisation of the grammar systems of the English and Romanian languages and the expansion of the modern vocabulary, Latin started to be eclipsed by the new national scientific terminologies. The first important and influential lexicon of the English language was published in 1755 by Dr. Samuel Johnson (A Dictionary of the English Language), while the modern Romanian lexicography started in 1825, with Lexiconul de la Buda (“The Lexicon of Buda”), a Romanian-Latin-Hungarian-German dictionary, edited by The Transylvanian School. Anatomical lexemes rooted in Latin or Romance languages were adopted both by Romanian and English, either for prestige or for naming new concepts, and they became the elements of the coming internationalisation of the anatomical terminology. These loanwords also doubled the existent familiar terms, in order to be more appropriate for uses in the scientific register. This resulted sometimes in the decline of the familiar words, which either became obsolete or were used less frequently, especially as the borrowed term improved the semantic precision. Previously, belly, stomach and guts could be used interchangeably, in order to designate the abdomen, as in Romanian with burtă, pântece, stomac or măruntaie. Therefore, by importing specialised terms, confusion could be avoided.

The English and Romanian anatomical lexicons are very similar, since most of the terms are of Latin origin, although systematic differences still remain. English has imported numerous terms together with their original endings and Latin plural forms, whereas the same terms in Romanian have been naturalised according to the phonetic and morphological Romanian norms: e.g. oesophagus, sg. – oesophagi, pl. (En) vs. esofag, sg. – esofage, pl. (Ro); duodenum, sg. – duodena, pl. (En) vs. duoden, sg. – duodenuri, pl. (Ro). Other terms, especially
imported to English earlier via French, had time to adapt to the new language prior to the standardisation of the national medical language. Such is the case of intestine or abdomen (the latter has two plural forms: one is the original Latin abdomina, which is more formal, and the other, the English abdomens, which is neutral). Other terms have been “anglicised”, but they still preserve their original form in Latin expressions. For example, the plural form of anus is anuses in English (and not the original ani), but the form ani (which is also the Latin Genitive form of the word) can still be found in English medical expressions like pruritus ani, which, in Romanian has been translated and adapted as prurit anal (and not pruritul anusului, as it would have been if the Genitive form had been preserved). Interestingly, Romanian has inherited or borrowed from Latin several anatomical terms starting from their plural form, used as a root for the re-creation of the singular form. It is the case of imparisyllabic Latin nouns of the third declension, such as matrice, sg. - matrice, pl. (meaning womb, from Lat. matrix,-ces), viscere, sg. – viscere, pl. (from Lat. viscus,-cera), etc. which in English were borrowed with their original singular and plural forms.

THE LANGUAGE OF THE ABDOMEN

In this section of the paper I analyse the synonymous groups of loanwords and the corresponding native terms designating the abdomen as they exist in English and Romanian. I focus first on terms describing the abdomen: belly, paunch, stomach, and abdomen on the one hand, and burtă, pântecę, stomac, and abdomen on the other hand. I choose not to discuss the term stomach/stomac separately because, originally, the term was also used in both languages to describe the whole abdomen.

Belly, paunch, and, sometimes, stomach are words which have been used in English with reference to the abdomen, defined as “the part of the body of a vertebrate containing the digestive and reproductive organs” (English Oxford Living Dictionaries, n.d.). In the same dictionary, belly is recorded as a synonym. Belly, the same as bellows, roots in the Old English noun belg, with cognates in the Old Norse, Old High German, Old Teutonic, Middle Dutch and Gothic dialects. Its original meaning was that of “bag, skin, envelope” and the sense belly “did not exist in the OE and has not been developed in the cognate languages (Oxford English Dictionary, 2009). However, a reverse meaning is given in Romanian to the belly, as appears in the late expression a băga la ghiozdan (“to stuff your satchel”), meaning “to eat”. By the 13th century, belly developed a second meaning, that of stomach, as a symbol of gluttony, and by late 14th century it was used to designate the abdomen of a human or animal.

In 1755, Johnson's A Dictionary of the English Language, defined the belly as the anatomical part of the abdomen, but its secondary meaning was that of womb (now obsolete). Additionally, belly was described as “that part of a man which requires food” and we notice that it had developed the figurative meaning of “part of any thing that swells out into a larger capacity” (Johnson, 1755). By that time, the word had also changed its grammatical category, without any derivational morpheme, becoming also a verb: from the added figurative meaning, the noun formed the verb to belly, meaning “to hang out, to bulge out” (Johnson, 1755). In Johnson and Walker's 1828 Dictionary of the English Language, the verb appears to have developed another definition, derived from the previous one: “to swell into a larger capacity”. In Webster's Complete Dictionary of the English Language (1886, p. 124), an entry states that “formerly, all the splanchnic or visceral cavities were called bellies; - the lower belly being the abdomen; the middle belly, the thorax; and the upper belly, the head”. The verb to belly is given there a contiguous definition: “to swell and become protuberant like the belly”. The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Current English (Fowler and Fowler, 1919, p. 76) defines the belly, aside from the anatomical meanings, as “the body as food consumer”, as appetite and gluttony, these figurative connotations being illustrated by expressions such as belly-worship (gluttony), belly-timber (food), belly-pinched (starving). In English, the idea of gluttony is
reflected in idiomatic expressions such as to have eyes bigger than your belly and to have a wolf in the belly (an equivalent for this expression is a avea o foame de lup (“to be as hungry as a wolf”).

In general, Indo-European languages refer to the external and internal abdomen by using the same undifferentiated term, but English marks the distinction between the external and internal abdomen in the pair belly (external) / stomach (internal), as underlined in the Online Etymology Dictionary (OEtD, n.d.). Bailey (1726) includes in his dictionary the verb to belly, meaning to grow fat. In one of the first English medical works, Banister (1578) describes the abdomen as “the lower bellye”. As a curiosity, in the late 18th century and early 19th century, the term was avoided in both spoken and written English, as considered too vulgar, especially in comparison with the formal abdomen (OEtD, n.d.). No explanation is given as to why the belly could have been considered indecent enough to banish it from some of the Bibles edited at the time. We can only assume that the navel (belly-button) simulated an erogenous orifice and stimulated the imagination of puritanical minds (Bronfen, 1998). It is notable, however, that belly has remained a largely-used word in English today, despite its previous banishment. It is nowadays the most important familiar term to designate the abdomen.

An equivalent term for belly in Romanian is the familiar word burtă, with an unknown etymology, as mentioned in Dicționarul explicativ al limbii române (DEX, n.d.). Sala (2006) considers that it is a word of expressive origin formed from the sequence of sounds corresponding to the consonants brf, blt, suggesting the idea of mushy, mouldable bulk. Another possible source of this word is the onomatopoetic sound of the stomach rumbling. The same origin is suggested for another plastic term designating a potbelly, namely burduhan, first mentioned in the first half of the 19th century. Burtă is first mentioned in the The Lexicon of Buda (1825, pp. 74, 75), with an archaic form, burguț(u), which is given as a synonym for burduf (meaning “bellows”, “goatskin pouch”, “windbag” or “paunch”). Burduf is described in this work as pântece mare (“big belly”), burduhan (“potbelly”), and intestina. Today, burduf is hardly ever used with the meaning of “belly”, but in technical contexts. The word burtă is mentioned as such in a fable, The Horse, The Fox and the Wolf, written by Ion Heliade-Rădulescu in 1838 (1997, p. 11), where the term is used twice, firstly with the meaning of “pouch” and, secondly, with that of “abdomen”. Anton Pann (1967, p. 27), in 1841, uses the word burtă in his fables in connection to the idea of eating and overeating. Its 1929 definition from Şăineanu’s Dicționar universal al limbii române is strictly that of “lower abdomen” (“lower paunch”, more precisely). The word has expanded its meaning and today dictionaries mention it with the exact same meanings as the English word belly, with one exception: burtă has not developed the figurative meaning of gluttony; no dictionary reports this meaning per se in relation to burtă. As with English belly, burtă was considered a vulgar word in the early 19th century (Dicționarul limbii române, 1913-2010), but today is widely used as the most familiar term designating the abdomen. Burtă is still widely used in the familiar register and a broader meaning is that of gorging or lingering: burtă de popă (“a priest's belly”) describes someone who eats too much, whereas a sta cu burta la soare (“lying with one's belly in the sun”) means to idle.

The polysemy of the English term belly encompasses a chromatic component which is also present in Romanian. Since the abdomen has been traditionally considered to be the seat of emotions, an intense colour symbolises intense passion, audacity or wrath (as we can notice in expressions such as to have fire in the belly or even belly laugh). Thus, having a pale belly or a yellow belly suggests cowardice or gutlessness. Romanian also makes a figurative reference to the colour of the belly, in the expression burtă-verde, with reference to a person who is incapable of appreciating cultural or spiritual values.
Another expressive creation is the term burduhan, derived from the root borh-/ghiort-, but Cihac, cited by Ciorănescu (2002) regard it as originating from Russian (brjucho: 'paunch'), Polish (brzuch: 'paunch' or burdziuk: 'pouch'). Burduhan is rarely used nowadays. One notable difference is that the Romanian language does not transform nouns into verbs without derivative morphemes. With rare exceptions, the Romanian anatomical terms have not formed verbs derived from them. A burduhăni is such an exception and its meaning is to eviscerate.

Paunch is defined as “the belly, abdomen; the stomach, as the receptacle of food” (OED, 2009), and it is not frequently used nowadays. Its meaning is broadened, as today it implies prominence. It was attested in the 14th century after entering Middle English through the Old French term pance and Old North French panche. Panche continued the Latin word pantex,-icem, which was also inherited from Latin by most of the Romance languages (Italian: pancia, Spanish: panza, Portuguese: pança, French: panse). In Romanian, pântece/pântece (sg.) developed from the plural form of the Latin term pantex and it was very well preserved and largely used until the late 20th century, but today it is rarely mentioned. It refers to the abdomen, but it also signifies potbelly. Paunch / pântece imply, in both English and Romanian, the idea of gluttony, but only Romanian has it developed expressions which illustrate this connotation: a se închina pântecele (“to worship one's paunch”). Reversely, the Romanian expression a avea pântecele lipit de coaste / spate (“to have the paunch stuck to your ribs/back”) means to be very hungry. It is the first of the series of terms related to the abdomen to be attested in Romanian, in the 16th century, in Psaltirea Hurmuzaki (“Book of Psalms”, translated into Romanian and named after its donor, Eudoxiu Hurmuzaki). Pântece is an accurate correspondent of paunch, from a semantic and etymological point of view. But pântece also widened its significance to that of “the womb of a pregnant woman” and, from there, figurative meanings were created: a te simți ca în pântecele mamei (“to feel like being in your mother's womb”) which means to feel very good and protected and a fi cu pântecele la gură (“to have one's paunch reaching one's mouth”) which means to be pregnant.

Stomach comes from the Greek term stomakhos, rooted in the term stoma, meaning “mouth”, “throat” or “gullet”. The Old French term stomac was adopted into Middle English (stomak) in the 14th century. From the Latinised form stomachus, Romance languages formed Spanish: estómago, Portuguese: estomago, Italian: stomaco. In Romanian, the evolution of the word stomac was not similar to the other Romance languages, as the term was not assimilated through Latin but from Greek, through the influence of the Old Slavic language (stomahǔ) – attested in the 18th century. In antiquity, the stomach was believed to be the seat of the emotions, and this belief shaped its figurative applications, e.g. “appetite”, “indignation”, “courage” etc. To stomach, in English, means “to tolerate someone or something” and it usually has a negative connotation. Its Romanian equivalent is the expression a nu avea pe cineva la stomac (“not to have the stomach for someone/something”). To turn someone's stomach, to have a strong / cast-iron stomach, in the pit of the stomach are all expressions with perfect equivalents in Romanian (a întoarce stomacul pe dos, a avea un stomac tare / de fier, a avea un gol în stomac). Under the influence of the English language, Romanian has recently borrowed a loan translation in relation to the stomach, which is very popular: a avea fluturi în stomac (“to have butterflies in the stomach”).

Abdomen is a Latin term of unknown origin, borrowed in Middle English during the first half of the 16th century. In Romanian, it was borrowed via French and it was attested in writing for the first time only at the beginning of the 20th century. It is mainly used in medical contexts and therefore it is less likely to develop new figurative meanings.
CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of the present study was to provide insights regarding the lexical evolution related to anatomy in two European languages belonging to different families, in order to understand to which extent Latin and French loanwords have shaped and influenced the words belonging to the general vocabulary. Results show that many Latin loanwords entered the two languages as neologistic synonyms of native words designating body parts. At the moment of their assimilation, Latinate loanwords duplicated their native equivalents from English and Romanian. In English these words, belonging to the general vocabulary, had Germanic, Scandinavian and even Latin origins, whereas in Romanian, they were rooted mainly in Latin, with a few terms of Greek, Hungarian, Slavic or Dacian origins. But these limits could prove artificial: some words belonging to the familiar register are equivalent in English and Romanian, thus revealing profound confluences in the early evolution of the anatomical terminology.

Since Latin was the prestigious, international language of sciences, terms were borrowed in order to fill the gaps, out of necessity, or to provide more accuracy to the language used. Numerous nouns permeated the English language and remained morphologically unaltered, whereas Romanian naturalised more easily the loanwords borrowed directly from Latin. In addition, I analysed the evolution of the semantic content according to the background of the two mentioned cultures. Semantic change can also translate as polysemy and some of these terms appear to be analogous in their subtle connotations as well.

The comparative analysis of these terms, based on their etymology, symbolism and cultural history, as they are used in English and Romanian, could provide a valuable perspective if we take into account that these languages can be viewed as instances of the Germanic and the Romance languages, now part of an internationalised anatomical terminology.

The issues this paper addresses belong to a broader study which focuses on the comparative evolution of the anatomical terminologies in English and Romanian. In the future, research will be conducted in order to investigate the history of the abdominal viscera.

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SOFT POLICING ADOPTION IN ABU DHABI POLICE: A QUALITATIVE APPROACH

MOHAMED ALHANEE

ABSTRACT

The concept of soft policing is researched worldwide, though mainly in Western countries. The concept remains completely novice in the United Arab Emirates (UAE). Soft policing involves the participation and communication of the public with the police. Using a qualitative approach, data in this study were collected through 20 interviews, including senior and junior ranking police officers in Abu Dhabi, based on 18 questions. The collected data were analysed using Thematic Analysis as a framework to identify, analyse and report common patterns. Data analysis in this study aims to identify themes emerging from the similarities and differences of opinions between senior and junior police officers. The main issues discussed throughout the interviews are the following: Understanding of soft power, Relationship between soft power and legitimacy, Relationship between soft power, crime prevention and crime reduction, Soft policing initiatives, Soft policing challenges, Soft policing outcomes, Community awareness, and Future of soft policing. The contribution of this research comes from the fact that there are no similar studies not only in the UAE but also across the GCC region.

Keywords: Policing, Soft policing, Qualitative, GCC region.

BACKGROUND

Police forces have been criticised for their lack of cooperation with the public and other law enforcement agencies (Green and Mastrofski, 1988), something which has paved the way for the development of soft policing to change the traditional image of policing in society. Research which originates from Western countries provides a positive outlook of soft policing strategies, noting that better relationships between the public and the police have wide-reaching implications, such as crime prevention and reduction.

Significance of research

There is currently no research that examines the implementation of Soft Policing not only in the United Arab Emirates (UAE) but also among all the member states of the Gulf Countries Council (GCC). This research is the first of its kind in developing understanding of the application of soft policing in the Abu Dhabi specifically, which will enable other researchers and security strategists in the country/region to utilise the results and recommendations of this research.

Research aim

The aim of this research is to examine the perceptions of Abu Dhabi police officers regarding their awareness of soft policing, as well as their perceptions surrounding its application and any associated challenges.

Objective of research

In order to achieve the above-mentioned research aim, our objective is to Explore the level of understanding of applying soft policing among junior and senior police officers in Abu Dhabi Police.

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LITERATURE REVIEW:

Introduction

The literature review approaches soft policing from the aspect of cooperation between community and the community policing services (Wheller et al., 2013). This perspective is important because the professionalism of police is significantly linked to police conduct in attaining legitimacy, which strongly relates to aims of soft policing (Hopkin, 2014). Studies on crime reduction and soft policing in particular with relation to youth highlight the benefits of applying soft policing (Cordner, Scarborough and Sheehan, 2005). The literature review begins with providing a background to the Abu Dhabi police force. Then, soft policing will be discussed which is followed by exploring long term objectives of adapting soft power approaches.

Abu Dhabi Police

Abu Dhabi Police (ADP) is the government law enforcement organisation in the Emirate of Abu Dhabi. The organisation concentrates on the capacity of human capital, which usually derives performance. All ranks and files join ADP after attending the police college, where training entails the core values of the organisation in each employee. Although Abu Dhabi is one of the safest emirates in the United Arab Emirates, the increasing level of challenges for the police force requires innovation and adjustment in their approach so that better communication and cooperation with the community can be ensured. Since, there is a need for communication and cooperation with the community; some aspects of soft policing are introduced in the ADP as core values such as voluntary obedience, respect and religious harmony.

In order to determine the appropriateness of the ADP policing approach, it is essential to consider factors like crime rate, the perception of police among citizens, legal infrastructure and police resources. The crime index of Abu Dhabi is 14.4, placing it among the safest, with Venezuela being highest (82.59) and Japan lowest (13.9) (Numbeo, 2017). Despite having a low crime rate, there is still a need for soft policing especially in respect of future challenges that can potentially be faced by ADP, such as cybercrime. Soft policing should improve the effectiveness of ADP. Although ADP is efficient in its performance, there is an increase in the level of complexity in AD due to the expansion of business activities. It means that in the future, ADP can have more challenges in the form of increasing scope of policing activities. Soft power could be applied by ADP as a strategy to maintain its effectiveness using adequate mechanisms.

Soft policing

Community policing is one of the cornerstones of soft policing. The necessity of involving the community into policing is due to the fact that police alone cannot effectively control crime; whereas, with the support of the public and the community, the police can carry out their job more effectively and efficiently (Hough and Roberts, 2004).

Community policing emerged in the UK during the 1970s followed by a widespread support from communities and policy makers (Murphy, 2009). Since then, community policing has developed as a means to increase the effectiveness of police forces and as a means to attain the legitimacy of these forces (Sabet, 2012). Community policing has two distinctive features, the involvement of community and accountability of police to the local community which in turn increases police legitimacy (Schafer, Huebner and Bynum, 2003), accountability in respect to community policing refers to transparent decision making, transparent policing and impartial actions (Sabet, 2012).
Hard policing, on the other hand, refers to the use of force/power by the police as a strategy to control crime and maintain social order (Sabet, 2012). This goes against the concept of soft policing which aims to control crime through increased level of cooperation with the public (Lappin, 2011), and through transforming the mindset of the public towards the police and their work in the community. Therefore, it can lead to better results in crime prevention, as well as investigation, and ultimately crime reduction (Bottoms and Tankebe, 2012). This could be achieved through various mechanisms such as providing relevant information, proactively informing the police of community problems, cooperating during an active investigation, and generally being of the mind-set where the police are seen as collaborators for a fulfilling life.

It is important to mention that adopting soft policing is not proposed as a way to completely rule out the role of hard policing in crime control, as there are still some sections of the society or particular situations that can be best dealt with using hard policing (Fyfe and Terpstra, 2015). A situation of riots, for example, can possibly not be manageable through applying soft policing, especially in initial stage of soft policing initiatives as they might not help de-escalate the situation (Murphy and Cherney, 2012). It means that the allocation of resources for soft policing as well as hard policing can be difficult; however, both can be adopted depending on the situation and their combination should provide the best results (Hough, Jackson and Bradford, 2013).

**Soft policing and long-term goals**

Procedural justice has been found as a predictor for the public feeling to comply with the law and policing policies (Hough, Jackson and Bradford, 2013;17). Procedural justice is the impartiality of police while dealing with cases; hence, each case should be dealt with according to certain criteria (Sunshine and Tyler, 2003). When the public experience law and police actions as justified and appropriately communicated then the public will be more willing to cooperate, abide and comply with the law. Consistent decision making is vital to developing positive public belief and confidence in police (Tyler and Huo, 2002).

Discretion in police actions can lead to a sense of unprofessional image of the police (Sunshine and Tyler, 2003). Tyler (2007) stated that consistency can combat this issue through police communicating appropriately, being open and frank. This could result in better dissemination of information, the public can inform the police of their existing problems, whose management can help in the reduction of crimes (Hough, Jackson, and Bradford, 2013). This theoretical background proposes that soft policing strategies can result in positive policing outcomes surrounding important long-term goals, as public trust, cooperation, crime prevention or crime reduction.

**Conclusion and rationale for research**

Soft policing has emerged as an alternative to hard policing approaches. Soft policing does not only make police forces more accessible but also helps in gaining legitimacy for the police. Crime reduction, community involvement and cooperation of youths are some of the positive aspects of soft policing. However, resources required for the application of soft policing can be a limitation. ADP has faced budget cuts recently. Despite these cuts, the UAE government would most probably invest in soft policing because the country cannot gain economic success without managing security challenges in the city.

This research aims to address gaps in our knowledge and inform ADP policy. This is because no research currently exists exploring the views of ADP officers surrounding soft policing. The current research therefore aims to explore police officers’ perspectives surrounding soft policing through the views of both senior and junior officers.
RESEARCH APPROACH

This research paper employs a qualitative research method and a phenomenological research design as it is the core aim to understand police officers’ perceptions, rather than seek “the truth”. Twenty police officers (10 senior – ranks of First Lieutenant to Colonel; 10 junior – ranks from Police Officer to First Warrant Officer) were interviewed using a semi-structured interview using 18 questions approved by AD police senior management. These were based on a review of literature and explore issues surrounding soft policing, its application, implementation, accompanying challenges, as well as early successes. The interview questions have been analysed using thematic analysis that helps in generating themes (Roulston, 2001). The research was approved by Canterbury Christ Church University Ethics Board and appropriate information sheets, consent forms, and debrief forms were utilised.

QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS

An overall summary of key issues discussed throughout the interviews will be provided. In order to be succinct, a limited number of direct quotes is used. As the thematic analysis is descriptive in nature, explanations, rather than direct quotes, are of more importance for this paper.

Understanding of soft power

Soft power was perceived in a manner of ways without prior prompting into what it actually means. It was seen as: a) a way of dealing with the public by the police; b) an aspect of communication between the police and the community; c) a way of attaining cooperation from the public in relation to legal and police services; and d) a form of developing trust between the police and the public. For example, a junior officer stated: “it considers the good communication between policing and public” and a senior officer proposed: “The word (soft) describes the power good communication between a policeman and normal people”.

After being provided with a definition of soft policing (“Source of ensuring compliance with law and maintenance of social order through wider cooperation from the public”) respondents agreed with the definition. Two added that soft power is a source of developing trust between public and police and another added that soft power helped in avoiding the use of violence against people by the police. Westmarland (2001) stated soft power legitimises the actions of police due to the trust factor between police and the public. In this perspective, additional aspects mentioned by the respondents for the concept of soft power are valid; however, the avoidance of violence by the police is misunderstood. Violence is not a virtue of police rather police use force to control the violence.

Relationship between soft power and legitimacy

All the respondents agreed that there was a relationship between police legitimacy and soft power. The power of a police officer is based on the level of acceptance by society and community. Police have a natural aspect of power associated with the operation, this power can be exercised by force or by the cooperation of the public (Paoline, Terrill and Manning, 2003). A junior officer, in support of this, stated: “Yes, if the community believe and trust a police officer’s effort they we can say that soft power relates to police legitimacy” and a senior officer noted: “Soft power is an advantage of increased public trust and gaining their cooperation in legal police services”.

Relationship between soft power, crime prevention and crime reduction

All the respondents agreed there is a relationship between these concepts. One respondent, however, stated that crime prevention is never the aim of policing because prevention is the
idealistic approach, therefore, soft power adopted by Abu Dhabi police is mostly for crime reduction. Respondents mentioned that soft power complements communication between public and police; this motivates the public to follow the law. Further, another respondent stated that crime can be reduced due to soft policing in the long term. This shows the outcome of soft policing can emerge with the passage of time rather than immediately.

The application of soft policing can be justified if the benefits of soft policing can be attained. The outcome of soft policing can be reflected by the presence of a safe and confident community that is aware of the actions taken by the police for the overall state and society. Mostly, respondents were aware of the potential outcomes of soft policing for Abu Dhabi. A respondent mentioned that reduction in crime was possible in Abu Dhabi because the police was cooperative and willing to share information with the public. The “Happy patrol” initiative was mentioned as a prime factor in crime management because they encouraged information sharing and connection between the public and the police. One example of applying soft policing in Abu Dhabi is organising driving camps for the public to raise awareness of safe driving for the community. This resulted in a reduction in driving accidents. Therefore, respondents noted that soft policing has helped bring positive outcomes for Abu Dhabi.

In support of the discussed issues, a junior officer proposed: “Yes, it helped reduce crime rates in Abu Dhabi”. A senior officer suggested: “Yes, it does relate to crime reduction. Soft power will help improve community cooperation and make all parties work more collaboratively” and another senior officer further said: “Yes, of course, and I can say it is the matter of not using violence against people”.

**Soft policing initiatives**

Respondents had given detailed responses; however, communication was the most common response when discussing soft policing initiatives. Respondents perceived communication with the public as an initiative which was adopted by ADP. This was related to increasing public confidence and trust development through communication. A senior officer stated: “Happy patrols were the first initiative introduced to the community in order to change the image of the hard police”.

Seven participants were not aware of specific initiatives of Abu Dhabi police for soft policing. The initiatives discussed by others included: Happy patrol, We are all police, Community police department comprehensive police stations and Police gathering hall. This gives an impression that ADP is building a comprehensive policy for soft policing. Respondents mentioned that the rationale for initiatives, such as Happy patrol, were introduced to change the image of hard policing adopted by Abu Dhabi police in the past. A junior officer noted: “Yes, the success of happy patrols in Abu Dhabi has helped improve the image of police officers”.

Respondents mentioned that Youth police gatherings is an initiative of Abu Dhabi police in which youth are invited to attend different events where the police can interact with young individuals, and where different social and civic issues can be discussed. Therefore, police and youths can better understand and support each other. A junior officer suggested: “If soft policing can make youth closer to police, it might help” and a senior officer explained: “The power of the youth is very important because the highest crime rates are related to youth. This makes their trust highly important”.

**Soft policing challenges**

Respondents referred to some internal challenges such as the prevalence of old school mentality that referred to the effectiveness of adopting a hard policing approach. The responses indicated resistance to soft policing within the Abu Dhabi police force in addition to the presence of
sense of uncertainty regarding the effectiveness of soft policing in controlling crime. This means some ranks and files would tend to refuse such initiative for change.

The responses showed that there was an overall state of unacceptability in Abu Dhabi police, despite the acceptance expressed by some departments. The acceptance for soft policing was mainly in departments not dealing with the public. It showed that there was a lack of communication within Abu Dhabi police, which became a prime reason for confrontation because of soft policing. Better communication between different ranks is needed to better apply soft policing in ADP. Prior to the introduction of soft policing in the organisation, a seminar could have provided an opportunity to higher management for communicating with different ranks and files. A junior officer stated: “Some police officers see this policy as a weak point, or it could conflict with the application of hard power” whilst a senior officer said: “I think the first issue was to make police officers accept that this is an effective policy now days”.

Responses showed that training courses were organised so that ranks and files could understand the need for soft policing. In addition, the annual meeting has been used as a source of communication by higher management to deliver their stance towards the application of soft policing. Lastly, ranks and files in Abu Dhabi police had received text messages about the concept of soft policing and its rationale, application and process of adoption. It meant that actions had been taken by higher management; however, the effectiveness of these actions could be questioned. It could have been more effective to communicate one on one rather than training courses because it is common for employees to look up to higher management for guidance. Sending text messages alone would not be sufficient to support the application of soft policing, which needed to be approached as a strategic decision whose implementation would require more strategic and thorough consideration of senior management.

Almost none of the respondents gave any precise responses which would point to a better way of communicating between different ranks of police officers. However, a discussion on daily tasks was mentioned as a way of communication between senior and junior police officers relating to soft policing issues. Respondents also mentioned the relevance of real life examples; these examples could be given by the senior officer to the junior officer so that the situation can be presented where soft power could be applied and the issue could be resolved. Overall, the responses gave an impression that issues related to soft power were not regularly communicated between senior and junior officers; hence, it could be stated that soft power was adopted as a policy statement without pertinent actions. A senior officer noted: “Yes, our senior management as a whole have attempted to explain through training courses how important it is to deal with residence in Abu Dhabi in a good way and try to avoid the use of hard power unless necessary”. However, this did not seem to be reflected in the interviews conducted with junior officers.

**Soft policing outcomes**

Respondents mentioned that Happy patrols have resulted in a reduction of traffic accidents. A senior officer highlighted: “In my opinion, Happy patrols is one of the instruments for applying soft power within Abu Dhabi society as it could be reflected in Abu Dhabi police performance. It has become evident that Traffic Violations have been reduced since the launch of Happy patrols”.

Crime rate reduction and the overall performance improvement were also mentioned as noted elsewhere; however, it was not discussed as the result of soft policing only. This showed a lack of assessment policy in ADP. ADP seemed to have a lack of assessment policy hence the precise outcomes of soft policing in relation to performance improvement has not been carried out by the organisation. Further, it is likely that outcomes were seen in terms of a mixture of soft policing and alternative methods.
Respondents were further asked about youth crime, specifically and gave mixed opinions such as youth crime impeded by soft policing due to the involvement of youth in policing activities. This made it possible for ADP to communicate the reasons for actions taken by the police. Along with this, soft policing helped in removing communication gaps between youth and the police; hence, the common perception among youth against police has been improved. Finally, soft policing resulted in gaining the trust of youth; it means they are more cooperative and understanding of policing actions.

Community awareness

Almost all the respondents agreed that the public were able to understand the changes in tactics; however, no explanation was given except in agreeing with the statement that the public is aware of ADP soft policing tactics. All the respondents however agreed that more education is needed so that the public truly understand the shift in tactics. Unfortunately, no specific explanation was provided. The education of the public in regard to soft power could make them better understand the use of soft power along with cooperating with the police so that soft power can be applied successfully. If a police organisation will organise an event for educating the public regarding soft power, then it leads to projecting the softer image of the police.

Future of soft policing

Five respondents refused to comment because the future could not be forecasted with certainty. In spite of this, respondents mentioned that soft policing would evolve in Abu Dhabi, that collaboration between public and police would increase and that a stronger relationship between the police and the public would be developed. One of the respondents mentioned that soft policing would face challenges because it is expected that the police would face more sophisticated crimes where soft policing might not be effective to manage such crimes. It implied that there was no way of ensuring that a successful strategy today would be successful in the future and there is a need for constant evaluation.

CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORK

The core issues which were explored in this work were analysed from the perceptions of both junior and senior police officers in ADP. The core themes which were discussed by respondents included: Understanding of soft power, Relationship between soft power and legitimacy, Relationship between soft power, crime prevention and crime reduction, Soft policing initiatives, Soft policing challenges, Soft policing outcomes, Community awareness, and Future of soft policing. These interesting themes are the base for developing a theory about the soft policing adoption in ADP. However, there are different perspectives and relationships among these themes that require further examination. In this respect, investigating these themes and relationships from a different perspective using a quantitative methodology could help build a better frame work for the development of soft policing in Abu Dhabi based on the concepts of predictability and generalisation. Moreover, a better understanding of the public’s perspective towards the application of soft policing will add great value to this research.

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EXPANDING THE EXPLANATORY SPHERE OF RATIONAL CHOICE THEORY: BRIDGING RATIONAL CHOICE THEORY AND SOCIAL IDENTITY THEORY

JAMAL ABDI¹

ABSTRACT

The main purpose of this paper is to suggest expansion of rational choice theory’s explanatory sphere through bridging of rational choice theory and social identity theory. In terms of interest(s), it is suggested that the clear distinction between the individual “self” and an inescapable social group, e.g. race, is neutralised through bridging of rational choice theory and social identity theory. Hence, it is also argued that by pursuing the collective interest of an inescapable in-group, the individual is indeed pursuing its own interest, as the interests of the individual are inextricably linked to the interests of the whole group. Therefore, the pursuit of private utility maximisation, on the expense of an inescapable in-group, is irrational while pursuing the collective interests of an inescapable in-group is indeed rational. Thus, through bridging of rational choice theory and social identity theory, the explanatory sphere of rational choice is expanded to include action undertaken in the name of a social group.

Keywords: Rational choice theory, Social identity theory, Self-interest, Individual mobility.

INTRODUCTION

Due to its fundamental assumption of self-interest, rational choice theory falls short in explaining essentially any behavior that does not wed with the selfish dictates of private utility maximisation. In other words, rational choice theory falls short in explaining any “selfless” action undertaken in the name of an identity group (Aguiar and Francisco, 2009). Any “selfless” action undertaken in the name of an identity group is considered irrational and thus beyond the explanatory sphere of rational choice theory. Thus, social identity poses a rather significant challenge for rational choice theory. Externalist and internalist rational choice constitute the two approaches to social identity from rational choice theory (Yoshimichi, 2010). The former rejects social identity or reduces it to revealed preferences (Aguiar and Francisco, 2009). The latter considers social identity vital in explaining social action (Yoshimichi, 2010). It has been stressed that incorporation of social identity into rational choice theory would broaden the horizon of rational choice theory and enhance its explanatory power e.g. Yoshimichi (2010) and Aguiar and Francisco (2009). Yet a theory that fully incorporates social identity into rational choice theory has yet to be produced. The present paper proposes a rethinking of rational choice theory’s explanatory sphere. Its main purpose is to suggest expansion of rational choice theory’s explanatory sphere through bridging of rational choice theory and social identity theory. In terms of interest(s), it is suggested that the clear distinction between the individual “self” and an inescapable social group, e.g. race, is neutralised through bridging of rational choice theory and social identity theory. Through bridging of rational choice theory and social identity theory, it appears that an individual’s self-interest is inextricably linked to that of the whole group if such group is inescapable i.e. membership is based on unalterable physical characteristics. Given the preceding, members of inescapable groups are indeed pursuing their own self-interest when pursuing the interest of the whole group. They are indeed acting rationally when pursuing the common interest of an inescapable group, through membership of which individual members are evaluated. Hence, provided that the low-status in-group that the individual wish to distance the “self” from, physically and/or psychologically, is escapable, then individual mobility is rational even on the expense of the

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former in-group. Provided that the low-status in-group that the individual wish to distance the “self” from, physically and/or psychologically, is inescapable, then individual mobility, on the expense of an inescapable in-group, is irrational.

STRUCTURE

The structure of the present paper is as follows. First, the main tenets of rational choice theory and social identity theory are briefly outlined. There are several versions of rational choice theory. However, each is not discussed in detail. Of prime interest is the fundamental assumption of self-interest. Regarding social identity theory, this paper draws on Tajfel and Turner (1979). The overriding argument, briefly outlined above, is developed and discussed more explicitly after the main tenets of rational choice theory and social identity theory are briefly outlined.

RATIONAL CHOICE THEORY

The main assumption of rational choice theory is that an actor chooses an alternative that he/she believes brings about a social outcome that optimises his/her preference under subjectively conceived constraints (Yoshimichi, 2010). In other words, the individual has subjectively based “self-interest” and concerns itself only with consequences for itself. In a given decision-making situation, an actor considers a finite set of alternatives, ascribes consequences to them, orders these consequences according to their importance and values, and makes an optimal choice among available alternatives. Rational choice theory occupies a key position in relation to the conceptualisation of human action in the social sciences (Burns and Roszkawska, 2016). Yet, rational choice theory has been subjected to much criticism. The foundational implicit assumptions that rational choice theory rest on, constitute the point of departure of the common main criticism of rational choice theory. The first of these is that the decision-making actor is completely informed i.e. he/she is fully aware of all possible alternatives and knows which courses of action that will lead to which alternative. Second, the actor is capable of an objective, logical analysis of all available evidence in relation to the identification of best alternatives and can see the finest differences between choice alternatives. It is also assumed that a decision-making actor is completely rational i.e. he/she is not blurred by emotions and the like and is thus fully capable of ranking alternatives according to their utility relative to the ends the actor finds important (Sydney, 2017). Considering the generally accepted wisdom that people are constrained by institutions, cultural influences and psychological limitations, it becomes evident that the assumptions of rationality are problematic.

A common main criticism is that real decision-makers are not strict rationally calculating and self-interested. They are constrained by institutions, cultural influences, and psychological limitations that make the assumptions of rationality problematic at best, and foolhardy at worst. (Burns and Roszkawska, 2016, p. 196)

It is, however, not the objective of the present paper to engage in a discussion on the soundness of assumptions implicitly rooted in rational choice theory. As briefly explained in the introduction, the purpose is to suggest expansion of rational choice theory’s explanatory sphere by bridging rational choice theory and social identity theory.

SOCIAL IDENTITY THEORY

Social identity theory is a classical social psychological theory. It departs from the assumption that an individual’s identity is in rather significant ways defined by membership of social groups (Jetten et al., 2008). Put differently, an individual has both a personal and a social identity, which constitutes a source of self-esteem as individuals are evaluated through membership of social groups e.g. class, nation, ethnic group, gender, race etc. Social identity theory grew out of Henri Tajfel’s minimal group study experiments, where individuals were
arbitrarily divided into two categories. It appeared from these experiments that even “minimal”
group basis led people to form psychological groups, exaggerating the positive qualities of
one’s own in-group while exaggerating the negative qualities of the out-group (Islam, 2014).
An individual’s social identity can be defined as those aspects of an individual’s self-image
that derive from the social categories to which he/she perceives itself as belonging. The general
assumptions of social identity theory are as follows:

Individuals strive to maintain or enhance their self-esteem: they strive for a positive self-concept.
Social groups or categories and the membership of them are associated with positive or
negative value connotations. Hence, social identity may be positive or negative according to
the evaluations (which tend to be socially consensual, either within or across groups) of those
groups that contribute to an individual’s social identity.
The evaluation of one’s own group is determined with reference to specific other groups
through social comparisons in terms of value-laden attributes and characteristics. Positively
discrepant comparisons between in-group and out-group produce high prestige; negatively
discrepant comparisons between in-group and out-group result in low prestige (Tajfel and

There are mainly three different identity management strategies utilised by
disadvantaged social group members: (a) social competition; (b) social creativity; (c) individual
mobility. Social competition and social creativity are not discussed thoroughly in this paper
(Tajfel and Turner, 1979). Individual mobility on the other hand stands central in relation to
the overriding argument of the present paper. The purpose of individual mobility is to maintain
a positive personal identity rather than a positive social identity. Hence, individuals that self-
categorise at the individual level in a given social context are more prone to adopt individual
mobility strategies (Branscombe and Ellemers, 1998). Four different forms which individual
mobility attempts can take are briefly delineated in what follows. The first and perhaps also
most obvious of these is physical distancing. That is when people physically distance the ‘self’
from their devalued in-group and formally gain access to another group. The second form,
which individual mobility can take does not require that an individual physically leaves its
devalued in-group. That is, as individual mobility may also take the form of psychological
distancing. This form is usually adopted by members of devalued groups when membership of
such groups is based on physical characteristics e.g. gender or race. The third form of individual
mobility is one where the individual denies the validity of group-based differences by
maintaining that individuals should not be evaluated in terms of their group membership. Thus,
this form of individual mobility emphasises the significance of personal rather than social
identity. The final form that individual mobility can take is one where the individual embraces
the characteristics of its social identity (Ellemers and Van Laar, 2010).

CONSEQUENCES OF INDIVIDUAL MOBILITY

When individual mobility attempts are successful, i.e. the individual leaves its devalued in-
group and gains inclusion to a higher standing group, then people may gain a number of
benefits e.g. personal prestige and wealth as a result of their individualistic strategy
(Branscombe and Ellemers, 1998). It is imperative to stress that the positive outcomes of
individual mobility strategies, mentioned above, are far from the inevitable result of individual
mobility attempts. First, members of devalued groups who are engaged in individual mobility
might only achieve marginal acceptance from a higher-status group who they wish to join, or
they might even be completely rejected by such group, particularly when discrimination is
prevalent. Another risk associated with the adoption of individual mobility is that actors might
end in a situation where they are rejected by the higher status group who they wish to join and
simultaneously rejected and considered a traitor by the former in-group (Branscombe and
Ellemers, 1998). Also vital to stress is that people prefer individual mobility strategies over collective strategies whenever possible. Experimental research has shown that members of devalued groups engaged in collective strategies to improve the social position of their in-group only when adoption of individual mobility was not possible (Jetten et al., 2008).

The overriding argument of the present paper, briefly touched upon in the introduction, is now developed and discussed explicitly. First, a discussion on under which conditions individual mobility is rational is provided. The concept of nation and class are used as examples in this context. Subsequently, a discussion on whether and under which conditions individual mobility may be irrational is provided. In this context, the concept of race is used in the development of the argument. A summary of the argument can be put as follows;

Provided that the low-status in-group that the individual wish to distance the ´self´ from, physically and/or psychologically, is escapable, then individual mobility may be rational even on the expense of the former in-group.

Provided that the low-status in-group that the individual wish to distance the ´self´ from, physically and/or psychologically, is inescapable, then individual mobility, on the expense of an inescapable in-group, is irrational.

INDIVIDUAL MOBILITY AS THE RATIONAL CHOICE

It appears difficult to escape the fact that the nation remains a rather significant form of collective identity in the contemporary world. As Anna Triandafyllidou (1998) puts it: Not only does the organization of the world in nation-states seem ´natural´ but the whole perception by each individual of the surrounding world is based on the distinction between the in-group, namely the nation, and the foreigners, those belonging to other communities, the ´others´. (Triandafyllidou, 1998, p. 593)

In many ways, Anna Trindafyllidou is right in her interpretation of the nation´s importance in the contemporary world. Both national and class-based social groups constitute rather significant forms of collective identities i.e. in-groups through membership of which individuals are evaluated. Thus, class-based and national groups are significant sources of social identity and hence self-esteem. Establishment of hierarchy in terms of membership of social groups, that membership of a specific social group is more important than others, is perhaps not appropriate. This is mainly so for two reasons:

Membership of all social groups is significant in terms of social identity.

When exactly membership of a specific social group becomes salient or remains latent hinges on specific contexts. In one context, membership of a national group might for instance prove more significant than membership of a class-based group. In a different context, it might be reversed i.e. membership of a class-based group might appear more significant than membership of a national group etc.

Insofar as hierarchy is to be established, it is suggested that inescapable in-groups, i.e. in-groups where membership is based on unalterable physical characteristics e.g. race, are more important than escapable groups. The later refers to social groups where membership is not based on unalterable physical characteristics e.g. national and class-based social groups. Vital to stress is that the preceding should not be interpreted as an attempt to claim that membership of a social group is insignificant merely because such group is escapable. The point being made is that both national and class-based groups are escapable, since neither of them is normally based on unalterable physical characteristics. In other words, members of low-status national and/or class-based groups may leave their low-status group and thus enhance their social identity/self-esteem by adopting individual mobility strategies. For instance, Jetten et al. (2008) propose that when encountering important life-transitions, such as entering university, students from more disadvantaged backgrounds are engaging in individual mobility strategies, as they
are gaining professional skills and higher earning potential than if they were not to attend university. In some societies e.g. the U.S and U.K, university education is rather costly. While students from the poorest segment of society would most likely be prevented from attending university, due to lack of economic resources, students from slightly more privileged backgrounds would be allowed to leave their relatively low-status groups by adopting individual mobility strategy i.e. attending university and thus investing in their ‘human capital’. Important here is to stress that the first type of students, those at the bottom of the socio-economic ladder, are not bound to remain in their class-based low-status group. The point is merely that such students are compelled to identify alternative ways to escape their low-status social groups. Central is the fact that class-based low-status groups are theoretically escapable. The concept of nation is in many ways more complicated than that of class. A comprehensive discussion on national and ethnic boundaries would for instance require a whole book. However, as is the case with class-based low-status groups, also national groups are normally not based on unalterable physical characteristics and are thus also escapable. Briefly speaking, members of a low-status national group can, at least theoretically, escape such group through upward individual mobility i.e. by gaining access to a higher standing national group. Thus, individual mobility is rational provided that the low status in-group, from which the individual wish to separate the ‘self’ from, is not based on unalterable physical characteristics. When group membership is not based on unalterable physical characteristics, an individual can normally escape the negative value connotations associated with a specific social group that contributes to the social identity of the individual. Consequently, enhancement of one’s social identity through individual mobility is rational even if it is done on the expense of the low-status group that the individual wish to separate the “self” from. In a nutshell, pursuit of private utility maximization is the rational choice of members of devalued social groups, provided that such groups are not based on unalterable physical characteristics and are thus escapable e.g. class and national groups.

INDIVIDUAL MOBILITY AS IRRATIONAL

Under which conditions individual mobility is rational was discussed in the preceding section. It was argued that pursuit of private utility maximisation through individual mobility is the rational choice of members of low-status social groups, if membership of such groups is not based on unalterable physical characteristics. Whether and under which conditions individual mobility may be irrational is discussed in what follows. Although both class-based and national groups constitute rather significant sources of social identity and thus also significant sources of self-esteem, it remains the case that both are theoretically escapable. A Romanian might for instance enhances his/her social identity through individual mobility e.g. by becoming an American citizen. By gaining access to a higher standing national group, an individual from Somalia is for instance also escaping his/her low-status national group. Important here is to stress the difference between the white Romanian and the Black Somali. While it is theoretically possible for both to escape their low-status national groups, through individual mobility, it appears evident that a Black individual can normally not escape his/her low-status racial identity through individual mobility. The point being made becomes clearer through the difference between class-nation and race. As Alcoff (2006) puts it:

Class and nationality are also embodied identities, but their relationship to the body is less intimate and more easily alterable than the relationship with one’s race or one’s gender. Class and nationality profoundly affect the shape and condition of the body, but the physical effects can often be overcome when class and national identities are changed. Class and nationality are primarily manifest as behavior, whereas race and gender affect, and reflect, less easily alterable physiological features. (Alcoff, 2006, p. 86)
In terms of social comparison and hierarchy, it appears evident that being Black is the most devalued and thus least advantageous racial identity in the contemporary world. Since membership of racial social groups is based on unalterable physical characteristics, members of racial social groups can normally not leave such groups through physical distancing. In fact, a Black individual cannot escape his/her racial identity through individual mobility attempts - irrespective of such attempts being physical or psychological. For instance, a Black individual that attempts individual mobility through psychological distancing is not significantly distinguishable from a poor person who imagines that he/she is wealthy and behaves accordingly. Psychological imagining does not alter the socio-economic position of a poor individual. It is equally evident that psychological distancing does not alter the fact that any Black person, irrespective of nationality and class, is evaluated through membership of the most devalued racial category in the contemporary world. Put shortly, members of inescapable social groups cannot evade negative value connotations associated with their respective social groups through individual mobility. Therefore, it is argued that if the low-status social group that the individual wish to distance the “self” form, physically and/or psychologically, is inescapable, then individual mobility, on the expense of an inescapable social group, is irrational. Rather than individual mobility, I suggest that pursuit of collective strategies may constitute the rational choice of members of inescapable low-status social groups.

This point becomes clearer through bridging of social identity theory and rational choice theory. As previously explained, rational choice theory falls short in explaining any selfless action undertaken in the name of an identity group. Social identity theory holds that individuals are evaluated through membership of social groups/categories and that they strive to maintain or enhance their self-esteem: they strive for a positive self-concept. Thus, the self or the individual is incorporated within the group identity. In other words, members of inescapable social groups’ self-interest is inextricably linked to that of the collective group. Distinction between members of inescapable social groups’ self-interest and the collective interest of the whole group is thus neutralised through bridging of social identity theory and rational choice theory. Individuals being evaluated through membership of social groups, from which they derive their self-esteem, constitutes the greatest evidence in defense of the preceding contention. Thus, it becomes sound to suggest that members of inescapable groups are indeed pursuing their own individual interest when pursuing the collective interest of an inescapable group. In a nutshell, by pursuing the interest of an inescapable group, individual members are indeed pursuing private utility maximisation, since their individual self-interest is inextricably linked to the social position of the collective group.

Thus, it becomes evident - through bridging of rational choice theory and social identity theory - that the explanatory sphere of rational choice theory may be expanded to include action, where the individual is not concerned with consequences only for itself. Consequently, the explanatory power of rational choice theory is expanded through bridging of rational choice theory and social identity theory.

CONCLUSION

Expansion of rational choice theory’s explanatory sphere, through bridging of rational choice theory and social identity theory, has been attempted in this paper. It is concluded that an individual can escape the negative value connotations, associated with a specific social group that contributes to the social identity of the individual - if membership is not based on unalterable physical characteristics. Hence, individual mobility is rational provided that the low-status in-group, from which the individual wish to separate the ‘self’ from, is not based on unalterable physical characteristics. In other words, enhancement of one’s social identity, through individual mobility, is rational even if it is done on the expense of the low-status group.
that the individual wish to separate the “self” from. In a nutshell, pursuit of private utility maximisation is the rational choice of members of devalued social groups, provided that membership of such groups is not based on unalterable physical characteristics. If the low-status social group that the individual wish to distance the “self” from, physically and/or psychologically, is inescapable, then individual mobility, on the expense of an inescapable social group, is irrational. When a social group is inescapable, i.e. membership of it is based on unalterable physical characteristics, individual members cannot escape the negative value connotations associated with membership of such group. Rather than individual mobility, it is suggested that pursuit of collective strategies may constitute the rational choice of members of inescapable low-status social groups. That is, as members of inescapable social groups’ self-interest is inextricably linked to the social position of the inescapable social group. In a nutshell, by pursuing the interest of an inescapable group, individual members are indeed pursuing private utility maximisation.

REFERENCES


INFLUENCE OF INTEGRATED MARKETING COMMUNICATIONS IN ONLINE SOCIAL NETWORKING ON THE CLOTHING PURCHASES OF ASEAN CONSUMERS

KWANRUETAI BOONYASANA1*, ARTTAKARN SATTAYAPANICH2 AND SURACHART BUACHUM3

ABSTRACT

Thailand's garment and textile industries are the second-most important employment sector in the country. However, both are facing major problems that demand attention, for example: labour costs, new design and product development, and marketing strategy (the latter most especially). These concerns underpin the purpose of this paper which is to study the influence of Integrated Marketing Communications (IMC) in online social networking on clothing purchase of the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) market. The research instrument includes questions that provide descriptive statistics and enable analysis by way of a chi-square test. From the selected sample of 470 ASEAN consumers, the findings show that subjects are influenced in their choice to purchase by IMC in online social networking, which includes advertising, sale promotion, public relations and direct marketing, except for subjects from Myanmar, Lao People's Democratic Republic and Cambodia, due to limited internet access.

Keywords: Integrated Marketing Communications (IMC), Social networking, Clothing, Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN).

INTRODUCTION

Thailand’s textile industry has developed significantly over the past five decades, passing on the knowledge, expertise and competencies of manufacturers from previous generations. Combined with cutting-edge technologies, Thailand has become the main textile producer and exporter, qualified by global standards. In addition, Thailand is one of the few countries in the world that can supply the complete textile industry chain, that provides the whole value chain of the textile industry, from upstream, through midstream, to downstream (see Figure 1). The Thailand Board of Investment (2018) reported that the country has roughly 4,700 textile manufacturers, ranging from fibers, yarns and dyeing to clothing. Moreover, the Thai government states that Thailand's garment industry supports the employment of 800,000 to 1 million workers, while the textile industry employs 200,000 people, making these two industries combined the second-most important employment sector in the country (Fibre2Fashion.com, 2018).

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Figure 1: Value Chain of the Textile Industry

Source: Thailand Board of Investment, 2018.

Currently, Thailand is ranked as the 28th largest exporter of functional textiles (Thailand Board of Investment, 2018). However, as the global fashion and textile supply chain is shifting to Asia now and to Africa in the next decade, Asia is becoming a major global trade and investment centre. As a result, the Thailand Textile Institute has realised that the Thai fashion and textile industry should define a clear strategic move and integrate textile production with fashion “Toward Sustainable Creative Industries with Strong Soft Power” respectively (Thailand Development Research Institute, 2017). The steps of foundation development include the expansion of Thai textile business scopes to ASEAN, encouraging design and specification decisions in the country. In addition, Thailand plans to: promote creativity; improve laws and regulation to reduce red tape; solve the wet-processing supply chain bottleneck; ease trade barriers between Thai and ASEAN; create technology transfer mechanisms within the region; and create design and product development clusters.

However, Thailand is facing major problems that demand attention, for example: labour costs, new design and product development, and marketing strategy (the latter most especially). These concerns underpin the purpose of this paper which is to study the influence of Integrated Marketing Communications (IMC) in online social networking on the clothing purchases of the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) market. ASEAN is the biggest international market for Thailand clothing export and is expected to become the world’s fourth-largest market by 2030.

LITERATURE REVIEWS

Marketing Communications (MC) employs different marketing channels and tools in combination, with a focus on the ways a business can communicate a message to a target market. An MC tool can include: advertising, personal selling, direct marketing, sponsorship, communication, promotion, and public relations. (Tomše and Snoj, 2014). The International Chamber of Commerce (ICC) (2006) states that MC should be produced directly by, or on behalf of, marketers intended primarily to promote products or to influence consumer behaviour. “Communications” includes both external communication and internal communication. External communication can be market research questionnaires, office website, guarantees, annual reports and presentations for investors, while internal communication can be marketing materials, price lists, product catalogs, sales presentations and management communications (Doyle, 2011).

Figure 2: Customer-Initiated Marketing Communication Model
Belch et al. (2008) explain that the various types of communications and messages are unified to realise the concept of integrated marketing communications (IMC), which can be viewed as a strongly interactive process between an organisation and its customers. In 2005, Duncan introduced the customer-initiated marketing communication model, explaining how consumers communicate to the company brand using different social media tools (CIC, 2011). According to this model (see Figure 2), the sender is the source of encoded messages like questions and complaints in communicating with organisations through channels both personal and non-personal. Personal channels of communication are direct and target individual groups, and they involve two or more persons who communicate directly with each other face-to-face or person-to-person through telephone, email or social channels. From this customer-initiated marketing communication model, the customer or other stakeholder transmits the communication and the company receives it. There is a two-way process of engagement, which can be achieved with the company providing feedback by way of the five Rs: responsiveness, recourse, recognition, respect and reinforcement (Duncan, 2005).

In the case of textiles, Završnik and Mumel (2007) studied the use of marketing communications in the clothing industry in Slovenia. They found that a properly-used marketing communication mix is a factor for success in the Slovenian clothing industry. Henninger et al. (2015) analysed the practical applicability of IMC to micro-organisations operating in the UK’s fashion industry, focusing specifically on the use of online platforms. The results showed that these micro-organisations have a limited understanding of IMC. Although they utilise various channels, including social media, there is a disconnect between reaching the audience, understanding their needs and linking these aspects. External factors influence the use of various communication channels, leading to further fragmentation of sent messages. These studies can provide support for Duncan’s 2005 model.

**METHODOLOGY**

The methodology employed for this study is as follows:

**Data:** the research tool used in this study is a questionnaire from the target sample of 470 prospective students made up of textile consumers in ASEAN.
**Statistical tools:** data analysis, we employ frequency count, percentage and chi-square (X2) test analysis to examine the effect of the four online marketing communications tools on the clothing purchasing of ASEAN consumers.

**Conceptual framework**

**Figure 3: Conceptual Framework**

![Figure 3: Conceptual Framework](image)

Figure 3 shows the conceptual framework for this study. Following the hypotheses, there exist relationships between the four online marketing communications tools (advertising, sale promotion, public relations and direct marketing) and ASEAN consumers’ decisions in relation to clothes purchasing.

**RESULTS**

The results obtained were as follows:

**Hypothesis 1**

HO: There is no relationship between online advertising and ASEAN consumers’ decisions in relation to clothes purchasing.

H1: There is a relationship between these variables.

**Table 1: Test of Significant Relationship between Online Advertising and ASEAN Consumers’ Decisions in Relation to Clothes Purchasing**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effect of Rank Selection in Relation to Purchase</th>
<th>X2 value</th>
<th>X2 prob</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Online Advertising</td>
<td>highly agree</td>
<td>agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>highly agree</td>
<td>41.3%</td>
<td>10.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>9.4%</td>
<td>36.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>7.4%</td>
<td>20.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>12.8%</td>
<td>15.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>highly disagree</td>
<td>9.1%</td>
<td>9.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>13.5%</td>
<td>25.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 shows the chi-square p-value (0.00) is less than our α value (0.05). Therefore, HO is rejected indicating that there is a highly significant relationship between online advertising and ASEAN consumers’ decisions in relation to clothes purchasing.
Hypothesis 2
HO: There is no relationship between online sale promotion and ASEAN consumers’ decisions in relation to clothes purchasing.
H1: There is a relationship between these variables.

Table 2: Test of Significant Relationship Between Online Sale Promotion and ASEAN Consumers’ Decisions in Relation to Clothes Purchasing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effect of Online Sale Promotion</th>
<th>Rank Selection in Relation to Purchase</th>
<th>X2 value</th>
<th>X2 prob</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>highly agree</td>
<td>highly agree</td>
<td>46.39</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>agree</td>
<td>14.9%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>17.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>6.4%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>highly disagree</td>
<td>highly disagree</td>
<td>17.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>46.39</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 shows the chi-square p-value (0.00) is less than our α value (0.05). Therefore, HO is rejected indicating that there is a highly significant relationship between online sale promotion and ASEAN consumers’ decisions in relation to clothes purchasing.

Hypothesis 3
HO: There is no relationship between online public relations and ASEAN consumers’ decisions in relation to clothes purchasing.
H1: There is a relationship between these variables.

Table 3: Test of Significant Relationship Between Online Public Relations and ASEAN Consumers’ Decisions in Relation to Clothes Purchasing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effect of Online PR</th>
<th>Rank Selection in Relation to Purchase</th>
<th>X2 value</th>
<th>X2 prob</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>highly agree</td>
<td>highly agree</td>
<td>73.39</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>agree</td>
<td>10.2%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>26.5%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>8.2%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>highly disagree</td>
<td>highly disagree</td>
<td>16.3%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>73.39</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3 shows the chi-square p-value (0.00) is less than our α value (0.05). Therefore, HO is rejected indicating that there is a highly significant relationship between online public relations and ASEAN consumers’ decisions in relation to clothes purchasing.

Hypothesis 4
HO: There is no relationship between online direct marketing and ASEAN consumers’ decisions in relation to clothes purchasing.
H1: There is a relationship between these variables.

Table 4: Test of significant relationship between online direct marketing and ASEAN consumers’ decisions in relation to clothes purchasing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effect of Online Direct Marketing</th>
<th>Rank Selection in Relation to Purchase</th>
<th>X2 value</th>
<th>X2 prob</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>highly agree</td>
<td>highly agree</td>
<td>55.3%</td>
<td>7.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>agree</td>
<td>5.3%</td>
<td>7.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>23.7%</td>
<td>7.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>7.9%</td>
<td>7.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>highly disagree</td>
<td>highly disagree</td>
<td>122.89</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>agree</td>
<td>14.4%</td>
<td>4.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>38.1%</td>
<td>4.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>24.7%</td>
<td>4.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>highly disagree</td>
<td>highly disagree</td>
<td>18.6%</td>
<td>4.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>agree</td>
<td>3.9%</td>
<td>7.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>26.6%</td>
<td>7.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
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<td>42.2%</td>
<td>7.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>highly disagree</td>
<td>20.3%</td>
<td>7.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>agree</td>
<td>7.3%</td>
<td>12.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>18.2%</td>
<td>12.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>23.6%</td>
<td>12.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>highly disagree</td>
<td>highly disagree</td>
<td>38.2%</td>
<td>12.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>agree</td>
<td>9.1%</td>
<td>40.9%</td>
</tr>
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<td>neutral</td>
<td>9.1%</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>22.7%</td>
<td>40.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>highly disagree</td>
<td>highly disagree</td>
<td>18.2%</td>
<td>40.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>55.3%</td>
<td>7.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5.3%</td>
<td>7.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>23.7%</td>
<td>7.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>7.9%</td>
<td>7.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>182.89</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 shows the chi-square p-value (0.00) is less than our α value (0.05). Therefore, HO is rejected indicating that there is a highly significant relationship between online direct marketing and ASEAN consumers’ decisions in relation to clothes purchasing.

DISCUSSIONS
Major differences in religion, culture and income levels across the ASEAN market would indicate that fashion designers must consider these to provide an end product aesthetically appealing to the diversity of consumers when they are undertaking the intricate planning and detailing in creating the look of the garment. Moreover, even though creating IMC in online social networking gives rise to a certain branding aura, and could benefit Thailand’s broader digital marketing, entrepreneurs should focus their efforts on the networks that correspond best to their target consumers, in order to create a community of brand advocates, build trust, and receive feedback on customer experience.

From the selected sample of 470 consumers, the findings show that subjects are influenced in their choice to purchase by IMC in online social networking, which includes advertising, sale promotion, public relations and direct marketing for ASEAN. However, this is not true for subjects from Myanmar, Lao People's Democratic Republic and Cambodia, due to limited internet access in these locations. Although the biggest numbers of digital buyers are from the Philippines, Vietnam and Malaysia, the Singapore e-commerce market is more mature. In the Philippines, Vietnam, Thailand and Indonesia, e-commerce is still at a very early stage remaining an important reservoir of growth for this international market.
CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

To increase the value of turnover for Thailand’s clothing industry, international marketing is crucial in any response with a view towards future export growth. The purpose of this paper was to study the influence of Integrated Marketing Communications (IMC) in online social networking on clothing purchasing in the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) market, the biggest international market for Thailand clothing export. From the selected sample of 470 ASEAN consumers, we found that subjects are influenced in their choice to purchase by IMC in online social networking, which includes advertising, sale promotion, public relations and direct marketing. This is not the case for subjects from Myanmar, Lao People's Democratic Republic and Cambodia, due to limited internet access. Even though creating IMC in online social networking benefits Thailand’s broader online marketing, entrepreneurs should focus their efforts on the networks that correspond best to their target consumers, in order to create a community of brand advocates, build trust, and receive feedback on customer experience.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors would like to thank Miss. Kantikar Sittithai for collecting data. In addition, the authors would like to thank Mr. Robin Neill for comments and suggestions, and Rajamangala University of Technology Phra Nakhon for its support.

REFERENCES


CREATION OF NARRATIVES IN THE MAZATEC INDIGENOUS LANGUAGE AS A METHOD TO ENCOURAGE THE USE OF THE LANGUAGE AND PROPAGATION IN THE NEW DIGITAL MEDIA

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ABSTRACT

In Mexico there are 68 linguistic groupings with 364 variants, all of them considered indigenous languages. At the beginning of the 19th century, 60% of the Mexican population spoke an indigenous language, but by the year 2016 it was only 6.5%, which is a sign that indigenous languages are becoming extinct. Of that population that speaks an indigenous language, 3.2% speak Mazatec, a language belonging to Oaxaca, Mexico; which is considered by UNESCO as a language “vulnerable” to the danger of extinction. For this reason, it is considered necessary to carry out actions that encourage the use and practice of indigenous languages, in addition to granting them validity and visibility through new digital media, mainly the Internet. In this paper we propose the development of a web tool for the generation of narratives in a comic format, since storytelling develops language skills such as learning the meaning of words and syntactic rules. The goal is for Mazatec speakers to create narratives about their culture and traditions using their mother tongue; besides giving them the possibility to share these narratives in social networks.

Keywords: Mazatec indigenous language, Narratives, Digital media.

INTRODUCTION

According to the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), in 2003, 97% of the world's population spoke 4% of the languages in the world, while in the other 3% of the population the greatest linguistic diversity was concentrated with 96% of the remaining languages (UNESCO, 2003).

In the case of Mexico, according to the Catalog of National Indigenous Languages published by the National Institute of Indigenous Languages, there is an important linguistic diversity, consisting of 11 linguistic families from which 68 linguistic groups derive with 364 variants (INALI, 2008). This situation makes Mexico one of the countries with the greatest cultural and linguistic diversity in America.

However, the indigenous languages are disappearing; at the beginning of the 19th century 60% of the Mexican population spoke an indigenous language (INALI, 2010) and for the year 2016 only 6.5% (INEGI, 2016); this is an example of the process of linguistic displacement, which happens when the majority of speakers of a language A replace their use by another language B, the result within a community implies that communication between speakers stops being done in language A and it happens to be done in language B.

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From the total population that speaks an indigenous language in Mexico, 3.2% speak Mazatec (INEGI, 2016), so in the Atlas of the world's languages, UNESCO catalogs Mazatec as “vulnerable” (UNESCO, 2017). On the other hand, UNESCO has declared indigenous languages as an intangible heritage of humanity, as it is an invaluable cultural wealth that cannot and should not be ignored. It is therefore important to focus on one of the many problems that are causing the extinction of these languages, such as the problem of the displacement of indigenous languages.

There are, of course, people who consider that the death of these languages [the indigenous] is inevitable and that, furthermore, there is no reason to suffer about it since linguistic unification is highly desirable. In contrast to such an attitude, there are others who think that the disappearance of any language impoverishes humanity (León-Portilla, 2001).

This paper provides a review of the state of the art of three web tools that allow creating comics. It also provides a proposal of a web comic generator with a thematic about the Mazatec culture, with the aim of putting into use the Mazatec indigenous language of the state from Oaxaca, Mexico. The rest of the paper is organised as follows. The next section analyzes some existing tools for creating comics. The third section briefly explains the S’ui K’ien festivity that takes place in Oaxaca as part of the Mazatec culture. The fourth section describes the proposal of the web comic generator that is being developed, the relevance of the use of the narratives, in the comic format, for putting into practice the Mazatec indigenous language, and finally, the interface design of the web comic generator. Finally, the fifth section provides some final thoughts.

RELATED WORK

This section presents the state of the art related to online tools for the creation of comics. Three tools were analyzed and evaluated, and a comparison table was generated with some of their most important features.

Pixton

It is a tool (Pixton, 2018) that allows the creation of comics, based on the choice of a comic format: comic strip (frames of the same size), storyboard (each frame can have a title and a description), graphic novel (the size of the frames is variable). For each comic format the user can choose between the beginner level and the advanced level.

At the beginner level you can choose for each frame, the setting and the characters, as well as edit the dialogues of each character. Concerning the characters, you can modify the body position, the facial expressions, the skin tone (6 different tones), and rotate the image in mirror format.

At the advanced level you can choose for each frame, the scenario and the characters (predefined), as well as edit the dialogues of each character. Regarding the characters, you can choose a predefined position or create a new one by clicking on the character and moving each point of articulation (knees, elbows, neck, waist, etc.). Additionally, the user can create their own facial expressions, choosing between different options of images of eyes, eyebrows, hands, mouths, etc., as well as choosing the skin tone (128 different tones).

It should be mentioned that it is not a free tool, it has different rates depending on the use (leisure, schools, businesses), in the same way each option has different functionalities, for example, in the business version the user can choose not to use the predefined images, but to provide its own images. It is a tool with many features, which gives the user total freedom to create a fully customised comic. You can access a free trial for a month with the leisure version.

Stripgenerator

It is an online tool (Stripgenerator, 2018) that allows the creation of comics. The tool menu consists of four menu items: frames, characters, elements and text.
In the frames menu item, the tool allows to choose between a row, two rows and full page, each of the previous options has a series of different settings, as well as the option to customise the frames.

In the characters menu item, the characters are all in black and white. The illustrations have a “cartoon” style, and all of them have unrealistic bodies (head larger than the body, square bodies, rounded bodies, etc.); these characters can be rotated 360 degrees inside the frames, which allows to position them at any angle, in addition the tool allows to increase its size or decrease it. Another type of characters are the beings, which have the same features of colour, black and white, and unbalanced proportions in their body; examples of them are the following: dog, rabbit, skeleton, robot, pumpkin, devil, snowman, Batman, and some others that can be considered monsters.

The element menu item has two sections: objects and forms. Examples of objects are the following: umbrella, ice cream, briefcase, bed, cap, syringe, racket, clock, hammer, guitar, etc. Elements can be used to give more context to the scenes in each frame, since the tool does not have the option to include scenarios, so the use of objects and shapes help to create a context in the scene, in addition to give extra elements to each character in the role that develops in the comic.

The text menu item is divided into three sections: speech, thought and titles; the difference between each one is reduced to the line or figure that come from the same speech bubble; in the case of speech it is a straight line, for the thought there are two small circles and finally, the option of title has no line related to the figure.

The tool is simple to use, besides it has no cost to use. There is the possibility of publishing the comic on a blog that is part of the website, or print it directly. It should be noted that Stripgenerator has fewer functionalities compared to Pixton, and gives fewer editing options to the user.

**PlayComic**

It is an online educational tool (PlayComic, 2018) that allows the creation of comics. The tool is aimed at children and young people at the primary, secondary and high school levels; the aims of the use of the tool are to improve the linguistic expression, to review the spelling and to learn to create stories. In case of using a language different from the maternal one (English in this case), the aim is to expand the vocabulary and improve the grammatical structures, as well as the expressions of the language in question.

The tool shows eight different page models to be used, which are differentiated by the arrangement of the frames inside the page. For the creation of the comic, the frame to be worked is selected and the work area is concentrated in the selected frame, within which you can make use of scenarios, characters, objects, speech bubbles and effects.

The scenarios can be chosen according to scenes indoors (rooms) or outdoors (city, forest, mountains), or you can choose a specific sky (sunrise, sunset, dusk) as well as a floor (earth, grass, pavement). On the other hand there are twelve different characters and each with different positions (sitting, lying, jumping, running, etc.), the characters are women, men and a superhero.

The objects provided by the tool are divided into eight categories: interior furniture (chair, bed, armchair), interior decoration objects (vases, lamps, picture frames), outdoor objects (trees, plants, bushes), manipulatives objects (hammer, ball, notebook), houses (field, buildings, facades), machines (automobile, spaceship), valuables (chests, rings, money sack), and animals (dog, cat, bear, fox).

The speech bubbles are the objects where the dialogues or the onomatopoeias are introduced; there are circular, oval and rectangular speech bubbles for normal dialogues; there
are also special speech bubbles recommended for situations where thoughts or feelings of fear are involved. Finally, the effects section allows the user to enter illustrations that refer to speed (series of horizontal lines), hits, dizziness (stars), among others.

The tool is free and the created comic can be printed directly from the tool or saved in a TXT extension file, which can only be opened inside the tool (it is a file of numbers). An advantage is that you can edit your comic again.

Comparison

Table 1 shows a comparison of features among the three tools covered in this section: Pixton (T1), Stripgenerator (T2), and PlayComic (T3). The tick indicates that the tool has the feature, and the cross indicates that the tool does not have it.

Table 1. Features of tools analysed.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Feature</th>
<th>T1</th>
<th>T2</th>
<th>T3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Resizing of elements</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text editing</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frame templates</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Different positions of characters</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Predefined images</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Downloadable file</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Editing of facial gestures and skin tone</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✗</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Different comic formats</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✗</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upload your own images</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✗</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

THE S’UI K’IEN FESTIVITY

Within the Mazatec culture there is a festivity called S’ui K’ien, in English it is translated as the “Day of the Dead”. It starts on the 27th of October and it finishes between the 2nd and the 5th of November, depending on the community. S’ui K’ien is the most important festivity for the Mazatecs, since it gives rise to the development of diverse cultural, economic and social activities, but above all, it represents a space of social agglomeration.

The festivity begins on the 27th of October with the dance of the huehuentones (Mazatec dancers in Nahuatl); in the Mazatec language they are known as Cha Xo Ó, which means the men fruit of the navel of the earth. The huehuentones are men that use costumes with jonote wood masks (although lately the use of rubber masks predominates); traditional clothes of the Mazatecs, which include jorongos, huipiles, and huaraches; and straw hats made by hand by themselves. The huehuentones are groups conformed by young people, adults, children and a smaller number of women. These groups go from house to house guided by Mazatec musicians who perform melodies through the execution of the violin, the vihuela and the drum (the latter made with jonote and goat skin), and songs in Mazatec. The music of the huehuentones has become fundamental as a cultural manifestation of the Mazatecs, although it is linked to the celebration of S’ui K’ien and its temporality, it is the only musical manifestation that the Mazatec can hear in their language, as all the songs must be in Mazatec, which generates an explicit use of the language since “this Mazatec music maintains a great vitality, for that reason it can be considered as a great mechanism that contributes to strengthen the collective identity of the group, because all the inhabitants of the region share knowledge and taste for this cultural manifestation and identifies with it” (Quintanar, 2007: 68).

It should be noted that more than a festivity it is a ritual that makes possible the reunion with the deceased ancestors. According to the myth, the huehuentones go to the cemetery to lend their body to the deceased, and thus their ancestors can return to life to enjoy the food, the coexistence with its family, the dance and the music, with the permission of the mother earth and only for the days that the festivity lasts (seven to ten days depending on the community).
In addition, the wooden mask is used because it is believed that family members could be frightened if they see their faces. The festivity culminates with four evenings in the cemetery, the Mazatecs go to the tombs of their deceased relatives and light candles so that they can light their way back to the other world.

S’ui k’ien is a festivity that reinforces the identity of the Mazatecs and it is linked to various activities such as collective work, solidarity, the exchange of objects; actions that reflect the values of the community and that strengthen the bonds between the individuals that comprise it. The festivity is currently the main reason for the Mazatecs to preserve their mother tongue.

PROPOSAL

The proposal of this paper is the creation of a web tool for the generation of comics, with the aim of putting into use and practice the Mazatec language from the narration of stories about their culture. This section briefly explains what a comic is and why it is relevant to put the Mazatec language into practice. Additionally, the first stage of system design is shown, starting with the creation of mockups for the user interface.

It is important to mention that a comic is a means of communication that makes use of images and signs, but with concrete, eminently graphic signifiers that can be linked or dissociated from accompanying texts to articulate messages (Barrero, 2012). In the chapter From the vignette to the graphic novel: a model for understanding the story, written by Manuel Barrero, it is mentioned that:

We will understand that this is a comic when that expression communicates a message of a narrative nature, for which it uses its own language [...] to narrate is to refer linguistically or visually a succession of events in a temporal framework, obtaining as a result a transformation of the starting situation. From the semiotic point of view, the narration could be made with any group of signs, but narratology tells us that these signs must be of a linguistic type and be structured in a narrative sequence to communicate a story [...] Remember that a story is the succession of events that could be the subject of narrative discourse, while narration is the sequential representation of real, fictitious or other events, in any medium through a statement, that is, a story (Barrero, 2012: 30).

In order to carry out this research, it was taken into consideration the work done by Eva Salgado and Frida Villavicencio, in which they promote reflection on the aspects that should be taken into account when undertaking a project that involves multimedia material in multicultural contexts and linguistic diversity. The aspects mentioned above have been reflected in the book Multimedia materials in contexts of linguistic and cultural diversity, where the problem of linguistic displacement is also mentioned and in this respect the authors consider that Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) “can be used to reverse this trend and promote processes of revitalisation, development and rescue of minority languages. The use of languages in public spaces, such as the media (mainly radio, television and Internet) gives them a new functional scope and gives them validity, prestige and visibility before national and international society” (Salgado and Villavicencio, 2011).

In addition, Salgado and Villavicencio (2011) believe that multimedia materials “theoretically should promote the development of language and communication skills of users; nevertheless, in practice, what the programs and their activities stimulate and demand from the child is, frequently, that he acts as a translator. It is desirable that developers present options that motivate users to construct sentences and produce texts in the language in which they are working on: if it is Mayan, that the child ‘thinks’ in Maya to create a text, that does not translate from Spanish to Maya what he thought” (Salgado and Villavicencio, 2011: 28). Additionally,
they mention that multimedia programs should encourage the development of language skills such as speaking, listening, reading and writing.

Therefore, it is considered that the creation of narratives is an appropriate method to encourage writing in Mazatec, mainly about their culture and traditions, since in these narratives there are spoken words that have a meaning only in Mazatec, characters and scenarios that only they can be named and represented in Mazatec, etc. In this regard, Foley (1991) says that “through language, man makes all aspects of life, its values, traditions and beliefs intelligible: he names, codifies, classifies the world and makes it his; it produces, reproduces and acts on it, creating culture. The language of a community contains and allows to transmit its particular vision of the world” (Foley, 1991: 235).

In addition to encouraging the writing of the Mazatec, the fact of using contents of their own culture, it would be reinforcing Mazatec identity and traditions, as mentioned by Salgado and Villavicencio:

The presence of native languages in multimedia programs favors the constitution of identity among users who have these languages as their mother tongue. A child who accesses a program in which their language is used, will feel more identified with the proposal if the contexts of use and content presented to him have to do with their culture; without a doubt, it will be a motivation to use it. It is important, therefore, that the linguistic contents recover "authentic" expressions, words and genres, situations that are familiar to the user, similar to others that they have witnessed or in which they will participate in the course of their life, members of a culture and a society (Salgado and Villavicencio, 2011: 30).

Currently, some projects have been directed towards the production of narrative texts, based on the collection of traditional values, myths and legends. An example is the project We produce narrative texts based on the compilation of Andean knowledge as a means of developing communication skills in Primorpampa students in Peru, where the authors propose compiling their own oral tradition and starting from them, the students produce their own narrative texts, which not only allow them to develop skills to produce texts, but at the same time, allow them to strengthen their identity. As a result of this project, students write stories incorporating the cultural richness of their community.

Another example is the work of the undergraduate student Eduardo Vicente Jiménez, who translated the spiderman comic into the Zapotec language, as part of the international day of indigenous languages in Mexico. This work has been very well received by children and young people (El Universal, 2015); some events have been organised where several copies of the comic have been made available to the community and have had an important impact. However, it should be considered that besides the possibility of reading “international” content in an indigenous language, there should have the possibility of creating new contents that are closer to the cultural contexts of the indigenous community.

In addition, Strickand (1988) believes that narrative tasks involve students in learning activities, which encourage the development of joint and related oral and written language. On the other hand, Norris and Ennis (1989) believe that narrative activities affect the development of specific language skills, such as the acquisition of the meaning of words and the learning of syntactic rules. Finally, Kuchenbecker (2010: 199) believes that: “the experience of telling stories allows us to place ourselves in the place of the characters, living the same situations, the same emotions, the same feelings, cultivating values that we take over forever in our being-in-the-world, in our coming-to-be”.

Given the previous arguments, the proposal is to develop a tool that allows generating narratives in the comic format, from graphic material already provided, which will be based on the festivity S’uí K’ien. In order to encourage the use of oral language, it was also decided that the narratives were related to the songs that the huehuentones sing during the festivity, which provide messages from their ancestors to the community, messages of peace, love, nostalgia,
etc. However, the tool will not be limited to the option of taking a song as a base, the creation of the narratives will be flexible enough.

**INTERFACE DESIGN**

Currently, the project is in the implementation stage, for which previously low fidelity sketches were made (on paper) to perform tests with users; feedback was obtained from the same users and corrections were made, which were reflected in medium fidelity sketches, which are shown below. The sketches were produced using the website: https://app.moqups.com. It should be noted that the icons shown are not the ones used in the final web tool, they were only used to guide the users in the tests performed.

*Figure 1* shows the welcome page of the web comic generator, where the user is invited to narrate a huehuenton song in the Mazatec language.

*Figure 1*. Welcome page of the web comic generator.

![Welcome page of the web comic generator](image)

Figure 2 shows the home page of the web comic generator, where there is a main menu on the left side, which has the following elements: boxes (recuadros), scenarios (escenarios), characters (personajes), messages (mensajes) and onomatopoeias (onomatopeyas). The right side of the page has a working area with a blank space for the creation of the comic, which will show one frame at a time. The number of frames shown on the working area will depend on the template of boxes that the user has chosen for creating the comic.

The boxes menu element contains a series of predefined templates that will allow the user to choose the number of scenes and the arrangement of them within a blank page, as shown in Figure 2. Scott McCloud mentions in his book *Understanding the comic: art invisible*, that “each bullet acts as a kind of indicator that informs us that time and space are being divided”, in such a way that wider vignettes convey a feeling of longer duration of time (McCloud, 2009: 95); for that reason, different templates will be presented, in such a way that the user uses the one that he considers most convenient to narrate his story.

The scenarios menu element will give context to each scene. In this menu element, the user will be presented with several images from the Mazatec mountain, the evening held in the cemetery, the offerings made in the houses with symbolic elements, the community gathered on the streets, among others. These images will be displayed below the scenarios menu element, as can be seen in Figure 3.
Since the entire community is involved in the festivity, the predefined characters that the tool will contain will be: children, youth, adults, seniors and the mythical figure of the huehuentones, all of them wearing traditional clothing from the region. The characters can be chosen from the drop down content displayed under the characters menu element, as shown in Figure 4. Additionally, the user will have the possibility to choose from four different body positions that each character will have, as can be seen in Figure 5. It should be noted that the images shown in the sketches are not those that will be used, only example images were used to guide the user in the testing stage.

Additionally, the web tool will have different types of speech bubbles, which will allow the user to use visual resources to convey feelings and different tones of voice in each dialogue; for example, using a contour dotted on a balloon transmitting a low voice, or a contour with protruding peaks usually transmit a scream. “The shapes of the speech bubbles are numerous and each day new ones are invented. The creators of comics have always make an effort to devise variations, in a desperate attempt to represent sound in a strictly visual medium” (McCloud, 2009: 134). Figure 6 shows the messages menu element, which shows the different types of speech bubbles that the user can use for creating a comic.

**Figure 2.** Web comic generator with the boxes menu element displayed.

**Figure 3.** Web comic generator with the scenarios menu element displayed.

**Figure 4.** Web comic generator with the characters menu element displayed.
Figure 5. Web comic generator with the body positions for a specific character.

Figure 6. Web comic generator with the messages menu element displayed.

The onomatopoeias allow the user to give sound to the drawings. Scott McCloud says that the onomatopoeia allows to listen with the eyes: “Onomatopoeias are unique inventions
that you can improvise like crazy [...] there are no 'right' or 'wrong' perspectives but there are some variables within which you can improvise. Including volume, indicated by size, bold, inclination and exclamation marks; the quality of the sound, its roughness, ripple, sharpness, softness, etc.; association, font styles and forms that refer to or imitate the sound source; graphic integration, pure considerations of form, line and color, as well as how the effect mixes with the drawing.” (McCloud, 2016: 183).

Nowadays, there are very used onomatopoeias like BANG! (shooting sound), BOOM! (pump sound), RING! (telephone sound), etc. However, for this project it is proposed to create onomatopoeias in the Mazatec language; for example, how do dogs bark in Mazatec?, in Spanish they do GUAU!, in English they do WOOF !, so onomatopoeias will be created to relate to the orality of the Mazatec language.

The user can always see a preview of the comic he is creating, by clicking on the preview button, and he will get a result like the one shown in Figure 7. It should be noted that from that preview the user can return to continue editing the content of the comic or finish it. If the user finishes the comic, he will be taken to the web page shown in Figure 8, where he can share his comic in social networks or download it directly to an image file.

**Figure 7. Web comic generator with a preview of a comic created by a user.**

**Figure 8. Web comic generator with the download and share options for a comic created by a user.**

**FINAL THOUGHTS**
In summary, the aim of this paper was to present a web tool to put the Mazatec language into use and practice in its written form, through the narration of stories in a comic format. This will promote the development of specific language skills, such as the acquisition of the meaning of words and the learning of syntactic rules. One of the important features of the proposed web comic generator is to have the possibility to share the comic created in social networks, which would be contributing to the dissemination of the language in the new media and thereby providing a new functional scope, validity, prestige and visibility before national and international society.

Finally, upon completion of the implementation, it is planned to carry out tests with users in order to correct possible errors. It should be noted that there are the necessary Internet services and computer equipment for the use of the web tool within the Mazatec communities, both in the mountains of Oaxaca and in the cities where they have migrated.

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SOCIAL MEDIA EFFECT ON EGYPTIAN FOOTBALL FANS’ ENGAGEMENT AND LOYALTY

MS. JAILAN EL-BOUS1; DR. AYMAN METWALLY2; AND DR. SHERIF HASSAN3

ABSTRACT

A study was released by IMG consulting addressing the rising importance of social media in the daily lifestyle of football fans. It demonstrated how the use of social media content became a must when communicating with football fans to reach high engagement from all fans of different ages more than traditional media (McLaren, 2015).

Therefore, social media has become the window for brands and sport organisations to communicate and engage directly with the football fans and moreover with younger audience whose direct interaction with their favorite football teams team was formerly limited only to access paid-TV or buying tickets with high prices, but now with the online platforms’ era, football fans are open to different online channels with athletes, teams and brands (Coulson, 2015).

McLaren (2015) states that more than 35% of UK football fans on Twitter follow their favorite teams and athletes. At the same time more than 40% of football fans use their online platforms’ account to follow scores and statistics during the game.

Football teams were faced with the huge impact of loyal fans and started focusing on communicating with them to build a strong fans’ base. Egyptian football teams are not an exception; it is a big business that has a broad range of loyal fans. Therefore, a profound understanding of how these teams manage their social media, in order to brand itself and effectively communicate with its fans, will consequently increase their fans’ loyalty.

The purpose of this research is to investigate how social media content can lead to fans’ engagement and its direct relation to football fans’ attitudinal and behavioral loyalty in Egypt in order to get a profound understanding of how Egyptian football teams manage their social media to brand itself and effectively communicate with its fans to increase their fans’ loyalty.

Keywords: Social Media, Football Fans’ Engagement and Loyalty.

INTRODUCTION

Over the past two decades, Social Media Platforms have been growing and progressing with the increased user-friendliness of social media devices such as smart phones and tablets as they make it much easier to communicate ignoring the time or location factors (Hara, Bonk and Angeli, 2000).

Social media has opened the door for an important digital meeting place for friends and acquaintances to share their own experiences, which increases the connectivity between others (Halliday and Vrusias, 2011; Harrigan, 2011).

Accordingly, previous studies were conducted to understand the impact of social media engagement in sports and especially in the football sector from a branding perspective (De Vries, Gensler and Leeflang, 2012). When fans are following their favorite teams it always requires doing something as cheering for them which arouses the sense of belonging and emotional attachment to their favorite teams (Abosag, Roper and Hind, 2012).

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Whether it’s attending matches in stadiums or online platforms, fans still create their own ways and atmosphere to cheer for their teams by using flags, banners and songs, (Healy and McDonagh, 2013) as well as following and tracking the on-going information of the teams’ traditions, myths and symbols (Pongsakornrungsilp and Schroeder, 2011).

As a result, many football clubs in the UK and mostly international football teams have adopted social media strategies to manage the branding of their own football team by being online present and keep the engagement of their fans on the online platforms because it cannot be ignored that football is a big business, at both the national and international level (Deloitte, 2012).

Since social media platforms will enable football teams to communicate and engage directly with their fans. (Coulson, 2015) Football teams are using various social media strategies that are customised in order to identify the preferences of their audiences to guarantee the loyalty of their fans consequently continuously interact with them and increase their level of engagement with the team (Williams and Scott, 2012; Castro, 2012).

This research plans to investigate how social media tools can be effectively deployed to brand Egyptian football teams and affect the fans attitudinal and behavioral loyalty. In order to explore this relation, this research aims to accomplish the following objectives:

To explore the appropriate types of social media content targeting football fans and its impact on their attitudes and behaviors.

To help and guide Egyptian’s football teams to tailor the appropriate digital strategies to reach their fans bases on online communities to increase their loyalty.

And in order to accomplish these objectives the study will answer the following two questions:

What are the characteristics of effective social media content targeting Football team audience?

What is the effect of social media content on football teams’ types and its relation to their level of engagement with their favorite football teams?

SOCIAL MEDIA ROLE IN SPORTS COMMUNICATION MANAGEMENT

Media relations always formed an aspect of sport, and the connection between sport, communications and what we now understand as the promotional industries of advertising, marketing and public relations are both long and strongly interlocked with the operational activities of most sports administrators, teams, leagues’, governing bodies, athletes and associated agencies.

Drifting away from TV/Radio broadcast and print media that have dominated the sports landscape long time ago towards digitized content delivered through social media platforms whereas freedom of producing, distributing and consuming sports media in an array of formats and through various online platforms such as Facebook, YouTube, Instagram and Twitter...etc. to engage with their fans. There is no argument that the television has become less important while the importance of social media platforms that has become a public relations and marketing tool. Sports communication emphasis on the importance of the relationship development between the teams, players and fans and how these relationships play a vital role in the success of every individual member in the team (Rein, Kotler and Shields, 2007).

The process of relationship marketing revolves around three main things; communication with the customers, regular interaction and retention with them and finally creating value for them because having a value in any business is a priority (Copulsky and Wolf, 1990; Grönroos, 2004).

Ultimately sport organisations are consuming different means of communication to reach and cultivate their fans and these mediums include television, radio, publications, and online platforms. More than 55% all over the world are currently online users on these social
networking sites and these sites became popular in the sport industry specifically (Madden and Zickuhr, 2011).

Sports communication lies at the heart of the sports industry. (Pedersen, Miloch, and Laucella, 2007) define sports communication as the “process by which people in sport, in a sport setting, or through a sport endeavor share symbols as they create meaning through interaction.”

The communication is the sport industry is a dynamic one that contains many functions working together, starting from branding, reputation management, and customer service to sales, marketing, and sponsorship. But these functions won’t bring any value to the organization unless there is an emotional attachment from their fans to their favorite teams (Rein, Kotler and Shields, 2007).

Additionally, (Rein, Kotler and Shields, 2007) proposed five key objectives in effective sports communication: (1) to engage with fans and address their needs, (2) to mark the team brand’s identity for a longer-lasting impression, (3) to personalise the team brand, (4) to encourage the fans to identify with the team brand and feel an emotional attachment with the team, and (5) to place the outcomes of competition in more than just a winning context to build loyalty. These five objectives are very critical when dealing with fans and creating a real and profound connection that will eventually build a strong fan base. Therefore it’s very important for teams to differentiate their brand because the sport industry is filled with numerous messages and channels. Differentiating the team brand allows each team to have their own unique identity and to maintain a long lasting emotional connection with their fans (Rein, Kotler and Shields, 2007).

Sport organisations are increasing their usage of social media platforms such as Facebook, Twitter, YouTube, Foursquare, Instagram, Pinterest, Google+, blogs, and live chats and most of sports teams’ websites have integrated links to these platforms. Social media is effective when it comes to reaching large number of fans as it allows two-way communication allowing interaction between the teams and their fans and exchange of information because it’s important to understand what media fans want. (Kietzmann et al., 2011).

Rothschild (2011) has conducted an online survey with sports and entertainment venue managers to understand their perceptions and predictions of social media applications in sport and entertainment industry. He found that most sports managers are considering a strategic social media approach in addition to more resources that are qualified and dedicated to the digital marketing efforts only.

The results of the survey identified the following points about social media usage in sports and entertainment:

- 62% have someone dedicated to managing social media versus 37% who are without someone dedicated to managing social media.
- 80% classify the venue’s use of social media as an expert, 47% as proficient, 34% as still learning, 8% as behind the curve, and 2% as not using it and do not care to use.
- 57% of the venues have a defined social media strategy versus 47% who do not have a defined social media strategy.
- 52% reported venues experienced a revenue increase with a defined social media strategy versus 19% that reported revenue increase without a defined social media strategy.

Sport organisations are increasing their usage of social media platforms such as Facebook, Twitter, YouTube, Foursquare, Instagram, Pinterest, Google+, blogs, and live chats and most of sports teams’ websites have integrated links to these platforms. Social media is effective when it comes to reaching large number of fans as it allows two-way communication allowing interaction between the teams and their fans and exchange of information because it’s important to understand what media fans want. (Kietzmann, 2011).
However, the problem is that sport managers are still trying to figure out the factors that would make relationship marketing successful for their organisations (Magnusena, Kimb, and Kimb, 2012). And the factors that any sport organisation will definitely be looking for are; a more powerful team’s brand awareness, more understanding of the fans’ needs or improvement for fans’ loyalty and creation of the value they will be seeking (Stavros, Pope and Winzar, 2008).

THE IMPACT OF SOCIAL MEDIA ON FOOTBALL FANS’ BASE LOYALTY

Similar to consumer loyalty, football fan loyalty needs more investigation beyond just behavioral characteristics. The word “fan” is a derivative of fanatical of both “fans and fanatics” which share the same trait of being emotionally attached to a brand or a specific team. However, the strength of the relations between fans and the team itself varies and there are different levels (Hunt, Bristol and Bashaw, 1999; Akremi and Hellmann, 2010). For that reason, fanaticism is regarded as the “degree to which one is a fan of a topic or object” (Thorne, 2011).

Previous research has shown that football fans have a direct effect on the team’s results especially in their presence in the stadium through emotional and monetary support (Murrell and Dietz, 1992). In addition to this, fans attending or watching sports events can leave an exceptional lasting mark on football teams as many cultural, social, and psychological needs are met by their attendance or even watching matches on TV (Smith and Stewart, 2007).

Football fans’ loyalty is also considered as the main driver of the team’s success and understanding the fans’ characteristics and their emotions is vital for any football team and teams that strive to pay more attention to their fans, guarantee long-term relationships with them (Da Costa Domingues, 2015). Distinguishing football fans’ motives and predicating the way they behave is very necessary for sport marketers to understand. Though the understanding of football fans is still limited and most recent theories concentrated more on the team performance as a main indicator of football fans’ behavior (Cialdini et al., 1976) However, fans’ motivation and behavior is far from the team’s results and sometimes it can be separated from their performance as well (Fisher and Wakefield, 1998).

Loyalty was defined by Oliver (1999) as “a deeply held commitment to re-buy or re-patronise a preferred product consistently in the future, thereby causing repetitive same-brand or same brand-set purchasing, despite situational influences and marketing efforts have the potential to cause switching behavior”. Football fans’ loyalty can’t be compared to other customers’ loyalty in different industries (Adamson, Jones, and Tapp, 2006). Football fans’ loyalty is much greater than any customers’ loyalty in any industry, it can’t be compared and this led to a false belief by most of the football teams’ management that their fans can be taken for granted and abuse their fanaticism (Adamson, Jones and Tapp, 2005). For that, football teams must understand the different types of fans and their needs because these fans are the team’s highest financial success (Van Leeuwen, Quick, and Daniel, 2002).

These fans are identified by their degree of attachment and persistence to their favorite team, which reflects the fans’ advanced attitude towards their favorite football team (Kwon and Armstrong, 2004). Furthermore, fans’ loyalty was separated into attitudinal and behavioral loyalty; the first one refers to the level of commitment of fans, and the behavioral loyalty refers to fans’ behavior towards their favorite football team (Tsiotsou, 2013).

Researchers used the construct of psychological commitment to explain the attitudinal loyalty, as it’s the best way to explain this component of loyalty. It was defined as “a decision-making process that results in the tendency or unwillingness to change one’s preference” (Backman and Crompton, 1991; Iwasaki and Havitz, 2004; Mahony, Madrigal and Howard, 2000; Pritchard, Havitz and Howard, 1999), adding to this; commitment explains the degree to
which individuals will care about the long-term success of the football team they belong to (O’Reilly and Chatman, 1986).

A lot of research were conducted to tackle the psychological commitment in the areas of sport and leisure because it explains the effect of the attitudinal component of football fan loyalty (Backman and Crompton, 1991; Iwasaki and Havitz, 2004; Mahony, Madrigal and Howard, 2000; Pritchard, Havitz and Howard, 1999). And Mahony, Madrigal and Howard (2000) have developed the “Psychological Commitment to a Team” scale that allows sport managers to measure this loyalty component and previous measures of football fans’ psychological commitment have included three main factors of commitment: inner attachment, persistence and resistance (Gladden and Funk, 2001; Mahony, Madrigal and Howard, 2000; Pritchard, Havitz and Howard, 1999).

Football fans show great level of psychological commitment, if they feel a strong and profound inner attachment to their favorite team, if their persistence keep going overtime and if they are resistant to any change in the results or even the constant criticism from friends, family or the media, therefore these fans’ attitudinal loyalty will always be high (Gladden and Funk 2001; Mahony, Madrigal and Howard, 2000; Pritchard, Havitz and Howard, 1999).

Furthermore, behavioral loyalty as being one of the main measurements of fans’ loyalty, there are some factors that constitute this type of loyalty in the football team context: as attending the favorite team’s matches at the stadium, watching their matches on TV, purchasing team’s merchandise, wearing the their uniform/logo, or talking with others about their favorite team and try to them to support the same team (Funk, Ridinger and Mooreman, 2003; Funk and Pastore, 2000; Gladden and Funk, 2001; Mahony, Madrigal and Howard, 2000; Shank and Beasley, 1998). Adding to this, is the positive word of mouth that refers to all unintended communication that occur between the football fan and the team itself, where this fan tends to recommend his favorite team to others and why anyone should support it.

The most devoted fans are always available and participative on online discussions on their favorite football team and they find it really interesting to join and create online communities with their other supporters. These fans’ communities are very beneficial in promoting and supporting the teams with the help of powerful social media management that includes content strategies and different means to engage fans on social media platforms for professional football clubs (Hootsuite, 2013). Social media play a great role in empowering fans’ attitudinal and behavioral loyalty and helps in shifting fans’ loyalty from just a psychological commitment to real and tangible behaviors.

CONCLUSION

This research was made to investigate how social media content can be effectively deployed to brand Egyptian football teams and affect Egyptian fans’ engagement and fans’ attitudinal and behavioral loyalty in an attempt to provide significant insights for football teams’ managers to enhance their teams’ images and fans’ loyalty.

This study started by searching for articles and previous research related to social media in sport communication, football industry and football fans loyalty in order to gather more information and knowledge concerning the study. This Study was a mixed study using qualitative and quantitative data collection methods.

First, a preliminary data gathering was conducted through semi-structured interviews with three football experts in the digital marketing field. Second, the quantitative analysis was conducted first by distributing 30 questionnaires as a pilot study to test the validity of the questionnaires and after two weeks, the questionnaires were distributed again on the same respondents to test the validity of the questionnaires and they were valid. 382 bilingual
questionnaires were distributed offline in Colleges and cafes and online on different social media platforms.

Then, the researcher started the SPSS program to test and analyze the answers that were in the questionnaires using these types of analysis: Reliability, validity, descriptive, correlation and multiple regression analysis. The findings out of these analyses supported the variables that were introduced in the research model as they proved that social media content and fans’ engagement have impact on fans’ attitudinal and behavioral loyalty.

The variables that supported this study and were significant are social media content that digital marketers create for football fans like pictures, videos and polls related to the team’s players, coaches, scores, etc. Fans’ engagement that plays a vital role in getting fans more close to their teams and fans’ engagement appear in the form of like, comments, shares, writing reviews and joining online discussions on their favorite football team. Fans’ engagement help in improving fans’ attitudinal loyalty moving from fans’ attachment to their persistence behind to their team to finally being resistant to anything related to their favorite team and this variable was significant too as well as fans’ attitudinal loyalty. Accordingly, fans’ behavioral loyalty will be affected too by fans’ attitudinal loyalty that was boosted after applying social media strategies and working on social media content and fans’ engagement. These findings have proved that social media content and fans’ engagement could help in football teams branding and affect fans’ loyalty enormously.

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1-BK26-6019

INTEGRATING THE EXPERIENCES AND VIEWPOINTS OF STUDENTS IN GRADUATE TRAINING: A QUALITATIVE STUDY OF FEMALE PARTICIPANTS IN FOUR AFRICAN UNIVERSITIES

PROF. PHILOMINA OKEKE-IHEJIRIKA¹; AND PROF. SIBUSISO MOYO²

Debates on graduate training in African universities often involve major stakeholders such as university administrators, policymakers, funding agencies and scholars. These debates, for the most part, tell us very little about the experiences and viewpoints of the primary stakeholders – graduate students – a critical mass with valuable insights for identifying or developing best practices and policies. As a beginning point in addressing the gap, our pilot study explored the experiences of 35 female graduate students in four institutional contexts, using focus group interviews. The findings of our study highlight some important challenges that graduate students, particularly women, face in their academic pursuits: 1) as a private journey with formally prescribed rules of engagement and responsibilities for all the parties concerned, and 2) as a social interactive space with its own internal gender dynamics that mediate the experiences of and training outcomes for men and women in different ways. Our findings not only identify huge gaps in literature that need to be filled, but also emphasize the need to involve students in debates about graduate programs. Our project was funded by the Carnegie Corporation of New York, the Council for the Development of Social and Economic Research in Africa (CODESRIA) and the University of Alberta, Canada. The findings of the study will form the basis for a comprehensive study on female and male post-graduate students in Sub-Saharan Africa aimed at improving existing policy and practice.

4-BK24-6219

STAKEHOLDERS IN CULTURAL DEVELOPMENT: IMPACTS OF ART MARKETING AND ADVOCACY

DR. FANNY MING YAN CHUNG³

The cultural development in Hong Kong has been growing rapidly in the past decade. However, the role of different stakeholders who contributed to the rapid development is yet to be examined and highlighted in research and literature. This study aims to bridge the gap by examining the roles of different stakeholders and their impacts on promoting art, through the lens of Art Adoption Process suggested by the Hierarchy of Effects Model (Lavidge and Steiner, 1961): disinterest, interest, trial, positive evaluation, adoption, and confirmation. The behavior from the AIDA model implied how public perceived new interest through time, from awareness to interest, desire and action (Solis, 2011). Importantly, the Hierarchy of Effects Model evaluates the effectiveness and impacts of marketing and advocacy work of the organizations and how well it influences the target audience. This study considered the questions: What are the stakeholders’ roles in marketing and advocating art to the public? What are the impacts and contributions made by different stakeholders in marketing and advocating art in the past decade?

To this end, mixed-methods approach was employed in this study. Structured interviews with art practitioners and managers were conducted to investigate the personal and

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professional viewpoints of the interviewees as regards certain issues on art development. Also, a questionnaire survey was employed to collect data on the public’s views on art development. The findings indicate that all stakeholders, including art organizations, art associations, and the public, played a crucial part in raising the public’s awareness at different stages of the art adoption process. The art organizations were found to play the role of intermediary that create, circulate and facilitate the ecosystem of art development; the art associations as educator that reach out the local and international community, and realize the aesthetic value of art; and the public as participants that plays the role of driving wheel of art development through firsthand participation.

**Keywords:** Cultural development, art marketing, art advocacy, aesthetics, public

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**5-BK17-6198**

A TRIADIC MODEL OF SELF-EVALUATION, MOTIVATION, AND SKILLS’ DEVELOPMENT: A STUDY WITH FIRST-YEAR UNDERGRADUATES

MRS. EMAN FAISAL

**Objectives:** This exploratory study aimed to explore how first-year undergraduates in a collectivist society, i.e. Saudi Arabia, develop their skills in light of the relationship between self-evaluation and motivation. This involved developing a triadic model showing the direct and indirect relationships between the three dimensions.

**Design:** To develop a triadic model, this mixed-methods research had two sequential stages: a qualitative investigation, and then a quantitative study.

**Methods:** Semi-structured interviews were conducted on university teachers, first-year undergraduates, and the students’ family members. Three themes emerging from the analyses of the qualitative data (i.e. self-evaluation, motivation, and skills’ development) informed the development of the questionnaire, which was administrated on a random, survey, sample of 2174 first-year undergraduates. The questionnaire’s structural validity and Cronbach’s α were investigated.

**Results:** The conceptual model was tested by following two steps. First, investigating the measurement model by using confirmatory factor analysis, and second, testing the structural model by using structural equation modelling. The model estimated (standardized) the direct and indirect relationships between the latent variables, which were all positive and significant. The model fit the data well (chi2 [df] = 316.714 [97]; p < .001; CFI = .948; TLI = .936; RMSEA [90% confidence interval] = .037 [.032-.041]; SRMR = .048). In detail, skills’ development was associated with motivation (β = .468***; S.E = .039; 95% CI [.391, .546]) and with self-evaluation (β = .083*; S.E = .035; 95% CI [.015, .152]). Motivation was associated with self-evaluation (β = .348***; S.E = .035; 95% CI [.285, .410]). The indirect association between self-evaluation and skills’ development when motivation is a mediator, was significant (β = .163***; S.E = .021; 95% CI [.121, .205]). Measurement and structural models were evaluated sequentially by using Mplus 7.2.

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**Conclusions:** Even though self-evaluation has a positive relationship with skills’ development, this relationship becomes stronger when a student is motivated. It would be worth investigating further the effect of other dimensions on students’ skills’ development, e.g. social encouragement, especially when taking into account that Saudi Arabia has a collectivist society that uses high-context communications.

6-BK19-6043

**USING VIDEO ANNOTATION TOOL TO ENHANCE STUDENT-TEACHERS’ REFLECTIVE THINKING AND COMMUNICATION SKILLS THROUGH A COLLABORATIVE LEARNING COMMUNITY**

DR. MEI PO MABEL SHEK³

Reflective thinking skills and communication skills are the core competences of many professions, particularly in teacher education. With the advancement in information technology, video annotation tool (VAT), has been developed as medium to facilitate student-teacher’s reflection in their communication skills. This study aims to investigate the effect of applying VAT on improving student-teachers’ level of reflective thinking and communication competence. Eighty student-teachers from two classes of the course “Comprehensive School Guidance” in 2018 participated in this study. Participants were required to take two video shootings for their practices on consultation with parent and then uploaded the videos to a collaborative learning community at an e-platform. Among them, forty students were in non-VAT class where they posted an overall peer-comment in the learning community after viewing the video clips, while others in VAT class were instructed to create several video bookmarks of selected short video segments for giving peer-comments which allowed for simultaneous display of specific video segment and comment. Student-teachers were required to accomplish two reflective journals as well as pre- and post-questionnaire at an e-learning platform to review their own communication skills after each practice. The reflective journals were segmented into units of analysis, and each segment was rated according to the Ryan and Ryan (2013) 4-level model of reflective thinking, which included “reporting and responding”, “relating”, “reasoning” and “reconstructing” respectively. The average reflective thinking score obtained in each reflective note was the indicator of reflective thinking competence. Two $2 \times 2$ mixed ANOVAs were conducted to respectively examine whether student-teachers in the experimental (VAT) condition could improve their reflective thinking in their reflective journals and communication competence in their pre- and post-questionnaires more significantly than those in comparison (non-VAT) class over time. Focus group interviews were also conducted after the course to investigate how VAT could support students’ learning process, and their perceptions of the strengths and limitations of using VAT. Statistical analysis revealed that in comparison to those in non-VAT group, student-teachers using VAT in peer-learning increased their average reflective thinking score in each of the reflective notes in reflective journals more significantly. Moreover, same analysis revealed that the use of VAT in peer-learning could not promote higher rise in communication competence over time. Future applications of VAT in reflective learning and skill practice in teacher education programme will be discussed.

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RE-CONCEPTUALIZING 'RATIONAL EXPECTANCY' THROUGH: EVOLUTIONARY PSYCHOLOGY, ANTHROPOLOGY, BEHAVIORAL GENETICS AND NEUROPSYCHOLOGY

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Objective: The basic objective of writing this paper is to re-conceptualize the concept of 'Rational Expectancy' in postmodernism.

Convergence of Research: Based on the convergence of four sources of scientific research this paper will try to re-conceptualize the concept of 'Rational Expectancy'.
1. Evolutionary Psychology: Evolutionary psychology is basically the other name of modern Darwinism, evolutionary psychologists do not argues that all human are alike underneath.
2. Anthropology: (Study of past & present) Darwinian anthropologist have identified cultural universals with regards to gender relations, art and ritual, language and thought, and trading and competition.
3. Behavioral Genetics: Scientists have identified several genes thought to control human dispositions including the aspects of temperament and cognitive behavior.
4. Neuropsychology: Scientists in this field try to understand which part of brain control emotions and how chemicals in the brain affect thoughts and sensations.

Conclusion: In postmodernism evolutionary psychology help us in understanding the dynamics in human behavior and anthropology tells us how hardwired is human behavior. An individual' rational expectancy is based on his composition of behavioral genetics and unique neurological networks & modules. The knowledge management has provided the concept of 'Knowledge Worker', the one who use his 'Heart' 'Head' and 'Hand' not only for the discovery of knowledge but also for the delivery of knowledge. Moreover, the Service Science of IBM uses the concept of 'Actors', the one who use his knowledge and skills for the benefits of others.

Key words: Rational Expectancy, Evolutionary Psychology, Anthropology, Behavioral Genetics, Neuropsychology.

DATA MINING METHODS IN FINANCIAL ECONOMICS

DR. SERPIL KAHRAMAN⁷

With the increase of financial globalization, there has been a need for methods to effectively forecasting financial statement. Nonetheless, large volume of financial data has far exceeded to analyze them by performing statistical of econometric methods. Data mining techniques are used to detect hidden trends and patterns (Han, J. et al. 2011). Data mining has been applied to a several financial applications and operations. Financial data collected in the financial institutions are usually available which facilitates data mining. DBMS software provides to store and access great number of databases. The information technology has been expanding the focus of data mining to analysis text data, web data, time series or spatial data (Moin & Ahmed, 2012). Since 2000s the whole concept of financial transactions has been shifted to alternative distribution channels such as ATM, digital banking, internet banking, and telephone banking etc. which reduce operational costs. Data mining methods help to evaluate and monitor

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⁶ Ms. Asra Maqbool, Phd Scholar, Taylor's University.
⁷ Dr. Serpil Kahraman, Assistant Professor, Yasar University.
banks, stockholders, creditors, depositors and other players in financial economy (Mishkin, 1996). There are various areas in which data mining methods can be performed in financial economics include marketing, risk management, fraud detection and Customer Relation Management (CRM). Data mining might be the most important tool to reduce information asymmetry by extracting knowledge from the data. Financial markets are also source of fragility and instability in an economy. Mining financial data allows us for finding potentially successful and risky patterns. Data mining tools can be useful to detect all these factors, which may arise in financial economics. Not only can data mining help financial institutions to increase efficiency and reduce financial instability, it can also increase the liquidity level (cost and time) (Zhang & Zhou, 2004; Ngai, Xiu & Chau, 2009). Recent years, Data Mining is being used by many banks for customer segmentations, risk analysis, forecasting, marketing and other operational purposes. This study provides an overview of the concept of data mining in financial system.

**Keywords:** monetary economics, international finance, business intelligence, data mining.

**12-BK07-5824**

**ESSENCE AND IMPORTANCE OF ARTISTIC CONTENT IN MAJOR MUSIC WORKS**

**DR. VUSALA YUSIF AMIRBAYOVA**

The problem of the artistic content of musical works has deeply dealt with by musicologists and philosophers for centuries. Along with the theory of music has created a variety of theoretical exercises on the instrument of expression and, first of all, about grooming, melody, rhythm, harmony, polyphony, composition forms, the artistic and expressive possibilities of these elements haven't been missed by scientists. In particular, philosophy, aesthetics and art sciences have shown great scientific interest in the content and form, including the interaction between the artistic content and the artistic form in the works of art.

As is known, artistic content is considered to be the major categories that determines the essence of art works and longevity of works. The theory of music has long been involved in the study of the grooming and rhythmic elements of the art form in ancient times, and objective laws of the harmony, polyphony and composition in the classical period. Performing artists and composers have tried to reconcile these formal tools with the artistic content of the art, due to individual psychological sensation and aesthetic outlook. Art critics who interpret the art world of composers are not content with the analysis of formal elements, but have occasionally had to disclose their expressive and artistic qualities.

On the other hand, the philosophical foundations of musicology, or rather, the mutual relationship between the two categories, such as content and form, required the expression of the musical language. In addition to the expressive features of formal elements in order to cover the artistic context, concepts such as generalization through genres and styles, the content of dramaturgical content, and logical traitism have been used.

Having benefited from several scientific achievements of neighboring science, contemporary music has deeply penetrated the sphere of artistic content of music art, developed a new scientific methodology, methodologies and approaches to thoroughly investigate the problem. From this point of view, the new theory created by famous Russian musicologist professor V. Kholopova - special and distinctive content of music - draws attention with its different philosophical foundations and extensive coverage of historical periods of composer's art. The scientist applied his theory to the traditionally composed European composer's work

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8 Dr. Vusala Yusif Amirbayova, Piano Teacher, Sultan Qaboos University.
and did not include the musical profession existing on other continents, and especially folklore creativity. The researcher strives to describe the triad (ideas, emotions, and objects) into the general content of music, in the context of compositions of different periods and cultures. In this regard, the artistic content of a large number of works has been deeply and thoroughly analyzed, the new philosophical basis which distinguishes from the Marxism-Leninism was also carefully studied. With refusing the dualism of the content and form of classical philosophy the author viewed the elements that were previously regarded as artistic forms as an exclusive music content and as a result, presented to V. Kholopova, who separates the artistic content of music the unique and exclusive content of this art field in its new theory.

Idea-artistic content which has been found in the creativity of Azerbaijani composers so far has been seriously investigated by musicologists. In the modern era, the issue has come up with a new approach and has been explored more in detail. Like other national composers' creativity, in the works of Azerbaijani artisans which applied for the dissertation, The issue of artistic content was previously studied from the traditional point of view, and the analysis of formal elements has given greater advantage. However, researchers based on philosophical outlook have also been seriously engaged in investigating the artistic aspect which forms the unity with the form category. In this regard, prominent Russian-Soviet musicologist, academician B.V. Asafyev's remarkable scientific researches deserve attention. The prominent musicologist-scientist aimed to work out a method of scientific analysis of music in many books and articles and tried to solve it. The main goal of the research work is to bring together the ideas and artistic content of the composer's works with the technology and style lines.

13-BK32-6068

EFFECTS OF EMBEDDED STRETCH ANIMATION CLIPS ON LEARNERS’ ATTENTION, PERFORMANCE, AND HEALTH STATUS

MRS. SY-CHYI WANG*; AND DR. JIN-YUAN CHERN

Information technology can help simplify our routine tasks and save us time and energy on the one hand; it may cause concerns about health and job performance on the other hand. To help alleviate the negative effects, there have been different inventions and strategies related to computer health behaviors. This study aimed to investigate the possible effects of stretch animation clips on users’ perception of health status, emotion state, learning performance, and task attention.

A serial of stretch animation clips presented in animated Gif format were developed, including stretch of head, neck and shoulder, waist, and hands. A 50-minute learning video was pre-divided into 6 sessions, based on the instructor’s teaching flow. Each participant was asked to wear a brainwave biosensor for attention measurement during the experiment. The control group took no stretching interventions throughout the 6 learning videos. The experimental group was settled to watch the videos with embedded stretch clips before and after each clip.

An experimental design was conducted through questionnaire survey, face-to-face interview, and brainwave monitoring. In total, 60 college students were recruited. Overall, the two groups showed no significant difference in self-perceived health status or learning performance. However, the control group had a significantly higher level of self-perceived attention and a stronger sense of severity if they would incur any disease related to body/neck/back due to their current computer use behavior in the next 10 years. When measured with the brainwave monitor, the experimental group outperformed its counterpart for the level of attention in most sessions except for the beginning two sessions, i.e. Sessions 1 and 2.

* Mrs. Sy-Chyi Wang, Associate Professor, National Chiayi University.
In summary, while the two groups did not have significant difference in self-perceived health status and learning performance, the control group did show significantly stronger sense of severity and lower level of attention performance as measured by the Brainwave monitor. Intermittent stretch/break embedded in elearning materials is suggested to help relieve the learners’ concern of health and boost their attention performance. As for the in-significance of health status and learning performance, part of the reason might be attributed to the short period of time that the experiment was running in the cross-sectional research design, and the performance test was memory-based concept or procedural knowledge. A longitudinal experiment and a different approach of performance test are also suggested for further studies.

14-BK34-6202
WHAT MAKES A GOOD SELF-ACCESS CENTER?
MS. MUNA AULLAD THANI10

The presenter will discuss the findings of a study that took place in the Self-Access Center (SAC) in the Center for Preparatory Studies (CPS) at Sultan Qaboos University in Muscat, Oman. SAC aims to encourage students to become autonomous learners and to give them freedom to select language-learning resources. The study focused on two areas to evaluate the effectiveness of SAC from students’ perspectives: the available resources and the center’s environment.

Data was collected from students who used SAC via an online questionnaire. The questionnaire asked students to rate their preferences for the available materials in the center (e.g., skills worksheets, grammar exercises, intensive reading exercises, and DVDs) and to share their opinions about the different aspects of the center’s environment (e.g., furniture, space, location). In addition, students were invited to offer suggestions for the improvement of the center’s services.

The results of the study showed that participants preferred easily accessible materials (e.g., skills worksheets with answer key) over materials that require more time and attention (e.g., DVDs). The presenter will give two main arguments based on the results of the study. The first is that students’ use of the center and its materials is less a reflection of the students’ awareness of the center’s philosophy of autonomous learning and more about meeting class requirements. The presenter will introduce examples of class requirements that could lead students to select skills worksheets over other available materials. Second, the presenter will argue that in the context of this study the teacher plays a significant role in students’ choices and will emphasize that a teacher in this context can encourage students to explore all available resources in SAC that are useful to their language proficiency. The presenter will also discuss how the effectiveness of SAC might be improved by changing its approach from fully autonomous learning to a teacher- or class-directed approach.

In the study, respondents generally expressed a positive attitude about the center’s environment and layout, though a number of them expressed concern about the small total area of the center and number of available computers. The presenter will discuss the importance of the physical environment and layout of a center such as SAC.

The presenter will also discuss suggestions to improve SAC in CPS which are applicable to other such student access centers around the world, including the effective integration of online resources and the role of staff in facilitating the operation of SAC. The presenter will also discuss the importance of creating gender-specific areas in SAC, which is significant in

10 Ms. Muna Aullad Thani, Language Instructor, Sultan Qaboos University.
the context of Oman. The presenter will conclude the presentation with suggestions for future research in this area of study.

16-BL17-6191
ROLE OF INDUSTRY CONTEXT IN THE FIRM ENVIRONMENTAL- FINANCIAL PERFORMANCE LINK: INSIGHTS FROM EXTRACTIVE SECTOR
DR. OLUSEGUN VINCENT\textsuperscript{11}

Extant studies on the impact of corporate citizenship behaviour on firm financial performance have produced contradictory findings. Literature remains inconclusive largely due to faulty theorising and methodology. One key assumption is that the evidence from a particular research can be generalised across contexts, whereas these differ from industry to industry. A good example of an industry with theoretically and methodologically valid peculiarities is the extractive sector owing to the sector’s centrality in the discourse on business role in climate change and environmental sustainability. We therefore argue for an idiographic perspective that allows theory and design that are sensitive to the industry’s idiosyncrasies. In this paper, we draw on 94 firms that involve in extractive business based on the S&P 500 index. The results show that environmental performance has no significant association with extractive firms’ financial performance. Meanwhile, results based on full data set (S&P 500 including the extractive firms) depict a significant positive relationship. This confirms our hunch regarding the idiosyncratic nature of the extractive industry. We discuss the implications of the study. Keywords: Environmental performance, financial performance, extractive sector, S&P500, positive/negative synergy hypothesis

17-BL11-6110
LEADING THE FINTECH INVESTMENTS: AN EMPIRICAL COUNTRY ANALYSIS
PROF. CLAUDIU BOTOC\textsuperscript{12}; MARILEN PIRTEA, PROFESSOR; AND ALEXANDRU BOCIU, PHD STUDENT

Financial Technology (FinTech) revolution is one of the most promising industries in recent years, experiencing a continuous upward trend. The FinTech market is characterized by a rapidly growing number of start-ups and businesses without bank licenses (non-banks) and is comprised of four segments, Digital Payments, Alternative Financing, Alternative Lending and Personal Finance.

The use of financial technology (FinTech) has gained increasing attention in recent years for at least two premises. On the one hand Fintech investments largely rely on advanced new technologies in order to decrease the unit cost of financial intermediation, through faster payment services, easier operations to the customers, improved sharing of information. Such technology-driven changes have in the past occurred with the move from banking branches to ATM machines and from ATM machines to telephone and online banking. On the other hand, several renowned professionals foresee that it is likely to consume financial services with the aid of heart biometrics, face recognition as well as emerging IT apps.

The main aim of the paper is to analyse the prospective impact of economic and technological determinants on the emergence of future FinTech investments, for 49 of the world's leading digital economies, covering the period 2018-2022. Given that our study is a

\textsuperscript{11} Dr. Olusegun Vincent, Senior Lecturer, Pan Atlantic University.
\textsuperscript{12} Prof. Claudiu Botoc, Lecturer, West University of Timisoara.
forward-based, the related challenge is whether Fintech will disrupt the financial system in a way that will decrease or increase undesirable properties. Using panel data models our results highlights that Fintech investments occur more frequently in countries with well-developed capital markets, where the latest technology is readily available and in countries with more mobile telephone subscriptions. Other control variables, like population, online banking penetration or new registered companies are significant and positively associated with future FinTech proxy. Therefore, the findings suggests that FinTech investments need not be left to chance, but active policies could influence the emergence of this industry.

18-BK35-6305

DOES CROSS-LISTING IN THE US IMPROVE INVESTMENT EFFICIENCY? EVIDENCE FROM UK CROSS-LISTINGS

DR. ABED AL-NASSER ABDALLAH\(^{13}\); AND WISSAM ABDALLAH

This paper examines whether managers of cross-listed firms improve corporate investment efficiency through learning from the stock market upon cross-listing. Using a sample of UK firms cross-listed on US regulated and unregulated stock markets, we find that cross-listed firms on unregulated markets invest more efficiently than non-cross-listed firms following cross-listing. The analysis of pre- and post-cross-listing shows that cross-listed firms improve their investment efficiency post cross-listing regardless of the location of cross-listing (i.e. regulated versus unregulated exchanges). Furthermore, we find firms with low level of private information embedded in their stock prices, and firms with higher board independence improve their investment post cross-listing. Our findings suggest that managers of cross-listed firms are guided by firm-specific characteristic more than by stock market signals when they embark on new investment projects. Moreover, we find evidence that cross-listed firms on regulated exchanges perform poorly after cross-listing, whereas those cross-listed on unregulated exchange experience high performance post cross-listing. This indicates that the listing and regulatory requirements imposed on cross-listed firms by the US Securities and Exchange Commission (SEC) do not effectively deter managers from investing in value-destroying projects.

19-BK29-6097

HOW SEX, GENDER, AND SEXUAL ORIENTATION INFLUENCE HIRING DECISIONS

DR. TRENTON MIZE\(^{14}\)

Why do heterosexual women face disadvantages in the labor market? Gay men? Lesbian women? A person’s sex and sexual orientation categories can influence how they are treated in interaction—and how they are evaluated when applying for jobs. In addition, a person’s gender presentation—that is, how masculine or feminine they are perceived—also influences assessments and evaluations. However, these factors co-occur, making their unique influences difficult to assess. For example, someone who interviews a feminine female job applicant may assume she is heterosexual; someone who learns that a job applicant is a lesbian female may stereotype her as masculine. These overlaps make the unique—and intersecting—influences of these dimensions difficult to disentangle.

\(^{13}\) Dr. Abed AL-Nasser Abdallah, Associate Professor, American University of Sharjah.

\(^{14}\) Dr. Trenton Mize, Assistant Professor, Purdue University.
In this paper, I report two survey experiments designed to test the unique causal influence that sex categories, gender presentation, and sexual orientation have on evaluations of job applicants. To test the hypotheses, I recruited a diverse sample of hiring managers with a wide range of real world experience assessing job applicants. Potential job candidates are presented to the hiring managers for evaluations. The job candidates systematically vary as to whether they are (a) male or female, (b) masculine or feminine, and (c) heterosexual or gay/lesbian. The job candidates are identically qualified; only their sex category, gender presentation, and sexual orientation distinguish between them. The hiring managers then provide assessments of each potential applicant’s competence, warmth and likeability, qualifications—and ultimately—whether they are seen as worthy of being hired or not.

The results suggest that the socially constructed aspects of gender—that is, how masculine of feminine an applicant is viewed—have primarily influence on the evaluations of the job applicants. When sex and sexual orientation categories are empirically separated from masculinity and femininity, they have little independent influence on the hiring managers’ assessments. Additional results illustrate the importance of considering intersections not only of the job applicants themselves—but also with the hiring manager. Men and women hiring managers preference different traits of potential employees. Thus, while both men and women hiring managers similarly evaluate the competencies and skills of each job applicant, their recommendations for who to hire diverge because of different emphases on different traits. Across the two experimental studies, the findings are robust to indicating the masculinity and femininity of a job applicant via their behavior (Study 1) and via their hobbies and interests (Study 2). The findings underline the importance of considering sex, gender, and sexual orientation intersectionally and illustrate the fundamental importance of the socially constructed nature of gender.

20-BK11-6046

TRANSLANGUAGING AND CHILDREN'S NEGOTIATIONS OF IDENTITIES IN IMAGINATIVE PLAY: A LINGUISTIC ETHNOGRAPHY

MRS. SHARIFA AL BATTASHI

The translanguaging turn has led to a burgeoning body of research which highlights the role of translanguaging as a multilingual practice in education, social interactions and identities yet young children remain largely absent in this scholarship. Conversely, research on young children highlights their active agency in performing and negotiating identities, including in imaginative play. However, the role of translanguaging in such processes is under explored due to the focus on conventional linguistic practices. Taking together, these two bodies of work suggest the relevance of considering the ways in which multilingual children use translanguaging practices to perform and negotiate intersectional identities. This is a timely issue given rising linguistic diversity in cities such as London and in the context of contradictory early years policy and curriculum: on the one hand supporting home languages and, on the other, promoting English language proficiency for school-readiness. The theoretical frame of this project will draw upon concepts from the sociology of childhood as an interpretive framework especially those relating to the social contributions of children, generational status and generational, social and linguistic inequalities. The work of Bakhtin on dialogism and heteroglossia will provide an additional theoretical lens to approach children’s translanguaging as meaningful and situated social practice as well as potential tensions associated with its use in a formal educational setting.

15 Mrs. Sharifa Al Battashi, Doctoral Student, University College London.
A public preschool classroom in North London will be used as research setting to explore how notions related to language(s) and childhood are represented and enacted in the curriculum, policy and practice and the implications for children’s identity negotiations. As the emphasis on school readiness in preschools focuses on the formal aspects of language, unconventional practices like translanguaging are taken as incorrect, incomplete and often unfavored. As such, imaginative play will be considered as key site where translanguaging may occur, and where children may engage in performances and negotiations of identities.

In attempting to uncover the connections and disjunctions associated with children’s translanguaging practices and their relation to broader social discourses, policies, and curriculum, linguistic ethnography will be used as a key methodology. Detailed ethnographic descriptions, along with Fairclough’s (2003) Critical Discourse Analysis as an analytical tool, will allow for interrogation of translanguaging practices and identity negotiations in play in relation to broader power relations.

**KEYWORDS:** Translanguaging, Identities, Early Childhood, Sociology of Childhood, Linguistic Ethnography, CDA

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**23-BK21-6150**

**TENDENCY OF INJUSTICE IN THE IMPLEMENTATION OF ‘REDD+’ BENEFIT SHARING SCHEME IN INDONESIA’**

**MS. KAHFIYA HASBI**

Since the REDD (Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and Forest Degradation) program was initiated, many indigenous communities have eavesdropped the issues that preserving forests can make money. However, the scheme for profit-sharing to those who take active actions to preserve the forest is still unclear. Under the Indonesian Department of Forestry, and the REDD+ (Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and Forest Degradation Plus) task force, most of the money will go to the central government in Capital City, Jakarta, and the remaining money will be disbursed to local governments.

As part of forest protector, it is very logic that indigenous communities should get a share from REDD+ project. However, the government in this country has yet to pay attention to the direct role of the community. Instead, the political elite in this country argue that the distribution of REDD+ should be focused on the “most threatened forest section”, implicitly in the area used by companies under government permission to “destroy” the forest in running the business. They argue that it would be more effective if the government pays the REDD+ money to such companies as compensation, so the forests will remain sustained and the business will run well. Of course, many people disagreed, and this has led to the end of the REDD+ Task Force regime.

This paper aims to contribute in finding the reason why the REDD+ benefit sharing scheme is difficult to be applied in Indonesia even though this country has committed to the reduction of climate change. Indonesia was not only committed to reduce deforestation by itself, but also was willing to cooperate with international organizations and other countries to reach the objective. However, this commitment was full of challenges, especially in the disbursement of the deforestation money, integrity and transparency.

This paper is an analysis of the capacity of Government of Indonesia to induce the compliance with the REDD+, especially in benefit sharing scheme. The research is based on literature study. It focuses on the legal examination through the policies and legislations in

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16 Ms. Kahfiya Hasbi, Program Officer, IDH The Sustainable Trade Initiative.
Indonesia related to REDD+. The examination is conducted through the view of transnational legal process in the international compliance theory.

24-BL10-6183

AGRICULTURE NEGOTIATION IN THE DOHA ROUND: WHY WE ARE HERE

MS. PRISCA RUMOKOY

In the 1995 Uruguay Round, the members of the World Trade Organization (WTO) successfully agreed to bring the politically sensitive sector of agriculture under the WTO through the Agreement on Agriculture. The Agreement on Agriculture involves the issues of market access, export support, domestic support, and special and differential treatment for developing countries. Five years later, in the Doha Round, the WTO members pushed the agricultural negotiation forward. However, although the principal areas of the negotiation are similar, the outcome of the two multilateral negotiation rounds is strikingly different. Although the Uruguay Round successfully concluded, the Doha Round is at an impasse, even after some efforts to activate it. This posits the question of why the Doha Round cannot be concluded, even though it presents very similar content as the Uruguay Round. Most of the scholarship in this area has focused on why the Doha Round should have been completed, but all the studies are missing an analysis on why the Doha Round came to an impasse in the first place. Employing a qualitative method, this research utilized the comparative studies of the Uruguay Round and Doha Round, including the existing literature and archives on the negotiations, to obtain a better understanding of why, despite the similarities, the two negotiating rounds resulted in different outcomes. This paper argues that this is because of the increasingly active role that developing countries have been playing in the WTO negotiation because of their critical interests of food security. First, the rise of global food prices has greatly impacted the food security of developing countries. Second, developing countries now have more influential and coordinated voices in the WTO. Developing members have joined the battle among primarily developed country trading partners to fight for their interests. Unless their interest is taken into consideration, it is likely the Doha Round will not come to a resolution.

25-BL09-6309

MULTIMODAL TRANSPORT DOCUMENTS IN THE CONTEXT OF INTERNATIONAL TRADE LAW

MS. PIMKAMOL KONGPHOK

The current cross-border transport of goods has been shifted from unimodal carriage of goods to an integrated multimodal transport where two or more modes of transport are involved in one journey under a single contract. This phenomenon is obviously a by-product of containerisation and technological developments in terms of transport operations and relevant infrastructure.

Despite the constant growth of containerisation and multimodal transport operations, the peculiar but true fact is that, in terms of regulatory framework, there has been no successful attempt that could achieve global uniformity. Almost four decades of the failure of the 1980 MT Convention, coupled with the hopeless situation of the 2009 Rotterdam Rules imply that the fragmented current legal framework on multimodal transport, a mixture of international unimodal conventions, regional/sub-regional agreements, national laws and standard

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17 Ms. Prisca Rumokoy, PhD Candidate, University of Washington.
18 Ms. Pimkamol Kongphok, PhD Candidate, University of Southampton.
contractual forms, will continue to be applicable to multimodal transport. Therefore, the issues of legal uncertainty and unpredictability, together with conflicts and inconsistencies still exist.

In terms of multimodal transport documents, the number of this type of documents used in transport industry is significantly escalating as a result of the rapid growth of door-to-door transport. However, a lack of international set of rules regulating multimodal transport leads to the situation where the legal status and functions of multimodal transport are ambiguous and it can possibly jeopardise the legal value of this type of transport documents in various dimensions, not only for consignors and consignees under carriage of goods contracts, but also for buyers and sellers under sale of contracts as well as banks as examiners of required documents under letters of credit. Thus, an analysis of legal status and functions of multimodal transport documents in the context of international trade law is the main focus of this presentation.

To tackle with documentary issues, short-term and long-term solutions are proposed including, judicial recognition with regard to the legal status of multimodal transport documents in the same level as maritime bills of lading, an amendment of relevant statutes i.e. COGSA 1992 and the possibility of the future international convention on multimodal transport as an optimal long-term solution to cope with current conundrums regarding the use of multimodal transport documents.

**Keywords:** multimodal transport, multimodal transport documents, international trade law, sales of goods, letters of credit

**26-BL13-6325**

**IMPACT OF SUPERVISION MECHANISM ON THE EARNINGS MANAGEMENT BEHAVIORS OF INTERNATIONAL DIVERSIFICATION FIRMS**

**PROF. YUNSHENG HSU**\(^{19}\); AND **YAN-JIE YANG**

The purse of this paper is first to examine the substitution between accruals and real earnings management. And then to analysis the impact of international diversification on the substitution between accruals and real earnings management. Furthermore, to test whether supervision of international diversification, measured as information transparency and investor protection, would affect the substitutive effects.

The empirical results show that there are substitution between accruals earnings management and real earnings management. And international diversification increases information asymmetry, and then increases the incentive shifting to accruals earnings management from real earnings management, which might damage the firms’ real value. The supervision mechanisms including information transparency and investor protection, are likely to decrease the use of accrual among earnings management and increase the use of real earnings management.

\(^{19}\) Prof. Yunsheng Hsu, Professor, National Chung Hsing University.
TRANSACTION SECURITY IN INDONESIAN ONLINE BUSINESS: WILL MARKETPLACE SERVICE PROVIDERS BE OUR NEW LEGITIMATE MEDIATOR?

MR. DANANG WIRAWAN

The development of information and communication technology (ICT) is inevitable in the internet era. It leads to the world without borders (borderless) and changes people’s social behaviors. One of the significant changes is e-commerce.

People who live in the suburbs used to go to the market or certain shops miles away from their home. It costs them a lot in gas and time, not to mention that they do not necessarily find what they want. With e-commerce, where almost all people in the world are connected via internet, marketplaces switch from miles away into just ‘one click away’. Instantly, people from different countries do not need to see the actual shop where virtual shops (Amazon, eBay or Alibaba) are just fine and it reduces a lot of costs for both seller and buyer.

However, this change is not free from bad faith, fraudulent and other illegitimate acts conducted either by the seller or the buyer. To protect the good faith in transaction, marketplace service providers then provide escrow service. Therefore, the marketplace providers will keep the money paid by the buyer until the transaction is complete without dispute (the buyer receives the product safe and sound without complain). Afterwards, they will send the money to the seller’s account.

However, what if the transaction does not succeed, for example the buyer receives different product, the product is in low quality, the delivery is late or the product never arrives? The marketplace provider will then act as mediator in the case. It will judge the best possible way to resolve the problem. Next question is: how far is the authority for these marketplaces to resolve the dispute in online businesses?

This paper aims to analyze the legality and eligibility for marketplaces to conduct dispute resolution especially in Indonesian online business practices. Further, because the marketplace itself is now providing a type of financial service, then how does the Indonesian Financial Authority (Otoritas Jasa Keuangan / “OJK”) regulates their activity in the market? The last but not least, this paper will also provide good recommendation for marketplace service providers and the government of Indonesia to protect online users as well as to create good and trustworthy online business activities.

CREATION OF NARRATIVES IN THE MAZATEC INDIGENOUS LANGUAGE AS A METHOD TO ENCOURAGE THE USE OF THE LANGUAGE AND PROPAGATION IN THE NEW DIGITAL MEDIA.

MS. BETZABET GARCIA-MENDOZA; AND DR. CARLOS R. JAIMEZ-GONZALEZ

The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) has declared the indigenous languages as intangible heritage of humanity, because they are an invaluable cultural wealth that must not be ignored. According to this organization, 97% of world population spoke 4% of the existing languages in the world in 2003, whereas in the remaining

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20 Mr. Danang Wirawan, Expert Advisor, PT Telkom Indonesia.
21 Ms. Betzabet Garcia-Mendoza, MSc Student, Universidad Autonoma Metropolitana.
22 Dr. Carlos R. Jaimez-Gonzalez, Associate Professor, Universidad Autonoma Metropolitana.
3% of world population concentrated the majority of linguistic diversity with the 96% of the existing languages.

In the case of Mexico, according to the Catalog of National Indigenous Languages, which is published by the National Institute of Indigenous Languages, there is an important linguistic diversity conformed by 11 linguistic families, which have 68 linguistic groups with 364 variants. This situation puts Mexico as one of the countries with the greatest cultural and linguistic diversity in the American continent. However, indigenous languages are disappearing. In the beginning of the XIX century, 60% of the Mexican population spoke an indigenous language, but by the end of 2016 only 6.5% were able to speak an indigenous language. These figures demonstrate the process of linguistic displacement, which occurs when the majority of the speakers of a language A replace their use for another language B. The result in a particular community is that its speakers start using language B for communicating, and stop the use of language A.

The mazatec indigenous language is spoken by 3.2% of the Mexican population that speak an indigenous language. The UNESCO Atlas of the World's Languages in Danger has catalogued the mazatec language in the category of vulnerable. For this reason, this research focuses on one of the many problems that are causing the extinction of indigenous languages, specifically the linguistic displacement of the mazatec language by the Spanish language. It should be noticed that mazatec speakers have very few spaces for practicing written and spoken skills of their own language.

Some research propose the use of new information and communication technologies to boost the revitalization, development and rescue processes of indigenous languages. The use of indigenous languages in the media such as the Internet, provides them a new functional scope and gives them some status and visibility in the society. The majority of projects that have been carried out in Mexico regarding preservation and revitalization of indigenous languages have been focused on the translation of isolated words. According to some authors, digital systems should encourage the development of linguistic skills, such as speaking, listening, writing, and reading. Therefore, the creation of narratives is considered a suitable method to encourage writing in the mazatec language, specifically narratives related to their culture and traditions, because they involve words that only have a meaning in the mazatec language. Additionally, it has been observed that children and young people feel mostly identified if the contents and activities requested by a digital system are related to their culture.

This research focuses on the development of an online tool to generate narratives, using a comic format, where children and young people will be able to create their own stories in the mazatec language, related to the Cha Xó Ó tradition, which is a festivity that takes place on the day of the dead, it is also part of their culture and reinforce their identity. The online tool will allow to share the generated comics on social networks, which will give visibility and propagation of the mazatec language in the new digital media.

32-BK15-5893

EXPERIENCING AGGRESSION FROM DEMENTIA PATIENTS: MODERATING ROLE OF EMOTIONAL SUPPORT
MR. ABDULLAH HAFEEZ23 DR. KIRAN NAUMAN, ASSISTANT PROFESSOR; MR. SHEZAD BUTT, ASSISTANT PROFESSOR; AND DR. NAUMAN AYUB, ASISTANT PROFESSOR

This study examined the moderating role of emotional support on the relationship between dementia patients’ aggression and health and job-related outcomes of nurses. Data was collected from nurses working in nursing homes that housed demented people. Aggressive behavior manifested by dementia patients can have serious consequences on the job outcome of nurses, to the extent that nurses may feel that the institution is somewhat at fault for the occurrence of such events. Depending on the nature and frequency, patients’ aggression can have a range of adverse consequences on nurses’ health and wellbeing. Research on emotional outcomes has demonstrated that victims often feel shocked, nervous, frightened, angered, embarrassed, humiliated, guilty, disappointed, and dejected. Prolonged exposure to aggression may lead to negative emotions like frustration, animosity, resentment, hatred, and sometimes a desire for revenge. Studies have revealed that being a target of dementia patients’ aggression is associated with various undesirable consequences, like higher frequency of physical illness, increase in psychological distress, and decline in job satisfaction. Although there is now a considerable literature on aggression against nurses, little research has assessed the aggression from dementia patients or the factors that may buffer the detrimental outcomes of experiencing aggression. Results revealed that nurses who experience aggression from demented people are likely to have health issues, and show reduced engagement and satisfaction with their job. Moreover, emotional support significantly moderates the effects of aggression on health, job engagement and job satisfaction of nurses. It was found that when subjected to aggression, nurses who feel less emotionally supported, report more health issues, and lower job engagement and job satisfaction. To the best of the researchers’ knowledge, this study is the first to integrate literature on dementia care with research on social support. It hopes to promote more research so that interventions for dealing with demented people’s aggression can be developed.

Keywords: Aggression, dementia, emotional support, health, job-outcomes, nurse

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THE EFFECTS OF SERVICE PROBLEM SEVERITY AND BRAND LOVE ON BRAND FORGIVENESS, BRAND AVOIDANCE AND BRAND REVENGE

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Service failures are unavoidable. Within their organisations, employees can frequently cause service failures, large and small alike. When this happens, it is the manager’s responsibility to manage and cope with the service failure, as well as to ensure that customers remain satisfied after said failure. Given this, the ability to deal with customer responses to service failure is a crucial skill for managers.

The purpose of this article is to investigate the effect of service problem severity and brand love on brand forgiveness, brand avoidance and brand revenge. In so doing, 170 students were asked to complete five-part questionnaires about a Starbucks coffee shop in Thailand. The researcher used the Structural Equation Model (SEM) to process the data, using the AMOS program. A factor analysis was performed. Only the items which exceeded a score of 0.70 for each factor were used in the later stages, at which point a reliability test of the scale was performed. The results showed that each factor had an excellent reliability score, with the Cronbach alpha of each exceeding .90. After the test of reliability, the structural equation model

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was used to analyse the model. The results showed that service problem severity has a positive impact on brand avoidance and brand revenge, and that it has a negative relationship with brand forgiveness. The results also showed that brand love has a positive relationship on brand forgiveness and that it has a negative relationship on brand avoidance and brand revenge.

To be more specific, when service failures did take place, customers tended to avoid, not forgive and take revenge on the service provider brand when the problem was more serious. However, a service provider brand can leverage its failure by creating brand love, since brand love can heal the problem. The more customers love the service provider brand, the more likely they are to forgive and not take revenge through a service provider brand. All in all, this article provides a theoretical contribution on brand love and service failure. Marketing managers will benefit from understanding how their service failure could be leveraged.

**Keywords**: Brand love, brand forgiveness, brand avoidance, brand revenge, service failure

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**GENDERING VIOLENCE: THE OIL PARADOX, WOMEN AND CONFLICT IN THE NIGER DELTA OF NIGERIA**

**PROF. VICTOR OJAKOROTU**

The Niger Delta in Nigeria has attracted the attention of human rights activists and environmentalists over the years due to incessant violence arising from the policies enunciated by the Nigerian state and oil multinationals towards the local people. The grievances of these communities, which have fuelled the violence, are informed by at least three fundamental issues: one, environmental degradation that is by-product of oil exploitation; two, gross marginalization of the people of the Niger-Delta and, three, exclusion of the local people from access to oil wealth that has been generated from the region for over four decades. In spite of the fact that Nigeria is the world’s sixth-largest oil exporter with billions of dollar accruing to the state yearly, this reality does not translate to physical development of the Niger Delta – the very locale which generates more than eighty percent of Nigeria’s national wealth. The perceived insensitivity of the state and oil multinationals to the plight of the oil-bearing communities has, therefore, informed the recurrence of violence in different dimensions with serious consequences on both women and children in the region.

The impact of the condition of the Niger Delta on women and children has necessitated the involvement of women in the struggle against the activities of the Nigerian state and the oil multinationals in the region. To this end, women in the early ‘90s began to employ peaceful protest in the Niger Delta, which was a departure from the thirty-year long male-orchestrated violent method of resistance. Against the background of oil paradox in the Niger Delta, this paper will, inter alia, highlight the circumstances that stimulated women involvement in oil violence in the region, the responses of both the state and oil multinationals to women-led protests, and policy prescriptions which, if implemented, could arrest the cycle of violence in the Niger Delta.

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