The study of Self-Esteem, Academic Self-Image and Oral skills with reference to English as a Second Language in Malaysia.

Thesis submitted for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

at the University of Leicester

by

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School of Education

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To the memory of my late mother

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The Study of Self-Esteem, Academic Self-Image and Oral skills with reference to English as a Second language in Malaysia.

Abstract

by

Azizah bte Rajab

The aim of this study was to ascertain the nature of the self-esteem, academic self-image and oral skills of the first year students at the Universiti Teknologi Malaysia (UTM) and to examine how these variables were associated with a number of independent variables; sex, age, ethnicity and English SPM scores (examination at a upper secondary level). These variables are related to the complex background of Malaysian society and the learning of English.

The sample consisted of 212 first year students from UTM. The short version of the Coopersmith Self-Esteem inventory - 1967 (Bahasa Malaysia and English version) was used as the measure for students' self-esteem; the Barker-Lunn Academic Self-Image - 1970 (Bahasa Malaysia and English version) was used as the measure of academic self-image and the ARELS Oral Examination was used as the measure of students' oral skills.

Eight research questions were formulated and a number of statistical analyses were employed to analyse the data gathered. They included descriptive statistics, the Pearson product-moment correlation, t-tests, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and stepwise multiple regressions.

The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficent revealed a direct relationship between self-esteem and academic self-image. The results also showed a direct relationship between academic self-image and ethnicity and between oral skills and English SPM scores. There was no evidence to show that sex or age had any effect on the self-esteem, academic self-image and oral skills of the students. The stepwise multiple regression results demonstrated that sex, age and ethnicity were poor predictors of students' self-esteem and oral skills.

In conclusion, this study emphasises the need to enhance students' self-esteem, academic self-image and oral skills to assist them to achieve excellence at the highest level.

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Chapter One: Introduction and Objectives

Higher education is a pre-requisite for economic development. In a developing country such as Malaysia, the need to raise education to its highest possible level is a major element in realising the best educational potential of Malaysians. The Prime Minister of Malaysia, aiming to make Malaysia an industrial and developed country by the year 2020, has stressed that to achieve this:

> Malaysia should not be developed only in the economic sense. It must be a nation that is fully developed along all the dimensions: economically, politically, socially, spiritually, psychologically and culturally. We must be fully developed in terms of national unity and social cohesion, in terms of our economy, in terms of social justice, political stability, system of government, quality of life, social and spiritual values, national pride and confidence. By the year 2020, Malaysia can be a united nation, with a confident Malaysia[n] society, infused by strong moral and ethical values, living in a society that is democratic, liberal and tolerant, caring, economically just and equitable, progressive and prosperous, and in full possession of an economy that is competitive, dynamic, robust and resilient (Deraman 1992: 6).

These objectives are commonly known as Vision 2020. The Malaysian National Philosophy of Education is the backbone to achieve the mission of the rapid development of the country, therefore the need to raise the standard of education continues to be a significant concern. However, discussions among educators have indicated that many students, particularly at tertiary level, still do not attain the expected level of academic performance. The need to improve the educational system becomes crucial and students' poor performance, especially in their second language, continues to be a major setback in achieving the educational objectives of Malaysia. As stated clearly in the Malaysia National Philosophy:

> Education in Malaysia is an on-going effort towards developing the potential of individuals in a holistic and integrated manner, so as to produce individuals who are intellectually, spiritually, emotionally and physically balanced and harmonious, based on a firm belief in and devotion to God. Such an effort is designed to produce Malaysian citizens who are knowledgeable and competent, who possess high moral standards and who are responsible and capable of achieving a high level of personal well-being as well as being able to contribute to the betterment of the society and the nation at large (Ministry of Education, 1989: 1).

However, considering the poor performance of students at tertiary levels, especially in their communication skills, the objective seems to be far from accomplished. Accordingly, the question arose whether the poor performance in English achievement could be partially attributed to students' self-esteem and academic self-image. The present study was therefore designed to determine how the Universiti Teknologi Malaysia (UTM) students' spoken English proficiency was related to an array of variables that were considered as possible factors contributing to deficiencies in their spoken English.

This chapter first provides an outline of the background of the problem. It then continues with the justification and significance of the study which is elaborated in detail. Finally, the last section presents the objectives of the study.

1.1 Problem Statement.

The need to have highly competent and skilled individual is of vital concern to educators especially in view of the demands of an increasingly competitive market in Malaysia. There have been calls for all universities in Malaysia to produce highly competitive graduates with advanced levels of communication skills. The responsibility for assisting all students to fully develop and utilise such skills is of prime concern to all educators. Current discussion of the need for higher levels of education to meet the demand for English language competence assumes the need to resolve students' communication problems.

There is, then an increasing need for graduates with high levels of English communication skills. Yet there are clear indications that currently many students do not reach these high levels. The basic assumption of this research is that relatively large numbers of students at UTM have low levels of communication skills and that this might be attributed to their low level of Self-Esteem and Academic Self-image. Reason for this assumption will be presented later. This implies that achievement and development of UTM students could be improved.

Students who are chosen to attend courses at UTM on a full-time basis have diverse experiences and educational backgrounds. This diversity is reflected in the qualifications they possess before entering the University. Typically at UTM, students are equipped with Sijil Pelajaran Malaysia (SPM - National Examination at the Upper Secondary Level-'national' here also referred to as 'state' level) qualifications although there are those from the vocational stream who are equipped with the Sijil Pelajaran Malaysia Vocational (SPVM - National Examination for Vocational students at the Upper Secondary Level) and some even have the higher level certificate, Sijil Tinggi Pelajaran Malaysia (STPM - National Examination at the Post Secondary Level-see Sections 2.5.2 - 2.5.4 in Chapter Two for detail).

To be admitted into UTM, candidates are expected to have achieved a certain academic standard. For all courses (Diploma, Bachelor of Science, Masters and Doctor of Philosophy), candidates wishing to enter UTM are required to obtain a satisfactory standard of Bahasa Malaysia, both written and oral, and most have acquired sufficient knowledge of English to at least SPM or SPVM level. However, not all of these candidates need to pass the English language examination at this level (referred to here as English SPM) before coming to the university (Table A in Appendix 1 gives full details of

the academic requirements for the undergraduate courses) as UTM's philosophy is to focus on students' major disciplines and their academic achievement. This study focuses only on UTM students as the researcher is mainly interested in technology students' oral skills with relation to their self-esteem and academic self-image. Practically, UTM is a technological environment. It is the only university in Malaysia that specialises in technological subjects. This provides the researcher with an appropriate sample to investigate aspects of the language culture of technological students which is the purpose of this study. Furthermore, the researcher is a staff member of the university, and therefore has direct access to all facilities needed.

In 1993, a report in Berita Unitek, a publication circulating at UTM, stated that studies have shown that the success of UTM students is based on their academic achievement at SPM level (Examination at Upper Secondary level) and also their first year academic achievements at university level (July 1993). It is also reported that on the basis of students' academic achievement records, taken from the entrance records gathered at the UTM Registrar's Office, students accepted at UTM are, broadly, not the best students. (The 'best' means not achieving the highest results at SPM examination conducted at the National level). This is due to the fact that generally the best candidates that have passed the SPM level are offered places by the Public Service Department (JPA), The Council of Trust for Indigenous People (MARA), The National Petroleum Company (PETRONAS), or other bodies, to pursue their studies abroad. Therefore, the students that have been accepted at the universities in Malaysia, including UTM, are not those who have attained the highest results.

Even though the students accepted by UTM have fulfilled the minimum requirements set by the University, the differences in academic achievements between those pursuing degrees abroad and those entering local universities are considerable. Sani (1995) maintains that

the Government's policy of sending Malay students to universities overseas 'downgrades' the calibre of Malaysian universities as 'second choice' amongst Malaysian students (unless the overseas universities are considered superior in quality). He gives examples of not very able young Malaysian students who go to universities abroad, regardless of the universities' standards.

It is no longer compulsory to obtain a pass in English in the public examinations and, as a result, many pupils see no need to learn English. Further, reports in Berita Unitek state that the Malays have been identified as having particular learning difficulties in comparison to non-Malays and, based on information gathered, the Malay students are found to have low self-confidence levels when competing with the non-Malays at UTM (July 1993).

It is also thought that they are not dedicated, do not possess good self-discipline, do not have high motivational levels and do not have systematic time planning. Therefore, it is concluded that they are unable to compete with non-Malays, and are less successful. The report further states that at university level students are required to be independent and should not wait to be 'spoon fed' as this 'spoon feeding' attitude is not healthy, especially at tertiary level. As mentioned by Seligman, "at the level of ego strength and character, making the road too easy is a disaster" (1975: 159).

Again, a similar report in Berita Unitek, finds that Malay students at UTM were still far behind in comparison to non-Malays in academic achievement as most of them were 'left overs', since the highest achievers had either chosen to enter other local universities or studied abroad (August 1993). This report also stresses that the Malay students had lower aspirations and were less motivated compared to non-Malays. Other factors mentioned were that good study habits were said to be responsible for students' academic success at

university level, followed by students' interest, confidence in themselves and in their studies, and their intelligence level.

During a weekly meeting of UTM staff members on the 25 June 1994, the UTM Vice Chancellor, Y.Bhg. Dr. Ahmad Zaharudin Idrus informed all staff members that UTM needs to produce quality graduates with high management and leadership qualities (Berita Unitek, June 1994). He further stated that there were many complaints from employers that UTM graduates have a poor command of English and do not know how to communicate well enough in English to survive in a competitive working environment. He suggested that the high number of failures among UTM students in achieving the appropriate level of communication was due to the 'study system' at UTM, which did not visualise the needs of these students and, therefore, should be given the fullest attention. He asked UTM members to be more alert to the current needs of industry, be it in Malaysia or at an international level, in order not to be left behind.

Studies have been carried out to explore the reasons behind the language problems of UTM students. The earliest study of this phenomenon was made in a report that went as far back as 1976 by Alias Shamsudin, Chairman of the Centre of Humanities Studies at UTM (at present the Faculty of Management and Human Resources Development). He claims that the poor performance of UTM students was the result of their oral English:

> It is in the area of oral English teaching that we feel a lot more has to be done and could be done. Many of us at the UTM feel that this is one area where the various universities could work together to plan a programme based on some common objectives related to the needs of Malaysian students at higher institutions of learning here. .....We are of the opinion that it would help all of us who are involved in TESL if some kind of standard tests in oral English could be devised for universities - such tests to be based perhaps on established systems such as those found in the Davies Tests or those used in TOEFL tests (Alias, 1976: 66).

Students following courses at UTM are usually from science streams and their lecturers/teachers say that they are more inclined towards the memorising of facts. They are believed to put little emphasis on oral skills. Before entering UTM, most students learn English at primary and secondary school. However, opportunities to use the English language in clubs, family interaction or social gatherings are lacking in most cases. Socially, students rarely use English at all. Most of the Malay students use Bahasa Malaysia when interacting with one another. Even though most of the students do not have the chance to use English, there are some who have worked before entering the university and they have experience of using English in their work place. However, their proficiency in oral skills in English is questionable. Irrespective of their qualifications, students are generally less proficient in their oral skills because the environment for using English is lacking. Different social factors or educational background may also cause different attitudes towards the usage of the language. It may be possible that social factors may inculcate a self-concept which is not conducive to the promotion of oral skills in English.

The District member (Ahli Majlis), Dato' Baharudin Kassim, at a reception for new students at Dewan Iskandar on the 2nd July 1994 at UTM, highlighted the importance of communication skills among graduates. He mentioned that in order to be a good professional or semi-professional worker, academic achievement alone would not guarantee success. He further elaborated that good communication skills in English could help students develop a successful career if they could master the language. He pointed out that in the country's move towards a dynamic economy, Malaysia does not want to produce 'mediocre' graduates who are not confident in themselves because of their language usage as English is the language of science, trade, communications, and technology (Berita Unitek, July 1994).

During the 18th convocation ceremony for UTM graduates on the 23 August 1994, the Vice Chancellor of UTM, Y.Bhg. Dr. Ahmad Zaharudin Idrus, again stressed the importance of English language among UTM graduates. He suggested that the main reason behind the poor performance of UTM students is the English language, and that this could be overcome by having 'formal' and 'informal' English language activities conducted by the Faculty of Management and Human Resources. This would create 'an environment' for students to practise the English language and overcome the alarming decline of English among graduates at UTM (Berita Unitek, August 1994).

So, what has gone wrong? What could be the reason behind the increasingly poor performances in English among UTM students and graduates? Could it be the characteristics of the students? Could it be other factors such as their attitude, motivation or self-confidence? It may also be possible that their lack of positive self-esteem or academic self-image may inculcate learning not conducive to the promotion of oral skills. There does not seem to be a direct explanation for the students' problems. However, the extent to which students' self-esteem and academic self-image are related to the use of the English language is still not clear.

For this reason, this study was designed to examine and investigate this matter in an attempt to answer some of these points. The researcher hoped to acquire some useful insights into explaining the problems which Malaysian students may have with oral English usage and their lack of confidence in using English. It is also hoped that the results of the study will contribute to a sounder basis for the future development of educational programs designed by UTM because of the link between English proficiency and self-esteem and academic self-image.

1.2 Justification for the study

Positive self-esteem and positive academic self-image may lead to success in the development of oral skills. In contrast, negative self-esteem and negative academic self-image may hinder the development of oral skills. The importance of positive self-esteem and positive academic self-image, and the possession of good oral skills to enhance learning and the development of the individual, have been overlooked for many years in Malaysia. Over the years, empirical evidence has shown that positive self-esteem and positive self-image can be developed through the application of appropriate strategies. As Nunnally (1978) states, an individual perception of one physical object is his attitude towards that object. Chiam concurs (1981), stating that self-esteem plays an important role in determining an individual's attitude because it controls part of the attitude.

In Malaysian education, especially in the light of the decline of English language standards, there has been a call for educators to be more responsible and to encourage students in the use of the language, seeking ways for its development. It is assumed that some social factors and students' English scores before entering university could affect students' perception and performance towards the language when they enter the university. If oral skill is dependent on students' self perceptions, then a culmination of behaviour, self-concept, attitude and expectancy for future outcomes could affect their oral skills. Students' attitudes towards language could also come from their own self-concept.

At tertiary level in Malaysia, relatively little has been done to investigate students' self-esteem or academic self-image, and there is much less investigation into whether self-esteem and academic self-image can affect students' oral skills. In the wake of the present emphasis in the educational system, which calls for technological manpower for the country's industrial programmes and for this manpower to enter into high-technology manufacturing in the near future, possessing high self-esteem, high academic self-image

and good oral skills can be an advantage for the students in either their career or future development. For this reason, a better understanding of the self-esteem, academic self-image and oral skills of UTM students has become important. Additionally, the need to investigate the level of these students' self-esteem, academic self-image and oral skills has become crucial, especially after the decline of UTM students' performance, the present educational system has also been questioned.

Why is it that only the Malays have been reported as having poor command of English or a low self-confidence level? Are the non-Malays better at oral skills, giving them higher self-confidence than the Malays? As pointed out by Asmah, "language is viewed as a crucial part of ethnicity" (1979: 12). Language issues have played an important role in modern Malaysian history, and in almost every racial crisis language has proved to be one of the most controversial issues. For example, at the time of the Sedition Act of 1971, language was regarded as a "sensitive issue and discussion of it meant a jail sentence. It was hoped that through this act, peaceful coexistence among the various races could be achieved" (ibid.: 12).

As a result of the much reported language issues at UTM, however, the necessity for a study such as this one has increased. Even though research data has tended to suggest that self-esteem, academic self-image and oral skills are related, current evidence regarding these relationships is far from conclusive, especially at UTM. Research remains to be done before the results can be generalised. It has, however, been noted that among UTM students and graduates, there are varying degrees of success when learning English. Some lecturers find that their female students are more proficient in English than their fellow male students, even though there are proportionally more male students at UTM than at other universities (see Table 1 in Appendix 2). There are even complaints, voiced by some lecturers, that their Malay students are less confident and not as well motivated as non-

Malays. Thus, both gender and ethnicity have been linked with under-achievement in English. Some lecturers believe that English results (English SPM) before entering university play a significant role in determining students' success at UTM.

Many lecturers believe that a pass in English language should be made compulsory upon entering the university. These beliefs, however, were discussed without proper research. As Gaudart stated, "it simply could not be assumed that public statements were a valid measure of attitudes toward another group, especially when those statements came from members of an oppressed minority" (1987: 529) Therefore, such statements, or impressions, can neither be proved or disproved until research is carried out.

The influence of variables such as gender, ethnic groups and English results on the development of self-esteem, academic self-image and oral skills would be of major concern to lecturers and educators, especially at UTM. Therefore, data gathering in relation to learner variables viz., sex, age, ethnic characteristics and exposure to English using English SPM result (examination result at Upper Secondary level) will be used in this study. This is done so that assumptions and predictions of factors which affect the development of self-esteem, academic self-image and oral skills can be examined. Questions such as; Does English SPM play an important role in students' self-esteem and academic self-image? Are female students better communicators than male students? Does ethnicity play a significant role in determining students' oral skills? This study will examine and seek to answer some of these points.

1.3 Significance of the study

Studies to improve students' performances inside or outside classroom environments are lacking at UTM. However, before any improvement can be made to materials or even classroom environments, it is important to measure the self-esteem, academic self-image

and oral skills of the students. The need to increase our understanding of the relationships between self-esteem, academic self-image and oral skills is important in order to provide more conducive environmental conditions to maximise the potential and development of the UTM students. Information concerning these relationships could provide lecturers with the necessary insights into formulating alternative ways of teaching and other measures of self-assessment. Moreover, this information would assist educators to assess adequate learning preferences. Even Gaudart called for this kind of research, which she characterised as "research that many do not want to see conducted. Research into how ethnic Malay pupils cope with learning [how] the standard language must be carried out, even if it touches on underlying questions of Malay unity" (1987: 529).

As no study has been carried out at UTM which investigates the relationships between self-esteem and academic self-image relating to oral skills, there have been many assumptions made prior to the study and this study hopes to point out, or re-emphasise, that factors such as sex, age, ethnic characteristics as well as English results may have significant effects on students' level of self-esteem, academic self-image and oral skills. Knowledge of the levels of self-esteem, academic self-image and oral skills of the students, teachers and administrators could improve the present academic system.

This is possible because according to Garrison and Garrison (1975), self-esteem itself is dynamic and is always changing. As Rogers (1961) maintains, it is based on information acquired from others and one should try to improve one's self-esteem because self-esteem affects motivation. This was confirmed by Seligman (1975). In studying the trait of 'helplessness' in an individual, he points out that a person can control his own success and failure. According to him, if a person believes "he is helpless he will perform stupidly, regardless of his IQ" (p. 137); on the other hand, if he believes that he has 'mastery' of a subject he may 'out perform' more talented peers who lack such a belief. This may apply

to UTM students' self-esteem and oral skills. If they believe they can 'master' the language, they can be better than their friends. If they believe in themselves they will have greater self-esteem and better academic results. As Seligman states further:

> a sense of worth, mastery, or self-esteem cannot be bestowed. It can only be earned. If it is given away, it ceases to be worth having, and it ceases to contribute to individual dignity. If we remove the obstacles, difficulties, anxiety, and competition from the lives of our young people, we may no longer see generations of young people who have a sense of dignity, power, and worth (p. 159).

Students' self-esteem and academic self-image with regard to their abilities in English are believed to affect their motivation and effort in improving their language. This is elaborated by Coopersmith (1967), who concluded that children with high self-esteem came from backgrounds with clear and explicit standards, while children with low self-esteem did not have such standards to measure themselves against. Knowing the students' attitude towards English could help instructors, teachers and lecturers in determining the mode of instruction, to improve the attitude of the students. The findings of this study might be used to re conceptualise the present language attitude of UTM students and also offer an alternative language programme at UTM, based on the students' need. In addition the study will provide answers to some of the questions that have been raised by many educators at UTM.

Alternatively, the controversial conclusion as to whether UTM students are 'second best', and whether a pass in English language should be an entrance requirement are also discussed in this research. As Fishbein and Ajzen state, attitude is the result of the learning process that students undergo (quoted in Anderson, 1988a). Teachers or instructors cannot change the learners' attitude unless they are ready and willing to change themselves. Research to measure the learners' self-esteem and academic self-image in relation to oral English skills can provide useful information to evaluate the effectiveness of the past and

current English curriculum. Based on this information, those who are involved in designing this curriculum can find ways of improving it.

The importance of measuring self-esteem, academic self-image and oral skills of students cannot be denied. It has been said that "behaviours that we call attitudinal are extremely important to the curriculum, and their measurement is important for both the student and the curriculum" (Bloom et at., 1971: 76).

1.4 Objectives of the study

This study is concerned with first year UTM students. It attempts to investigate their Self Esteem, Academic Self Image and Speaking level as well as the relationships between other variables, which include sex, age, ethnic groups, and English SPM score. The study is designed to determine how the spoken skills of first year UTM students' relate to these variables, considered as possible factors in contributing to the differences in their Spoken English achievements. More specifically, the study has the following objectives:

1. The study will investigate the level of Self Esteem, Academic Self Image and Speaking abilities of first year Universiti Teknologi Malaysia students.
2. The study will attempt to determine the relationships between Self Esteem, Academic Self Image and Speaking abilities of these students in relation to sex, age, ethnic groups and English SPM scores.

The study attempts to answer the following questions:

1. What is the level of Self Esteem of first year Universiti Teknologi Malaysia students in general?
2. What is the level of Academic Self Image of first year Universiti Teknologi Malaysia students in general?

3. What is the level of Speaking ability in first year Universiti Teknologi Malaysia students in general?

4. Are there significant differences in Self Esteem between Sex, Age, Ethnicity and English SPM scores for these students?

5. Are there significant differences in Academic Self Image between Sex, Age, Ethnicity and English SPM scores for these students?

6. Are there significant differences in Speaking abilities between Sex, Age, Ethnicity and English SPM scores for these students?

7. Is there any relationship between Academic Self Image and Self-Esteem?

8. Is there any relationship between Self Esteem, Academic Self-image and Speaking?

To operationalize the above questions, the study hypothesises that:

1. Respondents having good English SPM scores have higher Self Esteem.
2. Respondents having good English SPM scores have higher Academic Self Image.
3. Respondents having good English SPM scores have higher Speaking ability.
4. Different sexes show significant differences between Self Esteem, Academic Self Image and Speaking ability.
5. Different ethnic groups show significant differences between Self Esteem, Academic Self Image and Speaking ability.
6. Different ages show significant differences between Self Esteem, Academic Self Image and Speaking ability.
7. There is a significant relationship between Self Esteem and Academic Self Image.
8. There is a significant relationship between Self Esteem and Speaking Ability.
9. There is a significant relationship between Academic Self Image and Speaking ability.

1.2.0 Summary

This chapter has introduced the research problems and highlighted the justification and significance of the study. The objectives of the study are to determine the relationships of self-esteem, academic self-image and speaking abilities with reference to English as a second language of UTM students which are the main focus of this study.

1.3.0 Chapter Outlines

In this section, the chapter outlines of the following six chapters will be given. The Second Chapter gives the literature background of the Malaysian educational system before and after independence. The major purpose of this chapter is to provide background information on the development of the Malaysian Education system and the learning of English. This chapter is divided into four major sections. The first section gives the general historical background of Malaysia, the Government and the people. The second section describes the history of education in Malaysia and shows how the development of the education system after 1946 contributed to changes in educational policy especially towards the English language. The third part discusses the development of the National language in the Malaysian education system after 1957. The shifts and stresses on both Bahasa Malaysia and the English language are shown, especially at the tertiary level. The examination system in Malaysia is also explained in order to illustrate the relationship it has with the entry requirements at tertiary level. This chapter will also provide information on the current status of English in Malaysia. The historical background of UTM is also outlined.

The review of literature is provided in Chapter Three, which concentrates on the theories of language acquisition, self-esteem and self-image. Some past and current theories of language, self, self-image, second language acquisition and the relationship between self-esteem and language performance are discussed to provide a framework for this study.

The Fourth Chapter describes the research methodology, materials and procedures used in this research. The pilot and main study that took place in UTM are discussed and a complete description of the procedures and techniques used for the data analysis are presented. Questionnaires were used to measure Self-Esteem and Academic Self-Image. A Speaking test and interviews were further research techniques employed.

Chapter Five concentrates on the results of this study. The characteristics of the sample are first shown and all statistical tests which are used to analyse the data are presented and discussed. These tests include descriptive statistics, the Pearson product-moment correlation analysis, t-tests, one-way analysis of variance (Anova) and the stepwise multiple regression technique.

Chapter Six focuses on the results of analysing the interviews conducted with the students and lecturers after the questionnaires were given and immediately after the speaking test was conducted. This complements the quantitative data.

Chapter Seven, discusses the results presented in Chapter Five and Six. This chapter is divided into four sections. Section one provides a discussion on the analysis of results generated from Chapter Five and Six. Section two considers the nature of first year UTM students' Self-Esteem, Academic Self-Image, Speaking skills and presents the limitations of the research. The implications and recommendations of the study are discussed in section three and section four draws the conclusions from the study.

Chapter Two: Historical Background of Malaysia: The Development of Education and English Language Teaching (ELT).

This chapter focuses on the historical factors that have shaped the past and the present educational policies before and after Malaysian Independence. It is divided into four major sections. The first section introduces the general information on the Malaysian State and its ethnic composition which is one of the major concerns of this study. The second section is divided into three parts. The first part will provide the history of education in Malaysia before independence. The Malay, Chinese, Indian vernacular education and English Schools are explained. This background on the Malaysian Educational System provides a useful guide to understanding the education policy with regard to language development before independence and will provide insights into the present day attitudes towards language and its possible relation to students' self-esteem and academic self-image. The second part of this section discusses the education system in Malaysia after 1941. It summarises four major reports that have had a major influence in shaping the development of education and language policies in Malaysia. The third part of this section will show how language has played an important role in bringing about uniformity in the Malaysian Education system since independence. It concentrates on education and the role of English at the primary, secondary and tertiary levels. At the same time it provides a history of the examination system in Malaysia. In the third section, education after independence is discussed and the issues of a national language, debated both before and after independence are discussed in detail to show the shift of language policy. In the fourth section the history of Universiti Teknologi Malaysia (UTM) will be outlined. A sample of students preparatory courses and syllabus outlines at UTM will also be provided.

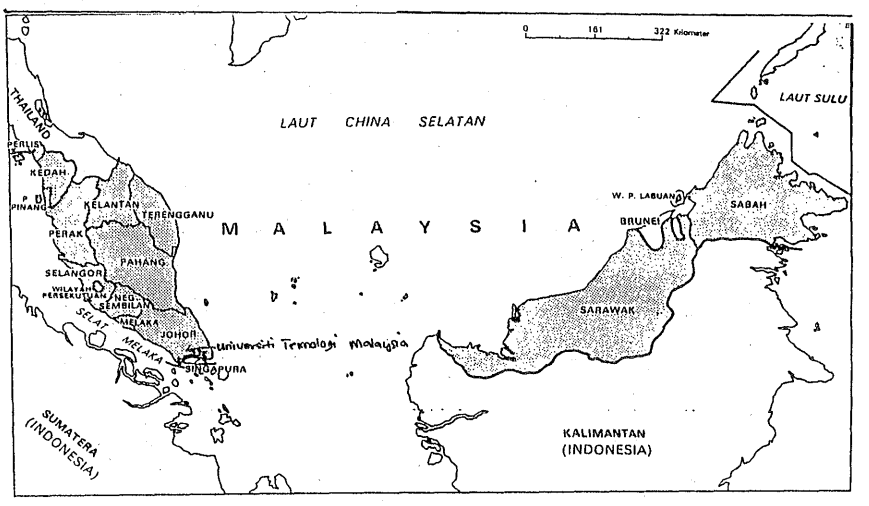
Section I

2.1 Background of Malaysia

The Federation of Malaysia is situated in South East Asia. It is made up of Peninsula or West Malaysia, and East Malaysia which are separated by the South China Sea and comprises of 13 States. Eleven of these States are in Peninsular Malaysia and two are in the East Malaysia. The present research is done in Johore, the southern state of Malaysia (See Figure 1 for the map of Malaysia).

The official language of Malaysia is Bahasa Malaysia, although English is used widely among the population, and Chinese, Tamil and Iban are spoken by minorities. Islam, the official religion, is practised by 53 per cent of the population who are mostly Malays. The remaining 19 per cent are Chinese who follow Buddhism, Indians who are Hindus and a remaining small percentage are Christians, especially in Sabah and Sarawak (The Europa World Year Book, 1995).

Figure 1.



source: Hussin, 1993: 1

2.2 Government

Malaysia is a Constitutional Monarchy with a central parliament consisting of a House of Representatives and a Senate. Each of the 13 states has its own constitution and legislative assembly. The conference of rulers (the Majlis Raja-Raja) consists of 9 hereditary rulers and governors of states without a ruler. Every 5 years it is responsible for electing the King or the Yang Di-Pertuan Agong (Sovereign) and a deputy. The King or monarch acts on the advice of Parliament and the Cabinet. The Conference of Rulers must be consulted on the appointment of judges and other high officials, on alterations to legislation affecting the Muslim religion, on state boundaries and on amendments to the constitution affecting the special position of Malaysia (Encyclopaedia of the Third World 1993). The King appoints the Prime Minister, and, on the latter's recommendation, other ministers to form the Cabinet which is responsible to Parliament. Like the United Kingdom, the appointed Prime Minister is the leader of the party which attains the majority of parliamentary seats in a democratic election.

2.3 Economic Affairs

Malaysia has an export orientated economy. It is the World's largest producer of tin and palm oil, and a leading producer of natural rubber (The Europa World Year Book, 1995). In 1994, manufacturing was Malaysia's largest export sector primarily due to the export of electrical and electronics components. Petroleum and its related products are also important export commodities.

2.4 People

Malaysia has a population of 18.6 million. It is a multi-ethnic and multi-lingual country. The three principal ethnic groups are Malay, Chinese and Indian. For centuries, these ethnic groups have co-existed, maintaining their own language and cultural identity. In 1992, there were 8.7 million Malays and other indigenous groups, 4.6 million Chinese and

1.5 million Indians in Peninsular Malaysia (Europa World Year Book, 1995-See Table 2.1.0 for details of the ethnic groups). These three main ethnic groups comprise the ethnicity variable in this study (see Chapter 5).

Table 2.1.0
PRINCIPAL ETHNIC GROUPS
(estimates, 000 persons at 30 June 1991)

	Peninsular Malaysia	Sabah	Sarawak
Malays and other indigenous groups	8,744.9	1,322.9	1,215.8
Chinese	4,640.3		
Indians	1,462.3	206.5	493.0
Others	93.3		
Total	14,942.7	1,529.4	1,708.8

At the beginning of the 19th century, the demographic segregation between these ethnic groups was very obvious, with Malays found predominantly in rural areas, Chinese in urban areas and Indians mainly living and working in plantations. However, over the years this situation has slowly changed, especially with the migration of Malays from rural to urban areas (Andaya and Andaya, 1982).

The Malays are the major indigenous group of Malaysia. According to the constitution they are defined as those who are Muslims, have Malay as their mother tongue and have certain Malay cultural characteristics. As the 'Bumiputra', or 'Sons of the Earth', they possess certain constitutional privileges. Traditionally, they lived as farmers in the rural areas or as fishermen in coastal areas, in very close communities. The Malays were described by the Government of the United States (1965) as unassertive, without the ambition to accumulate wealth compared to the Malaysian Chinese. Presumably, the Malays were assumed to have

low self-esteem and low self-image. Little attention was paid to the development of language in Malaysia. To them, earning a decent living as farmers and fishermen was more important than having high communication skills.

The Chinese, on the other hand, had been arriving in Malaysia as traders since the 14th century. However, the largest Chinese immigration took place at the end of the 19th century. Encouraged by the British Government, large numbers of Chinese people arrived to work in the tin-mines and the urban ports. They now tend to live in urban areas. In clans and voluntary associations, they have always emphasised the importance of their language and education as well as their cultural heritage. The Chinese are proclaimed to be "economically aggressive since social status among them depends solely on wealth" (McGhee, 1964: 68). Apparently at this stage, the Chinese seemed to possess high self-esteem and self-image and paid moderate attention to the importance of English probably due to the emphasised of their language and education as well as their cultural heritage.

The introduction of rubber by the British towards the end of the 19th century led to the arrival of a large number of Indians in Malaya. This was partly due to the fact that Malaya was ruled by the British from India. The Indians provided a labour force for the rubber plantations. Most of these Indians were Tamils from South India. However, this population also included Sikhs, Muslims and Christians from elsewhere in India. With the majority of Indians working in the plantations, they generally lacked the social and economic strengths of the Chinese and the Malays. There is said to be a high correlation between race and occupation in Malaysia (Jesudason, 1989). Malays dominate agriculture (73.2 per cent), and the Chinese monopolise the mining and manufacturing industries (17.6 per cent), and commerce (16.5 per cent). On the other hand, the Indians form the highest percentage of plantation workers (48.0 per cent). However, at this stage, it is too early to assume that certain ethnic groups might possess low or high self-esteem, academic self-

image or oral skills based on occupation. Furthermore, it is not the focus of this study to examine the relationship between occupation and ethnic composition. The study concentrates on the relationship between self-esteem, academic self-image and oral skills of ethnic groups without taking into account the occupation of their parents. Further discussion on the ethnic groups of the study will be provided in Chapter 5 and issues relating to self-esteem, academic self-image, oral skills and ethnic composition in Chapter 7.

Section II

2.1.0 History of Education in Malaysia

Historical factors have had a major influence in shaping the development of education and language policies in Malaysia. The discussion which follows will be divided into three parts. The first part provides information on Malay, Chinese and Indian Vernacular Education and on English medium schools with the intention of showing the relationship of these schools to the attitudes of students in relation to their language, self-esteem and academic self-image. The second part discusses the education system before independence and referring particularly to four major reports and their effect on the comprehensive education system in Malaysia. This part provides useful information on the development of language policy in Malaysia. The third part discusses the national language and education system after independence at all levels with further elaboration on the examinations system in Malaysia. These three parts provide important information regarding the possible answers to the objectives of this study (see Chapter 1 for the objectives of this study and Chapter 7 for further discussion).

Part I

2.2.0 Education in British Malaya before Independence: Before 1945

The earliest British residence in the Malay States started as an indirect form of British rule and followed no particular system. The British were responsible for giving 'advice' to the Malay rulers in Penang as early as 1786 (1819 in Singapore and 1824 in Malacca), however, with Malaya showing great potential for economic growth, British rule expanded into the whole of Malaya and Borneo by signing treaties with the local rulers.

The spread of Islam before the arrival of the Europeans, however, was responsible for the development of informal education in the Malay states, consisting of small religious classes which taught the Quran and the Islamic religion. Normally, the heads of the 'Kampung' (village) were responsible for this teaching, which was conducted mostly at the Mosque or at home. In the 18th Century, religious studies became increasingly popular as a result of the migration of people from the Middle East to Malaya for business. Later, "Sistem Pondok" (small village system) was introduced, and Religious Studies were taught for children and on a weekly basis for adults (Awang Had, 1977). This has had great influence on present attitudes towards the Bahasa Malaysia language especially among the Malays. Further discussion will be provided in Chapter 7 regarding this issue.

The building and maintenance of modern schools was at first a result of voluntary work by individuals or groups, which included religious missionary communities. However, the British became interested in education in Malaya in order to meet their commercial and administrative labour requirements, leading to the British policy of vernacular education at the end of 19th century, a policy which varied according to the British needs and their perception of the roles of the various communities (Lebar, 1993). The researcher believes this has contributed greatly in building UTM students' self-esteem, self-image and language development at present time.

2.2.1 Malay Vernacular Education

The British always stressed that the Malay culture and their way of life must not be disturbed. They perceived that the Malays would be happy to continue as fishermen and farmers. In confirmation of this ethos, and as a token of their 'gratitude', the British set up the Malay vernacular schools. The first Malay vernacular school was opened in Kelang in September 1875 (The Report of Superintendent of Police and Treasure to Resident, 1988). This was restricted to primary education, with the aim of fulfilling the basic socialisation of Malay children in the village. Generally, their reluctance to interfere with the Malay way of life led to a refusal by the British administration to accept the request for the introduction of the teaching of English in Malay schools in 1920 (Loh, 1975). Even though the progress of Malay schools was satisfactory, especially after 1900, no further programmes were initiated to raise the standard of Malay schools. At this time Malay vernacular education was mainly limited to primary education and was seen as stagnant with limited possibilities for long term improvements (Awang Had, 1977). The Malays who had received education from the British at schools until 1945 could only be qualified to be primary school teachers and at this stage, the Malay attitude was basically indifferent towards English. However, the question of whether this attitude remains and whether affects students' self-esteem and self-image at present will be discussed in Chapter 7.

2.2.2 Chinese Vernacular Education

In the mid 19th century, large numbers of Chinese from China settled in Malaysia. Through the efforts of individuals and Chinese associations, usually through donations, Chinese vernacular schools were established (Wong and Ee, 1975), primarily to ensure the preservation of their way of life, culture and language. The first Chinese school was opened in Malacca in 1815. The curriculum in these schools was based on the idealism of mainland China. In fact, the books and teachers came from China and strongly emphasised

the Chinese classics. To this end, the Chinese government sent inspection teams, provided grants and commissioned reports (Purcell, 1948).

At first, total freedom was given to the Chinese schools by the British. The first Chinese vernacular school to introduce the new teaching subjects of Confucianism and science was opened in Kuala Lumpur in 1900. Soon the British began to realise that these schools were too strongly influenced by developments in China, and had become a medium for spreading anti-British propaganda and needed to be controlled. Eventually, this led to the Ordinance of School Registration in 1920 which gave mandatory powers to the Ministry of Education to control all decisions concerning Chinese schools and teachers. By 1940, these schools were thought to be a source of anti-British activity and communism and thus needed to be regulated, either through financial controls or by the introduction of English-based education (Kok, 1978). This was introduced in the face of protest from the Chinese community, from qualified teachers from China and from the Chinese government itself (Lebar, 1993). However, the extent to which emphasis on Chinese literature affects the present students' self-esteem, self-image and attitude towards language will be discussed in Chapter 7.

2.2.3 Indian Vernacular Education

The opening of coffee and rubber estates in the 19th century forced the British to invite Indians to migrate to Malaya to work in the plantations (Furnival, 1948). In an attempt to make the Indians stay the British set up Tamil schools in every plantation in which they worked. For this reason, Tamil schools started after the opening of the Penang Free School. Most Tamil schools were built initially by Christian missionaries or owners of plantations where the Indian workers were hired. Only after 1900 did the British sponsor Tamil schools in order to ensure that the Tamils stayed on in the plantations (Furnival, 1948). This policy was similar to that in Ceylon (The System of Education, 1905).

Tamil schools were administrated similarly to Chinese schools, and all the books and teachers were imported from India. In order to ensure that Tamil medium schools were established, the Labour Code of 1923 was passed. It required every estate-owner with 10 or more children to provide their workers with teachers and schools for their children. However, this code did not set a minimum standard of education or a minimum quality for the buildings. Although there was enormous linguistic diversity among the Indian immigrants, Tamil education was preferred by the British, who limited it to the elementary level. This was in keeping with the Malay vernacular education in which there were no prospects for long term improvements. However, unlike the Malay schools, the Tamil schools had no power to recommend their own curricula, and therefore these schools gradually declined (Lebar, 1993).

Further discussion on the students' self-esteem, self-image and oral communication skills will be provided in Chapter 7 as their self-esteem, academic self-image and oral skills are open to question.

2.2.4 English Medium Schools

The English medium schools had started as early as 1548 when a Catholic school was opened in Malacca by the Portuguese. However British missionaries opened the first English medium school in Singapore in 1815 and in Penang in 1816. These were opened to all, and received grant aid from the British Government. Compared to vernacular education, the English medium schools were better organised and were more highly developed. Students who came from these schools managed to enter into white collar employment, rather than manual labour (Koh, 1967).

Those responsible for the establishment of English medium schools were mainly missionaries, voluntary organisations or private benefactors. This was because they were

encouraged to do so by the British government who did not have enough resources to provide education for the whole of Malaya (Chelliah, 1960). The largest group of founders were Christian missionaries such as Catholics, Methodists, and other Protestants groups who promoted religious and moral education, primarily in urban areas. As a majority of Chinese students lived in urban areas, whereas the Malays and Indians tended to live in rural areas, the Chinese benefited most from these schools (Sandhu, 1976). Another reason for the lack of Malays in English medium schools was that the Christian missionaries were prohibited from converting the Malays by the government (Watson, 1984). Malays feared that an English education might lead to conversion to Christianity (Asmah, 1983).

Towards the beginning of the 19th century more English schools were opened by the government after the success of education in English. Again, these schools were located in urban areas (Wong and Ee, 1971) and followed the British policy of protecting Islam in the Malay states (Asmah, 1983). However, this further reduced opportunities for the Malays and Indians in the rural areas.

In 1905, with the establishment of the Malay College in Kuala Lumpur, the children of the Malay royal family began to receive education in English. This was mainly due to the British perception that only upper class Malay children could become rulers of their country. The implication was that even though the Malay commoners began to gain an interest in education in English, the aim of the British policy was not to train them to be professionals in any field but rather to remain farmers and fishermen (Asmah, 1983). In addition, urban Malays who were educated in English "should not achieve a status beyond that of clerks, typists and office boys" (ibid.: 230). However, special Malay classes were set up to cater for exceptional Malay children. These were of two years duration and began after four years of Malay-medium primary education. Satisfactory progress at this level

would qualify the students to continue their education in English medium schools. The implication of this policy towards the students' self-esteem, academic self-image and attitude towards English language will be elaborated in Chapter 7.

Based on the British education system, English medium education was divided into primary, middle, and secondary levels (see Sections 2.5.1 - 2.5.4). A good pass in the English paper in the Cambridge Local Examination, introduced in 1891, and was considered a stepping stone in achieving government related jobs. The establishment of the Singapore Medical School in 1905 further provided the Malays with access to higher education in English medium education. To this end, Raffles College was founded in 1949 (Wong and Ee, 1971) and a branch campus of this college was established in Kuala Lumpur in 1957. This later became the University of Malaya. It required candidates to pass the School Certificate Examination with credits in English and three other subjects before being admitted. This policy has been adopted by many universities even though a pass in English is no longer compulsory to gain entrance.

Part II

2.3.0 Education in Malaya between 1941 - 1945

During Japanese rule (1941-1946) all Malay and Tamil school children were taught Japanese. Japanese culture was incorporated into the curriculum to instil Japanese values. At this time, Malay was used in primary schools but it was replaced by Japanese. In Tamil schools, both Japanese and Tamil were used, while in English and Chinese schools Malay and Japanese were used.

2.4.0 Education in Malaya after 1946

Currently, Malaysia consists of various ethnic, linguistic and cultural groups yet the country has created a meaningful and cohesive society. However, this diversity has also

produced an essential problem. After Japanese rule, the Malays realised the need to upgrade their education system which was not properly accessible to the populations. Accordingly, steps were taken to use Malay or English at the primary level to promote national unity. However, the recommendation to use English was rejected by the Federal Legislative Council. There were several problems, most of which concerned Communism (mainly associated with Chinese nationalism), communal political tensions and Malay nationalism. The British recognised the fact that these problems needed to be resolved, especially in the light of the rise of Malay nationalism and the British Government realised that independence would have to be given sooner or later. To this end, steps were taken to prepare for the transition of power and to create circumstances for a Malaysian nation (Hussin, 1993).

In the end, several commissions sat and reports on education were compiled to resolve the problem of the education system and the problems of individual ethnic groups. For example, the Barnes committee was a direct response by the British government to dissatisfaction with the quality of education provided in vernacular education.

These reports which include the Barnes Report, the Fenn-Wu Report, the Razak Report and the Rahman Talib Report are important in showing the shifts in language policy which led to major changes in the Malaysian educational system. The major purposes of this section are to show how these reports have changed the Malaysian schooling system up to the present time; to show how Tamil and Chinese become a third language choice in Malaysia (after Bahasa Malaysia and English) and ; to illustrate their possible consequences on exam attainment, attitude and proficiency of students towards English.

2.4.1 The Barnes Report (1951)

The committee headed by L.J. Barnes, referred to as the Barnes Report, was responsible for examining the whole of Malay education system. The report recommended that the aim of basic education was to form a pluralistic society, consisting of several racial groups. It recommended that Malay, Chinese and Indian vernacular schools should be abolished and replaced by a single type of school, the 'Sekolah Kebangsaan' (state school). This led to a withdrawal of aid, particularly to the Chinese and Tamil schools. The report recommended bilingualism in Malay and English and led to more post-primary education being conducted in English. The report recognised the importance of the link between language and national unity and recommended that the Malay language should be the only oriental language taught.

However, the pride of the Chinese in their language and culture gave rise to manifestations of Chinese nationalism. The Barnes Report was contested by this community as it was seen as a threat to Chinese language education. Therefore, a study of Chinese education was commissioned in the Fenn-Wu Report (Federation of Malaya, 1951b). Even after this report, Chinese schools were still placed under restrictions, as the British continued to see them as a source of anti-British sentiment and communist ideology.

2.4.2 The Fenn-Wu Report (1951)

The Fenn-Wu Committee was commissioned to accommodate Chinese protests. Not only did it recommend the retention of Chinese as the language of Chinese schools, it also recommended that Chinese vernacular schools introduce English in the third year and Malay in the fifth year (Lebar, 1993). This would allow the integration of these schools into the proposed national system, and at the same time, integrate Chinese texts into the curricula with an emphasis on national orientation. Since the Chinese were willing to consolidate Malay and English aid was given to the Chinese schools, and a further

development of teacher education was considered. To this end, the Nanyang University in Singapore was established in 1956 as a direct result of the Fenn-Wu Report in recognition of the need for a Chinese language university.

2.4.3 The Education Ordinant 1952

A committee was later formed to discuss and blend the Barnes and Fenn-Wu Reports. As a result, the Education Ordinant was issued in 1952. It proposed that Tamil and Chinese should be taught as third languages. However, Tamil and Chinese schools would still not be accepted in the National system. This ordinant was not successful in achieving its objective and received strong objections from the Indian and Chinese communities.

Language still remains a sensitive issue in Malaysia and the existence of four languages threatens to break up Malaysian society, and it is far from a united nation. Yet, as Mohamad (1970: 142) has argued "the education policy of any country, apart from its function of imparting and promoting knowledge, is invariably a means of instilling into the minds of future citizens a sense of oneness, loyalty and pride in the country". The development of education in Malaya along 'extra-national' lines whereby "any type of school was allowed, every language medium was used, every curriculum permitted" (ibid.: 144), Malaya was faced with an educational dilemma.

The choice of national language became crucial. In 1952 the Alliance Party was constituted made up of the organisations of the main three ethnic groups : United Malay National Organisation (UMNO), the Malayan Chinese Association (MCA) and the Malayan Indian Congress (MIC). These organisations agreed upon citizenship and voting rights for the Indian and Chinese communities and simultaneously acknowledged the economic status of the Chinese in business, the acceptance of Malay kings as rulers, Islam as the official religion and Malay as the national language (Lebar, 1993). Education was looked upon as

the major means of creating national unity. Educational issues continued to be debated until September 1955 when a committee, headed by Abdul Razak was formed to report on the education system.

2.4.4 The Razak Report (1956)

The objectives of the Razak Report was to: discuss the dissatisfaction among the people; to place extra emphasis on language as an integral part of the national education policy; and produce schools that would accentuate and instil the values of unity and nationalism. The committee also had the responsibility of maintaining and guarding the language of each ethnic group. This was to ensure the development of individual languages. Even though the Constitution of Malaya at Independence in 1957 required Malay to be the national language, flexibility was practised and both English and Malay were recommended as official languages for a 10 year period. Thereafter, Malay would be the only official medium of instruction. However, bilingualism was advocated freely with Indian and Chinese students learning Malay, and Malays being encouraged to learn English with the objective of creating one national education system which would be consolidated through the use of the national language. Mohamad concluded, "the education system is always single and national" (1970: 143).

The Razak Report suggested: the introduction of a single national education system to promote national unity, one language as the backbone of uniformity; one standard examination to qualify students for further education and job advancement; and the stratification of technical education. Malay and English would be compulsory subjects in all schools; Indian and Chinese children would be allowed to learn their languages in government-funded English medium schools provided there was a minimum number of 15 children and that parents requested it. All teachers were to be organised into one professional organisation.

As a direct result, education at secondary level was divided into three sub-levels: lower secondary level, upper secondary level and pre-university (2 years-see Sections 2.5.1-2.5.5). In addition, four standard national examinations were conducted at Standard 6, Lower Certificate of Examination (LCE/SRP) at lower secondary level (Form III), the Malayan Certificate of Education (MCE/SPM) at upper secondary level (Form V) and the Higher Certificate of Education (HSC/STPM) at pre-university level (Form VI). Finally, all examinations were held in English until 1960, when the Lower Certificate of Examination (LCE) was also conducted in Malay (referred to as Sijil Rendah Pelajaran-SRP) as was the Higher Certificate of Education in 1962 (referred to as Sijil Tinggi Pelajaran-STPM) (Lebar, 1993). Further discussion will be provided in section 2.5.2 of this chapter.

Unfortunately, the Razak Report had plenty of loopholes and has dis-satisfied many parties. The report was not specific about the medium of instruction. This meant that although Malay and English were compulsory subjects at secondary level they did not have to be used as the medium of instruction during classes. Therefore, language remained the major issue during the 1960s. As a direct result of UMNO-Alliance Party failure in the 1950 election the government promised to evaluate the Razak Report and find an alternative.

Another failing of the Razak Report was its inconsistency on the issue of language to be used at primary school level where all languages were still taught. For this reason, high drop-out rates were experienced as a result of the education policy of maintaining and stressing the quality of secondary education. Moreover, Malays were still far behind with only one school developed specifically for them in the 1960s in each state. Because each ethnic group was allowed to send their children to their own mother-tongue schools, all four types of school (English, Malay, Chinese and Tamil) still used their own languages at

primary level, even though one standard education system was established. This led to the official language not being standardised.

2.4.5 The Rahman Talib Report (1960)

The Rahman Talib Report, which was compiled under the supervision of Rahman Talib with three MCA members, one MIC and four UMNO members, was aimed at assessing the Razak Report. The main issue discussed was the national education system. The report upheld the same educational objectives as the Razak Report, but concluded that education in different languages was not needed either at primary or secondary levels. The Razak Report had permitted secondary schools to use either two languages as their medium of instruction, but the Rahman Report stressed that only one language should be used at all levels. The Rahman Report further revealed the instability of the Malay language in the education system, emphasised the use of English in schools. Major changes were put into immediate effect and Malay was used as the medium of instruction, practised at all levels. However, at the same time no restriction was put on the use of other languages and literatures (Federation of Malaya, 1960).

The report also recommended that all four standard examinations (The Standard 6 Examination, the LCE/SRP, the MCE/SPM and the HSE/STPM should be conducted in only two official languages thus guaranteeing that schools would soon have to switch to one of the two language mediums.

Other recommendations implemented after the Rahman Talib report included the abolition of primary school fees and reform of examinations. All secondary school examinations were to be conducted in one official language. There would be more training of Malay language teachers (Lebar, 1993).

The Rahman Talib Report was the foundation of the Education Act of 1961. In the same year Chinese medium secondary school education in state type schools was abolished (State here is also equivalent to National type school). By 1962, 57 Chinese schools had been accorded State type schools. However, English medium instruction in the State type schools was retained (Andaya and Andaya, 1982).

Under Article 152 (1) of the Malayan Constitution, 1957, as a result of a compromise between the various community leaders, Malay was chosen as the national, official language of Malaysia. 'Official language' was to mean "a language which is used in government administration (viz., in the writing of reports and minutes of meetings, in correspondence, meetings, interviews etc.) and official ceremonies (speeches, announcements, taking of vows, pledges etc.)" (Asmah, 1983: 230). However under the constitution no one was restricted or forbidden from using, teaching or learning any other language (Article 152).

2.4.6 Effect of the Rahman Talib Report and Formation of Malaysia

As a direct result of the Rahman Talib Report technical schools at secondary level began to accept LCE and SRP holders and mushroomed widely. In 1963, the Alam Shah Secondary School, the first secondary boarding school using Malay as the medium of instruction, was opened. However, in 1964, the People's Action Party campaigned for Chinese, Tamil and English to become additional official languages of Malaysia. In 1967, when the 10 year period of using English as official language drew to an end, Chinese militants protested against the choice of Malay as the sole official language. The use of English as a medium was extended until 1973, but Malay became the only official language after the passing of the National Language Act in 1967. As Mohamad (1970: 143) has concluded, "the language of medium is of extreme importance in creating a feeling of oneness, and so the medium of instruction is always that of the definite race". However,

the Indian and Chinese communities continually protested about the issue of education and language. These protests were fuelled when the Malays were given special rights and the Indian and Chinese communities demanded that the same privileges be given to them, while at the same time they determined to "remain Chinese and Indians" (Ratnam, 1948).

The state of Malaysia was formed in 1963 and consisted of Malaya, Singapore, Sabah and Sarawak. Language remained an issue to be debated by the Indian and Chinese communities. The Malays, on the other hand, strongly believed that "at least one aspect of their culture should be adopted by the other ethnic groups" (Andaya and Andaya, 1982: 278). The Malays, feeling threatened, tried to protect their rights much to the grievance of the Indians and Chinese communities. Malays protested that the Chinese controlled major business, banking, insurance and import/export firms (Watson, 1984). As Mohamad (1970: 50) reflected, "in business, being established is all-important. The Chinese are established, and have so penetrated all the retail business and most of the wholesale business, that they can dictate terms in the marketing of anything. It behoves everyone with anything to sell to deal with the Chinese".

Accordingly, after independence, the Malays tried to extend their skills in every field. However:

> although the Malays have managed to enter the economic field, they have never been able to, and can never hope to [,] catch up with the Chinese. Even as Independence brought the Malays increased opportunities which have propelled them so far ahead as to make the entry of the Malays into business almost ridiculously insignificant. The Malay economic dilemma is still unsolved and seems likely to remain so (Mohamad, 1970: 50).

Political tensions between the ethnic groups became high. For this reason, Singapore separated from the Federation of Malaysia in 1965 because of inter-ethnic violence (Andaya

and Andaya, 1982) with which the Indian and Chinese communities were increasingly subjecting the government over the choice of national language, the education system and the states of Malays. Table 2.2.0 represents the national language schedule in West Malaysia in 1970 showing that the subjects to be taught in Bahasa Malaysia in state English primary schools included Art and Craft, Physical and Health Education, Local Studies, Music, Bahasa Malaysia and Islamic Religious Knowledge.

Table 2.2.0: The Time-Schedule for the implementation of the teaching of Bahasa Malaysia of all subjects other than the English Language and the Pupils' Own Languages in National-Type English Schools.

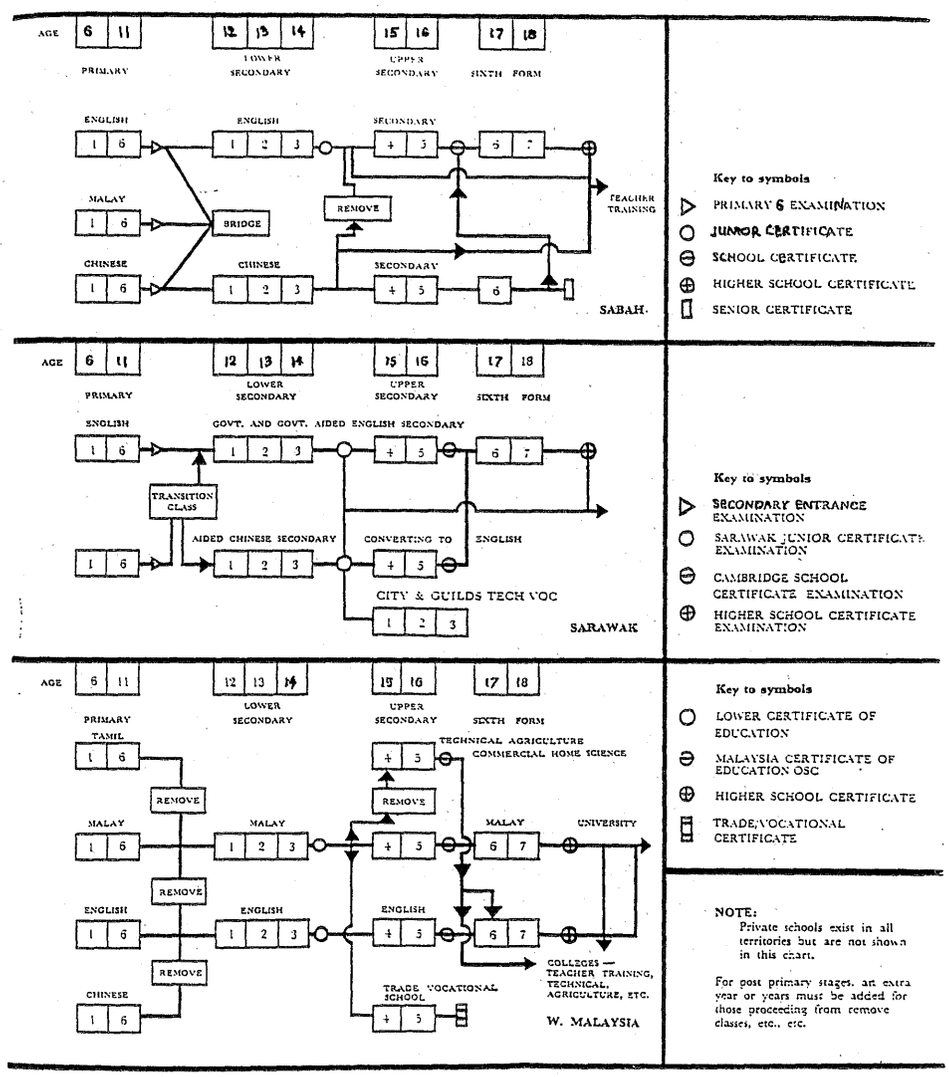
Year	Subjects to be taught in Bahasa Malaysia	Primary Level
1970	In all subjects other than English Language.	Standard 6
1971	In all subjects other than English Language and Pupils' Own Languages.	Standard 5
1972	-ditto-	Standard 4
	-ditto-	
1973	-ditto-	Standard 3
1974		Standard 2
1975		Standard 1
		Secondary Level
1976	-ditto-	Form I
1977	-ditto-	Form II
1978	-ditto-	Form III
	Sijil Rendah Pelajaran Examination only, 1978.	
1979	-ditto-	Form IV
1980	-ditto-	Form V
	Sijil Pelajaran Malaysia Examination only, 1980	
1981	-ditto-	Form VI (Lower)
1982	-ditto-	
	Sijil Tinggi Persekolahan Examination only, 1982	Form VI (Upper)

Source: Wong and Ee, 1971: 174.

2.4.7 Comprehensive Education

In 1964, the government introduced Comprehensive Education after the government abolished the National Standard Six Examination and all children were automatically promoted to Form One or Remove classes at the early stage of secondary level. Such Remove classes were largely for pupils who had attended Chinese or Tamil medium primary schools to ease the transfer to Malay medium secondary schools. In addition, from Form One students were to receive comprehensive education for three years. This was done: to help children receive appropriate skills relevant to the needs of society in vocational education; and to ensure that all children received equivalent education for jobs in related fields, enabling children who received nine years of education to continue their education in vocational skills and add variety to the lower primary and secondary schools. With the introduction of comprehensive education between 1965-1970, streaming of students lower primary secondary level increased. Vocational education was in high demand and the Teacher Workshop College were opened in 1969, which later became the Teacher Technical College in Kuala Lumpur (Lebar, 1993). Table 2.3.0 shows the complete Malaysian Education Pattern in 1971 in West and East Malaysia for the Chinese, Malay, English and Tamil schools.

Table 2.3.0 - Malaysian Education Pattern in 1971.



Source: Wong and Ghee, 1971: 46.

Part III

2.5.0 National Language and Education System After Independence

After Independence, the main goal of the Government to unify its pluralistic society by making education and language its highest priority. Accordingly, in 1960, it was made possible for all Malay secondary students to take LCE in Malay. This move coincided with the opening of the first Malay secondary school in Kuala Lumpur. Even missionaries were helping to increase the standard of the teaching of Malay (Haron, 1980). By 1970, Malay now known as Bahasa Malaysia, was recognised as functionally equivalent to the English language (Lebar, 1993) and it was widely used in all English secondary schools, including those in Sabah and Sarawak (refer to Table 2.2.0).

The general system of education in Malaysia is divided into four stages:
The Primary level- Standards 1- 6 (6 years): 6 - 11 years old
The Lower Secondary Level- Forms 1 - 3 (2 years): 12 -14 years old
The Upper Secondary Level- Forms 4-5 (2 years): 15 - 16 years old
The Post Secondary Level- Lower/Upper Sixth (2 years): 17-18 years old
The next section will discuss this system in detail.

2.5.1 Primary Education

Primary education now starts at the age of 6 for all children and comprises 6 years of education. It is free for all pupils and promotion is automatic. These schools cater for two or more language streams to enable the pupils to come together under one roof so as to facilitate joint participation in games and extra-curriculum activities (Wong and Ghee, 1971). However, since 1988 parents who earn more than $700.00 a month have been required to buy text books for their children. There exist three types of state schools: Malay medium schools- "Sekolah Rendah Kebangsaan" (SRK), Chinese medium primary school - "Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Cina"- (SRJKC), and Indian medium primary

school - "Sekolah Rendah Jenis Kebangsaan Tamil" (SRJKT). Both English and Bahasa Malaysia are taught at this level. In Standard Six, pupils are required to sit for a standard national examination called the Primary Assessment Examination (Ujian Pencapaian Sekolah Rendah - UPSR). Even though pupils from state Malay medium, Chinese and Indian medium primary school (SRK, SRJKC/T) are automatically promoted to Form One (Lower Secondary Level), those who do not pass with 4As in Bahasa Malaysia, Chinese/Tamil, English and Mathematics will have to attend a one year "Remove Class" (Lebar, 1993). See Table 2.3.0 on Education Patterns in Malaysia in 1971.

2.5.2 Lower Secondary Education (Forms I - III)

Automatic entrance to the lower secondary level from Standard Six began in 1965. The age of entry for this lower secondary level was 11 years old and the medium of instruction was Malay. After three years, the students sit for the Malaysian Lower Certificate of Examination (LCE) or Sijil Rendah Pelajaran (SRP) which was also conducted in Malay. Students who passed the LCE, or SRP, had the option of either entering the post comprehensive classes, vocational schools and technical schools at the upper secondary level, or searching for employment (Wong and Ee, 1971). In addition, Home Economics has now been added to the syllabus and has become a compulsory subjects for girls, while boys at this level choose between commerce or art subjects.

2.5.3 Upper Secondary Education (Forms IV - V)

The basic education at the upper secondary level is for two years. At this level, students are streamed according to ability, interest and aptitude, into arts, science, technical or commercial subjects. At the end of the two year period, students sit for the Malaysian Certificate of Education Examination (MCE), or Sijil Pelajaran Malaysia (SPM). Those who succeed continue to post secondary education or university level depending on their

results. Those who fail enter the Institute of Technology of Malaysia (ITM for Malay students only), which is subsidised by the government, or seek employment.

Students who attend the Vocational schools at this upper secondary level, which prepare courses in mechanical, commerce, home economics or workshop practice, sit for the Malaysian Certificate of Vocational Examination (SPVM). Successful students in this exam can pursue technical courses at either polytechnic or university level.

Students who attend Technical Schools straight after lower secondary level pursue technical courses for two years before preparing for the MCE or SPM. Those who make the grade proceed to the Institute of Technology of Malaysia, to polytechnics, to the University of Technology of Malaysia (UTM) or pre-University courses.

2.5.4 Post Secondary Education (Forms VI - VII)

At this post secondary level, students attend a two year course, of which the first year is called the lower post secondary level (Form VI) and the second year is called the upper post secondary level (Form VII). During this period, students are divided into Arts, Science, Technical and Arabic classes according the their results at MCE/SPM levels. After two years at post secondary level, students prepare for the Higher Certificate of Education (HSE) or the Sijil Tinggi Pelajaran Malaysia (STPM). Successful students proceed to the local universities or abroad according to their ability, interest and aptitude. Those who fail this exam can enter Teachers' College or seek employment. By 1990 there were 6,828 primary schools and 1,342 secondary schools in Malaysia.

Table 2.4.0 - Government-assisted schools 1990

	Establishments	Teachers	Students
Total primary	6,828	120,025	2,447,206
Total secondary	1,342	73,395	1,374,564
of which:			
Academic secondary	1,261	69,493	1,335,377
Vocational secondary	57	2,570	24,845
Technical secondary	9	392	5,846
MARA junior science colleges	15	940	8,496
Institutes of Higher Education:			
Teacher-training colleges	28	2,183	23,006
Universities	7	5,250	55,248
Polytechnics and colleges	9	2,670	39,013
Total higher	44	10,103	117,267

Note: In Sabah, in 1990, there were 962 primary establishments (with 236,619 students), 126 secondary establishments (including 7 vocational schools) and four teacher-training colleges. In Sarawak, in 1990, there were 1,266 primary establishments (with 223,348 students). 128 secondary establishments (including 5 vocational schools) and three teacher-training colleges. In 1989 there were 447 private secondary schools, with a total of 115,903 students (Source: Ministry of Education).
Pre-primary (1991): 6,502 schools: 10,918 teachers: 372,767 pupils (males 189,435; females 183,332).
Primary (1991): 6,922 schools; 126,139 teachers; 2,540,623 pupils (males 1,305,589: females 1,235,034).
General secondary (1991): 76,007 teachers: 1,450,311 pupils (males 717,035: females 733,276).
Vocational (1991): 3,129 teachers: 32,219 pupils (males 23,895: females 8,324)
Source; UNESCO, Statistical Yearbook.

2.5.5 Tertiary Education

In Malaysia, students who excel in the National Examination, or more specifically in the HSE, gain entry to local universities through the 'Unit Pusat University' (UPU). The UPU processes all applications to local universities. There are also preparatory matriculation courses for pre-university students. The duration of study at the tertiary level is from 3 to 6 years depending on the course. There are also some 'out-of-campus' courses offered by some local universities (for example the University of Penang) for those who are working. Most local universities hold courses at PhD, Masters, Bachelors and Diploma levels. There are 9 Universities at present in Malaysia. They are:

1. University of Malaya (UM) established in 1959
2. University of Penang (USM) established in 1969
3. National University of Malaysia (UKM) established in 1970
4. University of Agriculture (UPM) established in 1971

5. University of Technology Malaysia (UTM) established in 1972
6. International Islamic University (UIA) established in 1983
7. University of Northern Malaysia (UUM) established in 1993
8. University of Sarawak (UNIMAS) established in 1993
9. University of Sabah (UMS) established in 1995

English was used as the medium of instruction at this tertiary level until 1982 when Bahasa Malaysia replaced the English language. In the 7 universities established in 1990, there were 5, 250 teachers and 55,248 students, while at the Polytechnics and Colleges, there were 2, 670 teachers and 39, 013 students (See Table 2.4.0). In 1992, 32,219 candidates were chosen to enrol at the tertiary level with UM enrolling 3,202, USM 4,152, UPM, 3,591, UKM 2,992, UTM, 2,715, UIA 3,575 and UUM 3,400 (Rashidah, 1992).

The history of tertiary levels education goes as far back as the expansion of English schools in Malaya when British were forced to build more colleges to provide higher education in response to local demand (refer to Section 2.2.4). To realise the dream of providing better education for the people, the Medical School was officially opened in Singapore in 1905 and began to produce professionals in this field. The establishment of this University was in response to the demands of the Chinese, who wanted more doctors to cater for the needs of their own people. In 1912, this Medical School became the King Edward VII Medical School and in 1920 it was promoted to College status. However, this college was populated entirely by Chinese students and other ethnic minority. The British had been pressured into opening schools and colleges for the Malays, and in 1905, the Kuala Kangsar Malay College was opened. In addition, in 1906 a Technical School was founded in Selangor and an Anglo-Chinese School in Ipoh.

In 1929, Raffles College was launched with English, History, Geography, Economics, Mathematics, Chemistry and Physics as its main subjects. However, the certificate received from this College was not recognised as a University degree. For this reason, in 1949, the University of Malaya was opened in Singapore and it conferred degree status to holders of these certificates (the University of Malaya was the amalgamation of Raffles College and the Medical College). Another branch of this University was opened in Kuala Lumpur in 1959 to provide a university for local people. However, they wanted a university that was totally separate from Singapore, so in 1962 University of Malaya in Kuala Lumpur and Singapore University separated. The University of Malaya used English as the medium of instruction and in 1970, due to the demands of the Malays, the National University of Malaysia (UKM) was opened using Malay as the medium of instruction (Lebar, 1993). Table 2.5.0 shows that by 1989 there were 3,862 564 students in higher institutions in Malaysia (a total number of 1, 965 975 males and 1,896 589 females). Refer to Table 1 in Appendix 2 for comparison of male and female student numbers in UTM for 1993/94.

Table 2.5.0 - Enrolment in Government Assisted Educational Institutions by Grade and Level of Education in Malaysia 1989.

Level of Education	Male	Female	Total	Enrolment
University Malaya	5013 (47.3%)	5581 (52.7%)	10594	0.3%
University of Science Malaysia	6229 (54.7%)	5150 (45.3)	11379	0.3%
National University of Malaysia	5765 (50.1%)	5742 (49.9%)	11507	0.3%
University of Agriculture Malaysia	4270 (57.4%)	3163 (42.6%)	7433	0.2%
University of Technology Malaysia	6535 (80.3%)	1607 (19.7%)	8142	0.2%
Northern University of Malaysia	1081 (48%)	1152 (51.6%)	2233	0.1%
International Islamic University	1002 (45.8%)	1186 (54.2%)	2188	0.1%
Sub-total	29,895	23,581	53,476	1.4%
Grand Total	1,965,975	1,896,589	3,862,564	100.0%

Source: Ministry of Education 1989.

A recent move by the Ministry of Education to encourage learning is the introduction of a 'second channel' for entry into universities for those who have minimum academic qualifications but have sufficient working experience. The objective of this new move is to overcome the shortage of trained technicians and engineers and to provide more Malaysians with an opportunity to obtain a university degree. As the Bernama News Service for Malaysian Students reported, with the second route into universities, more Malaysians will be able to obtain their degree even though they do not have the mandatory STPM or the SPM (7th June 1995).

2.5.6 University Acts

All universities in Malaysia come within the University and University Colleges Act, 1961. This Act gives the Minister of Education sole responsibility for the general direction of higher education and the administration of the Act. All universities in Malaysia come under the Ministry of Education in which 100 per cent of the development costs and 90 per cent of the operational costs are financed by the Government. The other 10 per cent comes from tuition fees and miscellaneous internal income. The government is totally responsible in providing and shaping education in Malaysia except for the International Islamic University (UIA) which was established as a result of a treaty signed between the government of Malaysia and seven other Muslim countries and does not come under the University Act 1961.

2.5.7 Examinations

"The success or failure of a nation's education system depends not only on the production of trained manpower geared to meet manpower demands, but also on the availability of a sound assessment programme to maintain quality" as The Star suggested (Nov 7, 1982: 1). Certification has been viewed by many as the main function of educational development. In Malaysia, the examination system has mainly followed the British system. From 1957

until recently, the Malaya Certificate of Education was conducted jointly by the Cambridge Examination Syndicate. Since 1957, however, all public examinations in Malaysia are conducted by the Examination Syndicate of the Ministry of Education. Similarly, the Higher Certificate of Examination (HSC) was conducted jointly by Cambridge University and the University of Malaya for nearly 40 years until 1982 from which time it was conducted by a local body known as the Malaysian Examination Council after an Act of Parliament, which gave it full responsibility for conducting the Form Six examination (ibid.).

The Malaysian Examination Council is totally separate from the Malaysian Examination Syndicate. The Syndicate's director and all of the Vice-Chancellors of the local universities are members of this Council. The Malaysian Education Ministry is responsible for the preparation, administration, marking and awarding of certificates to all of the National Examination candidates. The National Examination, conducted by the Malaysian Examination Syndicate, includes the Assessment Examination for the Primary School (UPSR). The LCE which is now SRP, has been conducted in Bahasa Malaysia since 1978. The MCE which is now SPM was conducted in Bahasa Malaysia after 1980 as have SPVM. Examinations conducted by the Examination Syndicate are: 1) the Assessment Examination for the Primary Schools (UPSR) which replaced the Standard Five Assessment Examination in 1967; This is administered totally in Bahasa Malaysia, and is conducted for the selection of the pupils who wish to attend residential schools. 2) The LCE or SRP which is taken by students in the third year of lower secondary education (Form III) for selection for the upper secondary education (Forms IV - V), which streams students into arts, science, commerce, technical and vocational classes, and the MCE, now SPM, were changed from English to Bahasa Malaysia in 1980. The MCE was administered in collaboration with the Cambridge Examination Syndicate when it was conducted in English. This examination is given to students in upper secondary education

(Form V) for selection for post-secondary education, Teachers' College or some tertiary level courses. It is also used for streaming students in the arts, sciences or technical classes in post-secondary education. The Malaysian Vocational Certificate of Education, now known as SPVM, is taken after two years of upper secondary education (Form V), and has been conducted in Bahasa Malaysia since 1980. The HSC, now known as STPM, is administered by the Malaysian Examination Council in post-secondary education for allocating students into appropriate university courses.

The Malaysian Examination Syndicate has now taken full responsibility for setting, conducting and marking all examinations at the primary, secondary and post-secondary levels including preparing workshops for teachers involved in examinations and preparing examinations for outside bodies including London University, the London Chamber of Commerce and other certified bodies.

Section III

2.6.0 Expansion of Education After 1970

The New Economic Policy (NEP) was launched in Malaysia for a period of 25 years in conjunction with the education system after 1970. The intention of the New Economic Policy was to satisfy the demands of the Malays for a better education; to reduce the economic disparity among ethnic groups; and to maintain long-term educational development (Andaya and Andaya, 1982).

The main objective of the NEP, was to eradicate poverty within individual ethnic groups and to restructure Malaysian society. In the NEP, education was seen as a major means of achieving this objective. It was thought that education could produce an intellectual and skilled work-force to attain a stable country, politically and economically. "The National

Education Policy, in which language planning is an important component, is one of the instruments employed to erase this state of racial imbalance" (Asmah, 1983: 242).

Since the implementation of the Second Malaysia Plan (1971-1975), more residential schools for rural school children have been built, more boarding schools have been set up, more universities and polytechnics have been in operation and more Malays are sent abroad for their education. A matriculation programs for local universities have been regulated, quotas for university entrance encouraging Malays to enter science subjects have been set, scholarships and aid for the Malay students have been granted, Junior Science based schools have been opened and several Institute Malaysia (Institute Kemahiran Mara) have been opened.

All of these facilities aim to provide quality education, with the aim of building a dynamic society in Malaysia; supplying the best quality teachers and providing opportunities for educational experimentation and modification of the present programmes. In addition, facilities for planning, organising and implementing a greater amount of high level research have been improved (Second Malaysian Plan 1971-1975).

The Second Malaysia Plan has been successful, with the establishment of two colleges recently upgraded to university status and Bahasa Malaysia being generally recognised. For example, in 1980, 80 per cent of subjects were taught in Bahasa Malaysia at the tertiary level. Hence, the number of graduates entering industry with Malay medium education and qualifications has increased tremendously (Lebar, 1993).

In 1972, a pass in the Bahasa Malaysia paper became compulsory at the MCE level. Further, the number of Malays enrolled in tertiary education increased and are now represented more proportionately. Additionally, expansion of education at higher

institutions through twinning programs, exchange programs and distance learning has also increased with joint programs with overseas universities such as Japan, Australia, the United States and Britain.

2.6.1 The status of English in Malaysia

Today, in Malaysia, English is officially a second language in the national language system. This reflects its status in schools and higher institutions. Unofficially, English is only used in social interaction and entertainment outside of its official allocation by the Government. As Asmah (1987) states, language communication in Malaysia can be viewed from the official and unofficial level. The official level denotes the use of the language at "ceremonies and meetings, in the writing of reports and such like documents, and correspondences at the government level as well as in the communication between the government and the people, viz. in the circulars, notices, and forms for various purposes" (p. 14).

Since 1967, Bahasa Malaysia has been recognised as the official language of Malaysia and is the required language in all official functions:

> After 1967, the pattern of language use in the Parliament, Senate and the courts remained unchanged. The only chances that occurred after that date was the take-over by Malay in official correspondences and official ceremonies. The Revised Language Act 1967 stipulates that there must be English language versions for all Acts, Regulations and official documents besides the Malay ones, and this practice continues to this day (Asmah, 1987: 19).

The teaching of English at the primary level has concentrated on the acquisition of fundamental structures and vocabulary. In 1977 the Ministry of Education directed the teaching of English for teachers in the Guide for Teachers Handbook for the Post-1970 Primary School English Syllabus. This states that English should be taught "in such a way

as that they [children] will be understood not only by fellow-Malaysian[s] but also by speakers of English from other parts of the world" (Ministry of Education, 1977: 3).

Received Pronunciation was stressed as the basis of this style of teaching with the objective of preparing students to speak with acceptable stress and rhythm and being capable of pronouncing English well enough for listeners to distinguish between 2 similar words. Other language skills included reading and writing, with the objective of helping students to read for pleasure and knowledge. This would further develop silent reading skills to help students apply skills at higher educational levels. In addition, writing skills were developed so that students were better able to produce short paragraphs of narrative in the form of simple statements, write simple dialogues and letters to friends. The basic objective of primary education was the development of enough oral and aural skills to use simple English in a variety of situations and to understand and use written English sufficiently for informal communication (Ministry of Education, 1973).

At the lower secondary level, the teaching of English continued with a stress on learning in context. By the end of the 3 years at the secondary level, the students were expected to extend their previous skills, to use larger vocabularies and extended patterns in oral and aural skills. Students were also expected to develop higher reading skills and to demonstrate skills in note taking; to handle cause and effect, comparison, classification in writing outlines and putting ideas in sequences. In writing skills, students were expected to produce a correct and unified piece of writing with a clear theme. They were also expected to be able to make accurate notes on what was heard and read.

At this stage, students were to sit for the LCE with English as one of the subjects. On obtaining a pass, the students proceed for the upper secondary education where they sit for another national examination, the MCE.

By 1969, English language teaching became more pragmatic and utilitarian, stressing productiveness. This was to complement the Government's intention of participating competitively at international level both in education and economics as follows:

> while the Government will implement vigorously the teaching of Bahasa Malaysia, measures will be taken to ensure that English is taught as a second language. This is important if Malaysia is to keep abreast of scientific and technological developments in the world and participate meaningfully in international trade and commerce (Government of Malaysia, 1976, para.1316: 386).

The Communication Syllabus, or the English Language Syllabus for Forms Four and Five, was introduced in 1976 for upper secondary level students. This syllabus pushed forward the objectives of the lower secondary level syllabus. The Communication Syllabus tried to meet the needs of students in Malaysia especially those school leavers who finish school after Form V. At this level, the syllabus stresses:

> a number of language products, and suggest[s] strategies for realising these products.....the minimum level is where the communicational intent is successfully conveyed, irrespective of the linguistic finesse. The maximum level is, of course, native speaker ability. The focus...is on whether the student manages to communicate, how effectively he does so, and how he can improve on the communicational skills that he has (Ministry of Education, 1975: 4).

The syllabus also puts stress on English skills: writing and speaking for specific purposes, and reading for understanding are communicative targets. This emphasis runs in concurrence with the increase in demand for science and technology in Malaysia, which itself is in line with the National Education Policy. As for the primary syllabus, schools aim to equip pupils with the ability to communicate accurately and effectively, both orally and in writing, in teaching-learning activities (Ministry of Education, 1983).

In 1992, the New Integrated Syllabus (KBSR) was introduced for students who were in primary schools. This syllabus aimed at integrating the four language skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing. The New Integrated Syllabus (KBSM) was later introduced into secondary schools. Again, the aim of this syllabus was to integrate the four skills as well as knowledge of other subjects and moral values, following the National Educational Philosophy (see Chapter 1). Since 1989, English has been marked by the Ministry of Education for further investigation, revision and implementation in order to keep up with international developments.

Generally by 1993, the English primary syllabus aimed " to equip pupils with basic skills and knowledge of the English language so as to enable them to communicate orally and in writing, in and out of school" (Ministry of Education, 1993: 1), while the secondary syllabus hopes "to build upon and extend the proficiency of the students from the primary schools, so as to equip them with the skills and knowledge.... to communicate in certain everyday activities and certain job situations; and also to provide points of take-off for various post secondary school needs" (Ministry of Education, 1987: 2).

At tertiary level, English regulations vary according to various universities' requirements. For example, a failure in English at MCE/SPM level is generally accepted at the University Malaya and the University Technology of Malaysia as long as other academic grades are good (see Table A in Appendix 1). However, English lessons have been made compulsory and passing English up to a specified level is required to obtain a degree (see Sections 2.7.12-2.7.13), even though passing English is not compulsory at the SPM/MCE level. The aims, objectives and goals of the English classes vary from one university to the other, again depending on the needs of students. All institutions of higher learning design their own materials and syllabus.

2.6.2 Current perceptions of English proficiency

In the wake of recent developments in Malaysia's economy, it is important that Malaysia remains competitive at an international level. This is the reason why academic standards in English language teaching must be maintained (Pillay, 1991). Higher ability in both spoken and written English is increasingly valued in the context of the development of Malaysia's economic growth. The Prime Minister of Malaysia, Dr. Mahathir Mohamad, has urged the maintenance of levels of English in an effort to earn the respect of the international community in trade, international relations and professional development (The Star, 26th June, 1990). The standard of English in Malaysia, however, has dropped drastically and this has caused major concern among all of the population. For example, "we are very worried with the results [of the English paper]", states the Director-General of Education Tan Sri Abdul Rahman Arshad after an 8 per cent drop in passes in the 1990 SPM English language paper. The main reason for the poor results, he stated, was that the language is less spoken now, particularly in the rural areas (The Star, 6th March 1991). Steps to stop the decline have been called for (New Strait Times, 22nd February 1990), attempting to overcome the problems by considering the public's views in expressing disagreement of what is to be done, what should not be done and what is not to be expected (New Straits Times, 25th October, 1985; New Straits Times, 16th April, 1990; Sunday Star, 23 rd March 1991).

In 1988, the decline of English language hit its lowest level and became such a serious matter that the Minister of Education at that time, Anwar Ibrahim, raised the possibility that a pass in English as a subject at LCE and MCE level would need to be compulsory (The Star, 7th October, 1988).

An awareness of the lack of proficiency in English and the seriousness which the issue was regarded was also substantiated by the decline of the percentage of passes across

vocational, arts and science candidates in the 1990 School Certificate of Education Examinations results (New Straits Times, 9th March, 1991). Further consideration for the improvement of English was crucial in stemming such declining standards.

A statement made by a prominent banker, the Chairman of the D&C Bank, Tan Sri Geh Ik Cheong, in June 1992 stated that "fresh thinking on incentives for teachers, greater use of English at the tertiary level, proper emphasis on vocational schools and review of the country's policies on higher education are essential if Malaysia is to be a developed nation by 2020" (Nambiar, Othman and Taib, 1992: 1). Cheong further states that the emphasis made on Bahasa Malaysia as the national language, with stress on the fluency of Bahasa for a new generation, has relegated English (which used to be compulsory for Malaysians) to secondary importance. In a statement from the Datuk Seri Najib Tun Razak, after a youth meeting, the Ministry of Education prepared a special package to improve the performance of students, especially in rural schools, with the aim of overcoming students' weaknesses in not only English but also in Bahasa Malaysia, Math and Science. Standards in these subjects have become a serious issue in Malaysia (Bernama News Service for Malaysian Students, 19th June 1995).

To improve Malaysia's levels of English teaching several measures have been introduced by the Director General of Education (Sunday Times, 5th May, 1991). These include the setting-up of a special panel by the Ministry of Education, to find ways of improving the standard of the language in teacher training. "The only way to rectify the problem is to train more teachers" (The Star, 6 March 1991: 3) "especially in the rural areas" (New Sunday Times, 10 March 1991: 2). "As it is, the Ministry is facing a shortage of English language teachers especially in rural areas", (New Straits Times, 10 March 1991:1). Help was also given by the British Council, working together with the Ministry of Education, to look into possible ways of upgrading the standard of English in Malaysia (Goh, 1991).

The most effective measure to stem the decline of English was the Sixth Malaysia Plan, in which better training of teachers was given by improving selection criteria, training facilities, quality of instructors and by providing in service education (Government of Malaysia, 1991, para 5.65: 176). Another recent government move includes the plan to abolish the Sijil Pelajaran Malaysia Vokasional (SPVM) and Sijil Kemahiran Malaysia (SKM) in 1989, when all the vocational schools nation-wide are to be upgraded to technical secondary schools, starting in December 1995. This move is implemented in line with the country's industrialisation process. This restructuring will offer elective vocational and technological subjects in the secondary schools' Integrated Curriculum (KBSM) and, as stated by Education Minister Datuk Seri Najib Tun Razak, the move is a radical one to bring about a big increase in the number of students who will become engineers and technicians to meet the country's industrialisation needs (Bernama News Service for Malaysian Students, 27 June, 1995).

Recent initiatives by the Government have allowed the use of English in the teaching of science, technology and other technical subjects at institutes of higher learning. This was decided in the Umno supreme council meeting, chaired by the Prime Minister, Dr Mahathir Mohamad, who felt that, in pursuing knowledge in science and technology, English as the medium of instruction was becoming an important tool. He said it would be a loss if Malaysians do not use the English language for those subjects (Bernama News Service for Malaysian Students, 8th May 1995). However, he reiterated that Bahasa Malaysia remains the official language and is still used in all fields. This is the latest measure by the Government to stem the decline in the standard of English at higher levels.

Datuk Ibrahim Ali, (Utusan Malaysia, 23rd January 1995) is emphatic that the issue of using Bahasa Malaysia as the official language should not be raised, because all educational systems and higher institutions are currently using the language. However, after an official

statement made by the Prime Minister, Dr. Mahadir Mohamad, and the Education Minister, Dr. Sulaiman Daud, allowing the use of English language at higher institutions, lecturers in the Faculty of Economics, University of Malaya, have tried to response to the 'unofficial cue' by the Government to use English language in their teaching practice (Sani, 1995).

Perusahaan Otomobil National Bhd (Proton-the national car company), which awards bright students scholarships has stressed the importance of English results at Sijil Pelajaran Malaysia level, with a minimum grade of A2 needed in the English Language Exam to be awarded a scholarship. This is to ensure that students have a good command of the English before being considered for study abroad (The Star, 4th March 1994).

Public awareness of the needs of the English language has prompted the Chairman of City Television Sdn Bhd, Tunku Abdullah Tuanku to ask permission for the use of English as the medium of information at Metrovision, (TV4), a recently developed and privatised television station which started broadcasting 1st July 1995. The aim of the station is to show English programs to attract more foreign viewers (Berita Harian, 20th September, 1995). However, the application was rejected by the Information Ministry the following day (Berita Harian, 21st September 1995). Nevertheless, there are English language programmes every day on other channels, including the news, sports and some American programmes.

2.7.0 Historical Background of Universiti Teknologi Malaysia (UTM)

The State of Johore occupies about 18,986 square km of Peninsula Malaysia and has a population of 2,074,297 (Statistic mid-1990), 328,646 of which reside in its capital city, Johor Bahru. It is here, in Sekudai, that the main campus of UTM is situated about 20 km from Johor Bahru town. A second campus, which is a branch campus, is located in Kuala Lumpur, the capital of Malaysia (see Figure 1 in this chapter).

2.7.1 Brief History of UTM

UTM started in 1904 with the establishment of the Technical School by the Public Works Department and the Survey of Land Offices to provide qualified personnel. From the emergence of the Straits' settlements as an economic centre, especially for the tin industry, a better infrastructure (such as cart-roads and railway-lines) was constructed to provide better transportation from the mines to the straits of Malacca. This rapid development in the infrastructure, however, needed to be balanced with the requirements for extra skilled labour. This requirement gave birth to the technical school which began in 1904 as a class for Technical Studies at the Kuala Lumpur City council building. A proper institution replaced the class in 1906 and was based at the Batu Lane Malay School, which later moved to the Museum Building at Bukit Nanas.

In 1925 the Technical School in Jalan Brickfields (now Jalan Tun Sambanthan) was opened by the Public Works Department, in order to train their technical staff. In 1930, this institution acquired a new site on the High Street (now Jalan Bandar) which led to a further expansion. This technical school would have achieved the status of a college in 1941 if it had not been for the Second World War, but in 1946 it became known as the Technical College, Kuala Lumpur.

The courses available at the college were 3 Diploma courses in Civil, Mechanical and Electrical Engineering; Architecture; Town and Country Planning; Land Surveying and Quantity Surveying. In 1951, the new Technical College was built in Jalan Gurney (Jalan Semarak), Kuala Lumpur and was fully operational in March 1955. The first degree-level course was introduced in 1960, with professional examinations conducted by the Institution of Civil Engineers, the Institution of Mechanical Engineers and the Institution of Electrical Engineers (United Kingdom). After this period the Technical College was upgraded to an Institute of Technology, and gained university status in 1969 from the

Planning Committee for Higher Learning. By 14th March 1972, the Institute Teknologi Kebangsaan (National Institute of Technology) was established Under Section 6 (1) of the University and College Act, 1971, and finally on 1st April 1975 this institute became "Universiti Teknologi Malaysia" (Universiti Teknologi Malaysia Calendar, 1992/1993).

2.7.2 Development of UTM

At present, UTM has 2 campuses, the 18 hectare Jalan Gurney (now Jalan Semarak) campus in Kuala Lumpur, and the 1,777 hectare main campus in Sekudai. The first phase of construction for the new Sekudai Campus was completed in 1985. It consisted of 2 faculties: the Faculty of Built Environment and the Faculty of Surveying. These offered correspondence courses for the 1985/86 academic session. The Sekudai campus was officially declared open on 16th September 1985. Commencing from the 1988/89 academic session all first year students were based at the Sekudai campus. The Faculty of Science and the Faculty of Management and Human Resource Development were also based here. These faculties were later joined by the Faculty of Civil Engineering and the Faculty of Mechanical Engineering in the 1989/90 academic session. By 1990, the Kuala Lumpur campus was only serving as a branch of the main campus in Sekudai.

There are currently 9 Faculties in UTM: Faculty of Civil Engineering, Faculty of Electrical Engineering, Faculty of Mechanical Engineering, Faculty of Chemical and Natural Resources Engineering, Faculty of Surveying, Faculty of the Built Environment, Faculty of Science, Faculty of Computer Science and Information Systems and Faculty of Management and Human Resource Development. There are also 3 research centres: the Coastal and Off-Shore Engineering Institute, the Noise and Vibration Institute and the Sultan Iskandar Institute, and 3 units: the Training Unit, Research and Consultant Unit and Student Support Services Unit (Universiti Teknologi Malaysia Calendar, 1992/1993)

2.7.3 Admission into UTM

All first-year undergraduates have to undergo a first year preparatory course, except for those following the Urban and Regional Planning, Architecture and Quantity Surveying courses. The preparatory course is divided into three categories:

1. Science and Engineering
2. Quantity Surveying and Computer Science
3. Management

2.7.4 Faculty of Management and Human Resources Development

This study is based in the Modern Language Department which is in the Faculty of Management and Human Resources Development. Besides the Modern Language Department, 3 other departments make up the Faculty of Management and Human Resources Development: the Islamic Education Department, the Malaysian Studies Department and the Management Department. Each has its own Head of Department. A Dean and 2 Deputy Deans head the Faculty.

2.7.5 Objectives of the Faculty

The primary objective of the Faculty is to produce Muslim graduates with a strong commitment to Islam and a complete faith in God, and non-Muslim graduates with good moral standards. In order to produce such responsible graduates, the faculty urges its students to learn good citizenship and have a broad-based education. The Bachelor of Management (Technology) courses aim to produce managers who are proficient in the areas of business and technical administration.

There are three courses which the Faculty offers, which are compulsory for all students for 5 years. They are the General Education Requirement Courses (including Courses from Malaysian Studies), Islamic Education for Muslim students, and Moral Education for non-

Muslims. English Language courses are also compulsory for the first 2 years, spread over 4 semesters. Those who fail to obtain the minimum level of Band 5 for English under the University's 7-Level Banding System can extend their course for a third year in order to attain the required level of English proficiency (Buku Panduan Kursus, UTM, 1993/1994).

2.7.6 Facilities of the Faculty

Teaching English, together with Arabic and Japanese involves the use of 4 language laboratories, which are available in the Modern Languages Department. Each laboratory has 30 student-consoles and a single main instructor's console. Headphones are provided during lessons. These laboratories assist in effective and systematic language learning especially for the development of oral skills.

2.7.7 Languages in UTM

The language Policy at UTM has followed national language development, and Bahasa Malaysia is the official language of instruction. Initially, courses were taught in both English and Bahasa Malaysia because many of the students were products of the previous predominantly English-oriented education system. By 1970, however, Bahasa Malaysia was used in English-speaking schools (including in Sabah and Sarawak), and so it became the medium of instruction in all lectures, assignments, tutorials and examinations (except for the study of languages). Officially, Bahasa Malaysia is used at all levels, including formal functions organised by the university (except in programs conducted by the English Language Department, where all communication is in English). For foreign consultants contracted to teach or advise, the rules are flexible. In addition, all students are required to achieve an acceptable level of proficiency in both Bahasa Malaysia and English in order to graduate.

2.7.8 Student Population

The student population generally reflects national education policy regarding higher education intakes and there is a 55: 45 racial population ratio in favour of the Malays for the university entrance. (The Star, 16th June 1992). Most of the students in UTM are at least bilingual. Indian and Chinese students would normally know their respective mother tongues, Bahasa Malaysia and English while Malay students usually know Bahasa Malaysia and English. However, their levels of proficiency may vary considerably.

2.7.9 First Year Preparatory Courses at UTM

The first year preparatory course, which was officially conducted for the first time in July 1992, is compulsory for all first year students following the undergraduate and integrated courses; except for those students pursuing courses in Urban and Regional Planning, Architecture and Quantity Surveying. The aim of the course is to prepare the students with academic ability to follow the later years of their degree courses, as well as to instil proper moral values and to develop basic leadership qualities.

2.7.10 Objectives

The objectives of the first year preparatory course are to establish a link between the systems of learning and teaching, to develop and strengthen an academic foundation, to develop and nurture intellectual attributes, to develop a harmonious society and to develop groups of committed intellectuals (Universiti Teknologi Malaysia Calendar, 1992/93).

2.7.11 Course Structure

Students who follow this programme are divided into 3 groups.

1. Science and Engineering

Service subjects	Philosophy of Science English Language Communication
Core subjects	Mathematics Physics Chemistry

2. Quantity Surveying and Computer Science

Service subject	Philosophy of Science English Language Communication
Core subjects	Mathematics Physics

3. Management

Service Subjects	Philosophy of Science English Language Communication
Core subjects	Mathematics Economics Principles of Accounts

2.7.12 Syllabus Outline

The English language syllabus for this Preparatory course consists of:

Basic principles of speech; concepts of public speaking; ethical obligations of public speaking; initial steps in speech preparation; basic principles of audience analysis; methods of gathering speech material; patterns of speech organisation; methods of speech delivery; varieties of public speaking; and organising and presenting varieties of public speaking. However, until this study was undertaken the succes of this syllabys has not been determined.

Examples of subjects listed for the first year students are as follows:

SUBJECTS LISTS

Sciences and Engineering Group

Subjects	Contact Hours Per Week
Mathematics M1	7
Physics	6
Chemistry	6
Philosophy of Science	3
English Language	2
Communication	2
Total	26

Computer Sciences and Surveying Group

Subjects	Contact Hours Per Week
Mathematics M1	9
Physics	8
Philosophy of Science	3
English Language	4
Communication	2
Total	26

Management of Technology Group

Subjects	Contact Hours Per Week
Mathematics M2	7
Economy	6
Principles of Accounts	4
Philosophy of Science	3
English Language	4
Communication	2
Total	26

2.7.13 Reorganisation of the English Language Programme (R.E.L.P) at UTM

After the first year Preparatory course students follow the R.E.L.P program conducted by the Modern Language Department. Below is the program structure.

1. R.E.L.P. will replace the existing English Language Programme beginning with the new student intake for the 1991/92 academic year.

2. The programme is a 5-hour week programme covering 2 academic years and spread over a period of 4 semesters of 15 teaching weeks per semester.

3. R.E.L.P. provides activities in the 4 basic skills of reading, writing, listening and speaking.

4. Courses are designed to integrate the 4 basic skills when using scientifically and technologically biased materials.

5. Emphasis in reading comprehension, proficiency in listening, writing and speaking are equitably provided.

6. R.E.L.P. courses are based on specifications outlined in a 7-level Banding System, with Level 5 the minimum level of proficiency.

7. The courses by academic year and semester are as follows:

		Targeted Award Level	Minimum Credit
Year 1	Semester I (July Semester) UHB/UBD 1112 English (English Language I)	Level 2	2
	Semester II (December Semester) UHB/UBD 1222 English (English Language II)	Level 3	2
Year II	Semester III (July Semester) UHB/UBD 2132 English (English Language I)	Level 4	2
	Semester IV (December Semester) UHB/UBD 2242 English (English Language II)	Level 5	2

8. Students attaining Level 5 proficiency in Semester 2 or 3 will proceed with Levels 6 and 7 activities in subsequent semesters.

9. Students failing to attain the minimum targeted level of proficiency for each semester will continue with activities at the same level in the following semester(s); Those failing to meet requirements for Level 5 certification at the end of Year II will continue with the relevant English Course(s) in the subsequent semester(s) (UTM Calendar, 1992/93).

Specifications of syllabus inputs, competence and linguistic control for each level and skill are as outlined in Tables B, C, D and E in Appendix 1.

2.8.0 Summary

In this chapter, the historical factors of the early education systems and policies in Malaysia, leading to the current situation, were reviewed in detail. The early development of English was also introduced to show its changing role in the education system. The historical background of UTM from 1904 until the present gives reader a clear understanding of the structures of the university and of the general guidelines and syllabus the students' are required to take. Currently, English language plays the role of a second language in the Malaysian education system with Bahasa Malaysia remaining the national and official language in all official functions. This review also shows that the shifts in language policy concerning English have led to changes in exam attainment, attitude and proficiency. Given the complex evolution of vernacular schools, the various ethnic backgrounds of students, and the recent Bahasa Malaysia policy, it is likely that different ethnic groups will have different attitudes to the various languages in Malaysia and will therefore have different levels of confidence about learning and using English.

Chapter 3: Literature Review: Language Acquisition and Self-Esteem

This chapter reviews important studies in the field of self-esteem, achievement and linguistic competence. It has the following three sections. In the first section the classroom achievement theory is provided. The second section deals with second language and outlines the theory of language and any correlates which are of interest to this study. The third section discusses self-esteem and related studies in this area.

3.0 Introduction

Classroom achievement tasks offer the possibility of both success and failure for students. While fear of failure leads to anxiety, the hope of success and the search for competence is associated with achievement. The concept of the need of achievement was first suggested by Murray (1938) as part of his taxonomy of 20 human needs.

It was Mc Clelland and Atkinson (1953) and more recently Weiner (1972, 1982) who developed the conceptual models and instruments that have made a systematic study of achievement possible. According to Weiner, attribution refers to an individual's perceived causes of an event or an outcome. It is the way in which individuals arrive at causal explanations and the implications of those explanations.

The theory developed by Weiner began with the variables identified in John Atkinson's theory of achievement motivation. According to Atkinson (1953), motivation is a function of task variables and the individual's disposition to strive for success or to avoid failure. Weiner's attribution theory began with the identification of four major causes that individuals typically select for success and failure. These consisted of the outcomes, the conceptual links between outcomes and subsequent behaviour (Weiner, 1972; 1979). The four major causes are ability, effort, task difficulty, and luck. He concluded that attribution

theory views human beings from the perspective of their search to understand the world and to achieve personal fulfilment and self-actualisation.

Attribution theory relates to two general concepts. They are the nature of causal inferences and the relationship of those inferences to behaviour. An important characteristic of Weiner's causal inferences is that they occur in a broad range of human activities. Attributions are supposedly developed for achievement outcomes, such as why a student fails in an examination (Weiner, 1982).

Much of the Weiner's attributional research seemed to be based on an assumption that the perceived causes of behaviour vary in a single dimension. In other words, events are attributed either to the individual (the self) or to a characteristic of the environment. A well-known example of this theory is the locus of control construct developed by Julian Rotter (1966). In his view, the perceived causes of behaviour lie on a continuum between the two extremes of internal and external locus of control. Individuals who believe that reinforcements (positive consequences) are contingent on their own behaviour, also believe that they control their own destiny. They are therefore internal. This type of individual believes that positive events are typically the result of hard work, careful planning, and so on. They also take responsibility for events in their lives. For example, arriving late to class is likely to be attributed to leaving home too late to find a parking place, rather than some vague external condition based on superstition.

In contrast, individuals who are outer-directed (external) perceive no relationship between their behaviour and reinforcements. Instead, luck or powerful others are thought to be in control. Therefore, the student may believe that a failed mark on a test is not the result of lack of ability (internal locus) but the result of teacher's bias (external locus). Thus, Weiner's (1979) attribution theory is essential that the search for understanding is a major

source of human motivation. Such search for understanding is Janus-like: it is retrospectively oriented to the past and prospectively aligned to the future. This future behaviour in turn, is influenced by people's belief systems and cognitive analyses of the causes of positive and negative outcomes. For example, the student who attributes failure to low ability is likely to expect future failures and to believe that he or she has no behavioural response that can alter subsequent events (ibid.: 1979). Therefore, little or no effort will be expended on achievement-related tasks. In contrast, a student who attributes success to ability expects continuous success if he believes he has the relevant ability. An occasional failure for such a student is likely to be attributed to a temporary cause, and future effort is not jeopardised.

The attributional model of motivation includes several components. One important aspect of the model is the relationship between attributions, feelings and behaviour. The perceived cause of success or failure leads to future expectancies and to particular emotions. Subsequent actions are influenced both by the individual's feelings and their expected outcomes.

According to Candy, Harri-Augstein and Thomas (1985), if people are aware of what they are presently doing, and can be encouraged to reflect on it, they are capable of changing and trying new ways of behaving. Similarly a learner is also able to observe, experiment, practise, and improve without the intervention of others. This is not to say that all skills are capable of infinite improvement without outside input or expert help, but rather that the learners themselves are responsible for the whole learning process.

This, in fact, is consistent with most people's experiences. By far the largest proportion of learning occurs in situations without a teacher or tutor. This learning is neither planned nor

defined as educational. In acknowledging the differences between formal, non-formal and informal education, Kleis (1974) notes:

> the day to day direct and unexamined experiences of living constitute the bases of beliefs, habits, values, attitudes, speech patterns and other characteristics of a person or people. Such experiences are educationally unintentional; but they are nonetheless powerful. The results are so common and they are produced so completely without awareness or intent that they are commonly thought to be 'natural' or 'inherent'. The fact is, of course, that they are learned (cited in Candy, Harri-Augstein, and Thomas: 6).

It appears from this that if people can highlight their awareness of what is happening to them, and if they can intentionally examine their life's events, then they can make more of each experience. This is equally true of learning a new language, listening to music, attending a lecture or participating in a social meeting. Therefore, the learner need not be a prisoner of his or her rigid competencies. Self-conception and attitudes to learning have to be changed solely by the learner themself.

Alternatively, learning conversation, 'idle chatter' is not an exchange of instructions, but a dialogue within the process of learning where the learners reflect on their learning with the assistance of a teacher or tutor. As the learning conversation progresses, the quality or nature of this dialogue shifts (Candy, Harri-Augstein, and Thomas, 1985). When learners first set out to improve their performance through reflective learning they will notice a drop in performance once their habitual level of skill is disrupted. Candy, Harri-Augstein and Thomas referred to this phenomenon as conscious incompetence. For example, a teacher who is asked to develop an awareness of herself as a teacher will supposedly find her attention divided between observing, being observed, with the likelihood of a decrease in teaching competence. Not unnaturally, there is a tendency to want to re-establish equilibrium at the old level for this reason.

Recognising this issue, it is the responsibility of the teacher, especially when students are learning a new language, to support and encourage them through such a state, and then to help the students re-establish a new and higher level of performance. It is important to maintain stable habits because even improved performance has a tendency to drop, or return to old levels, unless new skills become internalised, and the learners become comfortable at the new, higher levels of operation. Thus, if the teacher or tutor is trying to help the learners maintain improved standards of performance, it is necessary to identify the new criteria of higher competency, and to support the students until their new behaviour or skill level has become habitual.

3.1 Definition of Language

Language is an integral part of our daily life. Over the years there have been many differing viewpoints about the definition of language among linguists and educationalists. Their views have led to a better understanding of the various theories of a language. According to Widdowson (1990: 70), "language is a means of communication". "The definition of a language as a subject for learning should in some way be informed in theories about the nature of language in general on the one hand and by the description of languages in particular on the other" (ibid.: 73). Littlewood (1984: 45) argues that "language is not a mental phenomenon, it is behaviour....like other forms of human behaviour, it is learnt by a process of habit-formation". In contrast, Chomsky's (1976: 4) definition of language is that it "is a product of human intelligence, created anew in each individual by operations that lie far beyond the reach of will or consciousness". Chomsky goes further in saying that "language, it is argued, is essentially, a system for expression of thought" (ibid.: 57). Sinclair (1982: 17) however, believes that "language is a form of physical and social activity".

According to Montagu (1973) language is an abstract system connecting sound and human experience. "We can best think of a language as an abstract structure that is connected with concrete reality at two external ends. At one end it is connected with sound -- all the noises the speakers of a language make when they talk. At the other end it is connected with human experience -- all the things the speakers of a language talk about when they use language. And language itself, ... is the correlation between these two external ends" (p. 4). Egan (1973) reports that language is a learned behaviour which requires both the conscious and subconscious acquisition of speech habits. To him "language is used to reveal one's real self. It is man's translation of himself into language" (p. 197). As Sapir (1921) is often quoted as saying, language determines thought and world views while culture and thought are dependent upon language. According to this notion, not only does language reveal thoughts, feelings and personality but it is strongly tied to the association of language in society. Further discussion of the link between language and society will be provided in later sections. Meanwhile, in Stern's words,

> the role of language in society and the relationship between language, society and culture have become a central subject of study, whether it has been approached from the point of view of anthropology and sociology or the point of view of sociolinguistics or social psychology. Scholars are seeking more and more to integrate views of language and society. That is to say they are not merely seeking to find parallels between language and society or cause-and-effect relations between them but to create concepts in which language is not isolated from society, or society looked at as if verbal communication could be ignored (1983: 241).

In contrast, Worsley (1970: 25) stresses that there is a distinction between language in 'human society' and 'non-human society'. He states that "it is this inability to produce language....that keeps the apes as they are. For culture is only transmissible through coding, classifying and concentrating experience through some form of language. A developed language, therefore, is a unique and distinctive human trait, and human society

is higher level of organisation of behaviour than merely instinctive or animal behaviour". With regard to the same issue, Bottomore (1971) broadens the discussion with the concept that language is a system of communication which deals not only with the economic system, but also serves as the arrangements for the socialisation of new generations. For example, the family and education are constructed of language which is equivalent to Vygotsky's (1962) argument that education is an initiation into a society through language. Bottomore has gone further claiming that language is also a system of authority and power, and serves not only to maintain and increase social cohesion but also to give recognition to important events such as marriage and death. This leads back to the Sapir's (1968) interpretation, acknowledging linguistics is valuable guide to the scientific study of a given culture, because "the network of cultural patterns of a civilisation is indexed in the language which expresses that civilization" (p. 68).

Many of the above perspectives clearly shows what Halliday (1978), maintains, that language is a social phenomenon which arises in our life through an exchange of meanings with others. He describes this in the development of a child, that language not only plays a central role in society but also as:

> the main channel through which the patterns of living are transmitted to him, through which he learns to act as a member of 'society' - in and through the various social groups, the family, the neighbourhood, and so on - and to adopt its 'culture', its modes of thought and action, its beliefs and its values. .....It [Language] happens indirectly, through the accumulated experience of numerous small events, insignificant in themselves, in which his behaviour is guided and controlled, and in the course of which he contracts and develops personal relationships of all kinds (1978: 9).

This section has briefly presented clear definitions of language and has shown some of its functions. It has shown how language is seen as a shared system of meaning and a form

of social interaction between an individual and other people and between an individual and the environment. In this study, the function of language will later be strongly linked with the creation or enhancement of self-esteem and academic self-image and the development or performance of oral skills which are the focus of this research.

3.2 Second and Foreign Languages

What is a second language? Much of the confusion about second language acquisition terms is clarified by Larsen Freeman (1991: 6) who states that "the only thing that calling a language 'second' implies is that it is acquired later than a first language". This is also argued by Littlewood (1982: 7) who states that "sometimes it [Second language] refers to a language which is not chronologically the second". According to Littlewood, 'second' language has social functions within the community where it is learnt (e.g. as a lingua franca or as a language of another social group) whereas a 'foreign' language, is learnt primarily for contact outside one's own community" (ibid.: 2). Gardner's (1991) distinction between second and foreign languages sees a second language as referring to contexts where the language being learned is applicable to the immediate environment, whereas a foreign language refers to language learning contexts where an other language is not readily available. As discussed extensively by many writers, the purposes of learning second languages and foreign languages vary. For some, the second language functions as the official language which is needed in the political and economical life of a nation (Paulston 1976), and to others it may be the language needed for education (Marckwardt, 1963).

Stern (1983) describes the term 'second language' in two ways. First, the term refers to the chronology of language learning where this second language can be any language acquired (or to be acquired) later than the native language. This definition by Stern intentionally leaves aside the question of the duration of how the second language is

acquired. For example, the learning process of the second language can take place at an early age when the native language is still undeveloped or it can take place in adult life when the development of the native language is completed. The learning process can also take place any point between at both extremes. Secondly, the term refers to the level of language command in comparison with that of a primary or dominant language. "In this second sense, second language indicates a lower level of actual or believed proficiency. Hence second means, also weaker or secondary. In many cases the two uses coincide, that is to say, proficiency in a language acquired later than the L1[first language] is frequently lower than that in the L1, the term second language or L2 is used to cover both meanings. If the lower proficiency level is to be referred to specifically, the terms 'weaker' or 'secondary' can be used for clarification" (Stern, 1983: 13).

Additionally, Stern states that learning a foreign language can serve different purposes for everyone which include; for travelling purposes, for communication with native speakers or reading. Unlike a foreign language whose speech community may be thousand miles away and difficult to learn, a second language is normally within one's country and can be learnt with the existing environment support. For this reason, learning "a foreign language usually requires more formal instruction and other measures compensation for the lack of environmental support. By contrast, a second language is often learnt informally ('picked up') because of its wide-spread use within the environment" (Stern, 1983: 16). As maintains by Ellis (1994: 12), "the distinction between second and foreign language learning settings may be significant in that it is possible that there will be radical differences in both what is learnt and how it is learnt."

In Malaysia, English has undoubtedly been learnt as a second language based on Stern's statement cited earlier after; Bahasa Malaysia for the Malays; Cantonese/Mandarin for the Chinese; and Tamil for the Indians. However, in all cases, the level of proficiency of

English as a second language cannot be sure even though it is possible that all speakers of English in Malaysia especially at tertiary level has acquired a very high level of proficiency in English which will remain the interest of this study throughout.

3.3 First and Second Language Acquisition

According to Corder (1973) the major difference between a first language acquisition and second language learning is that first languages are acquired while second languages are learned. Krashen (1973, 1981b, 1982, 1985, 1989), in contrast, believes that normal people acquire first languages subconsciously through informal methodology, such as natural exposure, while second languages are learned consciously through formal methods, such as formal classroom instruction. This is partly why most people are proficient in the acquisition of first languages while others display various degrees of proficiency with their second. There are distinctions relating to first and second language acquisition, especially when considering whether the acquisition of the first language is related to that of the second language.

Linguists such as Nida (1971), Lakoff (1975), Labov (1977), Long (1990c), Larsen-Freeman (1991) and Ellis (1994) who specialise in the area of language, society and behavioural interaction have developed interests in the process of second language acquisition. Many acquisitional strategies and processes of the second language students are discussed from the point of view of contrastive analysis (Lado 1957), inter-language and fossilisation of forms (Selinker 1971, 1972; Brown 1977; Clement 1977, 1986). Although knowledge of how a person learns a second language remains relatively inaccessible, a variety of linguistic and psycholinguistic factors interact to affect the acquisition, use, and output of a second language.

In the Malaysian context, in distinguishing the two sets of terms under the first and second language acquisition, the distinction in practice can be easily made. Bahasa Malaysia, Cantonese/Mandarin or Tamil are native languages and languages of dominant and preferred use for the Malays, Chinese and Indians respectively. Therefore, the distinction of first and second language acquisition of these ethnic groups can clearly be identified especially when English in this context is taught as a second language.

3.4 First Language Acquisition

Skinner (1957) attempted to construct a behaviourist model of linguistic theory or first language acquisition. In his study of "Verbal Behaviour" he felt that language learning was conditioned through stimulus, response, repetition and reward (a basic S/R reaction). Skinner also believed children learnt entire sentences, rather than conceptual grammatical structure. He believed that a stimulus existed in every utterance made by a child and then this was reinforced. To him learning took place when correct responses were repeated. Therefore, language learning was seen as a process of habit formation, reinforcement, repetition or imitation which examined an ability to produce and appropriate response to stimulus. However, this aspect was seen as vague by Chomsky (1965) and left concepts such as meaning, abstractness and creativity unanswered. However, the basic notion of language learning as a skill involving habit formation was a key element in audio lingual approaches to second/foreign language teaching in the 1960's and 70's, which emphasised oral skills.

Chomsky's "Syntactic Structures" (1965) announced the origin of a rationalist approach to first language acquisition. Chomsky's approach is the Nativist model of linguistic theory. In contrast to behaviourists, who believe language learning is something that can be observed, rationalists believe that language theories not only have descriptive but also explanatory adequacy. At that time Chomsky believed in the presence of linguistic

universals. His hypothesis states that "a child learns a language and has internalised a set of rules before he is five years old, irrespective of intelligence or experience, under stress and conditions which are far from ideal, attests to the presence of these linguistic universals" (p. 25). In other words, Chomsky believed that a child is born with an innate capacity language ability.

This view was supported by Lenneberg (1967), who also believed that behaviour is biologically determined for language acquisition. Lenneberg and Chomsky felt that the Language Acquisition Device (LAD), supposedly the innate mechanism in humans, made it possible for a child to construct the abstract rules (of a grammar) of a language rapidly and with comparatively little input. It was felt that as a child is exposed to a language the LAD is triggered to test the hypotheses about a language structure in its environment, and then continuously tests hypotheses until a complete grammar is built. The rationalist model has now evolved to a 'principles and parameters' model based on 'universal grammar' (See Cook 1992) and, according to some, a 'language instinct' (see Pinker 1995).

Later in the development of language theory, Bloom (1971) held that a child learns not through word order but rather through underlying structure. This was the beginning of the cognitive approach to first language acquisition. Bloom (1971,1978) felt that first language acquisition could be explained in terms of the interaction of the child's perceptual and cognitive development with linguistic and non-linguistic events in his environment. This school of thought believes that a child is born with an ability to conceptualise. Further cognitive psychologists believe that children are not endowed with an inherent ability to learn languages. Instead, these theorists felt cognitive development is hierarchical and progressive (see Piaget, 1965) and learning concepts is dependent upon cognitive development. Through this process, children assess new information in their environment and process it via cognitive mechanisms. In other words, a child completes one level

before proceeding to the next. For example, Slobin (1971) maintained that it was not structural but semantic complexity which is responsible for triggering the sequential cognitive development of a child's language. He distinguishes two forms of linguistic hypothesis: a 'strong' form in which language structure determines the logic of thought and a 'weak' form where language structure influences cognitive structure.

Vygotsky (1962) on the other hand argued that the development of logic in a child, as Piaget's studies have shown, is a direct function of the child's socialised speech. He emphasised that the early development of speech in the child and of intellectual progress along separate lines are biologically driven. However, the later development of inner speech and verbal thought does not result directly from the earlier forms, but is driven by a different process, experience with the world which is the sociocultural experience of the child. Even though these theories have received extensive reviews and research, it is still a controversial question which of these views best explains first language acquisition and just how these theories relate to second language learning (Ellis, 1994), especially in different cultures and contexts where the expectations concerning second language differs and varies widely in a child and second language learner.

3.5 Second Language Competence

According to some theorists, a student selects meaningful input from the various second language situations to which they are exposed, then organises and systematises the data and forms a new language system in an attempt at producing the second language. To this end, Selinker (1971) describes three types of knowledge that underlie the theory of second-language learning. The three types of knowledge are the "knowledge underlying production of his native language; knowledge about the TL (target language); and knowledge underlying attempted production of a TL norm" (p. 37). As Reibel (1971) states, a student approaches "the acquisition of a second language with some innate

language learning competence, which applied in the right way, leads to linguistic competence that underlies linguistic performance" (p. 92).

In contrast, Krashen (1989) believes that the differences in second language competence as well as background information mean that what is 'comprehensible input' to one person may not be to another. He states that comprehension can also be affected by the first language and the presence of cognate vocabulary in that language. Even though "it seems reasonable to hypothesise that some factors leading to the establishment of a strong Affective Filter are universal, there is probably individual as well as cross-cultural variation as well" (p. 33).

Alternatively, in discussing the variation in second language learning, according to the framework developed by Labov, language learners possess a variable competence that enables them to perform in different styles depending on the amount of attention paid to linguistic form. Labov argues that when learners paid little attention to speech this shows a lack of concern with whether the hearers are assessing their social status. In contrast, "a focus on form indicates sensitivity to social status" (Ellis and Sinclair 1989: 29).

With regard to the learning of second language competence, some have emphasised that second language competence varies across culture. Ochs and Schieffelin (1984) argues that:

> The capacity to express intentions is human but which intentions can be expressed by whom, when, and how is subject to local expectations concerning the social behaviour of members. With respect to the acquisition of competence in language use, this means that societies may very well differ in their expectations of what children can and should communicate (Hymes, 1967). They may also differ in their expectations concerning the capacity of young children to understand intentions (or particular intentions) (p. 307).

Additionally Gardner (1984), suggested that every individual regardless of where the person is from must be able to handle the physical and social aspect of life. This is due to the fact that not everyone especially children are capable of achieving a certain level of competence in learning a language because of cognitive diversification in individual and cultural constraints in every society. He states that:

> Not all domains of knowledge are readily available to youngster. Some, such as logical reasoning involving abstract propositions, may prove relatively difficult to master and relatively easy to forget, once the supporting contexts are no longer present.....Other forms of knowledge, such as the ability to adjudicate among different value systems or sensitivity to the motivations behind individual utterances, are readily accessible to most adults but prove surprisingly opaque to preadolescents (p. 272).

Haslett (1989) further mentions that three criteria are needed in acquiring communicative competence; first, a willingness to be a co-operative speaker or listener; second, sociocultural knowledge about the cultural practices is easily available and third the experiences of the students enable him or her to learn both the *what* and *how* of communication (Gardner, 1984; Haslett 1989). Ellis (1994) pointed out that the main goal of second language acquisition research should be conducted on students' underlying knowledge of the second language especially to describe and explain their level of competence. This is due to the reason that mental knowledge of students cannot be directly inspected. This can only be achieved through examining students' performance whereas "SLA researchers have used different kinds of performance to try to investigate competence" (Ellis, 1994:13). Some studies concentrate on analysing the actual utterances that learners produce in speech or writing (see Larsen-Freeman 1975) even though none of these studies provides a direct window into competence. Owing to this reason, very different results can be obtained depending on the kind of performance data that the research investigates. As Ellis stated, mental knowledge cannot be directly inspected. This

study, on the other hand tries to associate the area of second language with self-esteem and academic self-image

3.6 Second Language Acquisition

"Second language acquisition is a complex, multifaceted phenomenon and it is not surprising that it has come to mean different things to different people" (Ellis, 1994: 15). A student's acquisition of a second language has remained an integral issue in second language acquisition. However, there appears to be no single answer to this question, even though a variety of linguistic and psycholinguistic factors, which include neurofunctional, cognitive and affective factors, have been associated with acquisition, use and output of a second language by many researchers. Therefore, it is not surprising if 'acquisition' can mean several very different things. "This makes it very difficult to compare the results of one study with those of another. Conflicting results can be obtained depending on whether emergence or accuracy serves as the criterion of acquisition. It is for this reason that it is important to examine carefully the nature of the data used and the way in which acquisition has been measured, when reading reports of actual studies" (Ellis, 1994: 15).

Therefore, in order to understand the process of second language acquisition, a complete understanding of linguistic and psycholinguistic analysis of describing language, acquisition theory, and the role of learners' first language in second language acquisition is an essential element. The learners' processing and systematising of the new language - and existing relationships within a language as well as between languages - and the effects of these relationships on language learning are also fundamental issues. As discussed by Lenneberg (1967), Hebb (1972), Lamendella (1977), Krashen (1981b), Odlin (1989), Selinker (1992), Cook (1993), and Ellis (1994), other factors which involve the relationship between language and personality characteristics, and neurofunctional factors which relate to the growth and maturation of the brain cells, and the influence their

development has on language learning are crucial in understanding the process of second language acquisition. According to these theorists, the 'critical' period, 'plasticity' of the brain, and cerebral dominance are the key issues in the process of learning a language.

In addition, according to Brown (1973), Selinker (1972) Taylor (1974) and Oxford (1985, 1989) cognitive factors - which include the learners' strategies for analysing and incorporating the language data into a new language system, the process of meaningful learning, cognitive maturity and cognitive learning styles - are also the underlying factors in second language acquisition.

Finally, there are also the affective factors studied by Nida (1971) and Brown (1973) which give the sociopsychological explanations of continuous effort and exposure, and attempt to explain why some people fail to learn a language successfully; or why, after a certain period, language learning becomes stagnant and does not seem to progress beyond a certain point; or why some people tend to lose their language ability even though they have managed to master that language at some point; or why people's language is unlikely to change despite changing situations and circumstances (fossilisation).

Acquisition is a subconscious process which in many ways is similar to the process used in the first language acquisition. It is believed that while acquisition is taking place, the acquirer is not always aware of the process nor is he/she aware of its results. Acquisition produces what Chomsky (1965) calls 'tacit competence', or what Krashen (1989) calls 'feel' for language. Today acquisition appears to be far more important than learning with regard to a second language. Krashen states that "our ability to use second languages comes mostly from what we have acquired, not from what we have learned. Our conscious rules perform only one function: They act as an editor, or monitor. While we

are speaking or writing, we can stop, scan the output of our acquired system, and make corrections, using the rules we have learned" (1989: 8).

Krashen's basic principle is that both second or first language acquisition are innate. He insists that the LAD functions not only for children, but it continues throughout a lifetime or whenever language is being acquired. He quotes Chomsky to support his view:

> The learner (acquirer) has no 'reason' for acquiring the language; he does not choose to learn (acquire) under normal condition, any more than he chooses (or can fail) to organise visual space in a certain way-or, for that matter, may more than certain cells in the embryo choose (or can fail) to become an arm or the visual centres of the brain under appropriate environmental condition (Chomsky, 1975: 71).

Krashen maintains that "language" is any language whether it be first or second. He argues that most second language learners are 'taught' the language and most teaching approaches leave the learner with the knowledge about the language. He maintains that the two systems of learning and acquiring are separate and that conscious learning can be only indirectly related to acquisition. He implies that all formal learning environments must be language-rich and should not centre on teaching about grammar or any other aspect of the language.

Krashen's distinction between acquisition and learning has received criticism from Ellis (1986), who argues that the distinction cannot be tested and McLaughlin (1987) who insists that the two concepts are poorly defined. Others (see Dunlop, 1994; Gregg, 1994; Rivers, 1994) have contested Krashen's weakness in the assumption that the process of language acquisition of the first and second language are the same.

Krashen's Monitor theory has also received criticism by many. Shannon (1994: 13), states that "it is impossible to observe. And if observable, how does one determine if a learner were Monitoring" (editing by rule) or 'monitoring' (editing by 'feel')"? McLaughlin (1987) on the same principle argues that research indicates that adolescents are more successful learners than children in contrast to Krashen's claims that children are more successful learners because they are not burdened by the Monitor. Additionally, McLaughlin claims that an adult can use rules and monitor his or her performance because they have reached certain stage of formal operation, therefore, perform better than a child. Therefore, contrary to Krashen, the Monitor would improve performance in an adult rather than impede it.

In spite of these arguments, others have gone further claiming that they find the Monitor useful. Shannon (1994: 13) for example states that, "teachers find the Monitor Hypothesis useful as a metaphor for the learning-acquisition relationship. They rely on their perception that "learned" knowledge of a language goes hand in hand with 'acquired' knowledge and that this is a productive interaction. In contrasting students' oral and written performances, however, teachers remarked that the Monitor might be more evident in writing than in speaking. Writers have more time to focus on form and a visible product to aid them in their efforts. In light of the evidence that in oral production time alone does not automatically lead the learner to focus on form, a monitor may not be a useful construct in writing without also asking that writers focus on form (and giving them the extra time)." (ibid.: 13). Alternatively, Littlewood (1994: 202), states "that 'monitored' and 'unmonitored' activities constitute two separate categories, drawing on two separate knowledge systems, rather than being at two ends of a continuum. There seems to be no reason or evidence for seeing them as so distinct".

The issue of maturational changes in language learning like acquisition has been debated by many. However, this issue is less obvious in comparison to the acquisition and development of the more formal properties of linguistic systems. Previous attempts to focus on this issue, such as Lenneberg's (1967) critical period hypothesis, are no longer persistent (see reviews like Krashen, 1973 or Wode, 1981). Lenneberg suggested that around puberty changes occur in the brain so that after that age people can no longer learn human languages the way young children do. Lenneberg assumed, in particular, that the development of the lateralisation of brain functions was completed by the time one reached puberty. Research has revealed numerous flaws in Lenneberg's assumptions. Krashen (1973) who re-analysed Lenneberg's data on aphasic patients showed that lateralisation was completed by age 5. In addition, Wode (1981) pointed out that there are many development structures which occur across all age groups. This means that the abilities underlying these structures cannot be assumed to have changed over time. Wode, however, suggested that reconsideration of this maturational issue be made and more research done because such changes may occur elsewhere and at different times than those suggested by Lenneberg.

Similarly, Singleton (1989), on the issue of maturation argued that this maturation stage is a less controversial issue "as no one seriously disputes the proposition that in the normal development of vocal activity and early speech there is both a predictable sequence of events and, within certain limits, a predictable chronology. Nevertheless, even in this area one finds divergence's of view, notably with regard to the relationship between the very earliest vocalisations - 'cooing' and 'babbling' - and later speech" (p. 6). He further argues that maturation should include any aspect of development which is a function of age. Since ageing refers to cognitive and affective as well as physiological ageing, language development in itself is an aspect of normal ageing. Therefore, maturation implies language development. To him the most "interesting question is not whether normal

maturation involves language development but what the precise nature of the maturational dimension of language development is. The language development aspect of maturation is particularly to be borne in mind when one is considering second language learning. The learning of a second language learner is more mature than the beginning first language learner not only physically, mentally and emotionally, but also linguistically" (ibid.: 6).

As the issue of maturation continues, the issue of the age factor in second language learning especially the differences between younger and older second language learners continues as also does the prediction that younger children perform better, as confirmed by Macnamara that:

> young children in suitable environments pick up a second language with little trouble, whereas adults seem to struggle ineffectively with a new language and to impose the phonology of their mother tongue on the new language (1973a: 63).

Two basic assumptions crop out when discussing the age factor in language learning. First, there are age ranges within which certain developments should occur in normal first language acquisition, and secondly, one's age is a major factor in how efficient one is as a language learner (especially for second language learners). Approaches to these two assumptions vary. The first assumption has been subjected to numerous observations and experimentation, while the second assumption has been "treated as self-evidently accurate accounts of phenomena to be explained" (Singleton, 1989: 2).

The issue of the 'critical period' in second language development has received tremendous debate and criticism. Singleton (1989) believes that Lenneberg's (1967) discussion of the critical period is much more an attempt to provide an explanation for its existence rather than actually to demonstrate it. The following statements illustrate a representative range of currently hold observations:

> Whether or not there really is a critical period hasn't been established with any certainty yet (Clark and Clark 1977: 520).

> Lenneberg's proposal of a clear critical period for language acquisition has to be considerably modified.....Acquisition of a second language after the critical period may be quite efficient and acquisition of a first language may still be possible (Elliot 1981: 27).

> the critical period theory is of considerable relevance for second language learning and even more so for second language teaching.....but there are serious doubts as to whether it is true (Klein 1986: 10).

The existence of the 'critical period' is not the only question to arise but many researchers have also concluded that in learning a second language, older learners can achieve better than younger ones. Each of the following authorities are cited as having come to this conclusion: that the younger learner is only superior in the area of oral skills. This is shown in the following quotations:

> the most conservative interpretation which the available evidence would appear to permit is that the achievement of skill in a foreign language is primarily a function of the amount of time spent studying that language, but is also affected by age of the learner, older learners tending to be more efficient than younger ones (Burstall 1975a: 17).

> So far from showing the superiority of children, most of the hard evidence warrants the opposite conclusion (Cook 1978: 12).

> There is now....fairly substantial evidence that younger children are not generally as efficient foreign language learners as adolescents or even adults - with the exception of the development of articulatory skills (Faerch et al. 1984: 211).

> children are superior to adults only in the long run (Krashen, 1982a: 43).

Similarly Hatch summarised this issue in the following manner:

> The general picture that emerges is this: The research does not strongly support an optimal age hypothesis that says 'the younger the better', nor does it support a contrary hypothesis 'the older the better'. We may state another hypothesis, 'the older *child* the better', but even that is not clear from the data (1983a: 196).

All of these criticisms are made basically on aesthetic grounds as stated by Tarone (1989). However, even on 'aesthetic' grounds, many of these 'inner processing' theories are faulted. Several of them fail to maintain consistency with the very distinctions they seek to make. For example, the lack of clarity of Krashen's distinction between acquisition and learning has been pointed out by several authors, for example, McLaughlin (1978, 1987) and Bialystok and Sharwood-Smith (1985). However as Tarone (1989) stated the distinctions among the various theoretical constructs were still unclear until now.

Despite this persistently unsettling issue regarding second language learning, two terms have been used to describe the process of second language learning by Hartnett (1976). He used the term 'deductive learner' for a student who was successful in learning a second language (L2) through the traditional teach-and-drill classroom approach. A student who was more successful in learning a second language through emphasising conversational skill in a classroom was termed an 'inductive learner'. Hartnett speculates that deductive L2 learners are more likely to utilise the left hemisphere than students who prefer an

inductive style of learning. In contrast, Obler (1989: 143) stresses that "successful L2 learning or acquisition, I maintain, requires both sorts of abilities".

Generally, in second language learning what is acquired varies according to different language acquisition processes across culture. The different levels of expectation or participation, different beliefs about the cognitive capabilities of children and adults, different social situations in every culture, different types of knowledge, and different values and standards will inevitably produce variation in L2 results. As Gardner observes:

> After the first year or two of life, the individual enters into negotiations not merely with physical or social objects but also, and increasingly, with sets of symbols and discourses of meaning with words, pictures, gestures, numbers, ritualistic activities, and other "mediators of significance"; and it is here that the differences across cultures become most manifest, increasingly profound, and sometimes irremediable (1984: 270).

Viewing the methora of models of language acquisition, Haslett concludes(1989: 25), "it seems reasonable to say that no one model satisfactorily explains language acquisition. It seems likely that innate, cognitive, and social factors play complex, interactive roles in language acquisition. For different cultures, the balance of innate, cognitive, and social factors in language acquisition may well vary, given that different languages are being learned". Further issues concerning culture and language will be discussed in a later section of this chapter.

In reviewing the above literature, the researcher has maintained a mainly non-critical attitude towards the ideas proposed by Krashen, Piaget, Chomsky, Skinner and Vygotsky and has not questioned the assumptions or evidence that underlie their theories. This has been done basically because of the lack of evidence in the Malaysian context and at the tertiary level which is the academic environment in which the researcher works.

3.7 Language and Society

Language appears to play an undeniably important role in a society. For this reason, it appears that language cannot stand on its own out of a social context. Stern insisted that "we cannot teach a language for long without coming face to face with social context factors which have bearing on language and language learning. That language and society are in many ways closely linked, is not questioned, either in language education or in social science" (1983: 191). Lakoff (1976: 207) further states that "language interacts with other aspects of human social behaviour: there is no science of linguistics that stands alone. Rather, all areas of linguistic research must be concerned with what makes people human. Linguistics, therefore, must be considered an interdependent component of a much larger field". Additionally, Sapir (1921), Whorf (1941), and Corder (1973) among many others feel that to some extent language determines or at least influences the conceptualisation of our environment, the categorisation of our experiences, and our view of the world around us. For this reason, they feel language is a social process which serves to shape the organisational and conceptual patterns of our daily life.

Social interaction is an essential part of the meaning of language according to other language theorists. Burling, for example, states, "any full view of language must embrace both the linguists' insight into the internal organisation of language and the broader view of the part language plays in all human life" (1970: 7). For this reason, researchers or language teachers cannot ignore the involvement of language in society. Without understanding the function of language in society one will not be able to study linguistics or second language teaching. This approach is upheld by Lakoff, "the linguist must involve himself, professionally, with sociology: first, because he's able to isolate the data that the sociologist can use in determining the weaknesses and strengths of a culture--: then because if he does not examine the society of the speakers of the language along with the so-called purely linguistic data, he will be unable to make the relevant generalisations, will

be unable to understand why the language works the way it does. He will, in short, be unable to do linguistics" (1975: 50).

Corder as an applied linguist, is among those who have strongly advocated a multidisciplinary view of language learning:

> all one can say is that there is now an increasing awareness amongst some psychologists, sociologists, and linguists that each has something to say about language which is significant to the others and that, if he does not take into account what the others are saying, his own statements can only be regarded as a partial explanation of the nature of language (1973: 82).

The study of communication ability, as Sapir (1968) and Stern (1983) believe, should see language, society and culture studied in close association with one another. As Stern further states, "the study of language constantly demands an interpretation of socially determined meaning, and, vice versa, the study of different aspects of culture require an understanding of the verbal aspects of that culture" (p. 201).

Radcliffe-Brown (1952: 196), as an anthropologist, believes that there is a more one-way relationship between language and society. To him language is the result of social structure which is equivalent to the class structure when differences of speech are being practised. He feels that it is necessary for social anthropology or linguistics to study aspects of language in relation to society. In contrast, Malinowski (1923), believes that an understanding of the language is impossible without constantly relating it to the culture in which it is operative. As he elaborated, "language is essentially rooted in the reality of the culture, the tribal life and customs of the people, and ..... it cannot be explained without constant reference to these broader contexts of verbal utterances" (p. 305). The connection between culture, self and communication will be elaborated in a later section of this chapter.

3.8 Language and Behaviour

Another link between language and society is the role of language and behaviour. It appears that language is connected to behaviour in that it shapes our personality. In terms of Behaviourism language reveals a person's "self" in the form of a person's self-concept and also it shapes behaviour, in the form of a concept of self. Therefore, language serves a dual role in its interaction with behaviour: at the same time it both shapes and expresses people's behaviour towards others and themselves. Egan states, "language is used to reveal one's real self. It is man's transition of himself into language (1973: 197)." Pike on the other hand, feels that "language is behaviour, i.e. a phase of human activity which must not be treated in essence as structurally divorced from the structure of non-verbal human activity" (1967: 26). In this theory, language is therefore a learned behaviour requiring both the conscious and subconscious acquisition of speech habits. At the same time, it also reveals one's innermost thoughts, feelings, and personality.

Lakoff puts it, "if it is indeed true that our feelings about the world colour our expression of our thoughts then we can use our linguistic behaviour as a diagnostic of our hidden feelings about things" (1975: 3). Labov (1966) on the other hand defines the role of language in terms of self-identification. In Labov and Fanshel (1977) analysis of the discourse of a therapist and her client, there is a translation of the personality people into language, often trying to hide aspects they would rather not deal with it. As held by Montagu (1973), language shapes behaviour. It reflects a person's view and place in life.

> It is seldom understood that the world we perceive is the world we see through words, that the world of experience is the world of arbitrarily conferred meanings. Each of us has learned to see the world not as it is but through the distorting glass of our words. It is through words that we are made human and it is through words that we are dehumanised (Montagu, 1973: 266).

Language has also been associated with one's self-esteem. Weinberg (1973: 139), for example, states that a person can improve his self-concept if he changes his negative internal thoughts about himself or others or if he can change all the negative thoughts he expresses to others. For example, he believed that if a person can dissociate the words of an earlier experience from the words of a current experience, he will learn to be a happier person. Even Berne (1974) and Harris (1973), as psychotherapist, has tried to show that 'sentences' or 'scripts' for clients can be changed to more positive and self-oriented statements, and therefore, indirectly, improve the client's self-concept.

3.2.0 Definition of Self-Esteem.

The study of self-esteem requires the consideration of an adequate definition of the relationship between such concepts as self-esteem, academic performance, attitudes, and linguistic performance. For centuries researchers have become interested in how aspects of the self are related to one another and in how each is formed. A number of personality theorists, for example, Rogers (1951), Murphy (1947) and Adler (1927) have stressed the importance of attitude towards oneself, but have not made direct studies of its effect.

There are over a thousand different combinations and uses of the terms in the self-concept area. In Lawrence's (1987) view, the same terms are often used to mean different things, and different terms such as self-esteem, self-concept and self-image are often used to mean the same thing. In fact, in early works problems arose over the lack of agreement over definitions. There were problems, too, over the research techniques used. These were felt to be inadequate and hard to validate. The self-report techniques, for example, show some weaknesses in the accuracy of the responses. For this reason, many researchers have tried to distinguish the content of self-concept and self-esteem, but in practice the distinctions are

often blurred (Renshaw, 1970). However, despite this, contemporary definitions are discussed below.

3.2.1 Theories of the Self

Self is defined in one dictionary of psychology as an agent conscious of his own continuing identity (Drever 1952) or "of oneself or itself" in the Collins and The Oxford English Dictionaries. The works of James (1890), Cooley (1902) and Mead (1934) stand out as early influences in the development of the theory of self and have led to a better understanding of the various theories of what self actually is. For example, Mead (1934) suggests that self is the product of a process during which the individual comes to accept as his own the ideas about himself that he perceives others hold of him. Mead also felt that children will later develop self-concepts or ideas about themselves similar to those which others have of them. In defining such conceptualisation, Mead thus distinguished between the "I" and the "Me" in self conception.

In expanding his theory, Mead (1934) postulated that the 'Me' is reached through taking the attitudes of others towards oneself. This he saw as the 'objectified' aspect of 'self' that is presented to others, and that which we 'see' when we take their attitude towards one's self. In other words, the 'Me' is what the individual 'sees' when he interacts with another person. A good example of this phenomena occurs when a person looks into the mirror to look at him or herself. Mead believes that a person has several 'Mes' at any one time. For example, the concept of 'me' is the physical 'me', the 'me' in a certain interaction or situation where a person can be an understanding and warm , the 'me' as a guardian or parent, or the 'me' as a child or student. Whereas, the 'I' is more 'involved' in self conceptualisation. Kimmel (1978) says the 'I' is a momentary, process self; it can never be observed or objectified because it exists only in moment-to-moment consciousness; it exists only in process. In some ways it resembles the 'stream of consciousness' that James

discussed - it is moment-by-moment awareness, ever-changing and existing only in process. According to Young and Bagley (1982: 42) the 'I' usually responds to a situation in the immediate present and as such is always uncertain and unpredictable. "The possibilities of the "I" belong to that which is actually going on, taking place now, and it is in some sense the most fascinating part of our experience. It is there that novelty arises ..." (Mead 1934: 237).

Webster and Socieszek (1974) further state that self is relational and specific. To them self-evaluation is relative to the structure of the social situation. To them others, context and environment are important because to all of them self is an ongoing, changing and active processable characteristic of a person. Similarly, the pioneer of theories of the personality, Freud (1937) states that there are three aspects to personal development. These are: the Id (instinctual drives), the Ego (the adaptive part of the mind which brings it into conformity with external reality) and the Super-Ego (that represents the demands of parents and society, guiding the Ego along a 'moral' path). In contrast, Erikson (1968) argues that the individual and quality of a person's self-value are the most important factors in determining a person's individuality. His work is based on a persons identity. To this end, Erikson believed that in the search for integrity a person will get involved with the identification which figures in the culture and will go through eight stages in order to reach the level of ego integrity. Erikson's stages are: trust versus basic mistrust, autonomy versus shame and doubt, initiative versus guilt, industry versus inferiority, identity versus role diffusion, intimacy versus isolation, generativity versus stagnation and ego integrity versus despair.

With the theory of self-actualisation, Maslow (1954) proposes five levels of needs. These are: physiological needs- (hunger, thirst, warmth), safety needs-(security, stability and order), belongingness and love needs-(affection, affiliation and identification), esteem

needs (prestige, success and self-respect) and need for self-actualisation or self-fulfilment. Through this distinction, he believed in an order of needs in the development of a person.

Studies among many West Indian children and adolescents in Britain seem to show that people are striving for the last three levels of need (Weinreich, 1979; Bagley et al., 1979b). However, Becker (1971) believes that the most important thing for a human being is the need for self-esteem. This notion is supported by Hayakawa (1963) who mentions that self-esteem should be the main purpose of all human activity.

3.2.2 What is Self-Concept?

Cooley (1902), demonstrates that a major perspective of self-concept is the 'other self' or how you think others think of you. Cooley, who introduced the theory of the 'looking-glass self', states that one's self-conceptualisation is significantly influenced by what the individual believes others think of him. Mead (1934) and Burns (1975) appear to share the same view. According to Burns, self-concept is the sum total of the view that a person has of himself, and "consists of beliefs, evaluations and behavioural tendencies" (1975: 29). Mead (1934) similarly felt that man is able to predict other men's behaviour as well as the predictions other men make of one's own behaviour. Recently Pope (1988) stated that what we think we are is a mirror reflection of how others see us. This group of people, who describe themselves as 'symbolic interactionists', believe that individuals develop an idea about who they are based on how they are treated or seen by others. For example, if a child is told that she is stupid whenever she gets her report card, she will come to see herself as stupid (or not intelligent). This is due to the fact that once a child develops ideas about who she is, she will begin to behave in ways that are consistent with her self-concept from the feedback she receives which supports her ideas of what she is like.

Alternatively, Rogers' self-concept (1951: 136) may be thought of as an "organised configuration of perceptions of the self....it is composed of such elements as the perceptions of one's characteristics and abilities; the percepts and concepts of self in relation to others and to the environment; the value qualities which are perceived as associated with experiences and objects; and goals and ideals which are perceived as having positive or negative valence". In short, Rogers self-concept refers to the way a person sees himself. His view is shared by Lawrence (1987). According to Lawrence, self-concept is the individual's awareness of his or her own self and identity. It is an individual's mental and physical characteristics and his or her evaluation of them.

Adults play an important role in children's minds because how the children perceive the social world affects the shaping of their self-concept. Children become oriented to the opinions and perspectives of others around them, in part because they are better able to understand points of view that differ from their own (Flavell, 1985). They tend to compare themselves with others, their ideas about who they are and how they are treated by others comes from feedback around them. Peers also play a significant role in the development of children's self-esteem (Ruble, Boggiano, Feldman, and Luebl 1980; Harter, 1983;). Young and Bagley (1982) indicate that 'the individual's notion of himself is social in origin and as such is derived from his interaction with others who evaluate him in many differing ways. They felt that a child tends to see himself as others see him and from that he develops the sense of self-image of himself.

Similarly, Burton (1983) also believes that a person's self-concept is moulded very early in life and usually develops through the mixing with people around him. Therefore, the process of self-concept does not necessarily result in a negative self-image, as stated by Kohlberg (1966), as long as the feedback that a child receives from others is always positive.

American theorists, including James (1890), Cooley (1902) and Mead (1934), identify the development of 'self' in an interactive social context. They view the self as existing within the biological individual but nonetheless as composed of concepts and categories that are provided by society. For example the descriptions of oneself such as 'I am a child' , ' a girl' , 'an Indian', or 'a Malaysian', identify the individual's emerging self in an established social grouping. The individual, therefore, learns simultaneously about self and society. This brings us to what Coopersmith (1967) has confirmed, that self concepts are symbols that blend together the enormous number of varied perceptions which include memories and experiences that are important in the personal life of the individual.

Coopersmith feels that experience plays a vital role in influencing the basic ego structure of a person which is the heart of self. The way one looks upon himself is a product of experiences of social interaction with others. Coopersmith refers to self-concept as the symbol or image which the person has formed from his personal experiences. Even though many studies on self-concept have been carried out, techniques for measuring self-concept have not been based on observational techniques of interaction because they are difficult to conduct (Risk 1970, 1975).

According to Young and Bagley (1982), while 'I' is a part of self theory, the self-concept is also involved in the objective or cognitive appraisal of the self. Meanwhile, self-esteem is involved in the emotional appraisal of the self, reflecting self-confidence. They strongly believe that all self-conceptions are also the expressions of self-esteem.

In Lawrence's view (1987), self-concept is believed to develop in three areas: self-image, ideal self and self-esteem. He refers to self-concept as the 'umbrella' of self-image, ideal-self and self-esteem. The 'umbrella' as referred to by Lawrence is shown as follows:

Self-Concept

self-image	ideal self
-what the person is	-what the person would like to be

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self-esteem

-what the person feels about the discrepancy between what he/she is and what he/she would like to be (1987: 2).

This leads back to Coopersmith (1967) who states that self-esteem is resistant to change and remains fixed unless the person actively transforms it through some conscious effort. According to him, self-esteem may vary across diverse areas of experience in accordance to age, sex and other role-defining conditions. It is also subjected to an assessment or evaluation which people make of themselves and their abilities. This can be done by express their feelings towards themselves in ways consistent with their verbal messages and open behaviour. However, people's self-concept changes depending on various situations and tasks which they perform.

In contrast, Fitts (1965) identifies three internal frames and five enternal frames of reference of self-esteem. The internal self which is also the centre of self-esteem refers to the "self-as-object (identity self); self-as-doer (behavioural self); and self-as-observer and judge (judging self)" (p.14) which is sometimes referred to as self-satisfaction. This self according to him is capable of judging not only what is experienced but is judged consciously by the individual himself. On the other hand, the moral-ethical, physical, family, personal and social self are the five external frames of reference which are the

cross-sections of the internal frames of reference, while educational, intellectual and language learning are the subselves of reference.

There are three levels of self-esteem which include global, specific and task self-esteem. Global self-esteem, as stated by Simpson and Boyle (1975), is the individual's evaluation of his over-all worth as a person. Specific self-esteem refers to evaluations made in certain life situations (social interaction, work, education) or those based on particular aspects of the individual (personality, intelligence, etc.). Task self-esteem is the individual's expectations or evaluations of himself in task situations. Global self-esteem is the highest branch or the self-esteem tree while specific and task self-esteem are the base of it (Shavelson, 1976).

3.2.3 What is Self-Image?

As defined by the Collins Dictionary 'self-image' is one's own idea of oneself or sense of one's worth. The Concise Oxford Dictionary gives one's own idea or picture of oneself, especially in relation to others as the definition of self-image. In Lawrence's (1987: 3) words, "self-image is the starting point of an understanding of self-esteem". It is the individual's awareness of one's mental and physical characteristics. He believes that the more experiences a person has, the richer the self-image of that person. This process starts at home where parents are responsible for giving the first self-image to a child. The child may be considered as clever or stupid, pretty or not by the parents' non-verbal as well as verbal communication with the child. From there, this self-image will be moulded by other experiences, especially from school where the child has his or her own personal characteristics and will know how popular he or she is by his or her close personal contacts. Similarly, this process of self-image can be related to Cooley's (1902) "looking glass theory of self" where people around him or her contribute to a child's self-image. Others will form a child's self-image where the process "is not a matter of 'bouncing off

the environment' but also one of 'reflecting on the environment' as this environment makes it possible for children to reflect on their experiences and interpret them" (Lawrence, 1987: 2).

On the other hand, Argyle (1967) refers to self-image as the purely descriptive part of a person, or how a person sees and thinks of himself. He believes that a person also sees himself or herself as unique and different from others. This self-image normally refers to "how a person consciously perceives himself in terms of his name, his bodily feelings, body-image, sex and age" (p.17). Argyle sometimes refers to this self-image as 'ego-identity'. Therefore, a person can be a businesswoman, a mother and at the same time a member of clubs and other activities that she is involved in. The way this person sees herself in each of these roles is part of her 'ego-identity' or self-image. Similarly, Erikson (1956) believes that between the ages of sixteen and twenty-two a person will try to figure out which identity belongs to him and will have to decide which identity to hold on to.

A child grows up with all sorts of ideas about himself, his abilities, attributes and appearance. These are acquired and influenced by his perceptions of how he is accepted and valued by the adults who care for him (Ruble et. al., 1980; Young and Bagley, 1982; Burton, 1983; Harter, 1983; Flavell, 1985) This self-image goes with him at all times and influences what he does and how he behaves. There can be lots of aspects of self-image-social, physical, intellectual-and they are all influenced by the 'significant others' in the child's life. "If we could look in on a child's self-image it would resemble an album of self-portraits, sometimes candid, sometimes posed; some are detailed and some enlarged but all are close-ups, all are revealing and all are very personal" (Robinson and Maines, 1989: 180).

In a similar way to Burton (1983), Borba and Borba (1982) state that children begin to mould their self-images at a very young age and that positive and successful experiences help to form a positive self-image in children. Therefore by creating environments in which they can feel secure about themselves the children will have many opportunities to develop their strengths and this will help them to have those positive experiences. Parents and teachers will have an important role in helping children to have this positive self-image. They state clearly that "self-image is acquired and not inherited" (Borba and Borba, 1982: 2). Furthermore this self-image helps to guide thinking and behaviour in children and at the same time it affects their creativity, integrity and stability. They also believe that self-image plays a role in the kind of friends, the type of job, and the spouse a person chooses.

3.2.4 What is Ideal Self?

Argyle (1967) refers to the 'ideal self' as the 'ego-ideal' of a person. When a child has an 'ego-ideal' it means that the child would like to be somebody in particular, someone whom he or she especially admires. In this case, usually a popular figure will be chosen such as a president, an actor, a popular writer or a model. This 'ideal self' is formed from a child's interaction with other people around him or her and will form his or her 'ideal self' (Robinson and Maines 1989: 180). In other words, the 'ideal self' is an image of what a person would like to be.

This notion is shared by Lawrence (1987). He states that in the development of self-image in a child, the child will realise that there are ideal characteristics that he or she would like to possess and there are also ideal standards of behaviour or skills which are valued by others, such as intelligence, acquiring certain skills, such as writing, painting or playing the musical instruments. In line with Coopersmith's ideas, Lawrence believes that a child's early experiences may continue to influence his or her behaviour and normally will come to

accept this ideal image from people around him or her. When a child sees a popular actor or actress on television for example, he or she may want to become one when they grow up and may adopt certain characteristics of that person.

This is consistent with a national survey, called Major's Children 93, commissioned by the Trustee Savings Bank, which shows that most 16-year-old boys tend to admire the tycoon Richard Branson as the man they would most like to be, while girls see Body Shop chief Anita Roddick as the perfect role model. Rock idols like Prince and Madonna take second place to the two youthful millionaire tycoons in the survey, reflecting teenagers' changed priorities for the 90s. The survey quizzed 400 pupils aged 12 and 16 and was reported by the popular newspaper the Daily Mirror (4th May 1993). The same survey conducted on Leicestershire teenagers revealed that the sports personalities top their list of people they most admired. Teenage Indian cricketer, Sachin Tendulkar, John McCririck, a television horse racing tipster, and John Barnes, a soccer player who plays left-wing for Liverpool Football Club, are some of the idols. When asked who or what was the most important thing in their lives almost all of the youngsters named their families or friends (Leicester Mercury, 5th May 1993). Commenting on the children, psychologist David Lewis says "they're not all going to be Bransons...But it's better to dream than to sink immediately into a trough of despondency" (Daily Mirror 1993: 2).

3.3.0 Self-Esteem

This section will look closely at the definition of self-esteem which is a major focus of this study and has particular significance in educational psychology. Since the work of Diggory (1966) and other social psychologists, self-esteem has became a common area of study. Even though some believe that the terms of self-concept and self-esteem are sometimes used interchangeable, others believe they refer to a totally two different things. Allport (1961) for example, says that self-esteem is the degree to which a person *evaluates*

him or herself. Alternatively, Cottle (1965) describes self-esteem as a personal judgement of worth lying along a dimension with 'positive' and 'negative' ends, while Rogers (1951) defines it in terms of self-attitudes which have an emotional and behavioural component. Some people, like Cohen (1994), interpret self-esteem as the degree of correspondence between the 'ideal-self' and the 'actual self', while Argyle (1967) regards self-esteem as the individual's effective evaluation of the differences between 'ideal-self' and the 'actual self'. Almost similar to Allport, (1961) Coopersmith's (1967) view of self-esteem is the person's *evaluation* of the image or symbol the person has, which is formed out of his personal experiences.

Maslow's (1969) esteem needs are divided into two subsidiary sets. One set deals with the desire for strength, for achievement, adequacy, mastery, competence, independence and freedom, confidence in the face of the world, while the other set of esteem needs involve the desire for reputation, prestige, status, dominance recognition, attention, importance and appreciation. Maslow points out that an individual's self-esteem is very much dependent on others. How others see a person influences an individual a great deal. James (1890) on the other hand, proposes that self-esteem can be defined as the relationship between a person's 'actual self' and his 'ideal self' where to a certain extent the 'real self' does not meet with the expectation of the 'ideal self' and as a result the person will experience a low self-esteem.

So far, the discussion has established that self-esteem is believed to be developed as a result of interpersonal relationships within the family, which gradually heads toward school influences and to the influences of the larger society in which the individual chooses to live and work. Self-esteem is also believed to have a significant influence in the life of a student in his or her relationships with parents, teachers and friends. As a student, it is

important to have positive self-esteem which is a reflection of our 'quiet sense of respect' or a feeling of 'self-worth'. As stated by Shaevitz (1984: 96), "if your child has a high self-esteem, he or she has it made". No matter what definitions have been given down the years, the study of self-esteem continues to be of importance in society today.

3.3.1 Nature of Self-Esteem in Childhood and Adulthood.

In 1973, Lawrence conducted case studies in the counselling of retarded readers. The case studies revealed that children of 8 to 11 years of age tended to be concerned about the opinions of others in three major areas: the opinions of peers, the opinions of teachers and the opinions of parents. These case studies supported Cooley's (1902) looking glass 'theory of self' and Lawrence therefore concluded that self-esteem is the child's affective evaluation of the sum total of his or her characteristics, both mental and physical.

As previously discussed by many, including Mead (1934), Burns (1975), Harter (1983), Flavell (1985), and more recently McNamara and Moreton (1995), Robinson and Maines (1989) have also concluded that the way a person feels about himself or herself is very much determined by the people around him or her and also by the way he or she 'behaves, learns and relates' to these people. Various child-development experts suggest various ways to enhance children's having high self-esteem. Briggs, for example, says that "conceit is but whitewash to cover low self-esteem. With high self-esteem you don't waste time and energy impressing others; you already know you have value" (Quoted in Shaevitz, 1984: 97) She emphasises that self-esteem forms the 'core' of a child's personality and determines the use he or she makes of his or her 'aptitudes and abilities'.

According to Young and Bagley (1982), adequate self-esteem is necessary but not a sufficient condition for an adequate identity. To them what is important is the way in which global identity integrates both in the past and present experiences of adolescence

especially in ways which enable the individual to maximise his potential. Sharing Coopersmith's (1967), Borba and Borba's (1982) and Lawrence's (1987) beliefs, they also felt that most of us have a reasonable amount of interaction between what we experience and our perception of ourselves. Therefore, to them experience plays an important role in the development of adult self-esteem since adults tend to respond to a situation in the immediate present experience and as such is always uncertain and unpredictable.

Positive self-esteem is the picture that we have built up from the feedback we have received over the years. Our self-esteem is high if we are happy with such feedback. Everybody needs to feel good about themselves and we all need to know that we are acceptable in the eyes of those around us (Coopersmith, 1967; Burns 1982; Lawrence 1987; Hamachek, 1987; McNamara and Moreton, 1995). Social structure is also important in developing adult identity and self-esteem, as shown in a study by Bagley and Verma (1979) on the black community in Britain, where black identity takes a particular form as these young people cope, by various means, with the society in which they live.

Similar to Coopersmith (1967), Burton (1983) thinks that although self-concept of a person is resistant to change there is some possibility that it can be altered as the person goes through life as a result of the 'accumulation of experience' or due to certain 'formative events'. An adult has to learn to accept weaknesses and learn how to cope or deal with them. Realistic feedback can be used to encourage higher self-esteem. For example, a person might not have a good educational background and might have poor or low self-esteem. However, she might be good at cooking and this realistic feedback can be used to improve her self-esteem.

Even a teacher has 'evaluation of him or herself" (Allport, 1961). A teacher might think that he or she is a good teacher no matter what people say. It will take a lot of will-power to admit that his or her approach is not good or wrong. This could either be evidence of a positive self-image or have a negative effect of being resistant to advice.

A personal talk with Molina, (Personal Communication, 1993) a lecturer at the University of Las Palmas of Gran Canaria, Canary Island shows that self-esteem can affect everyone including lecturers. Molina, who is teaching English as a Foreign Language to 19 to 21 year old adults, admits that her self-esteem level changes on different occasions. When she is dealing with her students, for example, her self-esteem is somehow higher compared with her self-esteem level when dealing with her colleagues. The reason is because she is conscious of her competence in English when she is speaking with her students. However when interacting with her colleagues she feels less comfortable as their level of language is the same as hers, therefore, this decreases her self-esteem.

In the context of this study (in the Malaysian environment), when students from any particular ethnic memberships are heard saying that "I am not good at speaking and no matter how hard I try I still cannot improve my English". The reality may be that the student is protecting his own self and is trying to say that he needs help with his English or second language based on the theory of self-esteem and self-image presented in this literature. As stated by Coopersmith (1967), a person's evaluation is the image or symbol that the person has which is formed out of his personal experience. Therefore, the period of adolescence can be seen as the crucial time in the development of the self-concept. This is the time in which most individuals establish a self-identity that will persist into adult life (Harter, 1983; Pope, 1988). A positive self-concept is believed to form a positive self-image. The link between self, identity and culture will be elaborated in later section of this chapter.

3.3.2 Academic Self-Esteem

Many writers have demonstrated a relationship between scholastic achievement and self-esteem (Brookover *et al.*, 1964). Teachers are in a powerful position to be able to influence a child's self-concept (Staines, 1958). Extra attention should be given to children with poor self-esteem because children that have experienced failure come to lack confidence as adults. These children tend to expect failure and a certain remedial approach will have to be taken into consideration. Evidence such as the case studies by Lawrence (1973) has shown that children's behaviour changes as the self-image changes, and therefore, it may be useful to try to change the child's self-concept before attempting the more formal teaching of skills. Lawrence (1973) has shown in her counselling programmes that children's' reading attainment can be improved if their self-esteem is improved.

Another study by Barker (1979) also showed a positive correlation between self-esteem and arithmetic scores. It is possible that when one changes one's academic self-esteem one can change the global self-concept as well. An adult has to have a target self and have some control over it. Therefore, in the context of Malaysian students, reflecting the theory outlined in this section, there is a connection between self-esteem and academic performance. Changing one means changing the other.

3.3.3 Self-Esteem and its relationship to academic performance

The early work of Fitts (1977) indicates that there are three major areas in the relationship between self-esteem and learning in education. According to Fitts, these are self-esteem and its relation to the prediction of future performance, academic performance, motivation and attitudes. Using the Tennessee Self Concept Scale (TSCS) as his research measure, Fitts and his colleagues used the measures to predict the future performance of a wide variety of subjects who included child care workers, blind college students, the handicapped and school dropouts. His research demonstrates the extensive used of self-

concept as a predictive measure on various training programmes before and after the training. His work also shows that students' concept of self is a significant variable in relation to self-concept and academic performance, even though correlation's between self-concept and achievement tests and grade point averages are inconclusive.

Fitts pointed out that for better predictors of grades and achievement test results, specific self-perception is much better than his measure, whereas in the work of Simpson and Boyle (1975), global self-esteem was not found to be a predictor of performance and actual performance. They also found that specific self-esteem was a better predictor of actual performance than global self-esteem, and task self-esteem was a predictor of actual performance. Fitts' work further shows that various affective factors do affect academic performance such as attitudes toward school and teachers, aim and motivation, determination and school fulfilment and classroom involvement.

Fitts (1972: 43) stated that it is important for a person to have a "healthy" self-concept in order to be successful in an academic setting. This is a crucial aspect, "otherwise his self concept seems to be more closely related to the non-cognitive aspects within the academic setting" (ibid.: 43). Research by Brodkey and Store (1976) also found that their test was a strong predictor of good and poor language-study behaviour which was assessed by language teachers not only on foreign students but also on minority and Anglo-American students. Even though their measure was considered a personality test, it uses a variety of personality factors which were classified as self concept characteristics. Their measure used an original personality test based on the Myers-Briggs style statements using the Q-sort technique. In this study, the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory (1967) will be used to measure tertiary students self-esteem and the Barker-Lunn Academic Self-Image (1970) will be used to measure students' academic self-image. Discussion about these two measures will be provided later in this chapter.

3.3.4 Self-Esteem and Language Learning

Attitudes evolve from many interacting experiences especially from home, school and society. Attitudes to a language develop because of interest in learning the language which could be due to the interest in the target language community or because of interest in the language itself (Lambert, 1955). In the development of knowledge especially in second language learning, attitude is sometimes related to performance, especially when it comes to negative attitudes. Kennedy and Bolitho (1984) hold that much of an attitude towards language "may be influenced by a student's previous learning of English. Where this learning has not been successful, there may be a negative feeling towards continuing something which in the past has connotations of failure" (p. 17). They believe that in order to motivate, encourage and enable learners to overcome any feelings of reluctance to study English the development of texts has to be more closely linked to the skills required by the learners and of high interest to them. These all impart messages about the place and purpose of learning. "Successful learning means changed attitudes" (Good, Jenkins, Leevers, Pates 1981: 43). Marckwardt (1948) argues that there are five basic reasons for learning a second language among learners: because of the provision of a cultural background; the influence of foreign speech islands; the necessity for political relations; and commerce; and the necessity for reading scientific and technical works.

According to Gardner and Lambert (1972), attitudes may be grouped into two categories: external and internal. External attitudes refer to evaluation factors outside the learner, for example, the importance of a second language to the learner, the importance of the second language's culture, or the learner's native language. On the other hand, internal attitudes refer to the evaluations of the learner inside himself, for example, his ability towards the target language. In this study, self-esteem relates closely to internal attitudes. This internal attitude of self-esteem refers to the learner's evaluation of himself as to how he feels and how he evaluates himself.

Research has suggested that internal and external attitudes affect motivation. As suggested by Gardner and Lambert (1972), there is a relationship between external attitudes, motivation and second language behaviour. Gardner and Lambert (1972) and Gardner and MacIntyre (1993) refer to this concept as "integrative motivation". This refers to the learner's need to be a part of the culture of the second language community and the learner's positive attitude toward the people and language of the second culture. There is a connection between motivation and behaviour in relation to internal attitudes. In the case of internal attitudes, Gardner and MacIntyre (1993) believe that there is a relationship between self-esteem and motivation: self-esteem is important to raise one's motivation level. According to them, a person is capable of changing behaviour if he is confident of the change. The need to preserve and improve the regularity within the value system needs a positive attitude to motivate behaviour. One's "value system" here refers to one's self-esteem which stimulates motivation, which also yields the same result, as Miskimins (1973) indicated. Miskimins suggested that motivation is needed in order to boost self-esteem. Similarly, Fitts (1965) states that a learner's attitude toward his language ability determines the level of his success in using the target language. For example, if a learner thinks he can speak or use the second language, his language behaviour tends to rise to match the belief. Jakobovits (1970) stated that a learner uses his second language ability according to what "he knows' of the language. The success of learning the second language depends on the learner, on what the learner feels he knows.

For this reason, in applying the theory to the context of the present study, all ethnic groups in Malaysia should have a similar opportunity to succeed in learning a second language as long as their internal motivation is high. However, generalisations cannot be made about any particular type of students, especially when no study in Malaysian context to support this theory has been found.

As indicated by Gardner and MacIntyre:

> when attention is directed to the language acquisition contexts, all of the individual difference variables, with the exception of language attitudes, are shown as having a direct effect on learning in the formal language-learning environment....this is meant to indicate that in any learning situation....both formal and informal language acquisition contexts are assumed to have direct effects on both linguistic and non-linguistic outcomes, a recognition that individuals' reactions to the learning experience will depend to some extent on their relative degree of success.....it is proposed that both linguistic and non-linguistic outcomes will have an influence on individual difference variables (1993: 9).

As they have suggested, other variables may also demonstrate a link with language learning and language achievement. As they proposed:

> there are a number of antecedent factors that must also be considered when attempting to study the role of individual difference variables in the process of learning a second language....Examples of such factors...would include gender, age, prior language training, etc. Rather than attempt to describe all the possible roles that such factors might play, it seems best to propose that, at a minimum, they should be considered by an investigator when planning a study.....Clearly, any study of individual differences in second-language acquisition would have to ensure that subjects were relatively homogeneous with respect to prior training in that language in order to rule out confounding effects of prior achievement in the current language-learning process (Gardner and MacIntyre 1993: 8).

3.3.5 Motivation

The socio-educational model by Gardner (1991) focuses on motivation, and proposes that in many cultural contexts such motivation is influenced by attitudes toward the other language community and other ethnic groups in general, and by attitudes toward the language learning context. This model argues that motivation influences language achievement, and that language achievement as well as experiences in formal and informal language contexts influence attitudes and motivation. "Although the models change

somewhat from study to study because of changes in the socio-cultural context, variables investigated, and the like, all of them indicate that a prime mediator in the language-learning process is motivation" (Gardner and MacIntyre, 1993: 3).

Motivation is such an important issue in determining the success of language learning that many language instructors have tried to measure their students' motivational level for language learning and match the content of the course to further increase their motivation. However, with the varying levels of motivation among students, it is not as simple as it seems to be.

Kennedy and Bolitho (1984) acknowledge the existence of this motivational level which makes language learning more complex. They felt that with high motivation a learner has a greater chance of success. They also believe that a carefully designed course will help to encourage and increase students' motivation. Another way suggested by them to help increase students' motivational level is by creating "artificial motivation by giving an exam which carries marks towards the final qualification" (p. 4).

Two levels of motivation, instrumental and integrative, were identified by Gardner and Lambert (1972). In contrast, Roe (1977) proposes three levels of motivation to learn English; to obtain a degree or a desirable job or to get promotion; to improve exam grades or influence career prospects positively; and to increase the student's desire for knowledge and interests. This system of levels assumes instrumental motivation (where English is seen as a means of achieving some practical or professional purpose) and this is seen to be more important to success than integrative motivation, where the learner identifies with the social or cultural aspects of learning English. However, it cannot be assumed that a student studying in English necessarily belongs to the instrumental group alone because many students, especially those studying within an English-speaking community have integrative

reasons for learning English. As Gardner (1986) has shown, instrumental and integrative types of motivation are not mutually exclusive for some students. One might actually lead to the other if learning is successful. The concepts are thus much more flexible than Roe's levels might suggest.

Making an assumption on certain groups of students is a costly assumption especially on behalf of the instructors. Kennedy and Bolitho (1984) warn instructors against making this mistake because there are some students who do not belong to certain groups. There is "a danger in assuming that someone really wants to become an engineer simply because he happens to be studying engineering and that, therefore, teaching texts should be based exclusively on his subject specialism" (p.15). In the Malaysian context, in many institutions there are second language learning requirements for a student to fulfil in order to graduate. However, most of them, as Kennedy and Bolitho (1984: 14) maintain, consider the lesson as a "lightweight subject compared with the real demands of their main subject". Therefore, the instrumental or integrative motivation involved in this situation are totally absent in contrast to the two stages proposed by Gardner and Lambert (1972).

Another example in the Malaysian situation concerns the "company-or government-sponsored students" on an extended stay abroad in the United Kingdom, America, et, one might make the mistake of assuming high integrative motivation, especially by the very fact of being abroad and having the opportunity to integrate with the social or cultural aspects of learning English. Unfortunately, there is almost total absence of integrative motivation in many of them. Most of them, as Kennedy and Bolitho mention, remain "self-contained, alienated by British [America and etc.] cultural and social traditions, the climate, the food and other factors" (1984: 16). This is confirmed recently by the Prime Minister of Malaysia in his statement to the press stating that most Malay students abroad are confined

to their own groups without taking the initiative to mix with other people or culture (Berita Harian, 25 May 1996).

In a study of emotion and motivation, Parkinson and Colman (1995) state that there is a link between the two. They defined three separate areas: of cognition (thinking-oral skills), affect (feeling-self-esteem), and conation (willing-motivation). According to them "emotion is one of the most important and thoroughly explored forms of affect, and motivation is essentially just a new name for conation" (p. xi).

As Kuhl (1986) argues, emotion and motivation both depend on the relationship between the organism and its environment. In the case of emotion, the emphasis is on the evaluative aspect of this relationship: how the situation makes a person feel; in the case of motivation, it is how the individual acts with respect to the situation that is of interest (Kuhl, 1986).

Similarly, Oatley (1992) feels that there are obvious links between emotion and motivation, because situational evaluations largely determine action because emotions are often the requirement of motivational phenomena. They signal our inclination to act in particular ways towards specified portions of the environment.

Correspondingly, if our efforts lead us to attain an intended goal we tend to evaluate this outcome positively, and if our actions are blocked the resulting emotion tends to be negative (Carver & Scheier, 1990). Therefore, emotions may thus motivate behaviour. Much of human activity may in fact be driven by affect-regulatory goals of one form or another: we often do things because we anticipate that they will make us feel better in some way (Thayer, Newman & McClain, 1994).

As stated by Gardner and MacIntyre (1993), motivation plays a role in second-language acquisition. It is related to the measures of proficiency in "second language, rates of learning vocabulary, persistence in language study and behaviour in the classroom....Motivation...proposed here to encompass desire to achieve a goal, effort expended in this direction, and reinforcement associated with the act of learning" (p.4).

Similarly, Crookes and Schmidt (1989) provide a similar characterisation of motivation as Gardner and MacIntyre (1993), in relation to second language learning. They state that motivation is dynamic and the old characterisation of motivation in terms of integrative versus instrumental orientations is too static and restricted. Many studies have shown that achievement in a second language is not only the result of instrumental but also integrative orientation (see Lukmani, 1972; Clement, 1986; Kraemer, 1990; Dornyei, 1990; Gardner and MacIntyre, 1991,). In all these studies, motivation appears to play a primary role in comparison to integrativeness and attitudes play a role in supporting motivation in the learning environment.

3.3.6 Self-Esteem and Second Language Acquisition

The relationship between self-esteem and second language acquisition can be simplified by a general model of the learning-teaching process, as suggested by Krashen (1977). As Krashen's Monitor Model has shown in the previous section, he "distinguished between acquisition and learning by describing acquisition as a subconscious process and learning as a conscious process occurring as a result of a formal learning situation or self study" (1977: 153). In his model, Krashen shows that acquisition process take place subconsciously before learning. In contrast, learning refers to the conscious "application of acquired rules to second language output before speech occurs" (p.158), i.e. the Monitor consciously regulates speech for its conformity to learn rules. This model explains the inconsistency between attitudes and aptitude when attitudes are subconscious and related

directly to acquisition. Aptitude, however, relates to Monitor competence which is why the effects of aptitude appear in tests which encourage monitoring. Krashen's model can also explain the interaction between self-esteem and second language output. Self-esteem (an internal attitude) is subconscious and relates to the acquisition side of the model. Its interaction with sub-consciously acquired rules (the creative construction process) may either facilitate or block the Monitor's competence in its conscious application of the rules and thereby affect second language output. Unfortunately, this model has aroused great criticism (e.g. McLaughlin, 1978; Gregg, 1984; McLaughlin, 1987; Trampe, 1994) and many doubt its validity as stated by Trampe:

> Krashen has postulated two totally separate mechanisms -acquisition and learning- that serve different purposes in the internalisation and production of language, and through them he claims to explain various phenomena. However, especially in his treatment of the learning device, he has failed to take the complexity of language and language processing into account, which means that his model amounts to little more than mere labelling. In this sense it is too simplistic (1994: 28).

Littlewood (1994: 204) mentioned that there are some unresolved issues in Krashen's theory. "Two of the most important of these are (a) the relationship between 'acquisition' and 'learning' (are they really as separate as Krashen suggests?) and (b) the role of active production in the learning process (is this role really as non-essential as Krashen suggests)". Again, a further important reservation is articulated by Trampe (1994), that it must be accepted that language learners differ in terms of personality, learning style, educational background, etc., and that the extent to which a learner relies on conscious rules can be a function of such factors (see Barash and James, 1994 for further discussion on Krashen's theory).

3.3.7 Relationship between Self-Esteem and Performance

As already mentioned, self-esteem is found to be closely linked not only with social processes but also with behaviour and language acquisition. Language plays an important

role in determining one's self-esteem. Self-esteem has been shown in previous sections to enhance or restraint a learner's acquisition ability in gaining knowledge or rules of a second language, as shown in Krashen's Monitor Model in the previous section. Therefore, it can be concluded that self-esteem can affect a learner's second language acquisition. From the literature review we can assume that there is an obvious relationship between linguistic performance and self-esteem. Self-esteem has been believed by many to affect second language acquisition in impeding the application of the "knowledge of second language rules", in a learner as a "filter" which can be "raised" or 'lowered" in Krashen's terms. This view is widely accepted by teachers, perhaps because it seems to interpret their experiences with learners in classrooms and because (unlike other models) Krashen's model has been widely disseminated among teachers. However, Krashen's models is not so much accepted by theorists. Nevertheless, it can be said that self-esteem is related to a learner's second language acquisition (The aspects rejected by theorists do not generally include the 'filter').

How does this theory relate to this study? First, language is believed to shape behaviour through one's self-concept. This takes place in the form of 'socialisation' when our behaviour reacts according to time and place. Through social interaction self-esteem varies, based on one's evaluation of the situation. Based on social interaction with teachers, friends, parents, colleagues and others our behaviour changes accordingly and is moulded through the use of language. An individual's self-esteem goes up and down based on this interaction or responses from people around him/her. Only through self-esteem measures can the effect be seen or measured.

Secondly, as shown by Labov and Fanshel (1977) through communication a person sends an underlying message of feelings about himself. Analysing language data has shown that communication reveals underlying feelings. The implication for this study is that the

speaking test given in this study is predicted to indicate differences between levels of self-esteem and academic self-image in a learner. Work done by Newman (1941) showed that there is a relationship between speech patterns and behaviour and one's self-concept. As indicated by Lakoff:

> we must further hypothesise that since linguistic usage is tied to mental state, we should be able to pinpoint linguistic cues that can be used for diagnostic purposes much more precisely than can now be done on a purely intuitive basis (1976: 226).

Therefore, it can be concluded that within behaviour there is a hidden message. Underlying meaning has become a symbolic feature embedded within behaviour. Therefore, through the measure of self-concept and academic self-image, this study tries to measure how language shapes behaviour since personal factors such as self-concept or self-image are also believed to affect language acquisition, and vice versa. Reible (1971), Stevick (1976), and Guiora (1972, 1970) maintain there is a relationship between the "saliency of data" and personal factors. They stated that personal factors, such as socio-economic status and self-concept, interact with language input to affect second language acquisition. This relates to the attempt of the present study to investigate possible correlation's between students' self-esteem, academic self-image and oral skills with factors such as sex, age or ethnicity. The study will try to determine whether students' with higher oral skills are also from those who possess higher levels of self-esteem, academic self-image, or vice versa. Refer to Chapter 1 for the objectives of the study.

3.3.8 Culture and Self

Mead and Cooley identified the first concepts of identity and the self which are highly debated in social theory. Besides identity, factors such as class, gender, sexuality, ethnicity and nationality are also included in the cultural views of social study. Hall, Held and McGrew claim that this "notion of the sociological subject reflected the growing

complexity of the modern world and the awareness that this inner core of the subject was not autonomous and self-sufficient, but was formed in relation to 'significant others', who mediated to the subject the values, meanings and symbols - the culture - of the worlds he/she inhabited" (1992: 275).

Similarly, in the symbolic interactionist view, identity is formed in the 'interaction' between self and society. However, a person still retains 'the inner' or 'the real me', which is formed and changed regularly with these cultural worlds 'outside' and the identities which this cultural worlds offer 'inside'. In Sociology, the concept of identity brings closer together the 'inside' and the 'outside' which is associated closely with the personal and the public worlds. As a person we try to put 'ourselves' into these cultural identities, and indirectly internalise all their meanings and values and make them 'part of us'. This helps us to adjust our 'subjective feelings' with the 'objective places' we inhabit in the social and cultural make-up.

Alternatively, as argued by Hall (1987), identity has become a 'moveable feast'. It is not fixed. It is formed and transformed continuously in relation to the ways we are represented or addressed in the cultural systems which surround us. According to him identity is historically and not biologically defined. A person can assume different identities at different times in which these identities are not joined around a coherent 'self' (see also Hall, 1990). In present day society, a person is faced with various identities which we could identify momentarily at one time. The structural linguist, Ferdinand de Saussure, argued that:

> we are not in any absolute sense the 'authors of the statements we make or of the meanings we express in language. We can only use language to produce meanings by positioning ourselves within the rules of language and the systems of meaning of our culture. Language is a social, not an individual system. It pre-exists us. We cannot in any simple sense be its authors. To speak a language is not only to express our innermost, original thoughts, it is also to activate the vast range of

> meanings which are already embedded in our language and cultural systems (cited in Hall, Heid and McGrew, 1992: 288).

As Hall, Held and McGrew pointed out, the meanings of words are not fixed in a one-to-one relation to objects or events in the world outside language. Rather, meaning arises in the relations of similarities and difference which words have to other words within the language code. Similarly, the association of language and identity has been stressed by Derrida (1981) who stated that despite our best effort we can never fix meaning-including the meaning of our own identity. To Derrida, words are 'multi-accentual' which carry echoes of other meanings and statements of our language. This association of culture and self indirectly link to the issue of national identity.

According to Morris (1994), the idea of self is perceived differently from culture to culture because cultures differ. He categorises the term 'person' into three distinct conceptions; as a generic human, as a cultural category, and as psychological concept. This study is only interested in the human person as an individual self in terms of the psychological concept of self, which as stressed by Morris, differs from one culture to another. As he expressed it, "the person as a self is a universal category, but its content and meaning is always in a sense unique to an individual person within a specific social context" (p.12).

3.3.9 National identity

The national culture into which we are born is one of the principal sources of cultural identity that we have. For example, in this context if we define ourselves as Malay, Indian or Chinese, this categorisation is not stamped in our genes rather it derives from how we associate ourselves with this category. We think of such cultural identity as part of our nature. As defined by Scruton, national culture functions as a system of representation. He argues that:

> the condition of man requires that the individual, while he exists and acts as an autonomous being, does so only because he can first identify himself as something greater - as a member of a society, group, class, state or nation, of some arrangement to which he may not attach a name, but which he recognises instinctively as home (1986: 156).

Gellner (1983: 6) also believes that national identification gives an individual cultural identity and that without it he/she would suffer a subjective loss. "The idea of a man without a nation seems to impose a strain on the modern imagination. A man must have a nationality as he must have a nose and two ears.....Having a nation is not an inherent attribute of humanity, but it has now come to appear as such" (1983: 6).

The argument presented in this section lingers on the relation of national identities which are not identities we are born with. They are formed and transformed within and in relation to a sense of representation. In the Malaysian context, we only know what it is to be a Malay because of the way 'Malay' has become to be represented, as a set of meanings, by Malay national culture. Similarly, "it follows that a nation is not only a political entity but something which produces meanings - a system of slant cultural representation. People are not only legal citizens of a nation; they participate in the idea of the nation as represented in its national culture" (Hall, Held, McGrew, 1992: 292). As described by Schwarz, "a nation is a symbolic community and it is this which accounts for its power to generate a sense of identity and allegiance" (1986: 106).

Bocock and Thompson (1992) maintain that the formation of a national culture not only helped to create standards of universal literacy but created a single vernacular language as the dominant medium of communication throughout the nation. It also helps to create a uniformed culture and preserved the national cultural institutions especially through the national education system (see Chapter 2).

This national culture, which is considered as a modern form of identification, is a powerful source of meanings for modern cultural identities which continues to be debated because not only does it construct meanings but it also influences and organises our actions and our conception of ourselves (See Hall and Gieben, 1992).

Therefore, national identities are the result of bringing two halves of the national equation together - offering both membership of the political nation - state and identification with the national culture: 'to make culture and policy congruent' and to endow 'reasonably homogenous cultures, each with its own political roof' (Gellner, 1983: 43). Gellner argues that:

> culture is now the necessary shared medium, the life-blood or perhaps rather the minimal shared atmosphere, within which alone the members of the society can breathe and survive and produce. For a given society it must be one in which they can all breathe and speak and produce; so it must be the same culture (ibid.: 37-8).

This is to unify class, gender or race into one cultural identity, to represent them all as belonging to the same national family, and in this study, this applies to Malaysian national identity. As emphasised by Rogers:

> in adulthood, and across cultures, we vary enormously in the extent to which we retain our original language-body language-for understanding and communication feelings. Some people continue to rely on this to a large extent, some use both sorts of language, sometimes comparing the different sets of 'evidence', and others abandon the roots of their self-knowledge and put their faith in the spoken word. In the same way that we vary in how we receive communications about ourselves, we also vary in how we receive communications about others, we also vary in our conscious awareness of both what we actually feel and the messages we give about our feelings (1961: 338-346).

In the study of cultural analysis, Carroll (1988) maintains "one can live for a long time in a foreign country, speak the language, and make many "friends," without ever really

understanding their culture, without ever really ridding oneself of a certain division between "them" (that is those who are "bizarre" in some way) and "us" (adaptable, but guardians of a better system)." (p.10). What it means in this study, each culture is unique and different. Therefore, whether we are Malaysian, European, Americans, or English we are all different in terms of culture, identity and self interpretation.

In the context of Malaysian society and this study, the changing trend among the people is one leading towards assimilation. The three ethnic groups; the Malay, Chinese and Indian all desire to retain their identity particularly those of a linguistic and cultural nature. As stated by Asmah (1987: 24) "here [in Malaysia] we have the desire for a differentiation, so as to render each group its own identity. The fear of the loss of ethnic identity due to assimilation seems to be quite prevalent in those groups" However, as mentioned in Chapter Two on the background of Malaysia's education policy, the National Language policy does not prevent the maintenance of that identity. In fact, the retention of the State-Type primary schools which use Chinese and Tamil as languages of instruction is proof of this policy, as also is the establishment of People's Own Language classes in the national schools for Chinese and Indian students to learn Mandarin and Tamil respectively. At the same time they receive their entire school education in Malay and learn English as a subject in the national curriculum in order to be acculturated into the local culture yet still retain their own identity.

3.3.10 Communication Skills

This section discusses the distinction between language and communication. It will concentrate on a general explanation of the distinction between language and communication in relation to the Malaysian situation.

Ting-Toomey (1989: 15) said, "language is the sine qua non of the human symbolic communication process. It should hold a central place in any human communication study". Haslett (1987) viewed language as the symbolic code that underlies verbal communication. According to her, to communicate verbally is to create and maintain human relationships. She categorised non-verbal as the part of communication system which include gestures, eye gaze and the proxemics. This non-verbal communication can support verbal communication or may be used as a solitary communication system (Haslett, 1989). A very useful definition of communication which has been summarised by Haslett (1989: 20) is, "communication is an organised, standardised, culturally patterned system of behaviour that sustains, regulates and makes possible human relationships". It is a shared, structured, conventional, culturally patterned, and multi-channel act (Scheflen, 1974; Haslett, 1987).

Haslett also noted that no comparable general stages of communicative development can be detailed as compared to the general stages of language acquisition. In fact, she pointed out that "the variability of communicative and social practices across different cultures is such that one can generalise only about very broad principles and not about specific strategies" (1989: 20). She outlines four principles which she believes can be viewed as culturally invariant or universal in all cultures. First, communication is viewed as an important basic need in all cultures. In acknowledging the importance of communication, humans recognise that messages have effects, that humans send messages intentionally, and that communicators mutually influence one another. Second, communication is recognised as a multi-channel phenomenon when all cultures use verbal and non-verbal communication systems. In some cultures, dress, adornment and architecture are used as a form of communication. Third, communication has three general purposes; to express thought and desires, to establish communion with others, and to share knowledge. Fourth, she believes that all cultures appear to use communication to mark status and social identity and

to maintain face. Since "communicative practices vary cross-culturally, clearly what is being acquired varies as well. Furthermore, the process of acquiring communicative skills varies cross-culturally. If there is any generalisation possible in this domain, it clearly is the principle that what is acquired is valued by the culture" (Haslett, 1989: 26). She maintains that in studying the communication or oral skills of a learner, the culture in which the learner is situated cannot be ignored because communication and culture are simultaneously acquired and mutually dependent (Haslett, 1989). Culture is always an issue and should not be a taken-for-granted concept in analysing oral skills.

Bygate (1987) stresses that in acquiring the communication skills it is important to establish rapport with our interlocutor. He pointed out that, 'it generally makes a difference whether a piece of communication is carefully prepared or whether it is composed on the spur of the moment. This can affect our choice of words and our style" (p: 7). Littlewood (1982), on the other hand, noted that communication skills can only be mastered by intensive overt practice. However, this oral production is not easily gained because of the size of most foreign and second language classrooms which gives much less opportunity to practise oral skills especially for adult learners in this context.As stated clearly by Asmah (1987), in the Malaysian situation:

> communication is not just the process of encoding and decoding messages .....It is also the generation of meanings and this is interrelated with the culture and values of the speaker's language. As Malay is not the mother tongue of many groups in Malaysia, it may happen that the message may not be fully received, and hence communication is not effective. It is only mastery of the national language that can bring out an effective communication among the Malaysians" (Asmah, 1987: 25)

In Malaysian society, various patterns of communication are practised, depending on the situation, the ethnic membership and the educational background of the person. As

indicated in Chapter 2, "communication has proved to be a complication to the government in reaching out to the people...At the same time the people themselves may find difficulty in communicating with one another at the inter group level" (Asmah, 1987: 13). This is due to tensions among the multi-ethnic population of Malaysia which posed to be a major challenge to the government policy. In Malaysia, the government emphasises communication in the national language at all official functions. This is because "the government has to reach out to the people regardless of ethnic group or social class. And it has to be done in an economical and effective way. Using one language is obviously more economical than four" (Asmah, 1987: 24).

As discussed in Chapter 2, since Malaysia gained independence, the language that prevails at official level is Bahasa Malaysia. English is used only in international conferences. The general pattern of communication at the informal level among the various groups in Malaysia remains as follow: those with English education, regardless of ethnic membership, use English in their communication with each other particularly at the inter group level. Among the Chinese if they are Chinese educated, the language of communication is Mandarin. At the same time a Chinese whose mother tongue is not Cantonese, but Hokkien for instance, may adopt Cantonese as the language of communication with fellow Cantonese if he lives in a predominantly Cantonese area. In relation to this study according to Asmah, "there had not been any study of language choice in communication among Malaysians in the colonial period for us to draw upon. The pattern described above was based on my own observation and experience in interaction with the Malays as well as the non-Malays. I have also drawn upon an analogy of the present-day situation." (Asmah, 1987: 16). Until present time this supposition hasn't changed. It is part of the objective of this study to see whether this pattern has changed among university students which is the focus of this research.

3.3.11 Instruments

The instruments used in this study are the short version of the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory 1967 (SEI) which is used to measure the self-esteem of the samples; the Barker-Lunn Academic Self-Image measurement (1970) which is used to measure the academic self-image of the samples; and the ARELS Oral Examination measurement which is used to measure the students' oral skills. Refer to Section 4.2.0 and 4.3.0 in Chapter 4 for further detail on these three instruments selected for this study.

In Coopersmith's Self-Esteem Inventory (SEI), a 50-item self-esteem question (long version and 25-item the short version) was constructed to measure the self-esteem of the subject. For each item the subject was asked to check whether it was 'like me' or 'unlike me'. Sample items include 'I have a low opinion of myself' and 'Most people are better liked than I am' (see Section 1 in Appendix 3 for the full detail). Coopersmith's Self-Esteem Inventory (SEI), is found in various studies related to various measures of achievement. For example, Coopersmith (1976) reports that r=0.30, significant at the 0.05 level, between his SEI score and grade-point average in children aged 10 to 12.

In Morrison, Thomas and Weaver (1973) studies, r=0.34 (p=0.01) is found between SEI score and grades on an objective test on material about learning theory. In another study, Morrison and Thomas (1975) report r=0.26 (p=0.05) between total SEI score and proportion of thoughts contributed to a class discussion. An r=0.40 result between school, self-esteem and contributed thoughts is also obtained. Correlations ranging from 0.35 to 0.45 were found by Trowbridge (1972a) between SEI scores and reading level scores for children within different socio-economic levels. In another study by Rosenthal (1973), the mean SEI score of dyslexics is found to be 61.8, which differed significantly from that of a control group with 75.5.

Similarly, Simon and Simon (1975) obtained a significant correlation of 0.33 between SEI scores and Scientific Research Associates' Achievement Series for 10 year-old boys and girls. Significant correlations of 0.30 and 0.42 were also reported by Lewis and Adank (1975) between the SEI and raw scores from the Stanford Achievement Test for 9 to 11 year old who were enrolled in the classrooms with an individualised instructor's and a self-contained programme. However, no study has been found relating this SEI measure to any self-esteem, academic self-image and oral skills test in the Malaysian context, therefore no comparison can be made.

In the Barker-Lunn Academic Self-Image (1970) used for the measurement of academic self-image in this study, a 9-item bank of questions was constructed to measure subjects' academic self-image. Sample questions include "I think I am pretty good at university work" and "I find a lot of university subjects difficult to understand" (see Section 2 in Appendix 3 for full detail of the questions for this measure). The Barker-Lunn instrument was constructed from the responses received from 400 children who were randomly selected from a very large representative sample. Approximately 2,300 4th year boys and girls in 28 primary schools were involved in the use of this measure (Cohen, 1976). It was found that the academic self-image has an internal consistency of 0.88. In this measure of academic self-image, Barker-Lunn found that boys have better academic self-image than girls. This measure also found out that 'brighter' students have better academic self-image than 'duller' students. Again, however, this measure has not been repeated in any study in the Malaysian context to make comparisons with any self-esteem or oral skills in this study. For the oral skills test, the ARELS Oral Examination in English as a Foreign Language, which is conducted by the University of Oxford Delegacy of Local Examinations in conjunction with the ARELS Examination Trust, has been chosen (refer to Section 4.3.0 in Chapter 4 for further details). The Trust offers three examinations at the Preliminary, Higher and the Diploma level which emphasise Spoken English as a means of

communication. The ARELS Oral Examination stresses the oral skills, which according to them are difficult to access objectively. These examinations are unique "in that they are concerned solely with SPOKEN ENGLISH, and enable ability in its use and understanding to be measured far more objectively, comprehensively and reliably than has hitherto been possible. By the use of Master Tapes played in language laboratories, identical examinations can be set to candidates in Oxford, Singapore and Rio de Janeiro." (ARELS Oral Examination, 1993).

The Preliminary Level which was chosen for this study (refer to Section 4.3.0 in Chapter 4 for detail on this level and Section IV in Appendix 3 for the copy of the examination) 12 questions were asked which included questions that asked student to think for 45 seconds on 'A day Out' or 'A visit to a museum': In this question candidates have to speak their answer in one minute and are graded on how well they manage to describe their 'day out' or their 'visit to the museum' which must include where it was, when they went there, and what they saw there. Other studies on the use of ARELS Oral Examination have not been found, therefore, no comparison can be made at this stage of the study.

3.4.0 Conclusion

In conclusion, in searching the literature for studies on self-esteem, academic self-image, oral skills and associated concepts which are related to this study, the researcher constantly faced the problems that many research studies conducted vary in scope, aim and purpose. Some studies deal with college students and some with children. Studies also differ in the number of size and subjects involved. At one time, one variable is related to this study and other times none is related. None of the studies found has the same scope, aim, purpose or adequate sample as this study. Also most other research studies also differ in treatment and use of instruments; that is the instruments used are mostly different even though they are measuring self-esteem, academic self-image and oral skills. Therefore, it is important to

treat this study as an independent study in the Malaysian context which stand on its own. This is in agreement with Morris (1994: 8) who stated that the "objective study of other cultures cannot be achieved by projecting upon those cultures categorical abstractions derived from Western thought".

CHAPTER 4: Methodology, Materials and Procedures.

This chapter outlines the design of the present empirical study, which was undertaken in February 1994. The background of the participants and the various instruments by which the data for this study were gathered in the pilot and main study will be discussed. A description of the procedures and techniques used for the analysis of the data will then be presented. In Cohen and Manion's words, 'by methods, we mean that range of approaches used in educational research to gather data for inference and interpretation, for explanation and predictions" (1994: 38). The aim of methodology "is to help us to understand, in the broadest possible terms, not the products of scientific enquiry but the process itself" (ibid.: 39).

This study is a survey study which was designed to investigate the nature of the speaking abilities of first year students at the Universiti Teknologi Malaysia (UTM). It is also an attempt to ascertain the relationships between Self Esteem, Academic Self Image and Speaking Abilities, and a number of selected independent variables such as sex, age, ethnicity and English SPM scores, in agreement with Bernard who states that, 'the most common variables in social research are age, sex, ethnic affiliation" (1994: 20). The next diagram shows the sequence of the pilot work and the main tests conducted in this study.

Figure 4.1.0 - Diagram for the data collection.

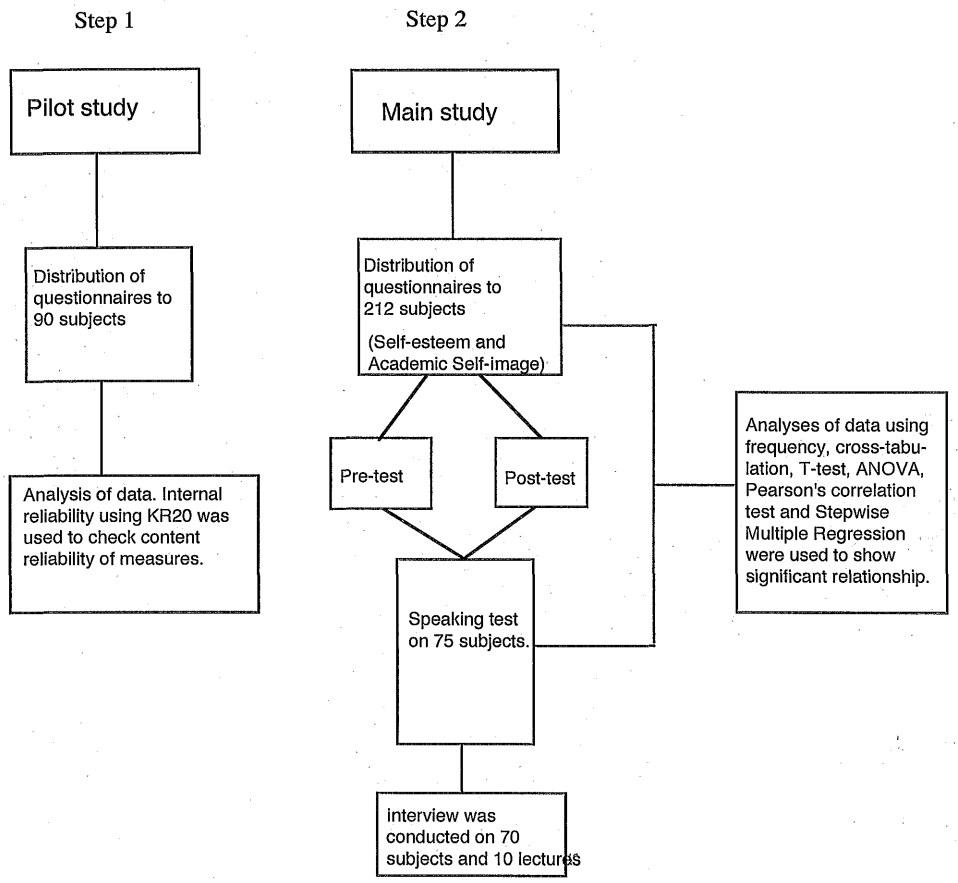


Diagram above shows the summary of the data collection for the pilot and main study.

4.1 Pilot Study

The pilot study was carried out among 90 first year students enrolled in various courses including Architecture, Computer Science, Educational Science, Civil Engineering, Mechanical Engineering and Management at UTM for the academic year , July 93/94. I am a staff member at this institute.

The purposes of the pilot study were firstly to examine various instruments of self-esteem, self-concept and academic ability, in order to check the practicality of the instruments with students of the same university level as those who were to participate in the main study. Secondly, the pilot study attempted to check the adequacy of the materials that were to be used in the main study and detect possible difficulties in administering certain tests. As Bernard pointed out, all variables are concepts. Some concepts are more difficult to measure, therefore, "indicators of any concept may vary from culture to culture. [For example] the androgyny scale developed by Bem seems to be useful in our own culture. It helps predict things about people that are not measured by the scale itself. But the Bem scale is based on assumptions about maleness and femaleness that are appropriate to our culture and may be inappropriate to people in other cultures" (1994: 25). Thirdly, the pilot study attempted to check the reliability of the instruments used in the main study. As clarified by Wiersma and Jurs, pilot testing is "the tryout of the items on a sample of persons who are similar to those for whom the test is designed. This step is tremendously useful when there is an ample pool of examines and enough lead time so that the items can be tried out and revised as needed" (1990: 242).

Before the pilot work was conducted, several instruments were identified as being suitable. Initially, letters were written to the appropriate publishers and research centres requesting specimen copies (if they were available) of the targeted measures, including the cost and any relevant information regarding the use of the details. The purpose of this search was to

examine and inspect whether the instruments would suit the needs and goals of the study. However, replies were not received from any of the publishers or research centres which were based in the United States. Therefore, other instruments found in books and other published materials, which were of an equivalent standard, were administered for the pilot study (Cohen 1976). The 6 measures selected were the Self-Esteem Inventory (Coopersmith, 1967), The Self-Esteem Measure (Rosenberg, 1964), The Self-Concept of Academic Ability (Brookover, 1967), The Academic Self-Image Scale (Joan Barker-Lunn, 1970), The Achievement Motivation (Robinson, 1961) and The Achievement Motivation (Smith, 1973).

4.2 Data Collection for the Pilot Study

The pilot study was administered mainly to verify the suitability of the content as well as the language used in all of the instruments, since this study was to be carried out at Universiti Teknologi Malaysia in 1994; therefore the content of the measures was of interest. However, some of the instruments were designed for secondary children in England and the United States, and so the content reliability and suitability of the measures had to be checked before they could be used in this study. Despite this, it was found that the content and language level was considered suitable for UTM first year students, as English is practised as a second language there. At this time, no pilot work on the oral skills was given by the researcher because the choice for the speaking instrument had not been finalised.

After an extensive literature search, both in the United Kingdom and Malaysia, it was concluded that no studies have been carried out in the UTM and other Malaysian university subjects using any of these measures, and therefore a content and language reliability assessment needed to be conducted. This was the pilot study carried out in July 1993.

The pilot study was conducted without the presence of the researcher herself. The questionnaires were mailed to research assistants in Malaysia, who distributed and collected the questionnaires as instructed by the researcher. Bernard called this the drop-and-collect technique. "This involves leaving a questionnaire with an informant and going back later to pick it up" (1994: 260). With this technique, "all respondents get the same questions with a self-administered questionnaire. There is no worry about interviewer bias" (ibid.: 260).

Two sets of questionnaires (Set A and Set B), comprising of more than 6 instruments, were initially given to 200 first year students at Universiti Teknologi Malaysia under the supervision of selected English lecturers from the Modern Language Department at the University (referred here as research assistants). The Set A Questionnaires consisted of the Self-Esteem Inventory (Coopersmith, 1967) measure, Self-Concept of Academic Ability (Brookover, 1967) and Achievement Motivation (Robinson, 1961) measures, while Set B consisted of the Self-Esteem Measure (Rosenberg, 1964), Academic Self-Image Scale (Joan Barker-Lunn, 1970) and Achievement Motivation (Smith, 1973) measures. The intention of this survey was to test the suitability of the instruments designated for the main study, where each subject would be given both sets of questionnaires after a 2 week interval. The subjects for the pilot study were chosen for 3 reasons: 1) all were first year students, 2) all were studying at the same university where the main study would be carried out in 1994, 3) all were exposed to the same language program at the university level. The questionnaire techniques were chosen for the reasons given by Cohen and Manion, "it tends to be more reliable; because it is anonymous, it encourages greater honesty; it is more economical than the interview in terms of time and money; and there is the possibility that it may be mailed" (1994: 283).

Problems occurred at the early stages of the pilot study primarily because some of the original 200 subjects administered were not given both sets of questionnaires by the

research assistants. Some subjects were only given either Set A or Set B, while others failed to complete the questionnaires. These difficulties in administering the two sets of instruments had not been anticipated by the researcher at this stage. The result of these problems was that only 90 subjects completed both sets of questionnaires. Despite the smaller numbers, these questionnaires were used to check the reliability of the instruments. Incomplete questionnaires were rejected. It was decided that the final number of 90 subjects still seemed to be a reasonable sample for this stage of the research. As suggested by Oppenheim, "in principle, respondents in pilot studies should be as similar as possible to those in the main enquiry,.....If the main enquiry is meant to highlight certain group differences....then such groups should also be available for comparison in the pilot samples, to test the questions for relevance and sensitivity" (1992: 62). According to him, the size of the sample is not very important but the comparability of the sample group with subjects of the main study is of major interest in any study.

The final subjects in this pilot study were divided by gender, and amounted to 20 female and 70 male students (22.2 per cent female and 77.8 per cent male). The low percentage of female subjects was attributed primarily to the fact that the university is a technical university and the total population of female students is, at present, much lower than males. An examination of the sample indicated that of the subjects who participated in this pilot study, 60 per cent are Malay (54), 24.4 per cent are Chinese (22), 11.1 per cent Indian (10) and 4.5 per cent other races (4). From this pilot study, the subjects can best be described as Malaysian Technical University students with equal opportunities to study a second language, and an equal opportunity to enter the university, even though the percentage of the males were higher than the female students. This equality is gauged through the standard process of primary and secondary education levels and the standard national examinations in which each student participates before entering the university. No further

discussion of the subjects in the pilot study will be given, since it was only conducted to check the main content and language reliability of the measures.

4.3 Reliability Test for the Pilot Study

Internal consistency reliability was calculated for all of the distributed instruments, before the final measurements were selected for the main portion of this research. The internal consistency reliability test used Froelich's approximation to the Kuder-Richardson Formula 20, (Wiersma and Jurs, 1990). This was preferred to other methods mainly because test-retest reliability could not be done by the researcher herself as she was unable to travel to Malaysia at that time . "The KR-20 formula gives an estimate of internal consistency reliability (r20), which, in essence, is the mean of all possible split-half coefficients" (ibid.: 160). In computation, these "do not require the correlation coefficient between two test halves. Instead, they involve the proportions of correct responses to individual test items and/or the variances of the scores on individual items" (ibid.: 160). The pilot study instruments were posted to Malaysia so that they could be administered by research assistants. The research assistants, however, had already given considerable class time to the administration of the other measures and (given their normal teaching commitments) several of them felt they had no additional time to give a second test, therefore the test-retest reliability test was rejected.

The rationale for using several instruments for the pilot study was to choose the best instruments after the reliability test was conducted. Using the Kuder-Richardson Formula 20, it was found that some instruments distributed had very low internal consistency levels, therefore they were not considered appropriate to be main instruments in the final study. Eventually, only two were selected as being at all suitable. Firstly, to measure subjects' self-esteem two Self-Esteem Measures were conducted. One was the Coppersmith's Self-Esteem Inventory (1967) and the other was Rosenberg's Self-Esteem Measurement (1964).

The outcome showed very low internal consistency for Rosenberg's Self-Esteem Measurement (0.24). However, Coopersmith's Self-Esteem Inventory showed higher results (0.63). Secondly, to measure academic self-image, several measurements were distributed. These comprised the following:- an adapted version of Self-Concept of Academic Ability, by Brookover (1967), an adapted version of Academic Self-Image Scale, by Joan Barker-Lunn (1970), Achievement Motivation Measurement, by Robinson (1961) and Achievement Motivation, by Smith (1963). Results of the internal consistency reliability test for all measurements using Froelich's approximation to the Kuder-Richardson Formula 20 are listed as follows:

Measures	Scores
Self-Esteem Inventory (Coopersmith, 1967)	0.63
Self-Esteem Measure (Rosenberg, 1964)	0.24
Self-Concept of Academic Ability (Brookover, 1967)	0.45
Academic Self-Image Scale (Joan Barker-Lunn, 1970)	0.93
Achievement Motivation (Robinson, 1961)	0.19
Achievement Motivation (Smith, 1973)	0.24

From this further application of the pilot study, only two measures were selected for overall use in the main study planned for 1994. These were Coopersmith's Self-Esteem Inventory (1967) and Joan Barker-Lunn's Academic Self-Image Scale (1970). They were chosen because both have high internal consistency levels as shown above and therefore they were considered suitable for the intended subjects of the UTM. Furthermore, both measures

served the objectives of the study where instruments to measure students' global self-esteem and academic self-image were needed.

4.2.0 Instruments: Measures of Self-Esteem

There are three major ways of evaluating self-esteem. These involve direct self-evaluation, self-ideal discrepancy scoring and disguised self-evaluation. The first method is the direct self-evaluation which requires students to either agree or disagree or remain neutral on statements which are favourable to themselves. The second method, the self-ideal discrepancy scoring, requires the students to rate themselves as they feel they are and as they would like to be. The self-esteem scoring is then deduced from the similarity of the two descriptions. The third method is disguised self-evaluation, which requires the students to evaluate an aspect of themselves either through handwriting picture or voice which is distorted so as not to be recognised consciously by the students. The self-esteem scoring is then measured by the similarity of ratings between their self-rating and the distorted rating.

For the purpose of data gathering in the pilot study, six measures were administered. These measures, as mentioned before, were adapted to suit the needs of the main study which was to be conducted in 1994. Firstly, Coopersmith's Self-Esteem Inventory (Coopersmith, 1967) was selected for the pilot study because of its high correlation between the full Self-Esteem Inventory and their shortened versions. The shortened version was used because this study is primarily concerned with global self-esteem. It consists of 25 items. The full Self-Esteem Inventory consists of 58 items and the test-retest reliability obtained ranged from .88 (over a five week period) to .70 (over a three year period). Total scores on the full and shortened versions of the Self-Esteem Inventory were reported to correlate at .86 (Argyle and Lee, 1972). This measure is designed for use with primary and secondary school children. However, the measure has also been used on

higher age groups. For example, in a study of the career aspirations of 14-16 year old boys in 4 Nottingham secondary schools, Hawkins (1972) used the shortened version with 55 West Indian and 55 English subjects. The reported differences between the two groups were reported as $p<.001$ (Cohen, 1976). In this research, the internal consistency for the shortened version administered to the pilot test of 90 subjects of UTM, showed a result of 0.63.

Joan Barker-Lunn's Academic Self-Image Scale was originally intended to measure children's views of themselves in terms of school work and learning. It was constructed from the responses of more than 400 children selected randomly from a representative sample of over 2,300 4th year boys and girls in 28 primary schools. This measure has a high internal consistency of alpha-coefficient .88. The adapted version (which will be discussed further in Section 4.2.1) used in the pilot study of 90 first year students at UTM also had a high internal consistency (0.93).

4.2.1 Translation/Adaptation of the Instrument

For the purpose of data gathering in the main study, the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory and the Joan Barker-Lunn Academic Self-Image Scale were translated into Bahasa Malaysia (Malaysia's national language). This was done in the light of feedback received from the pilot study subjects, who suggested that a translated version should be included with the English version for ease of comprehension. "If the pilot work suggests improved wording, you need to pilot those too. Take nothing for granted" (Oppenheim, 1992: 49). As Wiersma and Jurs agree, "the test plan must include a wide array of issues. Anticipating these potential problems allows the test constructor to develop positions or policies that are consistent with his or her testing philosophy. These can then be communicated to students, administrators, parents, and others who may be affected by the testing program" (1990: 36).

During the translation, care was exercised through several procedures to minimise the loss of meaning and idiomaticity in the translated version; giving the subjects a fair understanding of the measures. This was done so as not to impede the results. Firstly, the translation from English into Bahasa Malaysia was done by 9 Malaysian postgraduate students from Leicester and De Montfort Universities, in the United Kingdom. Then the translation from Bahasa Malaysia back into English was done by another 6 Malaysian postgraduates from Leicester University, working in conjuction with the researcher in order to check the re-translated version with the original. The final translated version was then presented to five members of the academic staff of the Bahasa Malaysia Language Unit at the UTM for modifications, verifications or changes, and in order to test the authenticity of the translated versions.

For purposes of greater credibility and validity, both versions were then presented to 5 English language lecturers to test for discrepancies in meaning between the English and Malay versions before being presented to 7 first year students at UTM in February 1994. The 7 students were satisfied that they had no difficulty in understanding the measures. As a result, both adapted and translated versions were used in the main study. The complete English and Malay versions are presented in Section 1 and 2 in Appendix 3.

4.3.0 The speaking Instrument ARELS Oral Examination

In the main study a test of speaking ability was needed to explore possible correlations with the measures of self-concept. The speaking test used in the main study is a version of the written and spoken examination in English by the University of Oxford Delegacy of Local Examinations in conjunction with the ARELS Examinations Trust. The version of the speaking test used in this study was dated November 1993. The ARELS Examinations Trust offers three examinations in ascending order of rigour: the Preliminary Certificate, the Higher Certificate, and the Diploma. Only the examination at the preliminary level was

used in the main study, since this was considered to reflect the English level of the intended subjects, because in this test Spoken English is examined as a means of communication rather than as an academic exercise at all levels (Refer to Appendix 3 for complete details of the examination). All materials for the tests were supplied with kind permission of the ARELS Examination Trust.

In the ARELS test, a Master Tape was played in language laboratories, and candidates' verbal responses to these tapes were recorded. In the original exam, these responses would then be marked by "native British teachers". However, because of a lack of availability of native teachers as markers, the tests were marked by the researcher herself in this study. The researcher was given proper training by attending the standardisation test conducted by ARELS (see Section 4.3.1). To conduct this study, language laboratories at the UTM were used. During the examination, all of the candidates received the same stimulus and had to answer in the same time because the examinations assessed performance rather than factual knowledge. However, it was not necessary for all candidates to take the test at the same time or on the same date. For this reason, these tests could be set much more flexibly than conventional ones, at times to suit the individual centres and candidates. This was an important reason for the selection of this examination.

The preliminary level chosen for this study was a test of basic international spoken English, where items that make sense only to someone familiar with an English-speaking environment were excluded, but items relating to problems likely to be faced by people on their first visit to an English-speaking country were included. This examination was not specifically aimed at university students. Because of its low linguistic demands, it was most appropriate to persons who have acquired their English in the course of work or travel. The test was set in the form of a continuous scenario, in which individual candidates participate at appropriate times.

There were three main sections in the preliminary level, and three main oral skills were tested. The skills comprised of Social English, Audial (aural) Comprehension and Extended Speaking. Candidates' responses were recorded on separate tapes, and these cassettes were treated exactly as candidates' papers would be. The examination was designed to be marked by one, two or more examiners. In this study, however, all materials were marked by the researcher herself, both because of time constraints and because help from research assistants was not always available at the time the test was given and marked. Finally, five grades were given at this Preliminary level:

40% and below	Fail-needs much more experience
41%-54%	Narrow Fail-should try again later
55%-69%	Pass
70%-79%	Good Pass
80% and above	Very good pass-should consider ARELS HIGHER CERTIFICATE.

In this exam, all subjects are expected to obtain 50 per cent in each of the three sub-skills. All subjects in the range of 50 - 59 per cent, or who score over 59 per cent in the exam as a whole, but fail to score 50 per cent in one of the sections, should be marked twice. If it is felt necessary, the marker may call another marker to do a second marking even when one is not required by these criteria. In the same way, a marker may recommend adjustments in the poor fail/good pass awards.

4.3.1 Standardisation of the Oral Test

Prior to the main study, the researcher attended the meeting conducted by AREL Oral Examinations in London on the 30th November, 1993 for the standardisation test. This was a regular meeting for the ARELS Oral Examination members in order to standardise the marking of their materials. The researcher attended the meeting because the materials

that would be marked and discussed in the meeting were the ones which would be used by the researcher during the main study in 1994. The meeting was in effect a training course for the researcher.

Several representatives from leading ARELS Examination Centres were present at the meeting which was conducted by Don Malpass, the Director of the ARELS Examination Trust. The meeting gave the researcher invaluable experience in conducting these examinations in Malaysia with the intended subjects. For the main study, the original copy of the Oral Examination by ARELS Examination Trust which was conducted for November 1993 examination was to be used with permission from the Director himself. The researcher was provided with several materials from the examination centre in London, which included the master tape, the marking key for the Preliminary Examination, candidate booklets and result slips. The total time for the examination was to be 40 minutes.

The examination for the spoken test was conducted in March 1994 at the language laboratories of UTM over a one week period on 75 selected subjects. Owing to the fact that testing the students is difficult to arrange and time-consuming to mark, only a proportion of the students were tested, although ideally, perhaps all 212 would have been tested. However, the tests is extra works for all the teachers and students. Out of the 212 total subjects selected for the whole data collection, this number (75) was considered appropriate for the oral test. As Bernard (1994) put it, a simple random sample is part of probability theory. "Probability samples are representative of larger populations, and they increase external validity in any study. The general rule is this: Use representative, probability sampling whenever you can and use non probability sampling methods as a last resort" (Bernard 1994: 73). As Cohen and Manion caution, "a sample size of thirty is held by many to be the minimum number of cases if researchers plan to use some form of statistical

analysis on their data, though techniques are available for the analysis of samples below thirty" (1994: 89). Of more importance to researchers is the need to think out in advance of any data collection the sorts of relationships that they wish to explore within subgroups of their eventual sample. In this study, for the speaking test even though only four courses were involved in the oral test, they were considered representative of the courses taken by the 212 students. These were Sarjana Kejuruteraan Eletrik (SKE) with 20 respondents, Sarjana Kejuruteraan Terbang (SKT), with 15 respondents, Sarjana Pendidikan Komputer (SPK) with 21 respondents and the Diploma Kejuruteraan Jentera (DKJ) with 19 respondents. Further details of the subjects are given in the next section. Refer to Tables 5.1.0, 5.1.1, 5.1.2, 5.1.3 and 5.1.4 in Chapter 5 for further details.

4.4.0 The Main Study: Description of the subjects.

The subjects for the main study comprised of 212 first-year university students from UTM, Skudai, Malaysia. Of this number, 48 or 22.6 per cent of the total group of respondents, were female, while 164, or 77.4 per cent of the respondents, were male (Refer to Table 5.1.0 in the next chapter). As mentioned before, since the university is a technical institution the proportion of the male subjects might be expected to be higher than the female because of the nature of the courses offered at the university. The subjects in this study were aged between 17 - 21 years old (Refer to Table 4.2.0). The data presented in Table 4.2.0 show that only 1, or 0.5 per cent, of the respondents were 17 years old, 107, or 50.5 per cent, of the respondents were 18 years old, 81, or 38.2 per cent, were 19 years old, 20, or 9.4 per cent were 20 years old, while the remaining 3, or 1.4 per cent, were 21 years old. This age group was later divided into two smaller groups of very nearly equal numbers, where the 17 to 18 years old respondents were put into a "Junior group" and the 19 to 21 year old respondents were put into "Senior group" to simplify the age categories (Refer to Table 5.1.1 in the next chapter for detail). This was done because students aged 17 and 18 were considered as being at the beginning of their academic careers while the 19

to 21 year olds were considered as of a more mature age, even though they were first year students. This was based on the criterion of the entrance requirement, where at age 17-18 respondents possessed a SPM National Examination certificate and at age 19 - 21 respondents possessed a STPM National Examination certificate also as Table 4.2.0 shows the age of 18 is a very convenient cut-off point which divides the groups into two nearly equal set. The study was concerned with the age difference in order to see whether the age gap showed any difference in relation to speaking skills or language exposure. As indicated by Bernard, "unidimensional variables, like weight, birthdate, age and marital status are relatively easy to measure" (1994: 20).

Table 4.2.0 - Number of respondents according to Age

Age	Frequency	Percentage
17	1	0.5
18	107	50.5
19	81	38.2
20	20	9.4
21	3	1.4
Total	212	100.0

In this main study, out of the total number of 212 respondents, Malays represented the majority of the respondents with 152, or 71.7 per cent of the total sample, while Chinese were 40, or 18.9 per cent, and Indians were 20, or 9.4 per cent, of the total representing the ethnic minority populations (refer to Table 5.1.2 in the next chapter). The distribution of Malays was higher because of the quota system practised in Malaysia according to the national policy of positive discrimination. In this quota system all entrance to higher institution has to be in a ratio of 55:45 in favour of the Malays (This refers to Bumiputra and non-Bumiputra). For this reason, a higher sample of Malay subjects was to be expected in this study if the sample was representative of the total university population. All of the students were randomly selected from a total population of 2648 out of the UTM first year students for the July semester 1993/1994, and from this number 686 were Female

and 1962 were Male (Refer to Table 1 in Appendix 2). As suggested by Maykut and Morehouse, "randomness means that every person in the population of interest has an equal chance of being selected for inclusion in the study. A randomly selected sample serves an important purpose: it increases the likelihood that the sample accurately represents the population from which it was selected, allowing for results of the study to be generalised to the larger population" (1994: 56).

These students were divided between 31 courses; however, out of these courses only 8 were randomly selected to yield the final 212 samples. Of the 8 courses, 38 respondents were from the degree in Electrical Engineering (SKE), 15 from the degree in Mechanical Engineering-Aeronautics (SKT), 21 from the degree in Science & Computing with Education (SPK), 55 from the diploma in Mechanical Engineering (DKJ), 32 from the degree of Property Management (SPH), 15 from the degree of Chemical/Petroleum/Gas Engineering (FKKSA), 16 from the Integration Course in Computer Science (ISK) while the remaining 20 came from the degree in Mechanical Engineering (SKJ) (Refer to Table 5.1.4 in the next chapter for detail). This total represented approximately 12.4 per cent of the total student population of these courses.

The students in the first year of the selected courses had taken the English test at the national upper secondary education level (see Section 2.5.7). This is the national examination that comes at the end of Form V, or the Peperiksaan Sijil Pelajaran Malaysia (SPM), before a student enters university. This latter score in English, referred to as "English SPM", is a critical variable in this study. All subjects have had eleven years of formal English instruction in school, which has included six years in primary schools, three years in lower secondary schools and two years in upper secondary schools (see Sections 2.5.1-2.5.4). This means that the minimum age of all the subjects in this study was approximately 17 years when they passed this exam, since all pupils in Malaysia are

admitted into the first year of primary school when they are 6 years old. For this reason, presumably, all of the subjects had an equal opportunity to listen to English spoken before and within the campus environment among peers and lecturers for at least 7 months before this study was conducted in February 1994.

To ensure maximum diversity in sampling, students were randomly selected from a broad spectrum of English SPM scores, and of the Arts and Sciences streams. For this reason, the sample was considered to be representative of the general student population of the July 1993/94 session at the UTM. English SPM scores at this National Examination level were grades A1 to F9, with A1 and A2 being the distinction levels, C3 to C6 the credit levels, P7 and P8 the passing levels and F9 the failing level. Table 4.3.0 shows that from the overall total of 212 respondents in this study, 31 of them were A1 students, 10 were A2 students, 31 were C3 students, 30 were C4 students, 18 were C5 students, 28 were C6 students, 30 were P7 students, 16 were P8 students and 18 were F9 students. As Table 4.3.0 shows, the spread of scores is fairly even across the various levels, although A2, C5 and the levels of P8 and F9 are less represented. Moreover, the sample selected is representative of the total population, therefore, the researcher has no control over the distributions.

These English SPM scores were later categorised into three bands: Good, Average, Poor. The Good category comprised A1, A2 and C3 respondents; The Average category comprised C4, C5 and C6 respondents; while the Poor category comprised of P7, P8 and F9 respondents. The English SPM scores were put into these three bands because the A1, A2 an C3 results were considered to be the best scores; C4, C5 and C6 were the moderate scores and P7, P8 and F9 considered as the weak scores. Also, this categorisation makes more balanced groups of three than, say, categorising by A, C, and P, grades which would have more uneven groups numerically. This categorisation was also to help with the data

analysis conducted in the next chapter. Table 5.1.3 in the next chapter shows the breakdown of the three groups for English SPM scores, with 72 respondents is in the Good group, 76 in the Average group and 64 in the Poor group. In this study, it was noticeable that the groups were almost evenly distributed.

Table 4.3.0 - Number of respondents according to English SPM score.

English SPM score	Frequency	Percentage
A1	31	14.6
A2	10	4.7
C3	31	14.6
C4	30	14.2
C5	18	8.5
C6	28	13.2
P7	30	14.2
P8	16	7.5
F9	18	8.5
Total	212	100.0

The test and questionnaires were conducted and distributed over a period of one month, just one week before the semester break of the March 1993/94 semester, with the help of eight English language lecturers at the university. Of the total random sample of 212, only 75 were involved with the speaking test. These 75 students were randomly selected from the 8 courses. However, in the final selection for the speaking test, only four courses were involved. The courses were: the degree of Electrical Engineering (SKE), Degree in Mechanical Engineering-Aeronautics (SKT), degree in Science & Computering with Education (SPK) and diploma in Mechanical Engineering (DKJ). This followed the rule of representative sampling. As stated by Bernard, "probability samples are based on taking a given number of units of analysis from a list, or sampling frame, which represents some population under study. In a probability or representative sample, each individual must have exactly the same chance as every other individual of being selected" (1994: 74). Based on this theory, the number of 75 students who took the oral test, from the total of 212 is considered representative.

The original intention of this initial study was to obtain more than 100 students for the speaking test, comprising the three major ethnic groups, Malays, Chinese and Indians, with equal weighting given to both females and males. This was to ensure that a higher number of samples would be used to show the differentiation (if any) between the levels of the speaking ability between female and male in this study. However, it was not possible to find equal numbers of females and males on the courses, because the university itself being a technical college, therefore, the distribution of males was expected to be higher. Furthermore, using random sampling, the researcher has no control over the final distributions. The final subject distribution is represented in the following tables in the next chapter: Table 5.1.0 presents the frequency distribution of the subjects' sex, Table 5.1.1 presents the frequency distribution of the subjects' age, Table 5.1.2 presents the frequency distribution of the subjects' ethnic groups and Table 5.1.3 presents the frequency distribution of the subjects' English SPM scores.

4.5.0 Data Collection Procedures for the Main Study.

The main study was carried out at the UTM in February 1994. I am a staff member at this institute. Permission to conduct the study was obtained from the Head of the Modern Language Department, and 8 English lecturers (referred to as research assistants) were selected to help distribute and collect the questionnaires. Procedures of data collection and other tasks were explained to the research assistants, and the necessary schedules arrangements were set up in order to avoid time clashes. All of the testing instruments were administered and instructions were given before each session. In each of the first testing sessions the purpose of the study was explained to the subjects. They were given the assurance that their names and answers would be kept confidential and would not be revealed, except for research purposes. In addition, it was stressed that it was important that they should answer truthfully, in order not to impede the results of the research.

As Vygotsky cautioned, researchers often forget that their study involves human beings who are always thinking about themselves and that "this process is never without some influence on [their] behaviour; a sudden shift in thought during an experiment always has some impact on the subject's overall behaviour" (1979: 7). For example, the very act of informing an individual of the nature and intent of a given experiment (In this study the questionnaires distributed to determine students' self-esteem and academic self-image) as cautioned by Rommentveit (1985) can lead an individual to act contrary to our predictions. This means that regardless of how a researcher may characterise a task or activity, the ultimate responsibility in determining how a task is perceived and carried out rests with the individuals who take part in the activity (Lantolf and Ahmed 1989).

4.5.1 Scoring of the Measures

The Self Esteem, Academic Self Image and Speaking Abilities were scored as follows: The Self Esteem measure had a total number of 25 questions, with a total score of 25. The score was later divided into two categories. These categories were Low Self Esteem, which included those who scored within 1 to 14, and High Self Esteem for those who scored higher than 15. The same procedure as the Self-Esteem measure was applied to the Academic Self Image scores. This measure had a total of 9 questions and a total score of 18. But, again, two categories were formulated to simplify this score. In this case, those who managed to get 8 and below were categorised as having Low Academic Self Image, and those who managed to get 9 and above were categorised as having High Academic Self Image (refer to Tables 5.1.5, 5.1.6, 5.1.7, 5.1.8 and 5.1.9) in the next chapter for further details). These two categorisations (high and low) were chosen because most research conducted on self-esteem and self-image refers to self-esteem and self-image in the low and high categories. For example, a considerable amount of research has documented differences in the self-concepts of people with high and low self-esteem (see Crocker & Blaine, 1992) in which "low self-esteem people have always been a puzzle to researchers"

(see Tice 1993: 37). People who are high in self-esteem are also more certain about which attributes do and do not describe them than are people who are low in self-esteem (see Baumgardner, 1990; Campbell, 1990; Campbell & Lavalee, 1993) and expect to succeed more than do low self-esteem people (see Brockner, 1983; Shrauger, 1972). Consequently, whereas high self-esteem people tend to think the attributes that characterise them are important and those that do not characterise them are not important, low self-esteem people place give importance to attributes they believe they do not have (see Harter, 1986; Marsh, 1986; Rosenberg, 1965, 1979). Therefore, in simplifying into these two categories will simplify data analysis and correspond with the findings and implications of other studies.

For the Speaking Abilities scores, 5 grades were to be used in marking 100 scores. These grades were: those who got 80 per cent and above were given a Very Good Pass, those who got 70 to 79 per cent were given a Good Pass, those who got 55 to 69 per cent were given a Pass, those who got 41 to 54 per cent got a Narrow Fail and those who got 40 per cent and below failed the test.

In addition to the ARELS test used in the main study all of the successful candidates had to obtain 50 per cent in each of the three sub-skills of the test. Firstly, all candidates who scored over 50 per cent in the exam as a whole, but failed to score 50 per cent in one of the sections, were marked twice. The same rule applied to the poor fail and poor pass categories. Additionally, adjustments were made where necessary and concurred with the marking standards of the ARELS Oral Examination, provided by the ARELS Examination Trust. However, in this main study conducted, no subjects had to be marked twice.

4.5.2 Time

The 212 respondents who took part in the main study took an average of 15 minutes to answer the Coopersmith Self-Esteem measure, 8 minutes to answer the Academic Self-Image measure. The ARELS Speaking Ability test was done over a week on 75 randomly selected subjects who took 40 minutes to answer the test. This was done in order to accommodate the limited space at the language laboratories and to meet with the students' time available for lessons, with permission of the appropriate lecturers. All of the tests were conducted in the morning. Unfortunately, the researcher had no direct control over the time used in this study, as this was strictly governed by the individual lecturers and the timetable. The lesson time given was basically from 8.00 am to 10.00 am.

Even though time has always a limiting factor in any research, as mentioned by Cohen and Manion (1994), this allows the researcher greater opportunity to observe 'real changes' from 'chance occurrences'. Finally, instructions for all of the tests were repeated twice before the questionnaires were distributed to make sure respondents understood them fully. As mentioned by Wiersma and Jurs, "test constructors must consider such things as how much testing time is available,..... A well-planned test is no accident" (1990: 37). "There should be enough to cover the content adequately, but the length of the class period or the attention span or fatigue limits of the students usually restrict the test length. Decisions about test length are usually based on practical constraints more than on theoretical consideration" (ibid.: 36).

4.5.3 Test-Retest Reliability

Two weeks after the first administration of the Self Esteem and Academic Self Image measures, a retest for both measures was conducted. All the 212 subjects involved in the original test were involved in the retest. In this retest, the correlation of the Self Esteem scores showed a high correlation of 0.82, while the Academic Self Image scores showed a

correlation of 0.72. These test-retest reliability scores thus showed a high consistency level for both measures used in the main study. According to Best and Kahn (1989), reliability tests give an accurate measurement of the instruments used. Instruments that are highly reliable will give a high correlation result every time they are used in a similar situation. In this study, a reliability test had to be used to show the high correlation between both instruments. As Brown (1976) says, a high correlation will prove that the items measured were of the same kind.

The original instruments used by Coopersmith had a reliability of 0.63. Here, these measurements of 0.83 (Self Esteem) and 0.72 (Academic Self Image) are reliable and clearly have at least the same standard as the original instrument. We can conclude from this that the questionnaires were highly reliable. Throughout this period, each respondent gave their answers in the specified time, 25 minutes. A normal, air-conditioned classroom was used in each test. Finally, before the questionnaires were distributed, explanations and instructions were given and students were assured that the items were directed at their opinions. Again, truthfulness was stressed to be of great importance.

4.5.4 Interviews

Two weeks after the questionnaires had been completed, 70 students from the speaking test were interviewed informally. The interviewed students were from four courses selected randomly for the speaking test. The interview gave the students flexibility, allowing them to speak in English or Bahasa Malaysia, making them feel comfortable, and encouraging them to express themselves. As suggested by Cohen and Manion, one advantage of an interview is that, "it allows for greater depth than is the case with other methods of data collection" (1994: 272). Principally, the interviews were conducted to ascertain what the students had learnt in the given tests. However, they were also asked to talk about their language experiences at university, and to give their opinions in respect to education at

university level. Additionally, language issues, oral skills, teachers' attitudes, student's self-esteem, academic self-image, ethnic groups, gender and the tests given to them as part of the study were discussed. Each interview lasted for 20 to 30 minutes and each was tape recorded.

Finally, 10 English language lecturers were also interviewed to obtain further insights into the students' self-esteem, academic self-image and oral skills. They also talked about their own self-esteem, the promotion prospects of minority ethnic group members, and about syllabus and materials design. All these recorded interviews were used as supplementary data. (Refer to Chapter 6 for further discussions on this interview). As mentioned by Bogdan and Taylor, interviews are important because they attempt "to capture what people say and do, that is, the products of how people interpret the world" (1975: 13). "To do this requires an emphatic understanding or the ability to reproduce in one's own mind the feeling, motives, and thoughts behind the actions of others" (ibid.: 18).

4.5.5 Averaging The Scores

Following on from the test-retest reliability measures of self-esteem and academic self-image their 4 scores were averaged into 2 groups. However, speaking still remained dependent on both Self Esteem and Academic Self Image. The averaged scores of Self Esteem 1 and Self Esteem 2 were subsequently expressed as Self Esteem and the averaged score of Academic Self Image 1 and Academic Self Image 2 was expressed as Academic Self Image. This was done to arrive at the average score for the data analysis. In further analysis, only the averaged scores of Self Esteem and Academic Self Image were to be used. As mentioned by Maykut and Morehouse, in analysing data "it means, among other things, that one must carefully match research questions with methods of collecting and analysing data" (1994: 5). This averaging of scores follows the analysis of variance or Anova as explained by Bernard, "analysis of variance, or ANOVA, is a statistical technique

that applies to a set of averages. It is particularly popular in psychology and education where groups of people are administered tests on which they get some kind of score. Each group, then has an average score and these averages can be compared to see if they are significantly different.....Both groups would be tested before the program is adopted and after the program is finished.....Then the scores would be compared" (Bernard, 1994: 492).

4.6.0 Techniques of Data Analysis.

As stated by Maykut and Morehouse, "quantitative research is based on observations that are converted into discrete units that can be compared to other units by using statistical analysis. While there may be modifications and variations on this general picture of quantitative research, statistical analysis is an essential part of quantitative research" (1994: 2). Prior to the analysis, each subject's scores were collected and then entered into the computer for analysis. Data gathered in the questionnaires was analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 4.0.

Descriptive statistics of Self Esteem, Academic Self Image, Speaking Abilities and their variables, in terms of frequency and cross tabulation tables, which took independent variables of sex, age, ethnic groups and the English SPM scores into consideration. The courses were initially used to describe the population under study, and to observe patterns which would require further investigation. In areas that required significant differences, inferential statistics, which included t-tests and Anova, were used. In addition, the differences in the subjects' performance on each of the different scales between subjects' groups were identified by tabulating the mean and standard deviation scores of each group of subjects: "the t-test asks a simple question: Do two sample means X1 and X2 differ enough to make me believe that there are real differences between the two populations?" (Bernard, 1994: 421). The differences between the mean and standard deviation between

groups was further tested by running a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA): "Whenever you observe three or more groups (age cohorts, members of different cultures or ethnic groups, people from different communities)...., then ANOVA is the analytic method of choice" (ibid.: 495). The reason for running two types of statistical analyses was to ascertain the relationships among the variables and to test whether observed differences were significant.

This was done using two methods. Firstly, the correlation among the variables using the Pearson-product moment correlations was performed. According to Bernard, "Pearson's r is an intuitive PRE measure of association for linear relationships between lots of different types of variables. It is generally used to test for associations between interval variables, but it can also be used for an interval and an ordinal variable, or even for an interval and a nominal variable. It tells us how much better we could predict the scores of a dependent variables, if we knew the scores of some independent variable" (Bernard, 1994: 450). Secondly, a Stepwise multiple regression analysis was performed. In the Stepwise multiple regression analysis of data, Speaking, Academic Self Image and Self Esteem were the dependent variables, and the English SPM score, Sex and Ethnic groups were the predictors.

A further varimax rotation method was then employed which allowed a prediction equation for all of the dependent variables to be formulated by choosing the independent variables as the best predictors. Levels of significance for all tests are 0.05 following the Bonferroni adjustment. "These numbers are simply conventions that have developed for convenience over the years" (ibid.: 465): "the Bonferonni inequality states that if you report these correlations as significant at the 5% level....then your report will be valid" (ibid.: 465). All the results are presented in chapter 7.

4.7.0 Summary

In this Chapter, the methodology, materials and procedures for data collection for the pilot and main study have been discussed in detail. The characteristics of the samples, measures used and analyses were also presented. Samples consisting of first year UTM students and the SPSS Version 4.0 were used for data analyses.

Chapter 5: Results and Interpretations.

This chapter will present the results generated from the analyses of data obtained by the methods described in the previous chapter (see Chapter 4). The characteristics of the main sample will first be discussed, followed by a presentation of descriptive and inferential statistics of the dependent and independent variables.

Frequency distributions and cross-tabulations will be used to describe characteristics of the sample in the study. Means of groups of the variables of self-esteem, academic self image and speaking abilities will be discussed next. Inferential statistics of T-tests and Anova will be used to test significant differences between groups of the independent variables of sex, age, ethnic group and the English SPM scores. In cases where differences occur in an Anova test, a post-hoc analysis (Scheffe Test) will be conducted to determine Groups of significant differences. Step-wise Multiple Regression is conducted to determine the significant contribution of sex, age, ethnicity and English SPM scores in the variances of self esteem, academic self image and speaking ability scores.

For the purpose of the analysis, a total average of the Academic Self Image score is obtained by combining the scores aggregated from Academic Self Image 1 and Academic Self Image 2. Academic Self Image 1 is the pre-test and Academic Self Image 2 is the post-test conducted after a duration of two weeks from the first test. Similarly, a total average of the Self Esteem score is obtained by combining the scores aggregated from the Self Esteem 1 and Self Esteem 2 tests conducted, at the same time as the Academic Self Image 1 and 2 tests (refer to Section 4.5.5 in Chapter 4). Further analysis of the Self-Esteem scores 1 and 2 and the Academic Self-Image scores 1 and 2 will be discussed in Section VII of this chapter.

Section 1

5.1 Background Information

This section presents the results of the subjects' personal background, such as sex, age, ethnic background and English SPM scores. This background was gathered based on the information supplied by the respondents in the Personal and Background Information obtained from Section III of the distributed questionnaires.

To start with, 212 subjects in Universiti Teknologi Malaysia (UTM) were randomly selected for this study. From this number, all were involved with both the Self-Esteem and Academic Self-Image measures, while only 75 were selected for the Speaking test (for reasons given in Section 4.3.1 and 4.4.0 in Chapter 4). Originally 220 questionnaires were distributed. All the returned questionnaires were used except for 8 unanswered questionnaires This high response ratio was achieved as all of the questionnaires were distributed and conducted either by the researcher herself or by the research assistants in their own classrooms. Any parts of the questionnaires not completed were rejected. This was to ensure that all of the information was complete before being analysed.

5.1.1 Sex

Out of the 212 subjects who participated in this study, 164 were male and the other 48 were female. This gives a distribution of 77.4 per cent Male and 22.6 per cent Female. If this research had been carried out in other universities, it was predicted that more equal numbers of genders would have been attained across the full range of arts and sciences. As already noted, the imbalance in the present sample was because UTM is a technical college where more males than females have applied and are accepted for entrance. (Refer to Table 1 in the Appendix 2 for complete distributions of the total population of first year students at UTM or Table 2.5.0). Table 5.1.0 below gives the frequency and percentage distribution of gender based on the 212 subjects taken for this study at UTM in February 1994.

Table 5.1.0 - Number of respondents according to sex.

Sex	Frequency	Percentage
Female	48	22.6
Male	164	77.4

N = 212

5.1.2 Age

From Table 5.1.1, 50.9 per cent of respondents fall within the junior age group category, while 49.1 per cent are within the senior age group category. (The junior age group is defined as being between 17 to 18 years and the senior age group is between 19 to 21 years, as explained in Chapter 4 Section 4.4.0).

Table 5.1.1 - Number of respondents according to Age

Age	Number	Percentage
Junior	108	50.9
Senior	104	49.1

N = 212

5.1.3 Ethnic Group

Three major ethnic groups, comprising Malays, Chinese and Indians, took part in this study. This ethnic composition is mainly due to the fact that these are Malaysia's three main ethnic groups. The national ethnic composition in Malaysia can be seen from Table 2.1.0 in Chapter 2. The table below gives the ethnic distribution of the subjects in this study.

Table 5.1.2 - Number of respondents according to Ethnic Group.

Race	Frequency	Percentage
Malay	152	71.7
Chinese	40	18.9
Indian	20	9.4

N = 212

As can be seen from Table 5.1.2 above, Malay subjects represent the majority of the sample population, with 71.7 per cent. The Chinese subjects represent 18.9 per cent of the sample and Indians represent 9.4 per cent. Since the population under study was randomly selected, there was no bias towards any race, nor any attempt made to achieve a balanced sample which might reflect the ethnic composition of the university population, or of the general population.

5.1.4 English SPM score

A distribution of scores was achieved after dividing the subjects into three major groups of Good, Average and Poor, as explained in Chapter 4 Section 4.4.0. The Good category comprises A1, A2 and C3 respondents. The Average category comprises C4, C5 and C6 respondents. The Poor category comprises P7, P8 and F9 respondents (Refer to Table 2 in Appendix 2). Table 5.1.3 below shows that 34 per cent of respondents are in the Good group, 35.8 per cent in the Average group and 30.2 per cent in Poor group. In general, the English SPM score is one of the required subjects for respondents to have before entering

university and it is taken at Form V level (Secondary level-see Section 2.5.7). For this reason, all of the respondents in this study have met with their SPM requirements before being accepted into university. As mentioned in Chapter 4 Section 4.4.0, since the population under study was randomly selected the balance of figures of about 1/3 in each category, seemed to indicate that equal numbers of students irrespective of their English SPM results were being accepted into the university. Even though the English SPM scores were obtained just before students' entry to university and perhaps they reflect the past, while the Speaking and Self-Esteem scores were obtained while students are at university now, the different time period is presumed to be insignificant for the study because the English SPM scores were the reflection of their English capability which they had been studying since the age of 7, therefore the Speaking test is not expected to show any difference within such a short period of time (which is less than a year). In this study the statistical tests for significance differences are presented in Section III in this chapter.

Table 5.1.3 - Number of respondents according to English SPM scores.

English SPM Scores	Frequency	Percentage
Good	72	34.0
Average	76	35.8
Poor	64	30.2

N = 212

English SPM scores = English result at national level examination before students entered the university.

5.1.5 Course

Subjects' backgrounds were also examined regarding the courses they studied at university level. Out of 31 English sections conducted during the Semester of 1993/94 at UTM, 8 sections were randomly selected for this study. The distribution is shown in Table 5.1.4. High frequencies of respondents in the DKJ, SKE and SPH course shown below seem to indicate that these courses are among the most popular courses in UTM with high numbers of students. In fact, in UTM out of the total population intake, for first year students for 1993/1994, the DKJ course had the second largest number of students from the 31 sections with 241 students, the SKE course had the fourth largest population with 172 first year students. The SPH course had 44 total first year students. (The largest group comes from the DKA course - Diploma of Civil Engineering -with 267 students. See Table 1 in Appendix 2 for the complete distribution of the 31 sections).

Key = SKE - Degree in Electrical Engineering
SKT - Degree in Mechanical Engineering (Aeronautics)
SPK - Degree in Science & Computering with Education
DKJ - Diploma in Mechanical Engineering
SPH - Degree in Property Management
FKKSA - Degree in Chemical/Petroleum/Gas Engineering
ISK - Integration Course in Computer Science
SKJ - Degree in Mechanical Engineering

Table 5.1.4 - Number of respondents according to Course.

Course of Respondents	Frequency	Percentage
SKE	38	17.9
SKT	15	7.1
SPK	21	9.9
DKJ	55	25.9
SPH	32	15.1
FKKSA	15	7.1
ISK	16	7.5
SKJ	20	9.4

N = 212

5.1.6 Self-Esteem Scores

For the purpose of the analysis, respondents who managed to get scores between 1 to 14 are put into the Low Self-Esteem category, and respondents who managed to get scores between 15 to 25 are put into the High Self-Esteem category as discussed in Section 4.5.1 in Chapter 4.

Table 5.1.5 - Number of Self Esteem 1 Scores.

Self Esteem 1 scores	Frequency	Percentage
Low Self Esteem	85	40.1
High Self Esteem	127	59.9

N = 212

The Self-Esteem 1 scores are the result of the pre-test of the Self-Esteem measure. 40.1 per cent (85) of respondents are in the Low Self-Esteem category, while 59.9 per cent (127) of respondents are in the High Self-Esteem category. (Refer to Table 3 in Appendix 2 for the complete distribution of the pre-test results). The higher number of respondents in the High Self-Esteem category shows that more respondents have High Self-Esteem than Low Self-Esteem. Even though the results show that respondents with High Self-Esteem are relatively large in number, and this is likely to be significant, further statistical tests of significance will be conducted in the T-test and ANOVA analysis presented in Section III of this chapter to ascertain if this is the case or not.

Table 5.1.6 - Number of Self Esteem 2 Scores.

Self Esteem 2 scores	Frequency	Percentage
Low Self Esteem	74	34.9
High Self Esteem	138	65.1

N = 212

Table 5.1.6 displays the respondents' results for the post-test which was conducted two weeks after the pre-test. An increase of 5.2 per cent for the High Self Esteem group can clearly be seen from the result as compared to the first test (Table 5.1.5). The increase demonstrates that some of the respondents slightly improved their scores after the pre- test. (Refer to Table 4 in Appendix 2 for the complete distribution of the post-test results). The results show that after the pre-test some of the respondents may have had a clearer picture of what to expect in the questionnaires seemingly to improve on the post-test. It is conceivable, but unlikely, that their actual Self-Esteem improved over the two weeks period. Further statistical tests of significance will be carried out using the t-test and ANOVA analysis to determine the differences which are presented in Section III of this chapter.

Table 5.1.7 - Number of Average Self-Esteem Scores

Average Self-Esteem Scores	Frequency	Percentage
Low Self-Esteem	80	37.5
High Self-Esteem	132	62.5

N = 212

Results in Table 5.1.7 show that after averaging the two scores of Self-Esteem 1 and 2, the average scores of High Self-Esteem remain higher with 62.5 per cent respondents in this category and only 37.5 per cent respondents in the Low Self-Esteem category. All statistical tests of significance on this average score will be presented in Section II of this chapter.

5.1.7 Academic Self-Image scores

In the Academic Self-Image measure, respondents who managed to get scores from 1 to 8 are put into the Low Academic Self Image group and those who managed to get from 9 to 18 are put into the High Academic Self Image group as explained in Section 4.5.1 in Chapter 4. Tables 5.1.7 and 5.1.8 show the distributions of scores after the pre-test and the post-test were conducted.

Table 5.1.8 - Number of Academic Self Image 1 Scores.

Academic Self Image 1 Scores	Frequency	Percentage
Low Academic SI	49	23.1
High Academic SI	163	76.9

N= 212

There are 23.1 per cent (49) Low Academic Self-Image respondents and 76.9 per cent (163) High Academic Self-Image respondents in this pre-test result (refer to Table 5 in Appendix 2 for the frequency distribution of Academic Self-Image 1 scores). The results show that in terms of Academic Self-Image 1 scores, far more respondents had high academic self-image than a low academic self-image. Apparently, the Academic Self-Image on average is higher than the Self-Esteem which could be due to the fact that most students' have good academic qualifications upon entering university, and therefore, possess a higher Academic Self-Image. Further interpretations of the differences between the high and low results will be made based on the t-test and ANOVA analysis for significant differences presented in Section III of this chapter.

Table 5.1.9 shows the respondents' results for the post-test. An increase of 5.2 per cent for the High Academic Self-Image score after the pre-test can be clearly seen (refer to Table 6 in Appendix 2 for the complete distributions of the post-test results). This increase might be due to some of the respondents having a better idea of what was to be expected during the post-test. The fact that the percentage increase is identical to that of the Self-Esteem

scores tends to confirm this. Again, it is considerable, but unlikely, that the average Academic Self-Image had improved over two weeks. Further interpretations of the difference will be established based on the t-test and ANOVA analysis for significant differences presented in Section III of this chapter.

Table 5.1.9 - Number of Academic Self-Image 2 Scores.

Academic Self Image 2 Scores	Frequency	Percentage
Low Academic Self-Image	38	17.9
High Academic Self-Image	174	82.1

N = 212

Table 5.1.10 - Number of Average Academic Self-Image Scores

Average Academic Self-Image Scores	Frequency	Percentage
Low Academic Self-Image	44	20.5
High Academic Self-Image	168	79.5

N = 212

As can be seen from the Table above, the results indicate that respondents have higher percentages in the High Self-Esteem category as compared to the percentage in the Low Academic Self-Image category. After the scores were averaged, 79.5 per cent of the respondents had High Academic Self-Image and 20.5 per cent had Low Academic Self-Image. Even though the scores are very uneven, this is probably due to the fact that generally most respondents who participated in this study possessed High Academic Self-Images which is beyond the researcher's control (They are, after all, studying academic courses at university). Further interpretations of the differences will be provided in Section III of this chapter and further discussion will be provided in Chapter 7.

5.1.8 Speaking Scores

As explained in Chapter 4 Section 4.4.0, the speaking scores were categorised into five categories. The Fail category applied to those who obtained scores between 1 and 40, Narrow Fail to those who got scores between 41 and 54, Pass to those who got scores between 55 and 69, Good Pass to those who got the scores between 70 and 79 and Very Good Pass for those who got scores of 80 and above (refer to Table 7 in Appendix 2 for

the complete distribution of the speaking test). Further statistical interpretations will be carried out using the t-test and ANOVA analysis which are presented in Section III of this chapter.

Out of the 75 respondents taking part in this Speaking test, 34.7 per cent got a Very Good Pass, 16.0 per cent a Good Pass, 17.3 per cent a Pass, 14.7 per cent Narrowly Failed and 17.3 per cent failed. Table 5.1.11 shows the results.

Table 5.1.11 - Number of Speaking Scores.

Speaking Scores	Frequency	Percentage
Fail	13	17.3
Narrow Fails	11	14.7
Pass	13	17.3
Good Pass	12	16.0
Very Good Pass	26	34.7

N = 75

Section II: Cross-tabulation

In this section, the tabulation of the frequency distribution by means of cross-tabulations will be presented to describe the characteristics of the samples in this study. Cross-tabulation tables will be shown before discussing the means of groups.

Table 5.2.0 - Cross-tabulation of Sex by Age

	AGE	
SEX	Junior	Senior
Female (48)	27 12.7%	21 9.9%
Male (164)	81 38.2%	83 39.2%

N = 212

In the table above, when Sex by Age are cross-tabulated, Junior represents 12.7 per cent Female respondents and 38.2 per cent Male respondents. 9.9 per cent of the Senior respondents are Female and 39.2 per cent are Male.

Table 5.2.1 - Cross-tabulation of Sex by Age for Speaking group

	AGE	
SEX	Junior	Senior
Female (21)	11 14.7%	10 13.3%
Male (54)	28 37.3%	26 34.7%

N = 75

Table 5.2.1 presents the cross-tabulation of Sex by Age for the respondents who took part in the Speaking test. This table shows that Junior represents 14.7 per cent of the Female respondents and 37.3 per cent Male respondents. For the Senior population, 13.3 per cent are Female respondents and 34.7 per cent are Male.

Table 5.2.2 - Cross-tabulation of Sex by Ethnic Group.

SEX	ETHNIC GROUPS		
	Malay	Chinese	Indian
Female (48)	37 17.5%	6 2.8%	5 2.4%
Male (164)	115 54.2%	34 16.0%	15 7.1 %

N = 212

It can be seen from the table above that 17.5 per cent of the Female population are Malays, 2.8 per cent are Chinese and 2.4 per cent are Indians.
For the Male population, 54.2 per cent are Malays, 16.0 per cent are Chinese and 7.1 per cent are Indians.

Table 5.2.3 - Cross-tabulation of Sex by Ethnic Groups for Speaking groups

	ETHNIC GROUP		
SEX	Malay	Chinese	Indian
Female (21)	10 13.4%	7 9.3%	4 5.3%
Male (54)	33 44.0%	13 17.3%	8 10.7%

N = 75

Table 5.2.3 presents the cross-tabulation of Sex by Ethnic groups for the speaking test. Out of 75 respondents, 28 per cent (21) are Female with the distribution of 13.4 per cent Malays, 9.3 per cent Chinese and 5.3 per cent Indian. On the other hand, out of 72.0 per

cent Male (54), 44.0 per cent are Malay respondents, 17.3 Chinese and 10.7 per cent Indian.

Table 5.2.4 - Cross-tabulation of Sex by English SPM scores.

	ENGLISH SPM SCORES		
SEX	Good	Average	Poor
Female (48)	12 5.7%	23 10.8%	13 6.1%
Male (164)	60 28.3%	53 25.0%	51 21.1 %

N = 212

Table 5.2.4 shows a cross-tabulation table between Sex by English SPM scores. The table reveals that of 22.6 per cent (48) Female subjects, most obtained the Average score (10.8 per cent). On the other hand, out of the 77.4 per cent (164) of the Males seemed to do much better with 28.3 per cent obtaining Good English SPM scores. It also shows the males had an even distribution, whereas the Female distribution was uneven. The distribution above shows that the Male population did slightly better in the Good category than the Female group. Further statistical interpretations will be carried out using the t-test and ANOVA which are presented in Section III of this chapter to ascertain the significance of this difference.

Table 5.2.5 - Cross-tabulation of Sex by English SPM scores for Speaking.

	ENGLISH SPM SCORES		
SEX	Good	Average	Poor
Female (21)	8 10.7%	9 12.0%	4 5.3%
Male (54)	27 36.0%	8 10.7%	19 25.3%

N = 75

The results presented in 5.2.5 above show that for the Speaking test group, most Female respondents are in the Average category with 12.0 per cent of them in this category followed closely with 10.7 per cent in the Good category. For the Male respondents, the highest percentage comes from the Good category with 36.0 per cent of them in this category followed by the Poor category (25.3 per cent). The results show that most of the Female respondents come from either the Average or Good category whereas for the Male respondents, they either come from Good or Poor category. However, this is a very early

generalisation and further significance tests will be conducted in the next section to answer this uncertainty.

Table 5.2.6 - Cross-tabulation of Sex by Course

	COURSE							
SEX	SKE	SKT	SPK	DKJ	SPH	Fkksa	ISK	SKJ
Female (48)	11 5.2%	1 0.5%	13 6.1%	3 1.4%	8 3.8%	1 0.5%	10 4.7%	1 0.5%
Male (164)	27 12.7%	14 6.6%	8 3.8%	52 24.5%	24 11.3%	14 6.6%	6 2.8%	19 9.0%

N = 212

Table 5.2.6 indicates that the majority of Female respondents come from the SPK group (6.1 per cent) followed closely by the SKE, (5.2 per cent).

For Male respondents, the majority of Males come from the DKJ (24.5 per cent) and the SKE (12.7 per cent). The table shows that some courses are highly popular among the females and other courses are highly popular among the males. For example, the highest female population for the total population of first year students for 1993/1994 intake at UTM come from the ISK (Integrated Computer Science) course with 18.1 per cent (124) students out of 686 total Female population and the highest male population for the first year students for 1993/1994 intake come from the DKA (Diploma of Civil Engineering) course with 11.5 per cent (225) students out of 1962 total Male population. (Refer to Table 1 in Appendix 2 for the detail distributions of the 31 courses at UTM). This might be due to the fact that some courses, like the DKJ (Diploma in Engineering) and DKA, are engineering courses and are more technical and attract more male students. Alternatively, courses like SPK and ISKwhich is the third highest popular course for the Females out of the total 31 courses (Degree in Science & Computer Education) are less technical and therefore manage to attract more female students.

5.2.7 - Cross-tabulation of Sex by Course for Speaking

	Course			
SEX	SKE	SKT	SPK	DKJ
Female (21)	7 9.3%	1 1.4%	13 17.3%	
Male (54)	12 16.0%	15 20.0%	8 10.7%	19 25.3%

N = 75

As shown in Table 5.2.7, the results indicate that the majority of Female respondents comes from the SPK group with 17.3 per cent. There are no respondents from the DKJ course which shows that this course is the least popular among the Female students. However, for the Male respondents, the DKJ course is highly popular among them with 25.3 per cent of the respondents coming from this course. 20.0 per cent of them come from the SKT course and 16.0 per cent from the SKE.

Table 5.2.8 - Cross-tabulation of Sex by Self -Esteem Scores

	SELF-ESTEEM	
Sex	Low Self-Esteem	High Self-Esteem
Female (48)	25 11.8 %	23 10.8 %
Male (164)	53 25.0 %	111 52.4 %

N = 212

Table 5.2.8 shows the cross-tabulation of Sex by Self-Esteem scores. This is the result of the average scores between pre-test Self-Esteem 1 and post-test Self-Esteem 2. (For further details of the cross-tabulation scores of Self-Esteem 1 and Self-Esteem 2 by Sex please refer to Table 5.7.1 and Table 5.7.2 in Section VII). In these average scores of those with Low Self-Esteem, 11.8 per cent are Female, and 25.0 per cent Male. Also, with the High Self-Esteem, 10.8 per cent are Female and 52.4 per cent Male. The results show that Males have higher Self-Esteem in comparison to Females. Further statistical tests of significance to see whether these percentages are significant will be presented in Section III to discuss the results.

Table 5.2.9 - Cross-tabulation of Sex by Academic Self-Image scores

	ACADEMIC SELF-IMAGE	
SEX	Low Academic Self-Image	High Academic Self-Image
Female (48)	14 6.6%	34 16.0%
Male (164)	31 14.6%	133 62.8%

N = 212

Table 5.2.9 reveals the result of the averaged scores of pre-test Academic Self-Image 1 and post-test Academic Self-Image 2. (For further details of the Academic Self-Image 1 and Academic Self-Image 2 scores, cross-tabulation by sex, refer to Tables 5.7.3 and 5.7.4 in Section VII in this chapter). In these averaged scores, of those with Low Academic Self-

Image, 6.6 per cent are Female, and 14.6 per cent Males. With the High Academic Self-Image, 16.0 per cent are Female and 62.8 per cent Male. Overall results appear to indicate that Male respondents have better Academic Self-Images than Female respondents. Further statistical interpretations will be carried out using the t-test and ANOVA to determine whether these results are significant. These results will be presented in Section III of this chapter.

Table 5.2.10 - Cross-tabulation of Sex by Speaking Scores.

	SPEAKING SCORES				
SEX	Fail	Narrow Fail	Pass	Good Pass	Very Good Pass
Female (21)	4 5.3%	4 5.3%	4 5.3%	2 2.7%	7 9.4%
Male (54)	9 12.0%	7 9.4%	9 12.0%	10 13.3%	19 25.3%

N = 75

The distribution of Sex by Speaking score in Table 5.2.10 shows that both Sexes are well represented in the Very Good Pass category. Out of 28.0 per cent (21) Females who took part in this study, 9.4 per cent are in the Very Good Pass category, while out of 72.0 per cent (54 Males) 25.3 per cent are in the Very Good Pass category. 2.7 per cent of the females are in the Good Pass category and 5.3 per cent in each of the Pass, Narrow Fail and Fail categories. For the Male respondents, however, 25.3 per cent are in the Good Pass category, 13.3 per cent in the Good Pass category, 12.0 per cent in the Pass category, 9.4 per cent in the Narrow Fail category and 12.0 per cent in the Fail category. It is clear that in both groups, the highest percentages are in the Very Good Pass category. Further statistical tests will be carried out in Section III to determine whether there is any significant difference between the two groups.

Table 5.2.11 - Cross-tabulation of Age by Ethnic Group.

	ETHNIC GROUP		
AGE	Malay	Chinese	Indian
Junior (108)	90 42.5%	6 2.8%	12 5.7 %
Senior (104)	62 29.2%	34 16.0%	8 3.8 %

N = 212

As shown in table 5.2.11, 42.5 per cent of the Junior age group are Malays, 2.8 per cent are Chinese and 5.7 per cent Indians. As for the Senior, 29.2 per cent of the Senior age group are Malays, 16.0 per cent are Chinese and 3.8 per cent Indians.

Table 5.2.12 - Cross-tabulation of Age by English SPM scores.

	ENGLISH SPM SCORES		
AGE	Good	Average	Poor
Junior (108)	35 16.5%	35 16.5%	38 17.9 %
Senior (104)	37 17.5%	41 19.3%	26 12.3 %

N = 212

Table 5.2.12 shows the Age of respondents by English SPM scores. Out of the 50.9 per cent (108) respondents of the Junior age groups, 17.9 per cent (the highest percentage) were in the Poor category and there was an even percentage of 16.5 per cent for Good and Average categories. On the other hand, out of 49.1 per cent (104) of the Senior respondents, 19.3 per cent obtained the highest percentage in the Average category and the lowest percentage (12.3 per cent) were in the Poor category. In terms of age, the results show that the Senior age groups managed to get a better score than the Juniors. This might be interpreted as being because the Senior group are older and have been learning English for longer, except of course, that all English SPM scores are pre-university entrance scores. Further tests of the differences will be done on the T-test for significant differences presented in Section III.

Table 5.2.13 - Cross-tabulation of Age by Course.

	COURSE							
AGE	SKE	SKT	SPK	DKJ	SPH	FKKSA	ISK	SKJ
Junior (108)	22 10.4%	6 2.8%	10 4.7%	28 13.2%	22 10.4%	5 2.4%	8 3.8%	7 3.3%
Senior (104)	16 7.5%	9 4.2%	11 5.2%	27 12.7%	10 4.7%	10 4.7%	8 3.8%	13 6.1%

N = 212

Table 5.2.13 displays cross tabulation of Age by Course where the majority of Junior age respondents come from the DKJ (13.2 per cent), SKE and SPH (10.4 per cent each), SPK (4.7 per cent), ISK (3.8 per cent), SKJ (3.3 per cent), SKT (2.8 per cent) with the FKKSA the lowest (2.4 per cent).

For the Senior age respondents, 12.7 per cent come from the DKJ course, 7.6 per cent from SKE, 6.1 per cent from SKJ, 5.2 per cent from SPK, 4.7 per cent each from SPH and FKKSA, 4.2 per cent from SKT and only 3.8 per cent from the ISK course group.

Table 5.2.14 - Cross-tabulation of Age by Self-Esteem scores.

	SELF-ESTEEM SCORES	
AGE	Low Self-Esteem	High Self-Esteem
Junior (108)	36 17.0%	72 34.0%
Senior (104)	42 19.8%	62 29.2%

N = 212

Table 5.2.14 illustrates the percentage of respondents by Age and the averaged score of Self-Esteem 1 and 2 (refer to table 5.7.5 and 5.7.6 in Section VII for full scores). In this table, scores were gathered based on the average scores of the pre-test and post-test. The results show that 17.0 per cent of the Junior age groups had Low Self-Esteem while 34.0 per cent had High Self-Esteem. For the Senior age group, 19.8 per cent had Low Self-Esteem and 29.2 per cent had High Self-Esteem. The table also shows that the Junior group had a higher percentage than the Senior in the High Self-Esteem category with 34.0 per cent while only 29.2 per cent of the Seniors are in the High Self-Esteem category. Further significance tests to see whether this is significant will be presented in Section III of this Chapter.

Table 5.2.15 - Cross-tabulation of Age by Academic Self-Image scores.

	ACADEMIC SELF-IMAGE	
AGE	Low Academic Self-Image	High Academic Self-Image
Junior (108)	20 9.4%	88 41.5%
Senior (104)	25 11.8%	79 37.3%

N = 212

In the table above, the cross-tabulation of Age and average scores of Academic Self-Image 1 and 2 specifically state that 9.4 per cent of the respondents between the ages of 17 and 18 years old (Junior group) as indicated in Section 4.4.0 in Chapter 4 had Low Academic Self-Image while 41.5 per cent had a high Academic Self-Image. On the other hand, the Senior age group had 37.3 per cent in the High Academic Self-Image group and only 11.8 per cent in the Low Academic Self-Image category. However, the result demonstrates that

the Juniors do have a better Academic Self-Image than the Seniors with 41.5 per cent in the High Academic Self-Image category as opposed to only 37.3 per cent of the Seniors. A test to determine whether there is a significant difference is shown in Section III of this Chapter. (Refer to Table 5.7.7 and 5.7.8 in Section VII of this chapter for the cross-tabulation results of Age and Academic Self-Image 1 and 2).

Table 5.2.16 - Cross-tabulation of Age by Speaking Scores.

	SPEAKING SCORES				
AGE	Fail	Narrow Fails	Pass	Good Pass	V. Good Pass
Junior (39)	7 9.3%	6 8.0%	6 8.0%	8 10.7%	12 16.0%
Senior (36)	6 8.0%	5 6.7%	7 9.3%	4 5.3%	14 18.7%

N = 75

Based on the cross-tabulation of Age by Speaking scores, the results in table 5.2.16 show that out of 52.0 per cent (39) Junior age group, 16.0 per cent of the Junior Age respondents had a Very Good Pass as opposed to 18.7 per cent of the Senior Age. The other Juniors' scores were scattered with 10.7 per cent in the Good Pass category, 8.0 per cent each in the Pass and Narrow Fail categories, and 9.3 per cent in the Fail category. For the Senior Age respondents, out of 48.0 per cent (36), 5.3 per cent are in the Good Pass category, 9.3 per cent in the Pass category, 6.7 per cent in the Narrow Fail category and 8.0 per cent in the Fail category. To see whether these results are significant, a results of T-test will be reported in the next section of this chapter.

Table 5.2.17 - Cross-tabulation of Ethnic Groups by English SPM scores.

	ENGLISH SPM SCORES		
Ethnic Groups	Good	Average	Poor
Malay (152)	32 15.1%	57 26.8%	63 29.7%
Chinese (40)	22 10.4%	18 8.5%	
Indian (20)	18 8.5%	1 0.5%	1 0.5%

N = 212

In Table 5.2.17 the cross-tabulation between Ethnic groups and English SPM scores specifically show that there are 71.7 per cent (152) Malays respondents, 18.9 per cent (40) Chinese and 9.4 per cent (20) Indians. The cross-tabulation shows that the majority of Malays are in the Poor category (29.7 per cent) whereas 26.8 per cent are in the Average group and only 15.1 per cent in the Good category. There are no Chinese respondents in the Poor category. 10.4 per cent of the Chinese respondents, however, are in the Good category and the balance of this group (8.5 per cent) are in the Average category. Of the Indian respondents, 8.5 per cent are in the Good category and only 0.5 per cent in each of the Average and Poor categories. It seems obvious that the Malays are the weakest group among the three races in terms of English SPM scores distributions. However, from this generalisation alone it is too early to tell whether this is linked with the membership of a dominant group (Malay) which means less perceived need to learn English, whereas membership of a minority group means that one needs English to succeed. A test to determine whether this difference is significant will be conducted in Section III of this chapter.

Table 5.2.18 - Cross-tabulation of Ethnic groups by Course.

	COURSE							
Ethnic Groups	SKE	SKT	SPK	DKJ	SPH	Fkksa	ISK	SKJ
Malay (152)	18 8.5%	3 1.4%	18 8.5%	42 19.8%	32 15.0%	9 4.2%	15 7.1%	15 7.1%
Chinese (40)	12 5.7%	7 3.3%	3 1.4%	9 4.2%		5 2.4%	1 0.5%	3 1.4%
Indian (20)	8 3.8%	5 2.4%		4 1.9%		1 0.5%		2 0.9%

N = 212

Distribution of ethnic group by course is shown above in Table 5.2.18 with the Malays representing the highest percentage of 71.7 per cent (152), with 18.9 per cent (40) being Chinese and the balance of 9.4 per cent (20) Indian respondents. Additionally, 19.8 per cent of the Malay respondents were from the DKJ course, 15.1 per cent from the SPH, 8.5 per cent each from the SKE and SPK, 7.1 per cent each from the ISK and SKJ, 4.2 per cent from the FKKSA and 1.4 per cent from the SKT course.

The distribution of the Chinese respondents by course are as follows:

The SKE-5.7 per cent, the DKJ-4.2 per cent, the SKT-3.3 per cent, the FKKSA-2.4 per cent, the SPK and SKJ-1.4 per cent each and the ISK-0.5 per cent.

The distributions of the Indian respondents by course are as follows:

The SKE-3.8 per cent, the SKT-2.4 per cent, the DKJ-1.9 per cent, the SKJ-0.9 per cent and 0.5 per cent from the FKKSA.

Table 5.2.19 - Cross-tabulation of Ethnic groups by Self-Esteem scores.

	SELF-ESTEEM	
Ethnic Groups	Low Self-Esteem	High Self-Esteem
Malay (152)	59 27.8%	93 43.9%
Chinese (40)	14 6.6%	26 12.3%
Indian (20)	5 2.3%	15 7.1%

N = 212

Table 5.2.19 presents the cross-tabulation of Ethnic group and Self-Esteem averaged scores of pre-test scores of Self-Esteem 1 and post-test scores of Self-Esteem 2 (refer to Tables 5.7.9 and 5.7.10 in the Section VII for further details of the two scores). In this table, the results show that the Malay, Chinese and Indian respondents all have a higher percentage in the High Self-Esteem category than in the Low Self-Esteem category. 43.7 per cent of the Malay respondents are in the High Self-Esteem category and 27.8 per cent in the Low Self Esteem category. For the Chinese respondents, results show that 12.3 per cent are in the high Self-Esteem category while 6.6 per cent are in the Low Self-Esteem category. Results also reveal that 7.1 per cent of Indian respondents are in the High Self-Esteem category and 2.3 per cent in the Low Self-Esteem category. At this stage it is too early to say whether these results are significant. A test to determine the significance of the differences between these groups is conducted in Section III.

Table 5.2.20 - Cross-tabulation of Ethnic groups by Academic Self-Image scores.

	ACADEMIC SELF-IMAGE	
Ethnic Groups	Low Academic Self-Image	High Academic Self-Image
Malay (152)	37 17.5%	115 54.2%
Chinese (40)	7 3.3%	33 15.6%
Indian (20)	1 0.5%	19 8.9%

N = 212

Results in Table 5.2.20 show that majority of the Malays, Chinese and Indians had high Academic Self-Image. 54.2 per cent of the Malay respondents are in the High Academic

Self-Image category with 17.5 per cent in the Low Academic Self-Image category. Of the Chinese, 15.6 per cent had High Academic Self-Image and 3.3 per cent had Low Academic Self-Image. Finally, 8.9 per cent of Indians had High Academic Self-Image and a mere 0.5 per cent had Low Academic Self-Image. (Refer to Tables 5.7.11 and 5.7.12 in Section VII for full details of Academic Self-Image 1 and 2 scores by Ethnicity). A test of significance will be conducted in the next section to see whether there is a significant difference between these three groups.

Table 5.2.21 - Cross-tabulation of Ethnic groups by Speaking scores.

SPEAKING SCORES

Ethnic Group	Fail	Narrow Fails	Pass	Good Pass	Very Good Pass
Malay (43)	12 16.0%%	9 12.0%	10 13.3%	2 2.7%	10 13.3%
Chinese (20)		2 2.7%	2 2.7%	7 9.3%	8 10.7%
Indian (12)				4 5.3%	8 10.7%

N = 75

The distributions of Ethnicity by Speaking scores are shown in Table 5.2.21. Overall, the Indian respondents show better results. Of the 16.0 per cent (12) respondents that took part in this study 10.7 per cent are in the Very Good Pass category and 5.3 per cent are in the Good Pass category. Of the 26.7 per cent (20) Chinese respondents that took part in this study, 10.7 per cent are in the Very Good Pass category, 9.3 per cent in the Good Pass category while 2.7 per cent each are in the Pass and Narrow Fail categories. On the other hand, of the 57.3 per cent (43) Malays that took part in this study, 13.3 per cent are in the Very Good Pass category, 2.7 per cent in the Good Pass category, 13.3 per cent in the Pass category, 12.0 per cent in the Narrow Fail category and 16.0 per cent in the Fail category. The Malays had the highest failure rate, therefore they seem to be the "weakest" group of the three ethnic groups involved in this study. However, it is too soon to draw any conclusion about these three groups before a test of significance is conducted. The results of this test will be reported in the next section.

Table 5.2.22 - Cross tabulation of Course by English SPM scores.

	ENGLISH SPM SCORES		
COURSE	Good	Average	Poor
SKE (38)	20 9.4%	18 8.5%	
SKT(15)	15 7.1%		
SPK(21)		13 6.1%	8 3.8%
DKJ(55)	32 15.1%	8 3.8%	15 7.1%
SPH(32)			32 15.1%
FKKSA(15)	3 1.4%	12 5.7%	
ISK(16)		16 7.5%	
SKJ(20)	2 1.0%	9 4.2%	9 4.2%

N = 212

As shown in the table above, all 7.1 per cent (15) respondents from the SKT course (Degree in Mechanical Engineering -Aeronautics) are in the Good category scores. On the other hand, all 15.1 per cent (32) respondents from the SPH (Degree in Property Management) are in the Poor category; while all 7.5 per cent (16) respondents in the ISK course (Integration Course in Computer Science) come from the Average category. The other five courses are distributed as follows:

For respondents in the SKE (Degree in Electrical Engineering), 9.4 per cent are in the Good category and 8.5 per cent in the Average category. For the FKKSA course (Degree in Chemical/Petroleum/Gas Engineering), 1.4 per cent are in the Good category and 5.7 per cent in the Average category. For respondents in the DKJ (Diploma in Mechanical Engineering), 15.1 per cent are in the Good category, 3.8 per cent in the Average and 7.1 per cent in the Poor category. Of the respondents from the SKJ course (Degree in Mechanical Engineering), 1.0 per cent are in the Good category, 4.2 per cent in the Average and 4.2 per cent in the Poor category, while of the respondents from the SPK (Degree in Science & Computering with Education) 6.1 per cent are in the Average category and 3.8 per cent in the Poor category.

From the distributions above, the results show that the SPH (Degree of Property Management) have the weakest groups of respondents in their English SPM scores in this

study as all 15.1 per cent of their respondents are in the Poor category. On the other hand, the SKT (Degree of Mechanical Engineering - Aeronautics) have the best respondents with good English SPM scores because all 7.1 per cent of them in the Good category. Further analysis later should determine whether these apparent anomalies are significant.

Table 5.2.23 - Cross-tabulation of Course by Self-Esteem scores.

	SELF-ESTEEM	
COURSE	Low Self-Esteem	High Self-Esteem
SKE (38)	16 7.5%	22 10.4%
SKT (15)	4 1.9%	11 5.2%
SPK (21)	11 5.2%	10 4.7%
DKJ (55)	18 8.5%	37 17.5%
SPH (32)	16 7.5%	16 7.5%
FKKSA (15)	4 1.9%	11 5.2%
ISK (16)	5 2.4%	11 5.2%
SKJ (20)	4 1.9%	16 7.5%

N = 212

The results in the table above show the cross-tabulation of courses by the average scores of Self-Esteem 1 and 2. For nearly all courses, high rather than low Self-Esteem predominates. These average scores show that the DKJ course leads with 17.5 per cent of respondents having High Self-Esteem and 8.5 per cent having Low Self-Esteem; the SKE come next with 10.4 per cent having High Self-Esteem and 7.5 per cent having Low Self-Esteem; then comes the SPH with 7.5 per cent having High Self-Esteem and 7.5 per cent having Low Self-Esteem; the SKJ with 7.5 per cent having High Self-Esteem and 1.9 per cent having Low Self-Esteem; the ISK course having 5.2 per cent of respondents with High Self-Esteem and 2.4 per cent having Low Self-Esteem; and the FKKSA and SKT course each with 5.2 per cent for the High Self-Esteem category and 1.9 per cent each in the Low Self-Esteem category. Only the SPK course and SPH has a higher number of respondents in the Low Self-Esteem category with 5.2 and 7.5 per cent in this category and 4.7 per cent in the High Self-Esteem category. (Refer to Table 5.7.13 and 5.7.14 in Section VII of this chapter for full details of the cross-tabulation results of Course by Self-Esteem 1 and 2 scores).

Table 5.2.24 - Cross-tabulation of Course by Academic Self-Image scores.

	ACADEMIC SELF-IMAGE	
COURSE	Low Academic Self-Image	High Academic Self-Image
SKE (38)	6 2.8%	32 15.1%
SKT (15)	3 1.4%	12 5.7%
SPK (21)	7 3.3%	14 6.6%
DKJ (55)	13 6.1%	42 19.8%
SPH (32)	4 1.9%	28 13.2%
FKKSA (15)	3 1.4%	12 5.7%
ISK (16)	3 1.4%	13 6.1%
SKJ (20)	6 2.8%	14 6.6%

N = 212

The above table shows that most respondents in all courses involved in this study have High rather than Low Academic Self-Image. The DKJ course leads the groups with 19.8 per cent in the High Academic Self-Image category and 6.1 per cent in the Low Academic Self-Image category. The SKE follows these scores with 15.1 per cent in the High and 2.8 per cent in the Low Academic Self-Image category. The SPH has 13.2 per cent in the High and 1.9 per cent in the Low category. The SPK has 6.6 per cent in the High and 3.3 per cent in the Low Academic Self-Image categories. The SKJ course has 6.6 per cent in the High category and 2.8 per cent in the Low category. The ISK with 6.1 per cent has High Academic Self-Image and 1.4 per cent with Low Academic Self-Image. The FKKSA and SKT course each has 5.7 per cent respondents with High Academic Self-Image and 1.4 per cent respondents with Low Academic Self-Image. (Refer to Tables 5.7.15 and 5.7.16 in Section VII for the full results of Academic Self-Image 1 and Academic Self-Image 2).

Table 5.2.25 - Cross-tabulation of Course by Speaking scores.

	SPEAKING SCORES				
COURSE	Fail	Narrow Fails	Pass	Good Pass	Very Good Pass
SKE (20)			1 1.3%	5 6.7%	14 18.7%
SKT (15)				5 6.7%	10 13.3%
SPK (21)	4 5.3%	6 8.0%	9 12.0%	1 1.3%	1 1.3%
DKJ (19)	9 12.0%	5 6.7%	3 15.7%	1 1.3%	1 1.3%

N = 75

As mentioned in Chapter 4 Section 4.3.0, the Fail category scores range from 1-40, the Narrow Fail scores range from 41-54, the Pass category scores range form 55 - 69, the Good Pass scores range from 70 - 79 and the Very Good Pass scores range from 80 and above. Table 5.2.25 shows that from the 4 courses selected for the Speaking test (the SKE, SKT, SPK and DKJ) there were no failures from the SKE and SKT courses. Respondents from the SKT course obtained either a Very Good Pass, with 13.3 per cent in this category, or a Good Pass with 6.7 per cent in this category. On the other hand, the SPK and DKJ scores range from Fail to Very Good Pass, with the lowest percentage in the Very Good Pass category (1.3 per cent in each course) as compared to the SKE and SKT. Of the DKJ course, the highest percentage comes in the Fail category with 12.0 per cent and 6.7 per cent in the Narrow Fail category. For the SPK course 5.3 per cent of the respondents Failed while 8.0 per cent are in the Narrow Fail category. Generally, the results show that the SKE and SKT courses have better scores based on the Speaking test as compared to other courses. This could be due to the reason that the SKE and SKT are Degree courses in Engineering and most candidates that apply are students who possess good academic qualifications or good English SPM results as compared to courses in the SPK and DKJ.

Table 5.2.26 - Cross-tabulation of English SPM scores by Self-Esteem scores.

ENGLISH SPM SCORES	SELF-ESTEEM SCORES Low Self-Esteem	High Self-Esteem
Good (72)	26 12.3%	46 21.7%
Average (76)	23 10.8%	53 25.0%
Poor (64)	29 13.7%	35 16.5%

N = 212

As can be seen from Table 5.2.26 above, the results indicate that all of the three groups of English SPM levels have higher percentages in the High rather than the Low Self-Esteem category. 21.7 per cent of respondents in the Good group have High Self-Esteem and 12.3 per cent have Low Self-Esteem. 25 per cent of respondents in the Average group have High Self-Esteem, while the other 10.8 per cent have Low Self-Esteem. In the Poor group category, (with reference to the respondents who have P7, P8 and F9 as their English SPM scores) 16.5 per cent of them have High Self-Esteem and 13.7 per cent have Low Self-Esteem. These results indicate that the majority of the respondents in the Good, Average and Poor groups have High Self-Esteem with the Average group leading the other two groups. This is followed by the Good and the Poor groups. Apparently, there is no particular correlation between English SPM scores and Self-Esteem. This observation will be confirmed by the test of significance which will be conducted in Section III of this chapter. (Refer to Tables 5.7.17 and 5.7.18 in Section VII for full details of English SPM by Self-Esteem 1 and 2 scores).

Table 5.2.27 - Cross-tabulation of English SPM scores by Academic Self-Image scores.

ENGLISH SPM SCORES	ACADEMIC SELF-IMAGE Low Academic Self-Image	High Academic Self-Image
Good (72)	16 7.5%	56 26.4%
Average (76)	15 7.1%	61 28.8%
Poor (64)	14 6.6%	50 23.6%

N = 212

The distributions of English SPM scores by Academic Self-Image scores are shown in Table 5.2.27. Of the 30.2 per cent (64) respondents put into the Poor group, 23.6 per cent

had High Academic Self-Image and 6.6 per cent had Low Academic Self-Image. Of the 35.8 per cent (76) respondents in the Average group, 28.8 per cent had High Academic Self-Image and 7.1 per cent had Low Academic Self-Image. On the other hand, of the 35.8 per cent (72) respondents put into the Good group, 26.4 per cent had High and 7.5 per cent had Low Academic Self-Image. Further statistical tests to determine whether there is a difference between these three groups will be conducted in the next section. (Refer to Tables 5.7.19 and 5.7.20 in Section VII for the full scores of cross-tabulation between English SPM and Academic Self-Image 1 and 2 and Tables 5.7.26 and 5.7.27 for the significance tests).

Table 5.2.28 - Cross-tabulation of English SPM by Speaking scores.

	SPEAKING SCORES				
English SPM scores	Fail	Narrow Fails	Pass	Good Pass	Very Good Pass
Good (35)			1 1.3%	10 13.4%	24 32.0%
Average (17)	1 1.3%	4 5.3%	8 10.7%	2 2.7%	2 2.7%
Poor (23)	12 16.0%	7 9.3%	4 5.3%		

N = 75

Table 5.2.28 shows the distribution of English SPM by Speaking Scores. The individual distributions show that for the Good group, the results were divided between the Very Good Pass and Pass categories. Out of 46.7 per cent (35) respondents categorised under this Good group, 32.0 per cent are in the Very Good Pass category, 13.4 per cent in the Good Pass category and 1.3 per cent in the Pass category. Zero failed. This points to a clear correlation between English SPM and Speaking scores - which is exactly what would be expected. Out of 22.7 per cent (7) respondents categorised in the Average group, only 2.7 per cent each are in the Very Good Pass and Good Pass categories, 10.7 per cent are in the Pass category, 5.3 per cent in the Narrow Fail category and 1.3 per cent in the Fail category. In the Poor group, out of 30.6 per cent (23) respondents categorised under this group, 5.3 per cent are in the Pass category, 9.3 per cent in the Narrow Fail category and fully 16.0 per cent in the Fail category. Again, there seems to be an expected link between poor English SPM scores and lower/fail Speaking scores. Further statistical tests to determine whether the difference between these three groups is significant will be conducted in Section III.

Table 5.2.29 - Cross-tabulation of Speaking scores by Self-Esteem scores.

	SELF-ESTEEM	
SPEAKING SCORES	Low Self-Esteem	High Self-Esteem
Fail (13)	7 9.3%	6 8.0%
Narrow Fail (11)	2 2.7%	9 12.0%
Pass (13)	7 9.3%	6 8.0%
Good Pass (12)	8 10.7%	4 5.3%
Very Good Pass (26)	9 12.0%	17 22.7%

N = 75

Results in Table 5.2.29 show the Speaking scores that have been cross-tabulated against Self-Esteem average scores. The results show that of the five speaking groups; (Very Good Pass, Good Pass, Pass, Narrow Fail and Fail), 12 per cent (9) of respondents in the Very Good Pass group have Low self-esteem; 10.7 per cent (8) in the Good Pass group have Low self-esteem; 9.3 per cent (7) each in the Pass and Fail groups have Low self-esteem; while 2.7 per cent (2) in the Narrow Fail group have Low Self-Esteem. In the High Self-Esteem category, 22.7 per cent (17) of respondents in the Very Good Pass group have High Self-Esteem, 12.0 per cent (9) in the Narrow Fail category have High Self-Esteem, 8.0 per cent (6) in both the Pass and Fail groups have High Self-Esteem and 5.3 per cent (4) of respondents in the Good Pass group have High Self-Esteem. The results also show that even though some respondents have Very Good Passes in the Speaking test, they still have Low Self-Esteem (12.0 per cent) and even though some respondents fail in the Speaking test, they still have High Self-Esteem (8.0 per cent). Whether there is a relationship between Speaking and Self-Esteem scores will be determined later in Section III. (Refer to next section for further discussion).

Table 5.2.30 - Cross-tabulation of Speaking scores by Academic Self-Image scores.

	ACADEMIC SELF-IMAGE	
SPEAKING SCORES	Low Academic Self-Image	High Academic Self-Image
Fail (13)	5 6.6%	8 10.7%
Narrow Fails (11)	2 2.7%	9 12.0%
Pass (13)	5 6.6%	8 10.7%
Good Pass (12)	4 5.3%	8 10.7%
Very Good Pass (26)	3 4.0%	23 30.7%

N = 75

As indicated by the results in Table 5.2.30, respondents in the Fail and Pass groups have the highest percentage in the Low Academic Self-Image category with 6.6 per cent (5) in each group. 5.3 per cent (4) of respondents in the Good Pass group are also in the Low Academic Self-Image category 4 per cent (3) of respondents in the Very Good Pass are in the Low Academic Self-Image category and 2.7 per cent (2) of respondents in the Narrow Fail group are in the Low Academic Self-Image category. As for the High Academic Self-Image category, respondents in the Very Good Pass group easily lead with 30.7 per cent (23) having High Academic Self-Image. This is followed by the respondents in the Narrow Fail group with 12.0 per cent (9), and then by the respondents in the Good Pass (8), Pass (8) and Fail group (8) with 10.7 per cent each. One interesting observation at this stage is that most of the respondents in each category have high percentages in the High Academic Self-Image category, including those in the Fail category. Whether Speaking scores have any correlation with Academic Self-Image, tests of significance will be used to answer this question to ascertain this relationship which will be carried out later in Section III of this chapter.

Section III: Mean Scores of Independent Variables and Significant Difference Test of T-test and One-Way Analysis of Variance (Anova).

In this section, means of the variables of Self-Esteem, Academic Self-Image and Speaking abilities will be presented. Where tests of significance are needed, inferential statistics of T-tests and a One-Way Analysis of Variance will be used to test for significant differences

between groups of the independent variables of Sex, Age, Ethnic group and the English SPM scores

Table 5.3.0 - Mean of Speaking scores by Sex.

Sub-groups	Mean of Speaking Scores	Standard Deviations
SEX: Female	61.3	22.8
Male	64.8	23.1

As shown in Table 5.3.0, for the dependent variable Speaking by the independent variable Sex, the mean score for Females is 61.3 with a standard deviation of 22.8. As for the Male group, the mean is 64.8 with a standard deviation of 23.1. The means appear to show that in terms of speaking scores, the male group have slightly higher scores and the female group the lower scores. A T-test was conducted on the dependent variable Speaking based on the gender characteristics of the respondents. Table 5.3.1 illustrates the results as obtained from the analysis.

Table 5.3.1 - T-test of Sex using Speaking as the Dependent variable.

	Pooled Variance Estimate				Separate Variance Estimate		
F value	2-Tail Prob.	T Value	Degree of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.	T Value	Degree of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.
1.16	.55	-1.13	210	.26	-1.18	81.71	.24

A T-value of -1.18 with $p = 0.24$ was obtained (significance level at $p < 0.05$). The results show that **no** statistically significant difference between the Female ($x = 61.3$) and Male group ($x = 64.8$) exists in speech. The non significant difference observed could be attributed to the fact that the two groups are similar in terms of (i) the academic requirements to enter the university, and (ii) the exposure to second languages before entering the university. This will be discussed in depth in Chapter 7.

Table 5.3.2 - Mean of Speaking by Age.

Sub-groups	Mean of Speaking Scores	Standard Deviations
AGE: Junior	63.5	23.3
Senior	64.2	22.8

Table 5.3.2 presents the descriptive statistics of the dependent variable of Speaking by the independent variable Age. The results show that the mean score for the Junior age group is 63.5 with a standard deviation of 23.3, while the mean score for the Senior age group is 64.2 with the standard deviation of 22.8. The results reveal that in terms of Speaking scores, the Senior age group has slightly higher score and the Junior age group has the lower score. A t-test was then conducted on the dependent variable Speaking on the Age characteristic of the respondents. Table 5.3.3 below illustrates the result of the analysis.

Table 5.3.3 - T-test of Age using Speaking as the Dependent variable.

		Pooled Variance Estimate			Separate Variance Estimate		
F value	2-Tail Prob.	T Value	Degree of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.	T Value	Degree of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.
1.05	.90	-.14	73	.89	-.14	72.75	.89

A T-value of -.14 with $p = 0.89$ was obtained (significance level at $p < 0.05$). Results show that **no** statistically significant difference between the Junior ($x = 63.5$) and Senior age groups ($x = 64.2$) exists in respect to Speaking. Even though a comparison of the mean scores for the Junior and the Senior age group showed that the Senior age group have slightly higher speaking abilities, the significance test revealed that there is no significant difference between the two groups. This non significant difference observed could be attributed to the fact that the two groups have had similar second language exposures at secondary and university levels prior to the study. Further discussion will be provided in the Chapter 7.

Table 5.3.4 - Mean of Speaking by Ethnic Groups.

Sub-groups	Mean of Speaking Scores	Standard Deviations
Ethnic Group:		
Malay	54.3	23.6
Chinese	73.4	13.1
Indian	84.4	7.1

Table 5.3.4 compares the means of Speaking by the three ethnic groups. As indicated by the results, the mean score for the Malay group is 54.3 with a standard deviation of 23.6. The Chinese group mean score is 73.4 with a standard deviation of 13.1, and the Indian group mean is 84.4 with a standard deviation of 7.1. At this stage, the results show clearly that in terms of speaking ability, the Indians have a better speaking ability than the Chinese and Malay groups, while the Malays have the lowest speaking ability. The differences between the means, and standard deviations, are clearly large and of interest for further investigation. A One-Way Analysis of Variance was then conducted to determine whether these differences are significant. Table 5.3.5 illustrates the result as obtained from the analysis.

Table 5.3.5 - One Way Analysis of Variance for Speaking by Ethnic Groups.

Source	D.F	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob
Between Groups	2	11111.48	5555.74	14.46	.00
Within Groups	72	27662.60	384.20		
Total	74	38774.08			

Multiple Range Test
Scheffe Procedure

(*) Denotes pairs of groups significantly different at the .050 level

Mean	Group	Grp 1	Grp 2	Grp 3
54.3	Grp 1			
73.4	Grp 2	*		
84.8	Grp 3	*		

A One-way analysis of variance for the dependent variable Speaking ability was conducted against the independent variable Ethnic groups. Results in Table 5.3.5 show that a difference in variance among the sub-groups of race (F = 14.46 , P = 0.001) exists. The results suggest that the difference in speaking ability is attributed mainly to differences in race.

A post-hoc analysis using the Scheffer Test was further conducted to identify the significant difference. It was observed that Group 2 (Chinese) and Group 3 (Indian) differ significantly from Group 1 (Malays) with means of 73.4, 84.4 and 54.3 respectively. However, there was no significant difference between the Indian and Chinese groups. This non significant difference between the Chinese and Indian groups could be due to English being used as the medium in the home by these two groups (and both groups have high mean scores). In contrast, Malays do not usually use English as a spoken language at

home (and this group has a much lower mean score). Evidence and further discussion will be provided on this issue in Chapter 6 and 7.

Table 5.3.6 - Mean of Speaking by English SPM scores.

Sub-groups		Mean of Speaking Scores	Standard Deviations
English: SPM	Good	82.8	8.0
	Average	59.5	14.3
	Poor	38.2	16.2

Based on the results presented in Table 5.3.6 above showing the means of Speaking by English SPM scores, the results show that the mean of Speaking for respondents categorised in the Good group is 82.8 with 8.0 standard deviation. The mean of Speaking scores for the Average group of respondents is 59.5 with a standard deviation of 16.2 while the mean for the Poor group of respondents is 38.2 with a standard deviation of 16.2. The results show that in terms of speaking the respondents in the Good group have easily the highest scores and the respondents in the Poor group have by far the lowest scores. This might have been expected but the differences between the mean and standard deviations are apparently large. A One-way analysis of variance was carried out to confirm the result which is shown in Table 5.3.7.

Table 5.3.7 - One Way Analysis of Variance for Speaking by English SPM scores.

Source	D.F	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob
Between Groups	2	27959.76	13979.88	93.08	.00
Within Groups	72	10814.32	150.20		
Total	74	38774.08			

Multiple Range Test
Scheffe Procedure

(*) Denotes pairs of groups significantly different at the .05 level

Mean	Group	Grp 3	Grp 2	Grp 1
38.2	Grp 3			
59.5	Grp 2	*		
82.8	Grp 1	*	*	

A One-Way Analysis of Variance for the dependent variable Speaking ability was conducted against the independent variable English SPM scores. The results in Table 5.3.7 show that a difference in variance among the sub-groups of English SPM scores (F = 93.08, P = 0.00) exists.

A post-hoc analysis using the Scheffe Test was further conducted to identify significant differences between the three groups. It was observed that the Good group (Group 1) and the Average group (Group 2) differ significantly from the Poor group (Group 3) with means of 82.8, 59.5 and 38.2 respectively. There is also a significant difference between the Good Group (Group 1) and the Average Group (Group 2). This significant difference between the two groups is most likely due to the fact that respondents with Good English SPM scores generally have better speaking ability in comparison to the Average group. The significant difference between the Good and Average Group could also be attributed to

the fact that the Good group consisted predominantly of ethnic groups that normally use English as a means of communication whereas those in the Average and Poor groups use English moderately, as interpreted from Table 5.3.5. Further discussion will be provided in Chapter 6 and 7.

Table 5.3.8 - Mean of Speaking scores by Self-Esteem scores.

Sub-groups		Mean of Speaking scores	Standard Deviations
Self Esteem	Low SE	62.6	22.7
	High SE	64.7	22.4

Table 5.3.8 presents the Speaking scores as the dependent variable and Self-Esteem as the independent variable. The results show that the mean of Speaking scores for the Low Self-Esteem respondents is 62.6 and the mean of Speaking scores for the High Self-Esteem respondents is 64.7. It appears from these figures that those with Good speaking scores should have High Self-Esteem and those with Poor speaking scores should have Low Self-Esteem. It is noteworthy that the means in Table 5.3.8 are much closer than these reported in Tables 5.3.4 and 5.3.6.

A T-test was conducted on the dependent variable Speaking based on the Self-Esteem scores of the respondents to find out whether the difference is significant. Table 5.3.9 illustrates the result obtained from the analysis.

Table 5.3.9 - T-Test of Self-Esteem using Speaking as the Dependent variable.

		Pooled Variance Estimate			Separate Variance Estimate		
F value	2-Tail Prob.	t Value	Degree of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.	t Value	Degree of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.
1.14	.70	-.39	69	.70	-.39	57.78	.70

A T-value of -.39 with $p = 0.70$ was obtained (significance level at $p < 0.05$). Results show that there is **no** statistically significant difference between the respondents with Low Self-Esteem ($x = 62.6$) and the respondents with High Self-Esteem ($x = 64.7$) with respect to Speaking ability. This non significant difference observed could be attributed to the fact that the Low and High Self-Esteem groups i) have similar environments for studying and ii) that the samples are drawn mostly from those with similar academic

backgrounds. Similar results in the Speaking scores and Self-Esteem 1 and 2 before the average scores was done can be found in Tables 5.7.21, 5.7.22, 5.7.23 and 5.7.24 in Section VII. Further discussion on this issue will be provided in Chapter 7.

Table 5.3.10 - Mean of Speaking scores by Academic Self-Image scores.

Sub-groups		Mean of Speaking scores	Standard Deviations
Academic Self-Image	Low ASI	54.9	25.5
	High ASI	66.5	22.1

In Table 5.3.10 above, the results reveal that the mean of Speaking scores for the Low Academic Self-Image respondents is 54.9 with a standard deviation of 25.5. The mean for the High Academic Self-Image respondents is 66.5 with a standard deviation of 22.1. The results demonstrate that a higher academic self-image contributes to higher speaking scores.

A T-test was then conducted to affirm the significance of the dependent variable Speaking based on the Academic Self-Image of the respondents. Table 5.3.11 below exemplifies the result obtained from the analysis.

Table 5.3.11 - T-test of Academic Self Image using Speaking as the Dependent variable.

		Pooled Variance Estimate			Separate Variance Estimate		
F value	2-Tail Prob.	t Value	Degree of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.	t Value	Degree of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.
1.34	.43	-1.80	70	.08	-1.66	21.83	.11

In Table 5.3.11, a T-value of -1.66 with $p = 0.11$ was obtained at a significant level of $p < 0.05$. Results demonstrate that there is **no** statistically significant difference between the Low Academic Self-Image group ($x = 54.9$) and the High Academic Self-Image group ($x = 66.5$) with respect to speaking. The non significant difference could be attributed to the fact that the respondents in the two groups were similar in terms of i) the academic requirements in other subjects other than English and, ii) respondents did well with other subjects at university level which do not involve speaking. This will be discussed more in Chapter 7. Similar results were also found with Academic Self-Image 1 and Academic Self-Image 2 before averaging the two scores. For further results involving the Academic

Self-Images 1 and 2 as the independent variable to Speaking, refer to Tables 5.7.25, 5.7.26, 5.7.27 and 5.7.28 in Section VII.

Table 5.3.12 - Mean of Self-Esteem scores by Sex.

Sub-groups		Mean of Self-Esteem scores	Standard Deviations
SEX	Female	14.7	4.0
	Male	16.0	4.2

The results in Table 5.3.12 show that the mean of Self-Esteem scores for the Female group is 14.7 with a standard deviation of 4.0, while the mean for the Male group is 16.0 with a standard deviation of 4.2. This score indicates that the Male group have better self-esteem than the Female group. In order to confirm the significance of these results, a T-test was conducted on the dependent variable Self-Esteem based on the gender characteristic of the respondents. Table 5.3.13 shows the results of the analysis.

Table 5.3.13 - T-test of Sex using Self-Esteem as the Dependent variable.

		Pooled Variance Estimate			Separate Variance Estimate		
F value	2-Tail Prob.	t Value	Degree of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.	t Value	Degree of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.
1.13	.63	-1.95	210	.05	-2.02	80.80	.05

A T - value of -2.02 with $p = 0.05$ was obtained at a significance level of $p < 0.05$. The result of this T-test analysis shows that there **is** a significant difference between the Female group ($x = 14.7$) and the Male group ($x = 16.0$). The results showed that a mean significant difference in gender characteristics in terms of the self-esteem level between the male and female groups exists. This result is consistent with the results of the Self-Esteem 2 score (refer to Tables 5.7.31 and 5.7.32 in Section VII). More discussion will be presented in Chapter 7.

Table 5.3.14 - Mean of Self-Esteem Scores by Age.

Sub-groups		Mean of Self-Esteem Scores	Standard Deviations
AGE	Junior Senior	16.0 15.4	3.9 4.4

As shown in Table 5.3.14, the mean of the Junior group for Self-Esteem scores is 16.0 with a standard deviation of 3.9. For the Senior group, the mean is 15.4 with a standard deviation of 4.4. The results show that the Junior group as a whole have slightly higher self-esteem than the Senior group.

Using the dependent variable of Self-Esteem based on the age of the respondents, a T-test was employed to see if this difference is significant. Table 5.3.15 below illustrates further the results obtained.

Table 5.3.15 - T-test of Age using Self-Esteem as the Dependent Variable

		Pooled Variance Estimate			Separate Variance Estimate		
F value	2-Tail Prob.	t Value	Degree of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.	t Value	Degree of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.
1.32	.16	.99	210	.32	.99	203.81	.32

The results of the t-test comparisons between the Junior and Senior groups in Table 5.3.15 show a T-value of 0.99 with $p = 0.32$. The T-test indicates that the mean of self-esteem of the Junior and the Senior groups are **not** significantly different at the 0.05 level. As can be seen from the table above, there are no significant differences between the Junior and Senior age groups in their Self-Esteem level. Furthermore, the previous results show that respondents who are high in self-esteem do not differ from respondents who are low in self-esteem in terms of age. The two results together suggest that Junior respondents are not necessarily better in their self-esteem level. These results indicate that age does not play a significant role in determining self-esteem level. Further discussion will be provided in Chapter 7. (Refer to Tables 5.7.33, 5.7.34, 5.7.35 and 5.7.36 in Section VII for full details of the results of Self-Esteem 1 and 2 as the dependent variable and age as the independent variable).

Table 5.3.16 - Mean of Self Esteem Scores by Ethnic groups.

Sub-groups	Mean of Self Esteem scores	Standard Deviations
Ethnic group: Malay	15.3	4.2
Chinese	16.5	3.7
Indian	17.2	3.9

The results of Table 5.3.16 show that the mean self-esteem scores for the Malay respondents is 15.3 and the standard deviation 4.2. For the Chinese respondents, the mean is 16.5 and the standard deviation 3.7. For the Indian respondents, the mean is 17.2 and the standard deviation 3.9. From the results, the Chinese and Indian respondents have higher Self Esteem than the Malay respondents and the patterns of mean differences and standard deviations mirrors those for Speaking reported in Table 5.3.4 for which significant differences were found.

A one-way analysis of variance for the dependent variable Self-Esteem was then conducted against the independent variable Ethnic groups.

Table 5.3.17 - One-Way Analysis of Variance for Self-Esteem by Ethnic groups.

Source	D.F	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	2	92.76	46.38	2.75	.07
Within Groups	209	3523.63	16.86		
Total	211	3616.39			

Multiple Range Test

Scheffe Procedure

No two groups are significantly different at the .05 level

Results in Table 5.3.17 above show that in this case **no** significant difference in variance exists among the sub-groups of race as an independent variable which gives a F-ratio of 2.75, which is not significant at the $p < 0.05$ level. The Self-Esteem results suggest that race is not a determining factor in terms of self-esteem, unlike the factor of Speaking displayed in Table 5.3.5. Similar tests were conducted for Self-Esteem 1 and 2 against

Ethnic groups and similar results were found. This issue will be discussed further in Chapter 7. (Refer to Tables 5.7.37, 5.7.38, 5.7.39 and 5.7.40 in Section VII for further results).

Table 5.3.18 - Mean of Self Esteem Scores by English SPM Scores.

Sub-groups		Mean of Self Esteem scores	Standard Deviations
English: SPM	Good	16.4	4.1
	Average	16.8	4.0
	Poor	14.3	4.1

As can be seen from Table 5.3.18 above, the mean of Self-Esteem scores for the respondents in the Good group in terms of English SPM scores is 16.4 with a standard deviation of 4.1. The mean of Self-Esteem scores for the respondents in the Average group is 16.8 with a standard deviation of 4.0 and the mean of the respondents in the Poor group is 14.3 with a standard deviation of 4.1. The results suggest that respondents in the Good and Average groups have higher self-esteem levels which might have been expected. A one-way analysis of variance test was then conducted to confirm the significance of these results.

Table 5.3.19 - One-Way Analysis of Variance for Self-Esteem scores by English SPM Scores.

Source	D.F	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	2	172.82	86.41	5.24	.01
Within Groups	209	3443.57	16.48		
Total	211	3616.39			

Multiple Range Test
Scheffe Procedure

(*) Denotes pairs of groups significantly different at the .05 level

Mean	Group	Grp 3	Grp 2	Grp 1
14.3	Grp 3			
16.8	Grp 2	*		
16.4	Grp 1	*		

As shown in Table 5.3.19 the one-way analysis of variance using Self-Esteem scores as the dependent variable and the English SPM scores as the independent variable gives an F-ratio of 5.24 which **is** significant at the $p \leq 0.05$ level. The results of the Scheffe Test indicate that the means self-esteem of the Good group (Group 1) and the Average group (Group 2) **are** significantly higher than the mean self-esteem of the Poor group (Group 3)- 16.2, 16.4 and 14.3 respectively. The results suggest that the respondents who are in both the Good and the Average groups have higher self-esteem compared to the respondents in the Poor group. The results indicate that the higher the English SPM scores the higher the self-esteem level which is not unexpected. Further discussion will be provided in Chapter 7. The same significance test was carried out on the Self-Esteem 1 and 2 scores, and both showed significant results. (Refer to Tables 5.7.41, 5.7.42, 5.7.43 and 5.7.44 in Section VII for full details of the results).

Table 5.3.20 - Mean of Academic Self Image Scores by Sex.

Sub-groups	Mean of Academic Self Image Scores	Standard Deviations
SEX : Female	10.1	2.4
Male	10.9	2.9

Table 5.3.20 presents the results of the mean scores based on Academic Self-Image scores for the female and male respondents. The mean for the Female respondents is 10.1 with a standard deviation of 2.4, while the mean for the Male respondents is 10.9 with a standard deviation of 2.9. The results show that in terms of the mean, there is a slight difference between the two groups, with males having a slightly higher result. To verify the assumption that these differences might be significant, a T-test was conducted on the dependent variable Academic Self-Image based on the gender characteristic of the respondents. Table 5.3.21 illustrates the result obtained from the analysis.

Table 5.3.21 - T-test of Sex using Academic Self-Image as the Dependent variable.

		Pooled Variance Estimate			Separate Variance Estimate		
F value	2-Tail Prob.	t Value	Degree of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.	t Value	Degree of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.
1.38	.20	-1.61	210	.11	-1.75	88.52	.08

A T-value of -1.75 where $p = 0.08$ was obtained (significant at $p \leq .05$). These results demonstrate that **no** statistically significant difference between the Female group ($x = 10.1$) and the Male group ($x = 10.9$) exists with respect to Academic Self-Image although the probability is low enough to be indicative of a tendency towards a significant difference. The "no significant" difference observed could be attributed to the fact that the two groups are similar in terms of i) the academic requirements for entry to the university, ii) that the have similar age differences, and iii) that the samples are drawn mostly from those from a rural background. More on this issue will be discussed in Chapter 7. (Refer to Tables 5.7.45, 5.7.46, 5.7.47 and 5.7.48 in Section VII for further results on Academic Self-Image 1 and 2 scores).

Table 5.3.22 - Mean of Academic Self Image Scores by Age.

Sub-groups	Mean of Academic Self Image 1 Scores	Standard Deviations
AGE: Junior	10.8	2.6
Senior	10.6	3.0

Table 5.3.22 displays the means of Academic Self-Image by Age. Based on the results, the mean scores for the Junior and Senior age groups are 10.8 and 10.6 respectively. The standard deviation for the two groups are 2.6 for the Junior age group and 3.0 for the Senior age group. The means are close, but a T-test reported in Table 5.3.23 was then conducted to determine possible significance in the slight difference.

Table 5.3.23 - T-test of Age using Academic Self-Image as the Dependent variable.

		Pooled Variance Estimate			Separate Variance Estimate		
F value	2-Tail Prob.	t Value	Degree of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.	t Value	Degree of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.
1.35	.13	.39	210	.70	.39	203.04	.70

The results of the T-test analysis below with a T-value of .39 and $p = 0.70$ indicate that there are **no** significant differences between the mean of the Junior and Senior age groups in determining the Academic Self-Image level at $p \leq 0.05$. Further results of the T-test analysis for both Academic Self-Image 1 and Academic Self-Image 2 indicate similar results. The two groups did not improve their performances in Academic Self-Image 2 after an interval of two weeks. Refer to Tables 5.7.49, 5.7.50, 5.7.51 and 5.7.52 in Section VII for further results. The results of this T-test analysis show that the two groups do not differ in their performance in academic self-image as a whole. Further discussion on this issue will be presented in Chapter 7.

Table 5.3.24 - Mean of Academic Self Image Scores by Ethnic Groups.

Sub-groups	Mean of Academic Self Image scores	Standard Deviations
Ethnic Groups:		
Malay	10.3	2.6
Chinese	11.4	3.4
Indian	12.1	2.5

The means of Academic Self-Image by Ethnic groups are shown in Table 5.3.24. The mean for the Malay respondents in terms of Academic Self-Image scores is 10.3 with a standard deviation of 2.6. The mean for the Chinese respondents is 11.4 with a standard deviation of 3.4, and the mean for the Indian respondents is 12.1 with a standard deviation of 2.5. The results show that the Indians have slightly higher mean scores than both the Chinese and Malay respondents while the Chinese scores are higher than those of the Malays. This possibly reflects the same trend of significant ethnic differences clearly identified and reported in Tables 5.3.4 and 5.3.5. To verify whether the results reported in Table 5.3.24 are significant, a one-way analysis of variance for the dependent variable Academic Self-Image was conducted against the independent variable ethnic groups. Results in Table 5.3.25 below show the results after the test.

Table 5.3.25 - One-Way Analysis of Variance for Academic Self-Image by Ethnic Groups.

Source	D.F	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	2	74.89	37.44	5.00	.01
Within Groups	209	1565.13	7.49		
Total	211	1640.01			

Multiple Range Test
Scheffe Procedure

(*) Denotes pairs of groups significantly different at the .05 level

Mean	Group	Grp 1	Grp 2	Grp 3
10.3	Grp 1			
11.4	Grp 2			
12.1	Grp 3	*		

Results in Table 5.3.25 reveal that a difference **exists** in variances among the ethnic groups (with F=5.00 and p = 0.01, significant at the $p \leq 0.05$ level). A post-hoc analysis using the Scheffe Test was further conducted to identify the significant difference. It was observed that the Indians (Group 3) and Chinese (Group 2) differ significantly from the Malays (Group 1) in terms of Academic Self-Image. This significant difference between Indians (Group 3) and Malays (Group 1) could be due to the Indians (Group 3) being more self-motivated and having a high academic self-image, especially to do well after leaving university. There was no difference in terms of Academic Self-Image between the Indian and Chinese groups. The results suggest that the difference in Academic Self-Image is attributed to differences in ethnic groups and the Malays as the weakest group. Chapter 7 will discuss this issue in greater detail. The results are also confirmed with the Academic Self-Image 1 and 2 scores which gave similar results. (Refer to Tables 5.7.53, 5.7.54, 5.7.55 and 5.7.56 in Section VII for details).

Table 5.3.26 - Mean of Academic Self Image Scores by English SPM Scores.

Sub-groups		Mean of Academic Self Image scores	Standard Deviations
English : SPM	Good	10.8	2.8
	Average	10.9	2.8
	Poor	10.3	2.8

Table 5.3.26 shows the means of Academic Self-Image by English SPM scores. As can be seen, the mean score for Academic Self Image of the Good group is 10.8 with a standard deviation of 2.8. The mean for the Average group is 10.9 with a standard deviation of 2.8, while the mean for the Poor group is 10.3 with a standard deviation of 2.8. The means for the three groups are close and it is not expected that these are significant differences. However, to check this a One-Way Analysis of Variance for the dependent variable Academic Self-Image was conducted against the independent variable English SPM scores. Table 5.3.27 below illustrates the results as obtained from the analysis.

Table 5.3.27 - One-Way Analysis of Variance for Academic Self-Image by English SPM scores.

Source	D.F	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	2	12.62	6.31	.81	.45
Within Groups	209	1627.40	7.79		
Total	211	1640.01			

Multiple Range Test
Scheffe Procedure

No two groups are significantly different at the .05 level

Results in Table 5.3.27 show that **no** difference in variance among the sub-groups of English SPM scores exists with $F = .81$ and $p = 0.45$, not significant at the $p \leq 0.05$ level. Similar results were observed in Academic Self-Images 1 and 2 scores as dependent variables. (Refer to Tables 5.7.57, 5.7.58, 5.7.59 and 5.7.60 in Section VII). No observable significant difference could be attributed to the academic expectations of the respondents at university level when competition was keen and they were given the chance of doing well in the future, despite the fact that some achieved poor results in English before entering university. This will be discussed further in Chapter 7.

IV - Summary of the T-test and One-way Analysis of Variance

In table 5.4.0, the summary of the significant results so far after the T-test and One-way Analysis of Variance to dependent variables of Speaking, Academic Self-Image, Academic Self-Image 1, Academic Self-Image 2, Self-Esteem, Self-Esteem 1 and Self-Esteem 2 against the independent variables of Sex, Age, Ethnic groups and English SPM scores as discussed in Section II, III and VII B (later in this chapter) are presented. The averaged and non-averaged scores of Academic Self-Image and Self-Esteem are also included to give a better picture of the results. These results will then be used to determine the connection with the correlation results in Section V.

Table 5.4.0 - Summary of the T-test results and the One-Way Analysis of Variance.

Dependent Variables	Independent Variables	t-value/ f-ratio	p	Tables
Speaking	Ethnic groups	14.46	significant	5.3.5
Speaking	English SPM	93.08	significant	5.3.7
Self-Esteem	Sex	-2.02	significant	5.3.13
Self-Esteem	English SPM	5.24	significant	5.3.19
Self-Esteem 1	English SPM	6.58	significant	5.7.42
Self-Esteem 2	Sex	-2.01	significant	5.7.32
Self-Esteem 2	English SPM	3.44	significant	5.7.41
Ac.Self-Image	Ethnic groups	5.00	significant	5.3.25
Ac.Self-Image 1	Ethnic groups	4.47	significant	5.7.54
Ac.Self-Image 2	Sex	-2.08	significant	5.7.48
Ac.Self-Image 2	Ethnic groups	4.52	significant	5.7.56

V: The Relationships among the variables of Speaking, Self-Esteem and Academic Self-Image.

Two types of statistical analysis were carried out to ascertain the relationship between the variables of Speaking, Self-Esteem, Academic Self-Image intercorrelated with Sex, Ethnic groups and English SPM scores to obtain a measure of relationships. Firstly, the variables were subjected to the Pearson-product moment of correlations. Secondly, a Stepwise Multiple Regression analysis was performed using the Speaking, Self-Esteem and Academic Self-Image variables as the dependent variables, and English SPM scores, Sex and Ethnic groups as predictors. The variable of Age is not included because no significant difference is found in all previous tests as indicated by the absence of Age in Table 5.4.0. Therefore, a no correlation result on Age is expected. The Pearson-product moment correlations table for the other significant variables is presented below.

Table 5.5.0 - Correlational Analysis between Speaking, Academic Self Image and Self-Esteem and the Independent Variables.

Key: SES - Average Self-Esteem scores

SE 1 - Self-Esteem 1 scores (pre-test)

SE 2 - Self-Esteem 2 scores (post-test)

ASI - Average Academic Self-Image scores

AS 1 - Academic Self-Image 1 scores (pre-test)

AS 2 - Academic Self-Image 2 scores (post-test)

Speak - Speaking Test

Ethnic - Ethnic Groups

EngS - English SPM scores

	Sex	Ethnic	EngS	SES	ASI	AS 1	AS 2	SE 1	SE 2	Speak
Sex	1.0	.04	.02	.04	.03	.03	.09	.04	.02	.07
Ethnic	.04	1.0	-.66**	.17	.29*	.24	.31**	.17	.16	.53**
EngS	.02	-.66**	1.0	-.21	-.18	-.11	-.23	-.21	-.19	-.85**
SES	.04	.17	-.21	1.0	.57**	.53**	.52**	.96**	.96**	.20
ASI	.03	.29*	-.18	.57**	1.0	.93**	.93**	.52**	.57**	.15
AS 1	.03	.24	-.11	.53**	.93**	1.0	.72**	.51**	.51**	.07
AS 2	.09	.31*	-.23	.52**	.93**	.72**	1.0	.45**	.55**	.21
SE 1	.04	.17	-.21	.96**	.52**	.51**	.45**	1.0	.84**	.21
SE 2	.02	.16	-.19	.96**	.57**	.51**	.55**	.84**	1.0	.18
Speak	.07	.53**	-.85**	.20	.15	.07	.21	.21	.18	1.0

N of cases: 75 1-tailed Signif: p< - .01(*) P< - .001(**)

	Sex	Ethnic G	EngSPM	SES	ASI
Sex	1.0	.04	.04	.13	.11
Ethnic G	.04	1.0	-.48**	.16	.21**
EngSPM	.04	-.48**	1.0	-.19*	-.07
SES	.13	.16	-.19*	1.0	.62**
ASI	.11	.21**	-.07	.62**	1.0

N of cases: 212 1-tailed Signif: p< - .01(*) p< - .001(**)

As shown in Table 5.5.0 above, the Speaking score is significantly correlated to Ethnic groups ($r = 0.53$ $p < 0.01$). This result is consistent with the One-Way Analysis test reported in Table 5.3.5. Speaking shows high correlation with English SPM scores

$r = -85$ at $p < 0.01$. This means that better achievers in English SPM scores are also better achievers in Speaking. This further indicates that for the population under study, respondents who had a Good English SPM score had better results in speaking. The results also show that SES (average scores of Self-Esteem) with 75 respondents have correlation coefficients of 0.57, 0.53, 0.52, 0.96, 0.96 with ASI (Academic Self-Image), AS 1 (Academic Self-Image 1), AS 2 (Academic Self-Image 2), SE 1 (Self-Esteem 1) and SE 2 (Self-Esteem 2), respectively. ASI (average scores of Academic Self-Image) has correlation coefficients of 0.29, 0.57, 0.93, 0.52, 0.57 with Ethnic Groups, SES (Self-Esteem), AS 1 (Academic Self-Image 1), AS 2 (Academic Self-Image 2), SE 1 (Self-Esteem 1) and SE 2 (Self-Esteem 2) respectively.

These findings indicate that Speaking ability is independent of Ethnic groups and English SPM scores; Academic Self-Image is independent of Ethnic groups and SES; and SES is independent of Academic Self-Image. Similar results were obtained with the 212 respondents with SES (average Self-Esteem) and ASI (average Academic Self-Image) when SES is shown to be independent of ASI with $r=.62$ at $p < 0.001$. The results of this correlation will be discussed in the greater detail in Chapter 7.

Section VI: STEPWISE MULTIPLE REGRESSION

In the Stepwise Multiple Regression analysis of the data, Speaking, Self-Esteem, and Academic Self-Image were the dependent variables and English SPM, Sex and Ethnic groups were the predictors. The method employed allows a prediction equation for overall independent variables by first choosing the variable which is the best predictor.

Table 5.6.0 - Stepwise Multiple Regression of Speaking as a Dependent Variable as predicted from English SPM scores, Sex and Ethnic groups as Independent Variables.

Multiple R	.849
R Square	.720
Adjusted R Square	.717
Standard Error	12.178

Analysis of Variance

	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
Regression	1	27947.64	27947.64
Residual	73	10826.44	148.31

F = 188.444 Signif F = .000

----------Variables in the Equation----------

Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
EngSPM	-22.32	1.63	-.85	-13.73	.00
(Constant)	104.92	3.31		31.73	.00

----------Variables not in the Equation----------

Variable	Beta In	Partial	Min Toler	T	Sig T
Sex	.09	.17	.99	1.42	.16
Ethnic group	-.06	-.08	.56	-.72	.48

Table 5.6.0 presents the results which have been found to be significant in the stepwise regression analysis using speaking as the dependent variable and all of the independent variables of this study as the predictors - including English SPM, Sex and Ethnic groups.

As shown in table 5.6.0, the English SPM score is the best single predictor of speaking and accounts for about 72 per cent of the total variance in speaking. Both Sex and Ethnic groups are non-significant predictors of the total variance of speaking. Therefore, the remaining 28 per cent of the total variance of speaking is not accounted for. This is not really surprising, except of course, that the English SPM scores are data which have been taken a year earlier. The results of the stepwise multiple regression for speaking indicate that English SPM scores contribute quite substantially to the variance of the scores for speaking. It is interesting to note that consistent with the common observation of the Malaysian classroom environment at university level, students with poor English results are generally hesitant to speak about their ideas. This may also be a function of classroom methodology and of large classes. Further discussion on this will be provided in Chapter 7. This finding confirms the results presented in Table 5.3.7 where the English SPM score is shown to be highly significant in speaking ability. The results also suggest that there is a small portion of variance in speaking which is left unaccounted for. It also shows that, although the English SPM score explains about 72 per cent of the total variance in speaking ability, there may be other factors or variables (other than Sex or Ethnic group) which affect the speaking ability of the respondents and predict their speaking abilities.

Table 5.6.1 - Stepwise Multiple Regression of Academic Self Image as a Dependent Variable as predicted from English SPM scores, Sex and Ethnic groups as Independent Variables.

Multiple R	.213
R Square	.045
Adjusted R Square	.041
Standard Error	2.730

Analysis of Variance

	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
Regression	1	74.35	74.35
Residual	210	1565.66	7.46

F = 9.973 Signif F = .002

----------Variables in the Equation----------

Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
Ethnic g	.910	.288	.213	3.158	.002
(Constant)	9.438	.439		21.502	.000

----------Variables not in the Equation----------

Variable	Beta In	Partial	Min Toler	T	Sig T
Sex	.102	.105	.999	1.523	.129
EngSPM	.038	.340	.770	.491	.624

As shown in Table 5.6.1, Ethnic group is the best single predictor of overall Academic Self Image, accounting for about 5 per cent of the total variance of Academic Self Image alone. The data also shows that Sex and English SPM scores are not significant predictors of Academic Self Image. The remaining 95 per cent of the total Academic Self Image is unaccounted for.

The results of the Stepwise Multiple Regression for overall Academic Self Image show that ethnic differences contribute to the variance of Academic Self Image. The finding confirms the results presented in Table 5.3.25 where the Ethnic group is shown to be highly significant in the overall Academic Self Image. The results also suggest that there is a large portion of variance within Academic Self Image which is unaccounted for. It shows that, although ethnic group accounts for about 5 per cent of the total variance of overall Academic Self Image, there may be other factors or variables which affect the Academic Self Image of the respondents and which are predictors of overall Academic Self Image. See Chapter 7 for further discussion on this issue.

Table 5.6.2 - Stepwise Multiple Regression of Self Esteem as a Dependent Variable as predicted from English SPM scores, Sex and Ethnic groups as Independent Variables.

Multiple R	.197
R Square	.039
Adjusted R Square	.034
Standard Error	4.068

Analysis of Variance

	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
Regression	1	140.360	140.360
Residual	210	3476.030	16.552

F = 8.479 Signif F = .004

----------Variables in the Equation----------

Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
EngSPM	-1.017	.349	-.197	-2.912	.004
(Constant)	17.682	.740		23.891	.000

----------Variables not in the Equation----------

Variable	Beta In	Partial	Min Toler	T	Sig T
Sex	.126	.128	.998	1.871	.063
Ethnic g	.084	.075	.770	1.086	.279

As indicated in Table 5.6.2, the English SPM score is the best single predictor of Self Esteem and alone accounts for about 4 per cent of the total variance of Self Esteem. The result also shows that Sex and Ethnic groups are not significant predictors of Self Esteem. The remaining 96 per cent of the total variance of Self Esteem is not accounted for.

The results of the Stepwise Multiple Regression for Self Esteem show that the English SPM score contributes to the variance of the scores for Self Esteem. This finding confirms the results presented in Table 5.3.18 and Table 5.3.19 where the English SPM is shown to have a significant effect on Self Esteem. As in the case of Self Esteems 1 and 2, a large portion of the variance of this average score is unaccounted for. (Refer to Tables 5.7.42 and 5.7.44 in Section VII for further details of the results for SES 1 and 2). The results show that although the English SPM score explains about 4 per cent of the total variance of Self Esteem, there may be other factors which have to be taken into consideration when one attempts to predict the Self Esteem level. This will be discussed more in Chapter 7.

Section VII: Cross-tabulation Tables

This section presents the results of Self-Esteems 1 and 2 and Academic Self-Images 1 and 2 as generated from the previous section before the average scores are obtained. Cross-tabulation tables will be shown before discussing the means of groups and sub-groups of the variables Self-Esteems 1 and 2 and Academic Self-Images 1 and 2. Inferential statistics of T-tests and the One-Way Analysis of Variance will be used to test significant differences between groups of the independent variables Sex, Age, Ethnic groups and English SPM scores. In cases where differences occurred in an Anova test, a post-hoc analysis (Scheffe Test) was conducted to determine groups of significant differences.

Table 5.7.1 - Cross-tabulation of Sex by Self Esteem 1 scores.

	SELF-ESTEEM 1	
Sex	Low Self-Esteem 1	High Self-Esteem 1
Female (48)	24 11.3%	24 11.3%
Male (164)	61 28.8%	103 48.6%

N = 212

The cross-tabulation of Sex by Self Esteem 1 scores in the table above shows that being Female gives an even score for both High and Low Self Esteem with 11.3 per cent in each

category. However, the Male results show that 48.6 per cent have High Self Esteem, with only 28.8 per cent in the Low Self Esteem category.

Table 5.7.2 - Cross-tabulation of Sex by Self Esteem 2 scores.

	SELF-ESTEEM 2	
Sex	Low Self-Esteem 2	High Self-Esteem 2
Female (48)	25 11.8 %	23 10.8 %
Male (164)	49 23.1 %	115 54.3 %

N = 212

As shown in Table 5.7.2, the post test for Self Esteem 2 shows that Males have an improved score of 54.3 per cent with high Self Esteem, and an increase of only 5.7 per cent with High Self Esteem in the post-test. On the other hand, being Female displays a contradictory result in the post test, with a slightly higher percentage having Low Self Esteem: in the Self Esteem 1 score 11.3 per cent of Females are in the Low Self Esteem category, and in the Self Esteem 2 score 11.8 per cent are in the Low Self Esteem category. However, this increase is so small a number, it is predicted not to make any difference to total scores. Further significance tests will be conducted to determine whether the different scores contribute to the overall results. (Refer to next section for further results)

Table 5.7.3 - Cross-tabulation of Sex by Academic Self-Image 1 scores.

	ACADEMIC SELF-IMAGE 1	
Sex	Low Academic Self-Image 1	High Academic Self-Image 1
Female (48)	14 6.6 %	34 16.0 %
Male (164)	35 16.5 %	129 60.9 %

N = 212

The results above show that both female and male respondents in this study have High Academic Self Image generally. 16.0 per cent of the Female respondents are in the High Academic Self Image group with only 6.6 per cent of them having Low Academic Self Image. For the Male respondents, 60.9 per cent have a high Academic Self Image whereas only 16.5 per cent have Low Academic Self Image.

Table 5.7.4 - Cross-tabulation of Sex by Academic Self Image 2 scores.

ACADEMIC SELF-IMAGE 2

Sex	Low Academic Self-Image 2	High Academic Self-Image 2
Female (48)	13 6.1%	35 16.5 %
Male (164)	25 11.8 %	139 65.6 %

N = 212

In the Table above, both females and males managed to improve their Academic Self Image 2 score. The percentage having Low Academic Self Image went down and the percentage for High Academic Self Image went up. Females with High Academic Self Image increased from 16.0 per cent in the pre- test (Academic Self Image 1) to 16.5 per cent in the post-test (Academic Self Image 2). Males with High Academic Self Image 2 increased to 65.6 per cent from only 60.9 per cent in the pre-test test. Further significance tests will be conducted to determine these differences (Tables 5.7.47 and 5.7.48).

Table 5.7.5 - Cross-tabulation of Age by Self Esteem 1 scores.

SELF-ESTEEM 1 SCORES

AGE	Low Self-Esteem 1	High Self-Esteem 1
Junior (108)	44 20.8 %	64 30.2 %
Senior (104)	41 19.3 %	63 29.7 %

N = 212

Table 5.7.5 shows that the Junior and Senior age groups both have a high percentage of respondents with High Self Esteem: The Junior group had 30.2 per cent with High Self Esteem and 20.8 per cent with Low Self Esteem, whereas the Senior Age group had 29.7 per cent with High Self Esteem and 19.3 per cent with Low Self Esteem.

Table 5.7.6 - Cross-tabulation of Age by Self Esteem 2 scores.

SELF-ESTEEM 2 SCORES

AGE	Low Self-Esteem 1	High Self-Esteem 1
Junior (108)	13 14.6 %	77 36.3 %
Senior (104)	43 20.3 %	61 28.8 %

N = 212

Table 5.7.6 presents the cross-tabulation of Age by Self Esteem 2 score. This table shows that the Junior age group has a better result in the High Self Esteem category than the Senior. The Junior group improved their Self Esteem score from 30.2 per cent with high Self Esteem in the pre-test to 36.3 per cent in Self Esteem 2 score, while the Senior Self Esteem score went down from 29.7 per cent in the pre score to only 28.8 per cent in the post- test. This could be due to their changing their minds after answering both questions. This will be examined later to see whether there is any significant difference between the two scores.

Table 5.7.7 - Cross-tabulation of Age by Academic Self Image 1 scores.

	ACADEMIC SELF-IMAGE 1	
AGE	Low Academic Self-Image 1	High Academic Self-Image 1
Junior (108)	21 9.9 %	87 41.0 %
Senior (104)	28 13.2 %	76 35.9 %

N = 212

In Table 5.7.7, the cross-tabulation of age by Academic Self Image 1 score is shown. 41.0 per cent of Junior respondents had High Academic Self Image, while only 9.9 per cent had Low Academic Self Image. For the Senior population, 35.9 per cent had High Academic Self Image and only 13.2 per cent had Low Academic Self Image. The results show that both the Juniors and Seniors relatively have High Academic Self Image.

Table 5.7.8 - Cross-tabulation of Age by Academic Self Image 2 scores.

	ACADEMIC SELF-IMAGE 2	
AGE	Low Academic Self-Image 2	High Academic Self-Image 2
Junior (108)	16 7.5 %	92 43.4 %
Senior (104)	22 10.4 %	82 38.7 %

N = 212

Table 5.7.8 presents the result of the cross-tabulation of Age by Academic Self Image 2. There is an improvement in the score of both groups. In the Academic Self Image 1 the percentage for Junior High Academic Self Image were 41.0 per cent, but in this Academic Self Image 2 their score has increased to 43.4 per cent, an improvement of 2.4 per cent.

For the Senior group, the score of High Academic Self Image 1 (35.9 per cent) has increased to 38.7 per cent- an improvement of 2.8 per cent. The results show at this stage that both groups have a Higher Academic Self Image in the post- test.

Table 5.7.9 - Cross-tabulation of Ethnic Groups by Self Esteem 1 scores.

	SELF-ESTEEM 1 Scores	
Ethnic groups	Low Self-Esteem 1	High Self-Esteem 1
Malay (152)	64 30.2 %	88 41.5 %
Chinese (40)	15 7.1%	25 11.8 %
Indian (20)	6 2.8 %	14 6.6 %

N = 212

Table 5.7.9 shows that the Malay, Chinese and Indian respondents each have a high percentage in the High Self Esteem category. 41.5 per cent of the Malay respondents were in the High Self Esteem category and 30.2 per cent in the Low Self Esteem category. For the Chinese respondents, results show that 11.8 per cent are in the High Self Esteem category while 7.1 per cent are in the Low Self Esteem category. And for the Indian respondents, result shows that 6.6 per cent are in the High Self Esteem category and 2.8 per cent of them in the Low Self Esteem category.

Table 5.7.10 - Cross-tabulation of Ethnic Groups by Self Esteem 2 scores.

	SELF-ESTEEM 2 Scores	
Ethnic groups	Low Self-Esteem 2	High Self-Esteem 2
Malay (152)	54 25.5 %	98 46.2 %
Chinese (40)	15 7.0 %	25 11.8 %
Indian (20)	5 2.4 %	15 7.1 %

N = 212

Results in table 5.7.10 show that the Malay and Indian respondents have improved their scores in the High Self Esteem category, while the Chinese respondents results remain the same in both categories. The Malays improved their High Self Esteem score from 41.5 per cent in the previous test to 46.2 per cent in this post test, while the Indians improved their High Self Esteem score from 6.6 per cent in the previous test to 7.1 per cent in this post-test. A significance test will be conducted later to determine the significance level (See Tables 5.7.39 and 5.7.40 in this section).

Table 5.7.11 - Cross-tabulation of Ethnic Groups by Academic Self-Image 1 scores.

	ACADEMIC SELF-IMAGE 1 Scores	
Ethnic groups	Low Academic Self-Image 1	High Academic Self-Image 1
Malay (152)	40 18.9 %	112 52.8 %
Chinese (40)	8 3.8 %	32 15.1 %
Indian (20)	1 0.4 %	19 9.0 %

N = 212

In Table 5.7.11, the results show that all three ethnic groups have High Academic Self Image. 9.0 per cent of the Indian respondents have High Academic Self Image, with only 0.4 per cent in the Low Academic Self Image category. 15.1 per cent of the Chinese have High Academic Self Image and only 3.8 per cent in the Low Academic Self Image category. While the Malay respondents have 52.8 per cent with High Academic Self Image and only 18.9 per cent in the Low Academic Self Image category.

Table 5.7.12 - Cross-tabulation of Ethnic Groups by Academic Self Image 2 scores.

	ACADEMIC SELF-IMAGE 2 Scores	
Ethnic groups	Low Academic Self-Image 2	High Academic Self-Image 2
Malay (152)	30 14.2 %	122 57.5 %
Chinese (40)	6 2.8 %	34 16.0 %
Indian (20)	2 1.0 %	18 8.5%

N = 212

It can be seen from the table above that the Malay and the Chinese respondents have improved their scores in the High Academic Self Image 2 category as compared to Academic Self Image 1. The Malay High Academic Self Image 2 has improved from 52.8 per cent in the pre-test to 57.5 per cent in the post- test. Similarly, the number of Chinese with High Academic Self Image 2 has improved from 15.1 per cent in the pre- test to 16.0 per cent in the post- test. On the other hand, the Indian respondents showed a rather different result. Instead of improving, the score went down from 9.0 per cent in the pre-test to only 8.5 per cent in the post-test for the High Academic Self-Image 2 category. However, it is predicted that the percentage is too small to make any effect on the test as a whole. A further test will be conducted in later section to determine the significance of this difference.

Table 5.7.13 - Cross-tabulation of Course by Self Esteem 1 scores.

	SELF-ESTEEM 1 Scores	
COURSE	Low Self-Esteem	High Self-Esteem
SKE (38)	17 8.0 %	21 9.9 %
SKT (15)	4 1.9 %	11 5.2%
SPK (21)	10 4.7 %	11 5.2 %
DKJ (55)	22 10.4 %	33 15.6 %
SPH (32)	16 7.5 %	16 7.5 %
FKKSA (15)	6 2.8 %	9 4.2 %
ISK (16)	5 2.4 %	11 5.2 %
SKJ (20)	5 2.4 %	15 7.1 %

N = 212

Table 5.7.13 shows that the DKJ course leads with 15.6 per cent respondents having High Self Esteem. Following are the SKE with 9.9 per cent, the SPH with 7.5 per cent and the SKJ with 7.1 per cent. The SKT, SPK and ISK with 5.2 per cent each with High Self Esteem and FKKSA with 4.2 per cent. Of the 8 courses only SPH has an even percentage in the High and Low Self Esteem categories.

Table 5.7.14 - Cross-tabulation of Course by Self Esteem 2 scores.

	SELF-ESTEEM 2 scores	
COURSE	Low Self-Esteem 2	High Self-Esteem 2
SKE (38)	17 8.0%	21 9.9 %
SKT (15)	4 1.9 %	11 5.2 %
SPK (21)	11 5.2 %	10 4.7 %
DKJ (55)	15 7.1 %	40 18.9 %
SPH (32)	12 5.7 %	20 9.4 %
FKKSA (15)	4 1.9 %	11 5.2 %
ISK (16)	6 2.8 %	10 4.7 %
SKJ (20)	5 2.4 %	15 7.1 %

N = 212

The results in Table 5.7.14 show that a few courses have improved, a few courses have made no changes and a few courses' results have gone down. For example, the DKJ course improved from 15.6 per cent having High Self Esteem in the previous score to 18.9 per cent with High Self Esteem in the Self Esteem 2 score. Similarly, the SPH improved from 7.5 per cent with High Self Esteem in the previous score to 9.4 per cent in the Self Esteem 2 score, and the FKKSA improved from 4.2 per cent with High Self Esteem in the previous score to 5.2 per cent in the Self Esteem score. The SKE, SKT and SKJ show no changes in both High and Low Self Esteem scores. On the other hand, the ISK and SPK's results went down. The ISK went down from 5.2 per cent to 4.7 per cent with High Self Esteem in the Self Esteem 1 and 2 scores. The SPK results went down from 5.2 per cent with High Self Esteem in the previous test to only 4.7 per cent in the Self Esteem 2 score. However, the course still has a high percentage in the High Self Esteem category.

Table 5.7.15 - Cross-tabulation of Course by Academic Self Image 1 scores.

	ACADEMIC SELF-IMAGE 1 scores	
COURSE	Low Academic Self-Image 1	High Academic Self-Image 1
SKE (38)	7 3.3 %	31 14.6 %
SKT (15)	4 1.9 %	11 5.2 %
SPK (21)	6 2.8 %	15 7.1 %
DKJ (55)	15 7.1 %	40 18.9 %
SPH (32)	4 1.9 %	28 13.2 %
FKKSA (15)	3 1.4 %	12 5.7 %
ISK (16)	4 1.9 %	12 5.7 %
SKJ (20)	6 2.8%	14 6.6%

N = 212

In the pre-test scores for Academic Self-Image 1, the above table shows that all respondents in all courses have High Academic Self Image. The SKE has 14.6 per cent respondents in High Academic Self-Image 1 scores and 3.3 per cent respondents in Low Academic Self-Image 1. The SKT has 5.2 per cent respondents in the High Academic Self-Image 1 scores and 1.9 per cent in Low Academic Self-Image. The SPK has 7.1 per cent respondents in the High Academic Self-Image 1 scores, the DKJ with 18.9 per cent,

the SPH with 13.2 per cent, the FKKSA with 5.7 per cent, the ISK with 5.7 per cent and the SKJ with 6.6 per cent respondents.

Table 5.7.16 - Cross-tabulation of Course by Academic Self Image 2 scores.

	ACADEMIC SELF-IMAGE 2 scores	
COURSE	Low Academic Self-Image	High Academic Self-Image
SKE (38)	7 3.3 %	31 14.6 %
SKT (15)	1 0.5 %	14 6.6 %
SPK (21)	5 2.4 %	16 7.5 %
DKJ (55)	9 4.2 %	46 21.7 %
SPH (32)	4 1.9 %	28 13.2%
FKKSA (15)	4 1.9 %	11 5.2 %
ISK (16)	3 1.4 %	13 6.1%
SKJ (20)	5 2.4 %	15 7.1 %

N = 212

The results presented in Table 5.7.16 show mixed results in this post- test for Academic Self Image 2 scores. Five courses show an improvement, two show no change of result and one has Lower Academic Self Image. The SKT course shows an improvement in the High category of Academic Self Image 2 with 1.4 per cent improvement from Academic Self-Image 1, followed by the SPK with an improvement of only 0.4 per cent, the DKJ with 2.8 per cent improvement, the ISK with 0.4 per cent and the SKJ with 0.5 per cent improvement. The SKE and SPH courses showed no change of result in either High or Low categories, while the FKKSA course shows the result went down by 0.5 per cent in the High Academic Self Image category as compared to the pre-test results. However, it is predicted that the percentage will not make any significant difference because of the small number.

Table 5.7.17 - Cross-tabulation of English SPM Scores by Self Esteem 1 scores.

	SELF-ESTEEM SCORES 1	
ENGLISH SPM SCORES	Low Self-Esteem 1	High Self-Esteem 1
Good (72)	27 12.8 %	45 21.2 %
Average (76)	24 11.3 %	52 24.5 %
Poor (64)	34 16.0 %	30 14.2 %

N = 212

As can be seen from Table 5.7.17, the Good and Average groups have a higher percentage in the High Self Esteem 1 score category as compared to the percentage in the Low Self Esteem category. 21.2 per cent of respondents in the Good group had High Self Esteem and 12.8 per cent had Low Self Esteem. 24.5 per cent of respondents, meanwhile, in the Average group had High Self Esteem and 11.3 per cent Low Self Esteem. However, in the Poor group, a higher percentage were in the Low Self Esteem category with 16.0 per cent of the respondents having Low Self Esteem and 14.2 per cent High Self Esteem. This result is somehow expected from the Poor group with the general prediction that poor results contributed to Low Self-Esteem. To see whether this prediction is true, a further significance test will have to be conducted. The results will be found in the next section in this chapter.

Table 5.7.18 - Cross-tabulation of English SPM Scores by Self Esteem 2 scores.

	SELF-ESTEEM SCORES 2	
ENGLISH SPM SCORES	Low Self-Esteem 2	High Self-Esteem 2
Good (72)	25 11.8 %	47 22.2 %
Average (76)	23 10.8 %	53 25.0 %
Poor (64)	26 12.3 %	38 17.9 %

N = 212

In table 5.7.18, results show that all groups, including the Poor group, have higher percentages in the High Self Esteem 2 category. In the pre-test, the Good group had 21.2 per cent in the High Self Esteem category and in this post-test 22.2 per cent in the High Self Esteem category, an improvement of 1.0 per cent. The Average group in the pre-test had 24.5 per cent of respondents in the High Self Esteem category and in the post-test 25.0 per cent an improvement of 0.5 per cent. The Poor group improved by 3.7 per cent in the

High Self Esteem category. If in the pre-test only 14.2 per cent had High Self Esteem, this post-test showed a better result with 17.9 per cent of in the High Self Esteem category and only 12.3 per cent in the Low Self Esteem category. The overall results show that the cross-tabulation of English SPM by Self Esteem 2 scores have improved compared to Self Esteem 1 scores with all groups having Higher Self Esteem. The improvement in Self-Esteem 1 and Self-Esteem 2 results might also be due to the fact that most of the respondents had to answer questions for a second time and were more mentally prepared even though the percentages were small. A further test will be conducted to determine whether this difference is significant.

Table 5.7.19 - Cross-tabulation of English SPM scores by Academic Self Image 1 scores.

	ACADEMIC SELF-IMAGE 1 Scores	
ENGLISH SPM SCORES	Low Academic Self-Image 1	High Academic Self-Image 2
Good (72)	18 8.5 %	54 25.5 %
Average (76)	17 8.0 %	59 27.8%
Poor (64)	14 6.6%	50 23.6%

N = 212

Table 5.7.19 shows that all of the respondents in the Good, Average and Poor categories had High Academic Self Image 1 scores. For instance, the Good category shows that 25.5 per cent had High Academic Self Image, and only 8.5 per cent with Low Academic Self Image. For the Average category, 27.8 per cent of the respondents had High Academic Self Image while 8.0 per cent were in the Low category. Surprisingly, the Poor group shows that 23.6 per cent of the respondents in this group had High Academic Self Image and only 6.6 per cent possessed Low Academic Self Image.

Table 5.7.20 - Cross-tabulation of English SPM scores by Academic Self Image 2 scores.

	ACADEMIC SELF-IMAGE 2 SCORES	
ENGLISH SPM SCORES	Low Academic Self-Image 2	High Academic Self-Image 2
Good (72)	11 5.2 %	61 28.8 %
Average (76)	15 7.1%	61 28.8%
Poor (64)	12 5.6 %	52 24.5 %

N = 212

The results in Table 5.7.20 show that all the three categories improved their scores in the Academic Self Image 2 results. The Good, Average and Poor groups had higher scores for High Academic Self Image 2. The Good group increased the percentage in the High Academic Self Image 2 results by 3.3 per cent, the Average by 1.0 per cent and the Poor by 0.9 per cent. This result shows that the Good group made the greatest improvement even though the overall results show that all of the respondents maintained their High Academic Self Image scores. However, the improvement shows a consistency with the pre-test scores and the slight difference is probably too small in numbers to show any significant difference. A further test will be conducted to determine whether the difference is in fact significant.

Section VII B: Means of Independent Variables and Significant Difference Test of T-test and ANOVA.

Table 5.7.21 - Mean of Speaking Scores by Self Esteem 1 scores.

Sub-groups		Mean of Speaking scores	Standard Deviations
SELF : ESTEEM	Low SE	60.0	25.6
	High SE	67.6	19.6

The results above show that the mean scores of Speaking for Low Self Esteem 1 is 60.0 with a standard deviation of 25.6, while the mean of Speaking scores for High Self Esteem is 67.6 with a standard deviation of 19.6. In terms of Speaking scores, it is not surprising that the High Self Esteem achievers maintain high self-esteem and likewise the low speaking achievers maintain low self-esteem.

A T-test was then conducted on the dependent variable Speaking based on the Self-Esteem 1 scores of the respondents. Table 5.7.22 below illustrates the results obtained from the analysis.

Table 5.7.22 - T-test of Self-Esteem 1 scores using Speaking as the Dependent Variables.

		Pooled Variance Estimate			Separate Variance Estimate		
F value	2-Tail Prob.	t Value	Degree of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.	t Value	Degree of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.
1.70	.11	-1.43	73	.16	-1.43	67.46	.16

A T-value of -1.43 with p = 0.16 was obtained (Significant at $p < 0.05$). Results show that **no** statistically significant difference between the Low (x = 60.0) and High Self-Esteem groups (x = 67.6) with respect to Speaking exists. The no significant difference observed could be attributed to the fact that the two groups are similar in terms of confidence level even though some have lower scores in the speaking test. Further discussion will be provided in Chapter 7.

Table 5.7.23 - Mean of Speaking Scores by Self Esteem 2 scores.

Sub-groups		Mean of Speaking scores	Standard Deviations
SELF ESTEEM	Low SE	62.3	23.5
	High SE	64.9	22.7

As can be seen from Table 5.7.23, the results show that the mean of Speaking score for the Low Self Esteem group is 62.3 with a standard deviation of 23.5. The mean of Speaking score for the High Self Esteem group is 64.9 with a standard deviation of 22.7. The Self Esteem results demonstrate that in terms of speaking scores, the respondents with high speaking scores have High Self-Esteem and those with Low Speaking scores have Low Self Esteem.

When the T-test was conducted on the dependent variable Speaking based on the Self-Esteem 2 scores of the respondents, the results below were obtained.

Table 5.7.24 - T-test of Self-Esteem 2 scores using Speaking as the Dependent Variable.

		Pooled Variance Estimate			Separate Variance Estimate		
F value	2-Tail Prob.	t Value	Degree of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.	t Value	Degree of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.
1.07	.819	-.49	73	.626	-.49	63.29	.63

A T-value of -.49 with p = 0.63 was obtained. The results show that **no** statistically significant difference between the Low (x = 60.2) and High Self-Esteem groups (x = 67.6), with respect to Speaking ability, exists. Further discussion will be provided in Chapter 7.

Table 5.7.25 - Mean of Speaking Scores by Academic Self Image 1 scores.

Sub-groups	Mean of Speaking scores	Standard Deviations
ACADEMIC SELF IMAGE: Low ASI	62.7	22.7
High ASI	64.3	23.2

Table 5.7.25 presents the descriptive statistics of the Speaking score as the dependent variable and Academic Self Image 1 as the independent variable. The results show that the mean of Speaking score for Low Academic Self Image 1 is 62.7 and the mean of Speaking score for High Academic Self Image is 64.3. This result shows that respondents with Good speaking scores have High Academic Self-Image, and respondents that Fail the speaking test have Low Self-Esteem. Table 5.7.26 shows the T-test results.

Table 5.7.26 - T-test of Academic Self-Image 1 scores using Speaking as the Dependent Variable.

		Pooled Variance Estimate			Separate Variance Estimate		
F value	2-Tail Prob.	t Value	Degree of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.	t Value	Degree of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.
1.05	.95	-.26	73	.79	-.27	37.27	.80

After the T-test was conducted (Table 5.7.26 above), the T-value of -.27 with $p = 0.80$ was obtained. This is not significant at $p < 0.05$. The results show that there is **no** significant difference between Low Academic Self-Image 1 ($x = 62.7$) and High Academic Self-Image ($x = 64.3$) with respect to speaking ability. Further discussion will be presented in Chapter 7.

Table 5.7.27 - Mean of Speaking Scores by Academic Self Image 2 scores.

Sub-groups	Mean of Speaking scores	Standard Deviations
ACADEMIC SELF IMAGE: Low ASI	53.7	27.6
High ASI	66.2	21.3

In the above table, the results show that the mean of Speaking scores for the respondents with Low Academic Self Image 2 is 53.7 per cent and the mean of Speaking scores for

respondents with High Academic Self Image 2 is 66.2 per cent. The results reveal that the higher the Speaking scores the higher the Academic Self-Image.

A T-test (Table 5.7.28) was conducted on the dependent variable of Speaking based on the Academic Self-Image 2 scores.

Table 5.7.28 - T-test of Academic Self-Image 2 scores using Speaking as the Dependent Variable.

	Pooled Variance Estimate				Separate Variance Estimate		
F value	2-Tail Prob.	t Value	Degree of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.	t Value	Degree of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.
1.69	.174	-1.87	73	.066	-1.58	16.71	.13

A t-value of - 1.58 with $p = 0.13$ was obtained. Results show that no significant difference at $p < 0.05$ level with the Low ($x = 53.7$) and High Academic Self-Image 2 groups exist. The **no** significant difference results indicate that having a high speaking score does not necessarily mean respondents will have high academic self-image. In Chapter 7, further discussion on this issue will be presented.

Table 5.7.29 - Mean of Self Esteem 1 Scores by Sex.

Sub-groups	Mean of Self Esteem 1 scores	Standard Deviations
SEX: Female	14.4	3.6
Male	15.6	4.3

Table 5.7.29 presents the descriptive statistics of self esteem as the dependent variable and sex as the independent variable. The results show that the mean for the Female group is 14.4 with a standard deviation of 3.6. On the other hand, the mean for the Male group is 15.6 with a standard deviation of 4.3. The results show that in terms of Self Esteem 1 scores, the male group have slightly higher self-esteem than females. A T-test (Table 5.7.30) was then carried out to reaffirm the above results.

Table 5.7.30 - T-test of Sex using Self-Esteem 1 scores as the Dependent variable.

		Pooled Variance Estimate			Separate Variance Estimate		
F value	2-Tail Prob.	t Value	Degree of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.	t Value	Degree of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.
1.40	.178	-1.71	210	.089	-1.88	89.13	.06

A t-value of -1.88 with p = 0.06 was obtained (significant at p = < 0.05). Results show that **no** statistically significant differences between the Low Self-Esteem group (x = 14.4) and the High Self-Esteem group (x = 15.6) with respect to gender characteristics exits. The no significant difference observed could be attributed to the fact that the two groups are similar in terms of i) academic requirements when entering university, and ii) that the samples come from similar age groups. Refer to Chapter 7 for further discussion.

Table 5.7.31 - Mean of Self Esteem 2 Scores by Sex.

Sub-groups	Mean of Self Esteem 2 scores	Standard Deviations
SEX: Female	14.9	4.5
Male	16.4	4.4

As shown in the above table, the mean of Self Esteem 2 scores for females is 14.9 per cent with a standard deviation of 4.5. Moreover, the mean of Self Esteem scores for males is 16.4 per cent with a standard deviation of 4.5. The results show that the Male has a higher self-esteem level as compared to the Female group.

Using the dependent variable Self-Esteem on the gender characteristic of the respondents, a T-test was then conducted (see Table 5.7.32).

Table 5.7.32 - T-test of Sex using Self-Esteem 2 scores as the Dependent variable.

		Pooled Variance Estimate			Separate Variance Estimate		
F value	2-Tail Prob.	t Value	Degree of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.	t Value	Degree of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.
1.03	.882	-2.03	210	.044	-2.01	75.89	.05

As shown in the table above, a T- value of - 2.01 with $p = 0.05$ was obtained; significant at $p < 0.05$. There **is** a significant difference between gender characteristic of the Female group ($x = 14.9$) and the Male group ($x = 16.4$) with respect to Self-Esteem. These results are consistent with earlier findings in the averaged scores (see table 5.3.12) that the mean score of the males is much higher than that of the females. The results show that on the whole the males have higher Self-Esteem than the females. These results will be further compared with the correlation analysis in Table 5.5.0. (See Chapter 7 for further discussion).

Table 5.7.33 - Mean of Self Esteem 1 Scores by Age.

Sub-groups	Mean of Self Esteem 1 scores	Standard Deviations
AGE: Junior	15.5	4.0
Senior	15.1	4.4

Table 5.7.33 shows that the mean of self-esteem scores for the Junior Age group is 15.5 per cent and the standard deviation is 4.0. For the Senior group, the mean of self-esteem scores is 15.1 per cent and the standard deviation is 4.4. The table suggests that the Junior group has a similar self-esteem level to the Senior age group.

After the T-test was conducted (as shown in Table 5.7.34) it was found that **no** significant differences between the Junior ($x = 15.5$) and Senior Age group ($x = 15.1$) exists in their self-esteem level. The results thus reveal that both groups have the same self-esteem level, which shows that there is no significant difference between age and self-esteem level.

Table 5.7.34 - T-test of Age using Self-Esteem 1 scores as the Dependent Variable.

		Pooled Variance Estimate			Separate Variance Estimate		
F value	2-Tail Prob.	t Value	Degree of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.	t Value	Degree of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.
1.29	.193	.82	210	.413	.82	2.4.48	.41

Table 5.7.35 - Mean of Self Esteem 2 Scores by Age.

Sub-groups	Mean of Self Esteem 2 scores	Standard Deviations
AGE: Junior Senior	16.4 15.7	4.2 4.7

The above table shows the mean of Self-Esteem 2 scores for the Junior group is 16.4 per cent and the standard deviation 4.2. The mean of Self-Esteem 2 scores for the Senior group is 15.7 per cent and the standard deviation 4.7. The results seem to indicate in terms of Self Esteem scores that the Junior group have higher self-esteem on the whole than the Senior. A T-test was conducted to determine whether there is a difference between the two groups and the results below (Table 5.7.36) were obtained.

Table 5.7.36 - T-test of Age using Self-Esteem 2 scores as the Dependent variable.

		Pooled Variance Estimate			Separate Variance Estimate		
F value	2-Tail Prob.	t Value	Degree of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.	t Value	Degree of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.
1.26	.234	1.08	210	.284	1.07	205.16	.29

Table 5.7.36 above shows the T-test employed. The results of the T-test show that respondents who are High in Self-Esteem do **not** differ significantly from respondents who are Low in Self-Esteem. These results suggest that Junior and Senior groups are similar in confidence level. Further discussion of this result will be presented in Chapter 7.

Table 5.7.37 - Mean of Self Esteem 1 Scores by Ethnic groups.

Sub-groups	Mean of Self Esteem 1 scores	Standard Deviations
Ethnic groups: Malay	15.0	4.3
Chinese	16.1	3.8
Indian	16.7	3.8

In Table 5.7.37 the mean of Self Esteem scores by Ethnic groups are shown. The results show that the mean of Self-Esteem scores of the Malay respondents is 15.0 per cent with a standard deviation of 4.3. For the Chinese respondents, the mean is 16.1 per cent with a standard deviations of 3.8; while for the Indian respondents, the mean is 16.7 per cent and a standard deviation of 3.8. These results suggest that the Chinese and Indian respondents have higher Self Esteem than the Malays. A One-Way analysis of variance was then conducted (Refer to Table 5.7.38) to ascertain the significance of this.

Table 5.7.38 - One-Way Analysis of Variance for Self-Esteem 1 scores by Ethnic groups.

Source	D.F	Sum of Squares	Mean of Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	2	87.83	43.92	2.56	.08
Within Groups	209	3580.44	17.13		
Total	211	3668.28			

Multiple Range Test

Scheffe Procedure

No two groups are significantly different at the 0.05 level

A One-way analysis of variance for the dependent variable Self-Esteem 1 was conducted against the independent variable Ethnic groups to determine the difference. Results in Table 5.7.38 above show that **no** significant differences in variance among the sub-groups of ethnic groups (which gives a F - ratio of 2.56 and P = 0.08 which is not significant at the $p < 0.05$ level) exists. The results suggest that the three ethnic groups are not

significantly different in their Self-Esteem 1 level. Further discussion will be provided in the Chapter 7.

Table 5.7.39 - Mean of Self Esteem 2 Scores by Ethnic groups.

Sub-groups	Mean of Self Esteem 2 scores	Standard Deviations
Ethnic groups : Malay	15.7	4.6
Chinese	16.8	4.0
Indian	17.7	4.2

As shown in Table 5.7.39, the mean of Self-Esteem 2 scores for the Malay respondents is 15.7 per cent and the standard deviation is 4.6; the mean of Chinese respondents is 16.8 per cent and the standard deviation is 4.0; while the mean of Indian respondents is 17.7 per cent and the standard deviation is 4.2. It is shown by the different mean scores that the Indian respondents have slightly higher self-esteem than the Chinese and the Malay respondents. A One-way analysis of variance was then conducted to determine the significance of this general observation (Table 5.7.40).

Table 5.7.40 - One-Way Analysis of Variance for Self-Esteem 2 scores by Ethnic groups

Source	D.F	Sum of Squares	Mean of Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	2	98.64	49.32	2.52	.08
Within Groups	209	4088.15	19.56		
Total	211	4186.80			

Multiple Range Test

Scheffe Procedure

No two groups are significantly different at the 0.05 level

In the above Table 5.7.40, the One Way Analysis using Self-Esteem 2 as the dependent variable and Ethnic groups as the independent variable gives an F-ratio of 2.52, which is **not** significant at the $p < 0.05$ level. These results show that the respondents from the

three ethnic groups are not significantly different in their self-esteem level. This issue will be discussed further in Chapter 7.

Table 5.7.41 - Mean of Self Esteem 1 Scores by English SPM Scores.

Sub-groups	Mean of Self Esteem 1 scores	Standard Deviations
ENGLISH: Good	16.1	4.1
SPM Average	15.8	4.0
Poor	13.8	4.0

The results in Table 5.7.41 show that the mean of Self Esteem 1 scores for the Good group by means of English SPM score is 16.1 per cent and the standard deviation is 4.1; the Average group is 15.8 per cent and the standard deviation is 4.0; and the mean of the Poor group is 13.8 per cent and the standard deviation is 4.0. The result shows that the Good group has a higher mean score than the Average and Poor groups. These results indicate that the Good group has higher self-esteem than the other two groups on the whole. A One-Way Analysis was then conducted to ascertain whether these differences are significant (see Table 5.7.42).

Table 5.7.42 - One-Way Analysis of Variance for Self-Esteem 1 scores by English SPM Scores.

Source	D.F	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	2	217.19	108.59	6.58	.00
Within Groups	209	3451.09	16.51		
Total	211	3668.28			

Multiple Range Test
Scheffe Procedure

(*) Denotes pairs of groups significantly different at the .05 level

Mean	Group	Grp 3	Grp 2	Grp 1
13.8	Grp 3			
15.8	Grp 2	*		
16.1	Grp 1	*		

As shown in Table 5.7.42, the One-Way Analysis of Variance using Self-Esteem 1 scores as the dependent variable and the English SPM scores as the independent variable gives an F-ratio of 6.57, which is significant at the $p \leq 0.05$ level. The results of the Scheffe Test indicate that the mean scores of the Good (Group 1) and Average groups (Group 2) **are** significantly higher than the mean of the Poor group (Group 3) with means of: 16.1, 15.8 and 13.8 respectively. These results show that the respondents who are in both the Good and Average groups have higher self-esteem than the respondent in the Poor group. These results further indicate that generally the higher the English SPM score the higher the self-esteem. This result is consistent with average Self-Esteem score (Table 5.3.19) and Self-Esteem 2 score (Table 5.7.44). (Refer to Chapter 7 for further discussion on this result).

Table 5.7.43 - Mean of Self Esteem 2 Scores by English SPM Scores.

Sub-groups		Mean of Self Esteem 2 scores	Standard Deviations
ENGLISH: SPM	Good	16.7	4.3
	Average	16.5	4.3
	Poor	14.9	4.7

The results in the table above shows that the mean of Self Esteem 2 score for the Good group by means of the English SPM score is 16.7 per cent and the standard deviation is 4.3. The mean of the Average group is 16.5 per cent and the standard deviation is 4.3; and for the Poor group the mean is 14.9 per cent and the standard deviation is 4.7. These results show that the Good group has a slightly higher mean than the Average and Poor groups. The Poor group mean looks distinctly lower than the Good and Average means. A One-Way Analysis in Table 5.7.44 was then conducted to see if the differences are significant.

Table 5.7.44 - One-Way Analysis of Variance for Self-Esteem 2 scores by English SPM Scores.

Source	D.F	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	2	133.51	66.76	3.44	.03
Within Groups	209	4053.28	19.40		
Total	211	4186.79			

Multiple Range Test
Scheffe Procedure

(*) Denotes pairs of groups significantly different at the .05 level

Mean	Group	Grp 3	Grp 2	Grp 1
14.9	Grp 3			
16.5	Grp 2	*		
16.7	Grp 1	*		

As shown in Table 5.7.44 the One-Way Analysis of Variance using Self-Esteem 2 scores as the dependent variable and the English SPM scores as the independent variable gives an F-ratio of 3.44 which is significant at the $p \leq 0.05$ level. The results of the Scheffe Test indicate that the mean self-esteem of the Good (Group 1) and Average groups (Group 2) is significantly higher than the mean self-esteem of the Poor group (Group 3), 16.7 per cent, 16.5 per cent and 14.9 per cent respectively. These results demonstrate that the respondents who are both in the Good and Average groups have higher self-esteem compared to respondents in the Poor group. This result is consistent with the average Self-Esteem result in Table 5.3.19 and the Self-Esteem 1 score in Table 5.7.42. The results also show that the higher the English SPM scores the higher the self-esteem level. Further discussion will be provided in Chapter 7.

Table 5.7.45 - Mean of Academic Self Image 1 Scores by Sex.

Sub-groups	Mean of Academic Self Image 1 Scores	Standard Deviations
SEX : Female Male	10.7 10.7	2.8 3.0

As can be seen from the above table, the mean score for Academic Self Image 1 for females is 10.7 per cent with a standard deviation of 2.8, while for the males the mean score is 10.7 per cent with a standard deviation of 3.0. These results reveal that the true mean is the same for both groups. However, to reaffirm these results, a T-test was conducted (see Table 5.7.46).

Table 5.7.46 - T-test of Sex using Academic Self-Image 1 scores as the Dependent Variable.

		Pooled Variance Estimate			Separate Variance Estimate		
F value	2-Tail Prob.	t Value	Degree of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.	t Value	Degree of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.
1.16	.554	-1.13	210	.261	-1.18	81.71	.24

It can be noted from the above table that for the T-test of Sex using Academic Self-Image as the dependent variable there is **no** significant difference between the two groups. The T-value is -1.18 and $p = 0.24$. These results indicate that Sex and Academic Self-Image 1 are not significant at the $p < 0.05$ level. This result will be discussed further in Chapter 7.

Table 5.7.47 - Mean of Academic Self Image 2 scores by Sex.

Sub-groups	Mean of Academic Self Image 2 Scores	Standard Deviations
SEX: Female Male	10.2 11.1	2.6 3.0

As shown in Table 5.7.47, the mean for the Female group in terms of Academic Self Image 2 score is 10.2 per cent with a standard deviation of 2.6, while the mean for the Male group is 11.1 per cent with a standard deviation of 3.0. This indicates that for the Academic Self Image 2 scores, there is a slightly different mean result. The Male group has slightly

higher Academic Self Image. Further test to confirm this result is shown in Table 5.7.48 below.

Table 5.7.48 - T-test of Sex using Academic Self-Image 2 scores as Dependent Variable

		Pooled Variance Estimate			Separate Variance Estimate		
F value	2-Tail Prob.	t Value	Degree of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.	t Value	Degree of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.
1.33	.251	-1.92	210	.056	-2.08	81.00	.04

The above results show that there is a significant difference between Sex and Academic Self-Image 2. The T-value -2.08 with p = 0.04 was obtained from this test. Therefore, as indicated by the results, there is a significant difference between Sex and Academic Self-Image 2 scores. Explaining this difference, it could be that after two weeks of the pre-test (Academic Self-Image 1) the respondents were more prepared to answer the given questions. More will be discussed in Chapter 7 on this issue which contributed to the results.

Table 5.7.49 - Mean of Academic Self Image 1 Scores by Age.

Sub-groups	Mean of Academic Self Image 1 Scores	Standard Deviations
AGE: Junior	10.5	2.7
Senior	10.4	3.1

Based on the results presented above, the mean score for the Junior age group based on the Academic Self Image 1 score is 10.5 per cent with a standard deviation of 2.7. The mean for the Senior age group is 10.4 per cent with a standard deviation of 3.0. These results show that there is not much difference in the mean scores of the Junior and Senior age groups. A t-test was then carried out to confirm the results (see Table 5.7.50).

Table 5.7.50 - T-test of Age using Academic Self-Image 1 scores as the Dependent Variable.

		Pooled Variance Estimate			Separate Variance Estimate		
F value	2-Tail Prob.	t Value	Degree of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.	t Value	Degree of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.
1.34	.14	.28	210	.78	.28	203.22	.78

As can be seen from the results in Table 5.7.50, there is **no** significant difference between Age and the Academic Self-Image 1 score. Further discussion on this result will be presented in Chapter 7.

Table 5.7.51 - Mean of Academic Self Image 2 scores by Age.

Sub-groups	Mean of Academic Self Image 2 Scores	Standard Deviations
AGE: Junior	11.0	2.8
Senior	10.8	3.1

Table 5.7.51 above shows that the mean of the Junior age group for the Academic Self Image 2 score is 11.0 per cent with a standard deviation of 2.8, while for the Senior age group the mean is 10.8 per cent with a standard deviation of 3.1. T-test is conducted to check any significance in this small difference (see Table 5.7.52).

Table 5.7.52 - T-test of Age using Academic Self-Image 2 scores as the Dependent Variable.

		Pooled Variance Estimate			Separate Variance Estimate		
F value	2-Tail Prob.	t Value	Degree of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.	t Value	Degree of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.
1.30	.181	.45	210	.652	.45	204.26	.65

As presented in the above table, the T-test using Age as the independent variable and Academic Self-Image 2 as the dependent variable gives a T-value of .45 with $p = 0.65$ which is not significant at the $p \leq 0.05$ level. Therefore, there is **no** significant difference between the age of the Junior and the age of the Senior in determining their Academic Self-Image 2. Chapter 7 will discuss this issue in details.

Table 5.7.53 - Mean of Academic Self Image 1 Scores by Ethnic groups.

Sub-groups	Mean of Academic Self Image 1 scores	Standard Deviations
Ethnic groups : Malay	10.1	2.7
Chinese	11.1	3.5
Indian	12.0	3.2

As shown in Table 5.7.53, the mean for the Malay respondents in terms of Academic Self-Image 1 scores is 10.1 per cent and the standard deviation 2.7. The mean for the Chinese respondents is 11.1 per cent and the standard deviation 3.5, and the mean for Indian respondents is 12.0 with a standard deviation of 3.2. The results show that the Indian students have slightly higher mean scores than the Chinese and Malays. To confirm these results and to test for significance a One-Way Analysis of Variance for the dependent variable Academic Self-Image 1 was conducted against the independent variable Ethnic groups. (Refer to Table 5.7.54).

Table 5.7.54 - One-Way Analysis of Variance for Academic Self-Image 1 scores by Ethnic groups.

Source	D.F	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	2	74.16	37.08	4.47	.01
Within Groups	209	1732.77	8.29		
Total	211	1806.92			

Multiple Range Test

Scheffe Procedure

(*) Denotes pairs of groups significantly different at the .05 level

Mean	Group	Grp 1	Grp 2	Grp 3
10.1	Grp 1			
11.1	Grp 2			
12.0	Grp 3	*		

Results in Table 5.7.54 show that a difference in variance among the sub-groups of ethnic groups with F= 4.47 and p = 0.01 exists, which is significant at the $p \leq 0.05$ level. A post-hoc analysis using the Scheffe Test was then conducted to identify the significant difference. It was observed that Group 3 (Indian) differ significantly from Groups 1 (Malays) in terms of Academic Self-Image. There is no significant difference between Group 3 (Indian) and 2 (Chinese) in terms of Academic Self-Image. Similar to the average score of Academic Self-Image by ethnic groups displayed in Table 5.3.25, the results in this test suggested that the difference in Academic Self-Image can be attributed to the differences in ethnicity especially between Group 3 (Indian) and 1 (Malays). Chapter 7 will provide further details on this issue.

Table 5.7.55 - Mean of Academic Self Image 2 scores by Ethnic groups.

Sub-groups	Mean of Academic Self-Image 2 scores	Standard Deviations
Ethnic groups : Malay	10.5	2.7
Chinese	11.6	3.7
Indian	12.3	2.8

As shown in Table 5.7.55, the mean for Malay respondents in terms of Academic Self-Image 2 scores is 10.5 per cent with a standard deviation of 2.7. The mean for the Chinese respondents is 11.6 per cent and the standard deviation 3.7, and the mean for Indian respondents is 12.3 per cent with a standard deviation of 2.8. These results imply that Indian students on the whole have slightly higher mean scores than the Chinese and Malays. A one-way analysis of variance was then conducted for the dependent variable Academic Self-Image 2 against the independent variable ethnic groups to determine whether this difference is significant (Table 5.7.56).

Table 5.7.56 - One-Way Analysis of Variance for Academic Self-Image 2 scores by Ethnic groups.

Source	D.F	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	2	75.81	37.90	4.52	.01
Within Groups	209	1751.11	8.38		
Total	211	1826.92			

Multiple Range Test
Scheffe Procedure

(*) Denotes pairs of groups significantly different at the .05 level

Mean	Group	Grp 1	Grp 2	Grp 3
10.5	Grp 1			
11.6	Grp 2			
12.3	Grp 3	*		

Results in Table 5.7.56 show that a difference in variance among the sub-groups of ethnic groups exists, with F= 452 and p = 0.01 which **is** significant at the $p \leq 0.05$ level. A post-hoc analysis using the Scheffe Test was then conducted to identify the significant difference. The same result as in Academic Self-Image 1 was obtained and it was observed that Group 3 (Indians) still differed significantly from Group 1 (Malays) in terms of Academic Self-Image. There was no difference between Group 3 (Indians) and Group 2 (Chinese). This confirmed the result of the Academic Self-Image average score (Table 5.3.25) and Academic Self-Image 1 score (Table 5.7.54) that the difference in Academic Self-Image can be partially attributed to differences in ethnic groups. Further discussion will be provided in Chapter 7.

Table 5.7.57 - Mean of Academic Self Image 1 Scores by English SPM Scores.

Sub-groups		Mean of Academic Self Image 1 scores	Standard Deviations
ENGLISH: SPM	Good	10.5	3.1
	Average	10.6	2.9
	Poor	10.3	2.8

In this table, the mean score of Academic Self Image 1 for the Good group is 10.5 per cent and the standard deviation 3.1. The mean for the Average group is 10.6 per cent with a standard deviation of 2.9, while the mean for the Poor group is 10.3 per cent with a standard deviation of 2.8. These results show that the mean of all of the groups are similar. A One-way analysis of variance was then conducted to confirm this similarity (see Table 5.7.58).

Table 5.7.58 - One-Way Analysis of Variance for Academic Self-Image 1 scores by English SPM scores..

Source	D.F	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	2	4.77	2.38	.28	.759
Within Groups	209	1802.15	8.62		
Total	211	1806.92			

Multiple Range Test

Scheffe Procedure

No two groups are significantly different at the .05 level

Table 5.7.58 shows the one-way analysis of variance using Academic Self-Image 1 as the dependent variable and English SPM as the independent variable. This gave an F ratio of 0.28 and $p = 0.76$ which was **not** significant at the $p \leq 0.05$ level. These results found that the Good, Average and Poor group are not significantly different in their Academic Self-Image 1. Chapter 7 will provide further discussion on this issue.

Table 5.7.59 - Mean of Academic Self Image 2 Scores by English SPM Scores.

Sub-groups		Mean of Academic Self Image 2 Scores	Standard Deviations
ENGLISH : SPM	Good	11.2	2.8
	Average	11.1	3.1
	Poor	10.4	2.9

Table 5.7.59 shows that the mean for the Good group respondents is 11.2 per cent with a standard deviation of 2.8; the Average group is 11.1 per cent with a standard deviation of 3.1 and the Poor group is 10.4 per cent with a standard deviation of 2.9. These results indicate that the mean scores of the three groups are slightly different. A further one-way analysis of variance for the dependent variable Academic Self-Image was then conducted against the independent variable English SPM score to determine the significance of this difference. (See Table 5.7.60 below).

Table 5.7.60 - One-Way Analysis of Variance for Academic Self-Image 2 scores by English SPM scores..

Source	D.F	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	2	25.56	12.78	1.48	.23
Within Groups	209	1801.36	8.62		
Total	211	1826.92			

Multiple Range Test

Scheffe Procedure

No two groups are significantly different at the .05 level

Table 5.7.60 shows the one-way analysis of variance using Academic Self Image 2 as the dependent variable and English SPM score as the independent variable. The results gives an F - ratio of 1.48 and $p = 0.23$ which is not significant at the $p \leq 0.05$ level. These results suggest that all three groups, (the Good, Average and Poor groups) are **not** significantly different in their Academic Self-Image 2 scores. Chapter 7 will provide further discussion on this issue.

Table 5.7.61 - Stepwise Multiple Regression on Academic Self Image I scores as Dependent Variable as predicted from English SPM scores, Sex and Ethnic groups as Independent Variable.

Multiple R	.202
R Square	.041
Adjusted R Square	.036
Standard Error	2.872

Analysis of Variance

	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
Regression	1	73.974	73.975
Residual	210	1732.949	8.252

F = 8.964 Signif F = .003

----------Variables in the Equation----------

Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
Ethnic groups	.907	.303122	.202	2.994	.003
(Constant)	9.231	.461777		19.990	.000

----------Variables not in the Equation----------

Variable	Beta In	Partial	Min Toler	T	Sig T
Sex	.070	.072	.999	1.039	.299
EngSPM	.084	.075	.770	1.088	.278

Table 5.7.61 shows that ethnic group is the best single predictor of Academic Self Image 1 and accounts for about 4 per cent of the total variance of Academic Self Image 1. The table also shows that English SPM score and Sex are non significant predictors of the total variance of Academic Self Image 1. Therefore, the remaining 96 per cent of the total variance of Academic Self Image 1 is not accounted for.

The results of the stepwise multiple regression for Academic Self Image 1 show that ethnic differences contribute little to the variance of the scores for Academic Self Image 1. This finding confirms the results presented in Table 5.7.54 where the ethnic group is shown to have a highly significant effect on Academic Self Image 1. The results also show that there

is a large portion of variance within the Academic Self Image score which is unaccountable in terms of the factors considered in this study. It suggests that although the ethnic group explains about 4 per cent of the total variance of Academic Self Image 1, there may be other factors or variables which affect and predict the Academic Self Image level of the respondents.

Table 5.7.62 - Stepwise Multiple Regression on Academic Self Image 2 as Dependent Variable as predicted from English SPM scores, Sex and Ethnic group as Independent Variable.

Multiple R	.202
R Square	.041
Adjusted R Square	.036
Standard Error	2.889

Analysis of Variance

	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
Regression	1	74.730	74.730
Residual	210	1752.190	8.344

F = 8.956 Signif F = .003

----------Variables in the Equation----------

Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
Ethnic groups	.912	.305	.202	2.993	.003
(Constant)	9.645	.464		20.771	.000

----------Variables not in the Equation----------

Variable	Beta In	Partial	Min Toler	T	Sig T
Sex	.124	.127	.999	1.848	.066
EngSPM	-.012	-.010	.770	-.151	.880

As shown in Table 5.7.62, the Ethnic group appears the best single predictor of Academic Self Image 2. The results also show that Sex and English SPM scores together are not significant predictors of Academic Self Image 2. The results of the stepwise multiple regression for Academic Self Image 2 shows that Ethnic group contributes little to the

variance of Academic Self Image 2. This confirms the results presented in Table 5.7.56 where the Ethnic group has been shown to be significantly correlated with the Academic Self Image 2 score. As in the case of Academic Self Image 1, a large portion of the variance of Academic Self Image 2 remains unaccounted for in terms of the factors considered in this study.

Table 5.7.63 - Stepwise Multiple Regression on Self Esteem 1 scores as Dependent Variable as predicted from English SPM, Sex and Ethnic groups as the Independent Variables.

Multiple R	.219
R Square	.048
Adjusted R Square	.044
Standard Error	4.078

Analysis of Variance

	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
Regression	1	176.186	176.186
Residual	210	3492.092	16.629

F = 10.595 Signif F = .001

----------Variables in the Equation----------

Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
EngSPM	-1.139	.350	-.219	-3.255	.001
(Constant)	17.533	.742		23.635	.000

----------Variables not in the Equation----------

Variable	Beta In	Partial	Min Toler	T	Sig T
Sex	.109	.111	.998	1.620	.107
Ethnic group	.060	.055	.770	.791	.430

Table 5.7.63 presents the results which have been found to be significant in the stepwise regression analysis using Self Esteem 1 as the dependent variable and the English SPM

score, Sex and Ethnic group as independent variables. As can be seen in the table, English SPM score is the best single predictor of Self Esteem 1 and accounts for about 5 per cent of the total variance of Self Esteem. The table also shows that Sex and Ethnic group are not significant predictors of Self Esteem 1. The remaining 95 per cent of the total variance of Self Esteem 1 is not accounted for.

The results of this analysis suggest that English SPM scores contribute to the variance of the scores for Self Esteem. This confirms the results presented in Table 42 where the English SPM score is shown to be highly significant to Self Esteem 1 scores. The results also suggest that, similar to Self Esteem, there is a large portion of variance of Self Esteem which is unaccounted for in terms of the range of variables considered here.

Table 5.7.64 - Stepwise Multiple Regression on Self Esteem 2 scores as Dependent Variable as predicted from English SPM scores, Sex and Ethnic groups as independent variables.

Multiple R	.161
R Square	.026
Adjusted R Square	.021
Standard Error	4.407

Analysis of Variance

	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
Regression	1	108.601	108.601
Residual	210	4078.191	19.419

F = 5.592 Signif F = .019

----------Variables in the Equation----------

Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
EngSPM	-.895	.378	-.161	-2.365	.019
(Constant)	17.831	.802		22.243	.000

----------Variables not in the Equation----------

Variable	Beta In	Partial	Min Toler	T	Sig T
Sex	.132	.134	.998	1.955	.052
Ethnic groups	.099	.088	.770	1.273	.205

From the Table 5.7.64 above, the English SPM score is the best single predictor of the Self Esteem 2 score and accounts for about 5 per cent of the total variance of Self Esteem 2. The results also show that Sex and Ethnic groups are not significant predictors of Self Esteem 2. The remaining 95 per cent of the total variance of Self Esteem 2 is unaccounted for. The results of these analyses indicate that English SPM scores contribute to the variance of Self Esteem. This confirms the results presented in Table 44 where the English SPM score is shown to be also highly significant on Self Esteem 2. These results also suggest that there is a large portion of variance of Self Esteem as a whole which is unaccounted for in terms of the factors considered here. It shows that, although English SPM scores explain about 5 per cent of the total variance of Self Esteem 2, there may be other factors or variables which affect the Self Esteem level of the respondents and which are better predictors of their Self Esteem. Refer to Table 5.4.0 for summary of all the T-tests and One way Analyses of variance.

Chapter 6: Interview Analysis

This chapter analyses the interview data gathered in the academic year 1994/95 collected at Universiti Teknologi Malaysia (UTM). The interview was conducted with 70 of the same students who took part in the main study discussed in Chapter 5. As Cohen and Manion (1994, 271) put it, "although the interview as a research technique is normally considered as one of a range of survey methods in social research.....the purposes of the interview in the wider context of life are many and varied. It may thus be used as a means of evaluating or assessing a person in some respect;.....for gathering data, as in surveys or experimental situations; or for sampling respondents' opinions". In this study, interviews were used to elicit students' and lecturers' opinions to complement the quantitative analysis. The interview data can be regarded as participants' own interpretations of some of the research questions of the study.

6.0 Introduction

As education in Malaysia is undergoing a dramatic change towards industrialisation, education has been stressed as the future hope for the people to compete with other nations and to achieve excellence. In the same breath, widespread concern has been expressed regarding the decline of the communication skills of university students, as reported in Chapter 1, which stated that students at higher institutions are facing major problems with their oral communication skills which could contribute to their low Self-Esteem and Academic Self-Image or vice versa.

This study was created as a direct response on the part of the UTM whose staff expressed concern about students' diminished oral skills in English which are of particular importance. Discussions with some lecturers in mid 1992 before this study was conducted indicated that they felt a strong sense of alarm and concern at the university students'

inability to respond adequately in job interviews and to communicate well outside the university environment. Low self-esteem and low academic self-image have been thought to be factors that contributed to this problem. Indirectly, this led to frequent misrepresentation of students' capability and growing criticisms of their level of ability to communicate in English. This study was initiated to investigate the issue in detail in order to understand the relationship of students' oral skills with Self-Esteem and Academic Self-Image which are thought to be the factors behind this communication failure.

6.1 Data Collection for Interview Analysis

The purpose of the interview was to deduce any extra information from the students that might have been missed when the questionnaires and oral test were conducted. At the same time, it gave the students a chance to express their comments on both tests. The researcher was given a period of two weeks to finish these informal interviews by the appropriate lecturers, as the interview was conducted mainly using students' regular English lesson hours in order not to take more extra time. A semi-structured interview was conducted with these students selected from four courses after both questionnaires for the Self-Esteem, Academic Self-Image and Speaking tests had been given, as indicated in the main study results (see Chapter 5). A semi-structured interview was chosen because, as reported by Bernard (1994: 208), "in situations where you won't get more than one chance to interview someone, semi-structured interviewing is best. It has much of the free-wheeling quality of unstructured interviewing, and requires all the same skills, but semi-structured interviewing is based on the use of an interview guide. This is a written list of questions and topics that need to be covered in a particular order."

In this way, a list of questions was prepared before the interview and students were given flexibility in language usage in order not to impede information or comments. Students were encouraged to use English or Bahasa Malaysia, whichever they felt more comfortable

with. They were assured of anonymity as the researcher was interested to know what they thoughts; their opinions and observations were of particular importance. An interview schedule was made for a duration of two weeks and students gave their full co-operation (except for 5 students who did not turn up for the interview for unknown reasons). All students interviewed were also encouraged to express and interrupt themselves freely whenever they felt an important issue needed clarification.

Permission was obtained from the students to record the interviews and to take notes. In agreement with Patton (1990: 348), a tape recorder was used "to obtain the best possible record of the interviewee's word". According to Patton tape-recording is essential if one plans to use interviews as the main source of data because most of the time "the presence of the tape recorder quickly fades to the background, particularly if the interviewer is adept at using the machine and the participants in the interview are engaged in the experience". However, in this study, the interview data are only used as supplementary material, because the researcher has already put greater emphasis on the quantitative data which was analysed in Chapter 5.

The researcher was given an office in which to conduct the interviews, with permission from the UTM authorities, and an informal setting was set up so that the students would not feel threatened while interviewed. Students' participation and honesty were emphasised as these were crucial for this study. As suggested by Lofland (1976: 90), if an interview can be conducted in " unthreatening, self-controlled, supportive, polite, and cordial interaction in everyday life" then the interview will be easy and the students will feel comfortable responding to all questions. The purpose of this interview, which is to extract useful information as supplementary materials for the main data (the questionnaires and oral test), was also explained. All interviews took between 20 to 35 minutes depending on individual students and on how long each student took to answer the questions. Students

were allowed to raise questions or given room for personal comments at any time even though the researcher tried to focus on key issues of self-esteem, academic self-image and oral skills. Interestingly, most students readily gave their responses and commentary without much persuasion. This is probably due to the reason that no such studies have been conducted before and most students were eager to express their opinions.

An interview was chosen as part of this study because as pointed out by Cohen and Manion (1994: 283), "the interviewer is able to answer questions concerning both the purpose of the interview and any misunderstandings experienced by the interviewee, for it sometimes happens in the case of the latter that the same questions have different meanings for different people;....and an interview can be conducted at an appropriate speed". However, as mentioned by Cohen and Manion, one of the problems that has to be considered when open-ended questions are used in an interview is the satisfactory method of recording replies. In order to counter this problem, they suggested that the interviewer summarise the responses in the course of the interview. The point of their suggestion is that during the interview the interviewer gives a verbal summary back to the respondents so that the latter can change or re-emphasise facts which seem to have been misunderstood. However, this may result in bias because the interviewer may unconsciously emphasise responses that agree with her/his expectations and fail to note those that do not thus shaping the respondents' utterances. Therefore, it is suggested that it is sometimes advisable for the interviewer to summarise an individual's responses at the end of the interview. The only disadvantage of using this method is that, "although this preserves the continuity of the interview, it is likely to induce greater bias because the delay may lead to the interviewer forgetting some of the details. It is these forgotten details that are most likely to be the ones that disagree with her own expectations" (ibid.: 283). To overcome this, tape recorder was used.

A further method which is also recommended by Hycner (1985) has been adopted to simplify the process of transcribing the interview tape by the researcher by writing a summary of each individual interview. Then the researcher identified general themes from all the interviews in relation to the objectives of this study (see Chapter 1). The researcher also looked for the themes common to most or all of the interviews as well for the individual variations. This is to ensure that these are themes common to all or most of the interviews and secondly to identify themes that are unique to a single interview or a minority of the interviews.

70 students were interviewed out of the original 75 students who had undergone the Speaking test (refer to Chapter 5 for the complete distributions of the original 75 students). In this informal interview, out of the 70 students involved, 54.3 per cent (38) were Malay, 28.6 per cent (20) Chinese and 17.1 per cent (12) Indian as shown in Table 6.1.0. Out of these numbers, 30 per cent (21) were females and 70 per cent (49) Males. Table 6.2.0 shows that out of 21 female students, 14.3 per cent (10) were Malays, 10 per cent (7) Chinese and 5.7 per cent (4) Indians. For the male population, 40 per cent (28) were Malays, 18.6 per cent (13) Chinese and 11.4 per cent (8) Indians. In addition, 10 lecturers, 8 Females and 2 Males, were also interviewed informally to supplement the quantitative data in this study as shown in Table 6.3.0 (refer to Chapter 5 for the complete results of the quantitative data analysis and Chapter 7 for further discussions).

All their responses and comments were analysed in terms of 7 issues which are related to the objectives of this study in order to provide additional information towards the discussion section in the next chapter (refer to Chapter 1 for the objectives of this study and Chapter 7 for further discussions on these issues).

Table 6.1.0 - Number of respondents by Ethnic group

Malay	38 54.3%
Chinese	20 28.6%
Indian	12 17.1%

N = 70

Table 6.2.0 - Number of respondents by Sex

	Female	Male
Malay	10 14.3%	28 40%
Chinese	7 10%	13 18.6%
Indian	4 5.7%	8 11.4%

N = 70

Table 6.3.0 - Number of lecturers by Sex

Female	Male
8 80%	2 20%

N = 10

The following interview questions guided the researcher in understanding the students'/lecturers' opinion and thoughts.

Questions:

*How important is self-esteem, academic self-image and oral skills in terms of sex and age?

*How important is self-esteem in relation to academic self-image?

*How important is self-esteem, academic self-image in relation to oral skills?

*Does better achievement in English at SPM level guarantee good oral skills or self-esteem?

*What is the relationship between self-esteem, academic self-image and oral skills in terms of ethnicity?

All quotes included in the next section have been summarised from the interview conducted with the 70 students and 10 lecturers to ease understanding, unless otherwise stated. This

is due to the reason that most of the interviews were conducted informally in Bahasa Malaysia or a mixture of Bahasa Malaysia and English, as requested by the interviewees.

Table 6.4.0 - Summary of the distributions of interviewees

Issue Number	Percentage of students answering questions 'Yes'	Percentage of students answering questions 'No'	Percentage of lecturers answering questions 'Yes'	Percentage of lecturers answering questions 'No'
1	7 10.0%	63 90.0%	6 60.0%	4 40.0%
2	62 88.6%	8 11.4%	8 80.0%	2 20.0%
3	6 8.6%	64 91.4%	1 10.0%	9 90.0%
4	66 94.3%	4 5.7%	10 100%	0
5	67 95.7%	3 4.3%	10 100%	0
6	6 8.6%	64 91.4%	1 10.0%	9 90.0%
7	70 100%	0	10 100%	0

Table 6.4.0 above shows the summary of the distribution of the overall percentages of the answers to all the questions asked as discussed in the following section. The 'Yes' answer in the above table means 'Yes, there is a relationship between the variables stated according to the issue' discussed in the next section, and the 'No' means 'No, there is no relationship between the variables stated according to the issue'. The break-down of the students'/lecturers' opinion/thoughts will be shown and discussed in the 7 issues as follows:

6.2.0 Issue One: Self-Esteem, Academic Self-Image and Speaking ability Versus Sex and Age.

Table 6.5.0 - Distribution of interviewees in relation to Self-Esteem, Academic Self-Image and Speaking ability Versus Sex and Age

Malay	Yes	No
Female	1 2.6%	9 23.7%
Male	5 13.2%	23 60.5%

n = 38

Chinese	Yes	No
Female	1 5.0%	6 30.0%
Male	0	13 65.0%

n = 20

Indian	Yes	No
Female		4 33.3%
Male	0	8 66.7%

n = 12

Lecturers	Yes	No
Female	4 40%	4 40%
Male	2 20%	0

n = 10

Table 6.5.0 above shows the distribution of students that answered 'Yes, there is a relationship between Self-Esteem, Academic Self-Image and Speaking ability versus Sex and Age' and 'No, there is no relationship between Self-Esteem, Academic Self-Image and Speaking ability versus Sex and Age'.

Even though many may feel that sex and age determine the nature of students' Self-Esteem, Academic Self-Image and Speaking skills, 90.0 per cent (63) of the students interviewed in this study (refer to Table 6.4.0 for the overall percentages), concluded on the basis of the evidence available to them that sex and age do not vouch any improvement in students' global Self-Esteem, Academic Self-Image and Speaking abilities. They emphasised that

sex and age would not increase or decrease their Self-Esteem level, neither were their Academic Self-Image or Speaking skills affected by Sex or Age factors. They commented on this point as follows:

We cannot say that sex or age are the prime factors in determining one's Self-esteem and Academic Self-Image. The same goes for the speaking abilities. We received basically similar exposure at the same age whether we are female or male students. Sex and age are not a block in future success. What goes inside us and how we perceive this knowledge are more important than these two factors (sex and age). Even in the classroom, either at primary, secondary or tertiary level, there is no discrimination based on sex or age. Female or male students are given equal opportunity to do well in any subjects. We have equivalent chances to speak and express our opinions. We agree that Self-Esteem, Academic Self-Image and Speaking abilities differ in individual students but they are definitely not based on Sex and Age.

On the other hand, 10.0 per cent (7) of those that disagree thought that sex plays an important role in determining one's Self-Esteem and Academic Self-Image level. They also believed that speaking abilities differ with Sex but not with Age as they indicated:

Female students have better speaking abilities. Through our observation in class, female students liked to talk more than male students especially in classroom discussions. They also tend to put forward their ideas and opinions openly. However, we believe they (female students) have low Self-Esteem and Academic Self-Image because this university (UTM) basically caters for male students. All courses are technical and not suitable for female students. Based on this, naturally they would posses low Self-Esteem and Academic Self-Image even though they possess better Speaking skills. However, Age would not affect either female or male students in Speaking skills as all students are almost similar in age when they first enter university.

60 per cent (6) lecturers interviewed in this study agreed on this point, that female students have better Speaking abilities than male students, even though according to them their Self-

Esteem and Academic Self-Image are somehow equivalent to the male students. The lecturers elaborated:

It is true that we believe that female students have better speaking skills because most students that asked questions or participated in discussions are female. Academically, a lot of female students seemed to be more interested than the male students. We believe that their global Self-Esteem and Academic Self-Image are equivalent to the male students even though they do tend to have better Speaking skills. In order to be successful in this university, they have to have high Self-Esteem and Academic Self-Image to compete with the male students. The fact that they are here at this university should prove this point.

The conclusions reached by these 6 lecturers were not been supported by 4 other lecturers interviewed (refer to Table 6.5.0). They have mixed feelings over this issue.

We have a feeling that female students have lower Self-Esteem and Academic Self-Image than male students. We don't really think that sex has anything to do with Speaking abilities. Both male and female students are given equal opportunity to speak in class, even though in most discussions that took place in our classes, male students tend to dominate. This is normal because the majority of students in classrooms are males. Therefore, based on this point, the female students may feel threatened in 'the man's world' and probably this affects their Self-Esteem and Academic Self-Image.

Generally, at this point Age is clearly indicated as not having any role towards determining students' Speaking skills, Self-Esteem and Academic Self-Image. However, Sex is believed to affect students' Speaking skills as indicated by some lecturers even though this notion is not shared by all the students interviewed. The discussion on this issue will be elaborated further in the next chapter.

6.3.0 Issue Two: Self-Esteem, Academic Self-Image, Speaking ability Versus Ethnicity.

Table 6.6.0 - Distribution of interviewees in relation to Self-Esteem, Academic Self-Image, Speaking ability versus Ethnicity

Malay	Yes	No
Female	10 26.3%	
Male	20 52.6%	8 21.1%

n = 38

Chinese	Yes	No
Female	7 35.0%	
Male	13 65.0%	

n = 20

Indian	Yes	No
Female	4 33.3%	
Male	8 66.7%	

n = 12

Lecturers	Yes	No
Female	6 60%	2 20%
Male	2 20%	0

n = 10

As indicated in the table above, students who participated in this interview gave different views, but a majority agreed that major gaps exist between the three ethnic groups in UTM in terms of Speaking abilities. That the Malays generally lack the capability to respond in English was singled out for particular attention. Evidence through the choice of language 'conversation' while conducting the interview was also noted, as essentially most Malay students (36 of them) preferred the interview to be conducted in Bahasa Malaysia the language they felt comfortable with, even though the topic was 'English' skills-while all the Indians (12) and Chinese (20) preferred the interview to be conducted in English. 88.6 per cent of them (refer to Table 6.4.0) agreed that there is a relationship between speaking and ethnicity. Table 6.6.0 above also shows similar results for speaking abilities. However,

the table only indicates the results of 'Yes, there is a relationship between Speaking and Ethnicity' and 'No, there is no relationship between Speaking and Ethnicity' because not all the students associate Self-Esteem and Academic Self-Image with Ethnicity. To quote from one group of Indian students:

Outside the classroom environment, we normally converse in English. We sometimes use Bahasa Malaysia to communicate with other students, for example the Malays, but we feel more comfortable using English with the Chinese. Basically, at home we use English as our medium of communication.

All the Chinese students interviewed in this study (20) also agreed that there is a relationship between Speaking and Ethnicity. They asserted that, if they are communicating with the Malay students they do tend to speak in Bahasa Malaysia. Only when they are communicating with the Indians they communicate more in English. As they reported:

With the Malay students we use Bahasa Malaysia, with the Indians we communicate in English because it's easier to speak in English with the Indian students. They cannot communicate with us in Mandarin nor can we communicate with them in Tamil. At the same time, we sometimes use English at home and outside campus. Of course we are more comfortable with English, unfortunately, most lectures are in Bahasa Malaysia, so we still have to use the language, especially when asking questions in tutorials or lectures. Most lecturers refuse to entertain our questions if we ask in English.

While 78.9 per cent, or a majority, of the Malay students stated:

Even though in our daily communication and conversation we do use Bahasa Malaysia a lot, our Self-Esteem and Academic Self-Image are equivalent to other races. In university we are given another chance to do well, irrespective of our poor results, especially our English SPM. However, we do admit that our speaking skills are not as good as other groups of students (Indian and Chinese) because the environment to practise the language is

lacking. The only time we use, or are given the chance to use, the language is in English classroom. Other than that, there are no other classes that use the language. Our family don' t use English at home and there is no other means of using the language. Therefore, we are more comfortable using Bahasa Malaysia.

However, interestingly enough, all three ethnic groups do not associate Self-Esteem and Academic Self-Image with ethnicity. Rather, all students interviewed expressed their concern about their own capability of raising positive Self-Esteem and Academic Self-Image in themselves. As 88.6 per cent of the students indicated:

It would seem to be most important to individual students to build or enhance his or her own capacity to generate positive self-esteem or academic self-image. We cannot say one minute that the Indian students have higher self-esteem and the next minute, the Chinese have higher self-esteem. The same goes for the academic self-image-it depends on individual student. Our lack of positive or negative self-esteem or academic self-image are our own major problem. It is not a 'group or ethnicity' problem. Therefore, we do not actually believe that ethnicity has direct contribution to students' global Self-Esteem and Academic Self-Image.

However, 21.1 per cent, or one group of Malay students, mentioned that they felt threatened if the majority of students in the lectures or classroom comprised of Indian and Chinese students. As they put it:

Most Indian or Chinese students that are accepted in this university (UTM) are academically good students that did well in science subjects at Secondary level. They were accepted because of their academic results. Even though we Malays were also accepted because of our academic results, our results were not as good as theirs. Therefore, its natural that these students are expected to do well at this level. For example, if in the Mathematics classroom they get high scores, automatically the curve for that particular test will be higher (the passing level). We sometimes feel silently 'threatened' and uncomfortable with this situation. On the other hand, we cannot deny that this should motivate us to study harder if not better than them.

It was also pointed out by 80 per cent of the lecturers interviewed that ethnicity plays a significant part in determining students' Self-Esteem, Academic Self-Image and Speaking skills. In their words:

Ethnicity may appear to give us a general indication of which group of students possesses high or low Self-Esteem, Academic Self-Image and Speaking skills. An endless array of successful or top students in UTM over the years basically determine our bias. Over these periods of time, either Indian or Chinese students managed to top the class and Malays are always left behind.

It is noted that lecturers depend substantially on their sense of 'teaching experience' over this decision. Furthermore, the same group of lecturers in this interview asserted that a majority of Malays are weak and unassertive in their academic subjects. As they pointed out:

Most Malay students are passive in class. They tend to depend on other students (Indian/Chinese) to raise questions or related issues during discussions. They are not assertive in their studies. On the other hand, other students (Indian/Chinese) are eager to learn. They make an effort to ask questions or see the appropriate lecturers for clarification on unclear issues. Based on this, we definitely think that ethnicity does play a significant role in deciding one's self-esteem, academic self-image and speaking skills.

As they further elaborated:

Generally, most Indian and Chinese students also have better communication skills compared to the Malays. They (the Indian and the Chinese) tend to converse or ask questions with us basically in English. Probably these groups of students use the language more frequently than the Malays to acquire such good skills. We are not underestimating the Malay students but the fact is most of them are weak in English. They are certainly lacking the skills possessed by other races even though we do not know for certain the answer to that. One reason could

be that Malay students do mix and talk only among themselves which may contribute to this weakness besides being unsociable with the other groups.

The other 20 per cent of lecturers interviewed who disagreed with this notion mentioned that ethnicity does not influence students' Self-Esteem, Academic Self-Image and Speaking abilities. They mentioned that:

Self-Esteem, Academic Self-Image and Speaking abilities depend greatly on the environment and peer groups.

Even though at this stage the opinion of the students reveals that there is a relationship between Speaking and Ethnicity and the majority of these lecturers appears to have indicated that ethnicity does influence students' global Self-Esteem, Academic Self-Image or Speaking skills and of serious concern of this study, further discussion on this issue will be elaborated in the next chapter.

6.4.0 Issue Three: Self-Esteem and Academic Self-Image Versus English SPM scores.

Table 6.7.0 - Distribution of interviewees in relation to Self-Esteem and Academic Self-Image versus English SPM scores

Malay	Yes	No
Female	1 2.6%	9 23.7%
Male	3 7.9%	25 65.8%

n = 38

Chinese	Yes	No
Female	1 5.0%	6 30.0%
Male	0	13 65.0%

n = 20

Indian	Yes	No
Female		4 33.3%
Male	1 8.4%	7 58.3%

n = 12

Lecturers	Yes	No
Female	1 10%	7 70.0%
Male	0	2 20.0%

n = 10

Table 6.4.0 and 6.7.0 show that 91.4 per cent or the great majority of the students in this interview felt that there is no relationship between their Self-Esteem and Academic Self-Image with their English SPM results. On the other hand, 8.6 per cent thought that English SPM results contribute to their Self-Esteem and Academic Self-Image. It was deduced through the interview that students' global Self-Esteem and Academic Self-image are not related to English SPM results. However, issues relating only to Self-Esteem and Academic Self-Image at university level arose and became the major concern among these students. As the group of students who said 'no' pointed out:

English SPM results at the present time do not enhance students global Self-Esteem or Academic Self-Image at university level. Those results are only used as entrance requirements. It has nothing to do with our global Self-Esteem or our Academic Self-Image now. In fact, English SPM results are only used to stream us only in English classes. However, our Self-Esteem and Academic Self-Image do not depend on those results. Other factors like doing well in other academic subjects here in UTM may affect our positive or negative Self-Esteem and Academic Self-Image but definitely not English SPM results. These subjects have more influenced our Self-Esteem and Academic Self-Image. However, English SPM results do affect our Self-Esteem in English classes. Our Self-Esteem tends to complement our English SPM results in these classes. Whether this is good or bad, it just comes naturally because in these classes we have to use our communication skills (in English) a lot.

At the same time, 90 per cent of the lecturers interviewed agreed on this point. To quote from them:

At this level we don't think English SPM results have any contribution to students' global Self-Esteem or Academic Self-Image. It is not a major factor to affect students' Self-Esteem or Academic Self-Image. Rather, other subjects like Mathematics or science subjects may contribute to their Academic Self-Image. At this level, the answer to this critical issue of Self-Esteem or Academic Self-Image may probably lie with their academic success in UTM. If they do not do well in certain subjects than it will probably affect their Self-Esteem and Academic Self-Image. The English SPM result is only a stepping stone to them. This result is only needed for university entrance requirements. However, having good results in English is not compulsory to be accepted, even though certain courses like Architecture highlighted students having good English SPM results before being accepted. On the other hand, we do agree that their Self-Esteem and Academic Self-Image in English classes might be affected by this result English SPM results because in these classes English is used as a medium of instruction.

At this stage, it can be concluded that students' Self-Esteem and Academic Self-Image are not perceived to be affected by English SPM results as indicated by the above discussions.

6.5.0 Issue Four: Speaking ability Versus English SPM scores.

Table 6.8.0 - Distribution of interviewees in relation to Speaking ability versus English SPM scores

Malay	Yes	No
Female	8 21.1%	2 5.3%
Male	27 71.0%	1 2.6%

n = 38

Chinese	Yes	No
Female	7 35.0%	0
Male	12 60.0%	1 5.0%

n = 20

Indian	Yes	No
Female	4 33.3%	0
Male	8 66.7%	0

n = 12

Lecturers	Yes	No
Female	8 80.0%	0
Male	2 20.0%	

n = 10

The results from the table above indicate that practically 94.3 per cent of the students interviewed agreed that their English SPM results do reflect their speaking abilities but only towards English. Only 5.7 per cent indicate that there is no relationship between Speaking and English SPM results. Those that said there is a relationship between Speaking and English SPM results mentioned that having good English SPM results helps to boost their confidence towards using the language but it is definitely not a token to be a successful communicator. In fact, the issue relating this to career opportunities and advancement figured very prominently during the discussion. As they said:

Having good English SPM results help to boost our confidence level because it is easier to get a job after leaving university. Most companies are looking for candidates that have good English results either at SPM (Secondary) or university level. These companies stressed good oral skills in English. Indirectly having good English SPM results gives us confidence to do well in English lessons at university level. However, associating English SPM results with Speaking skills is somehow questionable. It depends totally on individual student and how he or she thinks this will help them in speaking.

As the group of Indian students mentioned:

Even though we have good English results, we do not think we are really good at communicating in English. The English SPM result is not a direct indicator of showing our Speaking skills. However, we do believe that having good knowledge in English does contribute to the good results.

All the lecturers interviewed agreed with this issue, that there is a relationship between Speaking and students English SPM results. As stated by the lecturers interviewed:

Basically it is believed by many that having good English SPM results means having good speaking skills especially in English. However, this is just a general assumption that most of us have. This is not a clear cut point to say that this assumption is true.

Generally, it is assumed by the students and lecturers interviewed that English SPM results have indirect implications towards speaking skills in English. Further discussion in Chapter 7 will examine this issue to come to some conclusions in this study.

6.6.0 Issue Five: Self-Esteem Versus Academic Self-Image.

Table 6.9.0 -Distribution of interviewees in relation to Self-Esteem versus Academic Self-Image

Malay	Yes	No
Female	8 21.1%	2 5.3%
Male	28 73.7%	0

n = 38

Chinese	Yes	No
Female	7 35.0%	0
Male	12 60.0%	1 5.0%

n = 20

Indian	Yes	No
Female	4 33.3%	0
Male	8 66.7%	0

n = 12

Lecturers	Yes	No
Female	8 80.0%	0
Male	2 20.0%	

n = 10

The advantage of having high Self-Esteem and Academic Self-Image has been highlighted by many educators (see Chapter 3). In the interviews, the students concluded that to do well at tertiary level they have to have high and positive Self-Esteem and Academic Self-Image to stay in the competition. As shown in Table 6.9.0, only a small number of students, 4.3 per cent indicated that there is 'no' relationship between Self-Esteem and Academic Self-Image. The students who said 'yes' in this study pointed out:

To have high self-esteem is almost the same as having high Academic Self-Image. In fact, our global Self-Esteem is affected indirectly by our Academic Self-Image. For example, if academically we do not do well at UTM than

automatically our Self-Esteem is also affected. Therefore, our academic performance or in other words Academic Self-Image contributes to our global Self-Esteem.

In addition, all the lecturers in this interview as shown in the Table 6.9.0, support the conclusion reached by these students that aspects of academic performance may cause many students to have different Self-Esteem levels.

These issues of Self-Esteem and Academic Self-Image are closely related. One cannot do without the other especially at tertiary level. In most cases, academic performance is the determiner of one's Self-Esteem. The ups and downs of students' Self-Esteem is basically because of their academic performance. If they failed or did not do well in certain subjects, their Academic Self-Image would probably suffer and indirectly this would also affect their Self-Esteem level because both are closely related.

It can be generalised at this point of study that students' and lecturers' perceptions are that it would seem important for most students to have positive Self-Esteem and Academic Self-Image at tertiary level. In the next chapter, elaboration on this issue will be provided.

6.7.0 Issue Six: Self-Esteem, Academic Self-Image Versus Speaking ability.

Table 6.10.0 - Distribution of interviewees in relation to Self-Esteem, Academic Self-Image versus Speaking ability

Malay	Yes	No
Female	1 2.6%	9 23.7%
Male	3 7.9%	25 65.8%

n = 38

Chinese	Yes	No
Female		7 35.0%
Male	2 10.0%	11 55.0%

n = 20

Indian	Yes	No
Female		4 33.3%
Male		8 66.7%

n = 12

Lecturers	Yes	No
Female	1 10.0%	7 70.0%
Male		2 20%

n = 10

8.6 per cent of the total of 70 students indicated that there is a relationship between Self-Esteem and Academic Self-Image with Speaking (refer to Table 6.4.0 for overall results). On the other hand, 91.4 per cent students interviewed in this study are of the opinion that Self-Esteem and Academic Self-Image do not contribute to speaking skills. As they elaborated on this point:

There is no connection between Self-Esteem or Academic Self-Image with Speaking skills. Those having high Self-Esteem or Academic Self-Image do not necessarily have good speaking skills because those who have good Speaking skills do not necessarily have high Self-Esteem or Academic Self-Image. The most important thing is

having high Self-Esteem helps to develop confidence in speaking and having high Academic Self-Image helps build confidence in academic work.

This view is shared by 90 per cent of the lecturers interviewed. As these group of lecturers emphasised:

Students' Self-Esteem and Academic Self-Image varies according to time and situation. They may have high Self-Esteem but possess poor communication skills and they may have low Academic Self-Image but may be a good communicator. It depends on individual students and how each student makes use of their Self-Esteem, Academic Self-Image and Speaking skills. However, practically, there is no direct relationship between Self-Esteem, Academic Self-Image and Speaking skills.

It is stated at this point that there is no relationship between Self-Esteem, Academic Self-Image and Speaking skills, as discussed by majority of the students and lecturers interviewed in this study. Further discussion on this issue will be provided in the next chapter.

6.8.0 Issue Seven: The role of English.

Table 6.11.0 - Distribution of interviewees in relation to the role of English

Malay	Yes	No
Female	10 26.3%	
Male	28 73.7%	

n = 38

Chinese	Yes	No
Female	7 35.0%	
Male	13 65.0%	

n = 20

Indian	Yes	No
Female	4 33.3%	
Male	8 66.7%	

n = 12

Lecturers	Yes	No
Female	8 80.0%	
Male	2 20.0%	

n = 10

Table 6.11.0 shows that all students and lecturers interviewed in this study expressed their agreement on the importance role of English in Malaysia. Most of the students interviewed concluded that the diminished stress on the usage of English at tertiary level has come to characterise their lack of interest. They indicated that the educational reform movement, when Bahasa Malaysia has been used at higher institution starting from 1982 (refer to Chapter 2 for the literature), has contributed indirectly to their lack of motivation, thereby distracting them of the importance of English language and the direct implication it has on their future work.

In particular, the increased used of Bahasa Malaysia that has occurred at university level between university authorities, lecturers and students have indirectly questioned the

integrity and importance of English language. A few of the Malay students illustrated their concern on this point in the following way:

The university authority and lecturers used Bahasa Malaysia more frequently than English. Except for English lecturers most lecturers use Bahasa Malaysia in their tutorials or lessons. Moreover, the university authorities use Bahasa Malaysia when addressing the students in basically all university functions. How are we going to improve our English? We are not given the chance to use the language elsewhere.

Serious concern was also expressed in the light of the country's recent industrial initiative to specify the elements of effective usage of English at workplace especially among university graduates. As indicated by 66.7 per cent of the Indian students:

The Education policy on the requirement to use Bahasa Malaysia seems to reduce teaching in English to the minimum. This is not encouraging especially for those students who believe they have the tendency to improve the language and at the same time are capable of doing well in the future. The environment for the students to practise the language does not exist.

Generally all students interviewed were satisfied with the English syllabus provided, conducted and used at UTM. However, most of them requested that more time should be allocated to discussions or presentation as that would give them more oral practice. As one group of Malay students mentioned:

We enjoyed our English classes and the syllabus used. Basically, English is the only class where we can practise the language. Other classes are more towards lectures and tutorials. Therefore, we don't really get the chance to speak.

At this stage of the study, basically all the students believe that the usage of English has not been encouraged 'in the true sense' because the importance of the English language has not practically been given its due role by the university authorities and lecturers in general. Generally, all the lecturers interviewed, on the other hand, stressed the importance of the language especially for future success. They stated that:

The market for students who possess good communication skills has certainly risen especially with Malaysia moving towards an industrial nation that needs future generations who can communicate well and possess high Self-Esteem to upgrade the development of the country. English is now required almost everywhere especially at international level. It is an asset if we are capable to communicate well in English at the workplace and for job promotion. Even though most lecturers are not allowed to use English as a means of instruction at higher institution according to the University Act, the environment around us to practise the language still exists for all of us. For example between colleagues and friends. Furthermore, a lot of radio and television programs are in English. In fact, staying so close to Singapore gives us another advantage compared to other states because basically all the programs that are channelled here (UTM is located close to Singapore) are in English. The only question that arises is; how do these students take advantage of this situation?

Practically all the lecturers interviewed were in agreement that students do not know how to make full use of the facilities available. The 'spoon feeding' ideology still exists in many students' minds and this notion has to be erased, they thought. They stated that at tertiary level, students have to start being independent, which is still lacking in many students. As 20 per cent of them mentioned:

The problem with these students at UTM is, most of them are not independent. They still depend a lot on the lecturers. Basically we provide them with every thing from references to tips on examinations. They have to start learning to be independent and accept the fact that growing up is also part of the education.

6.9.0 Conclusion

This chapter focuses on the interview analysis of the students and lecturers in UTM after the collection of data in the main study. Eight issues were summarised from the interview and as the discussion was presented, it would appear from the interviews that age does not play any role in determining students' Self-Esteem, Academic Self-Image and Speaking skills. However, mixed opinions were generated where the sex factor is concerned. Students interviewed felt that sex has no contribution to their Self-Esteem, Academic Self-Image and Speaking skills, whereas the conclusion given by the lecturers interviewed showed that they have different opinions from the students. Regardless of this, both of them agreed that Self-Esteem and Academic Self-Image are closely related. The interviews reveal that the students believed there is a close relationship between Speaking skills with Ethnicity but not with Self-Esteem and Academic Self-Image. The majority of both the students and lecturers believed that Ethnicity contributes to students' Self-Esteem and Academic Self-Image and Speaking skills. Even though the English SPM results are predicted to have a close relationship with Speaking skills, in the interview, the majority of the students and lecturers were of the opinion that there is no relationship between Self-Esteem and Academic Self-Image with English SPM results. At this point, all the results of the interview were presented to throw some lights for the next discussion in Chapter 7. Further discussions on these Eight issues will be provided in the next chapter.

Chapter 7: Discussion, Implications, Limitations and Conclusions.

This final chapter is divided into four main sections. The first and second sections discuss the results of the empirical work of the previous chapters and also the limitations of this study. The third section outlines the implications of the study and gives recommendations for further research and policy development. Finally, the fourth section will conclude the whole study.

The purpose of this study was to investigate the nature of the self-esteem, academic self-image and speaking abilities of Universiti Teknologi Malaysia (UTM) first year students, and the relationships between self-esteem, academic self-image, speaking and the independent variables of sex, age, ethnicity and English SPM scores. To do this, eight research questions were formulated (see Chapter 1) and data were collected to consider these questions (see Chapter 4). This chapter discusses the answers to these questions which have been found in the analysis of quantitative data (Chapter 5) and qualitative data (Chapter 6).

There were 164 male and 48 female subjects involved in this study. All of the subjects were in their first year at UTM. The instruments used after pilot testing (see Chapter 4), were the short version of the Coopersmith Self-Esteem inventory - 1967 (Bahasa Malaysia and English version), the Barker-Lunn Academic Self-Image - 1970 (Bahasa Malaysia and English version), the ARELS Oral Examination and a questionnaire developed by the researcher to obtain information about the subjects' educational background. A number of statistical analyses were employed to analyse the data gathered in the research (see Chapters 4 and 5). They included descriptive statistics, the Pearson product-moment correlations, t-tests, one-way analysis of variance and stepwise multiple regressions.

The findings of this study are grouped in the following two sections for discussion in this chapter.

I. The relationships between Self-Esteem, Academic Self-Image, Speaking and the independent variables.

II. The nature of the Self-Esteem, Academic Self-Image and Speaking abilities of UTM students.

7.1 Summary

Analysis of the data led to the following results, which are in accordance with the objectives of the study (see Chapter 1). The main findings obtained were:

1) Self-Esteem is significantly correlated with Academic Self-Image.

2) Self-Esteem is moderately related to English SPM scores.

3) Self-Esteem is not associated with Age, Sex or Ethnicity, which therefore become poor predictors.

4) Self-Esteem is not found to be significantly related to Speaking skills. After analysis no significant relationships was found between the two variables.

5) Academic Self-Image is found to be strongly connected to Ethnicity but not related to Age, Sex and English SPM scores. The highest achievers are found to be generally of the Indian ethnic group.

6) Academic Self-Image is found not to be significantly related to Speaking skills. Again no significant relationships are found between the two variables.

7) There is no Sex and Age difference in Speaking skills

8) There is a definite relationship between Speaking and English SPM scores. Students with good English SPM scores are better speakers than students with poor English SPM scores.

9) Levels of Speaking skills are significantly associated with ethnicity.

10) Sex is not associated with Self-Esteem, Academic Self-Image and Speaking skills.

11) Age is found to be non-significant in all dependent variables.

In summary, the finding indicates that Self-Esteem is derived primarily from English SPM results, and that for most students, Self-Esteem is associated with their Academic Self-Image. In addition, the findings show that Academic Self-Image is highly related to Ethnicity but not to other variables. The outcome of the research also indicates that there is a positive relationship between Ethnicity and English SPM results with Speaking ability.

Section I

7.2.1 - Relationships between Self-Esteem and the Independent Variables: Sex, Age, Ethnicity, English SPM scores and Academic Self-Image.

The main objective was to ascertain the relationships between Self-Esteem and the independent variables selected for this study. This study comprised several stages. Firstly, the results of the whole sample were subjected to correlational analysis. Secondly, the mean average scores were compared using either a T-test or a one-way analysis of variance. Thirdly, a Stepwise Multiple Regression was conducted. The findings of this analysis will be discussed under the following separate sections:

I. Self-Esteem and Sex

II Self-Esteem and Age

III Self-Esteem and Ethnicity

IV Self-Esteem and English SPM scores

V Self-Esteem and Academic Self-Image

7.2.2 Self-Esteem and Sex

Based on the correlational analysis of Chapter 5 (see Table 5.5.0), the data sets show that **no** significant difference between Male and Female students exists, i.e.. both sexes have equivalent global self-esteem. Even though the T-test conducted using sex as the independent variable shows that there is a slight difference between the mean of males and females in terms of their self-esteem (see Table 5.3.13), this result is not confirmed by the findings of either the correlation analysis (see Table 5.5.0) or stepwise multiple regression (see Table 5.6.2), even when using all of the independent variables as predictors.

The stepwise multiple regressions showed that English SPM scores are the most significant predictor for global Self-Esteem (see Table 5.6.2). As for other factors, the regression indicated sex and ethnicity as poor predictors of self-esteem. From this, it can be concluded that there is no significant relationship between male and female students in UTM in terms of their global self-esteem. This can be attributable to both groups being similar in terms of their academic requirements and having similar opportunities when entering university. This similarity apparently runs counter to social norms in developing countries which generally differentiate between male and female roles.

In Malaysia, while males are encouraged to be independent and confident, females are expected to be passive, soft-spoken and dependent. In addition, there is strong pressure to have males and females behave according to their respective sex roles (Yong, 1994). By the time Malaysian children enter pre-school at the age of five or six, they usually have some idea of their sex role. These roles are reinforced through primary and secondary school years (see Sections 2.5.1 - 2.5.4). For example, the roles include the acceptance of female behaviour being regulated frequently. In addition, in many Malaysian homes females are expected to accept their future roles of being a housewife and mother as more important than the pursuit of an academic or professional career. By adolescence, these

respective gender roles have become reinforced and may be clearly reflected in their personality. In most instances, even the most confident of females have been encouraged to be passive and dependent on males at this stage.

As reported by Rohana (1994), women perform most of the housework, like food preparation, laundry, child rearing and taking care of extended families. They do more work in the private domain when compared to their male counterparts. A recent study has shown that women workers spend more than six hours a day doing housework while male workers barely spend one hour per day on it. As further elaborated by Shanti (1995) male dominance underlies the educational systems and practices in Malaysia where men are in a position of authority and command leadership.

This, however, is slowly changing as indicated in this study. Gender does not determine the level of self-esteem in male and females students at UTM. Even though UTM clearly has more male students, as most male students study traditionally male subjects such as Engineering, those female students who are accepted perhaps have high Self-Esteem. It appears that as an important 'minority' they need to be confident about their university potential to succeed in a 'male-dominated' world because they are a self-selected confident group on entry to the university (see Table 1 in Appendix 2 for the distribution of students' in UTM and Table 2.5.0 in Chapter 2 for the distribution of male and female students in Malaysia). Even though many assumptions have been made suggesting that females have lower self-esteem and achievement than males, (particularly by the 4 lecturers interviewed in this study, refer to Chapter 6 for interview details), it is concluded that in this study, there is no sex difference in terms of self-esteem.

7.2.3 Self-Esteem and Age

The results show that age is not significantly correlated to self-esteem (see Section 5.4.0 and Table 5.4.0). Findings from the T-test comparisons between the mean scores of the Junior and Senior age groups in terms of their Self-Esteem reveal that age **does not** have a significant effect on any of the variables (see Table 5.3.15). In other words, in the UTM context, age has no effect on students' self-esteem. This finding is contrary to the assumption in UTM that older students are at an advantage with respect to their self-esteem (see Section 6.2.0 Issue Two). Furthermore, it is perhaps too much too expect from only one or two year's difference of age to generate different results in the Junior and Senior age groups because the Seniors are not really much older. Unlike the current situation in British universities, older 'mature' undergraduates are not at all common in Malaysia.

Another possible explanation for the lack of difference between age groups is that, in the Malaysian context, most students, irrespective of their age, are given equal opportunity for education both before and when entering university (Sections 2.5.1 - 2.5.5 in Chapter 2 give full details of the education system in Malaysia). Moreover, age is not a barrier to gaining knowledge, contrary to studies showing age as an integral component of first and second language acquisition. This evidence is most prolific before the beginning of adolescence (Lenneberg 1967; Krashen 1973; Singleton 1989). Authors suggest that after adolescence, it is much more difficult for students to learn, especially in the phonological area with variations in speed and levels of learning. The results obtained in this study concluded that there are no significant differences in Self-Esteem between the Junior and Senior age groups. The results show that Senior respondents do not necessarily have higher Self-Esteem. These results clearly indicate that age does not play a significant role in determining the level of self-esteem.

7.2.4 Self-Esteem and Ethnicity

No relationship is observable between global Self-Esteem and ethnicity as they are not significantly correlated in a one way analysis of variance (see Tables 5.5.0 and 5.3.17). This result was confirmed by the stepwise multiple regression analysis where ethnicity is again found **not** to be a significant predictor in the regression equations for self-esteem (see Table 5.6.2).

These results suggest that, in the UTM context, ethnicity has no effect on the self-esteem of first year students. Contrary to the general belief that some ethnic groups have higher self-esteem levels, the evidence of this study does not support this notion (see Chapter 6 Issue Three). One possible explanation for this lack of correlation could be the nature of Malaysian society. The usual aspiration of the majority of parents, irrespective of their ethnic group, is that their children should perform well in public examinations. In other words, the ultimate goal appears to be the ability to qualify for a limited number of places in an institute of higher learning (refer to Sections 2.5.5 and 2.5.7 in Chapter 2). In the context of this study, it is not necessarily the parents of certain ethnic groups only who will provide encouragement boosting their children's self-esteem, but rather <u>all</u> parents. As Honess and Yardley (1987), Lawrence (1987) and Roberts (1995) believe, a child's early experiences may continue to influence his or her behaviour and normally he or she will come to accept an ideal image from those around them especially parents and teachers.

Curry and Johnson (1990: 27-28) believe that we make sense of how we see ourselves by behaving 'in character'. "When a person does something that seems out of character, the reason may be that the person sees himself or herself differently from the way the rest of us do. Our knowledge and perception of other people is based on the evidence of what they do, what they say and how they look. Our self-concept is based on evidence, too, but how we see this is affected by the mirror process of how others see us. It is also affected by our

ideas of what we could do if we chose - what we can imagine ourselves doing". Despite Curry and Johnson's belief, however, this study's findings indicate that the opposite is true. The self-esteem of the students in this study is not perceptibly dependent on their knowledge or perception of other people, but on how they perceive themselves.

In the data from the interview conducted with 10 lecturers at UTM, 8 feel that ethnicity plays a role in determining students' global Self-Esteem. Most high scoring students at UTM are either Indian or Chinese, with Malays lagging far behind (see Chapter 6 Issue Three). Because of this it has been assumed that Malay students have lower self-esteem. However, the data from the interview conducted with students clearly shows that a majority believe that their Self-Esteem is not associated with their ethnicity but rather with motivation. These students further believe that Self-Esteem is not a 'group or ethnicity' problem. This is despite some students feeling threatened and therefore have lower self-esteem, if the majority of students consist of one particular ethnic group (refer to Chapter 6 Issue Two).

Spaulding and Shuib (1989) state that the direct effects of the New Economic Policy in Malaysia have made Malay leaders worried that their own ethnic group is becoming increasingly complacent and possibly creating a dependent rather than an independent culture. This notion indirectly implies that Malay students will generally have lower Self-Esteem as a direct effect of the New Economic Policy (see Section 2.6.0). As mentioned in Chapter 2, the purpose of the Barnes, Fenn-Wu, Razak and Rahman Talib reports was to monitor the development of all ethnic groups especially the Malays who were believed to be far behind other ethnic groups (see Sections 2.4.1 - 2.4.4). As further described by Lebar (1993), Malays are 'naturally' humble people and this leads to loss of motivation, loss of discipline and higher rates of poverty. In turn, this is believed to lead to the assumption that this particular ethnic group has low Self-Esteem. The findings of this study however,

do not support this assumption and indicate quite clearly that the students' self-esteem level is unrelated to their ethnic group.

7.2.5 Self-Esteem and English SPM scores

The results of the correlation analysis (see Table 5.5.0) and one-way analysis of variance (see Table 5.3.19) between Self-Esteem and English SPM scores shows that there **is** a significant difference between the three groups in terms of self-esteem level; the Good, Average and Poor groups (see Section 4.4.0). The results show that respondents who are both in the Good and Average groups have higher self-esteem than respondents in the Poor group (see Table 5.3.19). This finding shows that the higher the English SPM results, the higher the self-esteem is for the students. When the multiple regression analysis using self-esteem as a dependent variable and English SPM scores, together with the other independent variables as predictors, was conducted (see Table 5.6.2), the results produced show that English SPM scores account for about 4 percent of total variance in Self-Esteem.

The inconclusive relationship between Self-Esteem and English SPM scores of the UTM students in this study (see Table 5.3.19 and Section 6.4.0 Issue Three) suggests that students who have Good English SPM scores, not surprisingly, perceive themselves as confident and successful. Furthermore, the self-perception of students with high self-esteem about their own confidence level are felt to be positive and realistic. This result confirms Roger's (1961) idea that self-concept refers to the way a person sees themself: "the percepts and concepts of self in relation to others and to the environment; the value qualities which are perceived as associated with experiences and objects, and goals and ideals which are perceived as having positive or negative valence (p.136)". The importance of a realistic and healthy self concept has been stressed by many educational psychologists such as Freud (1937), Hayakawa (1963) and Becker (1971). UTM first year students with Good English SPM scores are hence satisfied with their image of themselves and can be

said to possess a high level of Self-Esteem. Similarly, these findings can also suggest that students who have poor English SPM scores may have a relatively low level of Self-Esteem. In other words, they tend to perceive themselves as non-confident and unsuccessful. The implications of this finding will be discussed in Sections 7.7.0 - 7.7.2.

7.2.6 Self-Esteem and Academic Self-Image

The results of the correlational analysis in this study show Self-Esteem levels of UTM first year students **are** significantly related to their Academic Self-Image (see Table 5.5.0). There is, additionally, a degree of relatedness between Self-Esteem and Academic Self-Image. For example, it appears that students with high Self-Esteem tend to have a correspondingly high Academic Self-Image; and generally it is important that students have a successful image of themselves. This finding is consistent with statements by Borba and Borba (1982) and Cowie and Pecherek (1994) who find that positive and successful experiences help to form a positive self-image in an individual. Cowie and Pecherek (1994:72) state that "if the person's beliefs about self are positive then self-esteem will be high. A person with high self-esteem can accept that they have strengths and failings because they have a fundamental belief in their own self-worth. High self-esteem is important because it provides a secure base for learning and social development. It facilitates risk-taking, which is necessary to learn new skills and deal with situations and relationships".

The finding is also consistent with the results of the interviews conducted in this study with the 70 first year UTM students. Of these students, 95.7 per cent felt that their Self-Esteem is affected indirectly by their Academic Self-Image (see Section 6.6.0, Issue Five). Their Self-Esteem does tend to fluctuate, however, after some time, even if they begin by having high Self-Esteem. This also tends to correspond with their academic achievement. For example, if they feel they are doing well academically their Self-Esteem rises, or lowers

when they feel they are not doing so well. However, this fluctuation, in practice, depends purely on the grades of their most recent assignment or exam. Roberts (1995:13) for example states that, "it appears that the development of behaviour and the development of self-concept are inter-dependent, and that in thinking about the development of one, we also need to think about the development of the other. Self-concept profoundly influences behaviour everywhere - in families, in schools, in our world. What could matter more?"

It can be concluded from this finding that Self-Esteem is associated with Academic Self-Image. This finding suggests that students who have high Self-Esteem tend also to have a high Academic Self-Image, and those with negative Self-Esteem have a low Academic Self-Image.

7.3.1 - Relationships between Academic Self-Image and the Independent Variables: Sex, Age, Ethnicity and English SPM scores.

To ascertain the relationships between Academic Self-Image and the independent variables selected for this study, a correlational analysis was conducted followed by a T-test and a one-way analysis of variance to find the significant difference by mean average. A Stepwise Multiple Regression was then carried out. The results of this analysis will be discussed under the following headings:

I Academic Self-Image and Sex

II Academic Self-Image and Age

III Academic Self-Image and Ethnicity

IV Academic Self-Image and English SPM scores

7.3.2 Academic Self-Image and Sex

Results from this study indicate that Sex **is not** correlated to Academic Self-Image (see Table 5.5.0). When the mean scores of the two groups were compared with that of the Academic Self-Image using a T-test analysis, the results show that there is no significant difference between the Male and Female groups (see Table 5.3.21). Even when Stepwise Multiple Regression analysis was conducted gender differences appeared to be a poor predictor of Academic Self-Image (see Table 5.6.1).

The lack of correlation between Sex and Academic Self-Image is contrary to popular assumption that male students have a more developed Academic Self-Image in comparison to female students; especially when it is recalled that most of the courses are male oriented (see Chapter 6). Males in the overwhelming majority can be seen in courses such as Engineering, where males dominated the total classroom population (refer to Table 1 in Appendix 2). This is probably due to the reason that UTM clearly has more male students because of the technology focus. However, female students who are admitted to UTM appear to have equivalent Academic Self-Image to male students. It seems that being in a 'minority', females need confidence in their academic performance in order to compete with the 'male-dominated' world at UTM. Furthermore, being selected for UTM proves they have enough confidence for academic achievement (see Table A in Appendix 1).

The results of this study indicate that males and females have the same expectations in achievement irrespective of gender differences. Additionally, both sexes are similar in overall age difference and do not threaten each other (refer to Sections 2.5.1 - 2.5.5 in Chapter 2). This notion is supported in the data from the interviews (see Chapter 6 Issue One). For example, 90.0 per cent of those students interviewed indicate they do not feel the urge to compete. In fact, most females interviewed felt that they already have a high

Academic Self-Image. This was necessary to make an impact and be successful in their careers despite their gender difference (see Chapter 6).

Even though the quota system is practised in tertiary institutions in Malaysia with non-indigenous cultural populations, equal opportunities are given to male and female students when entering university (refer to Sections 2.5.5 and 4.4.0). No discrimination is practised officially where gender is concerned (at least overtly - possible covert discrimination may be another matter, and this is outside the scope of the present study). In fact, there are clear official policies to develop women's opportunities and roles. Even though there is no immediate attention given to action-plans empowering female students, the Sixth Malaysian Plan (1991) emphasises the future development of women in Malaysia and stresses an intake of female students in vocational and technical education (see Table 2.5.0). This increase is hoped to create a greater involvement in higher skilled and better paid jobs for women. From this finding, it is concluded that there is no statistically significant observable discrepancy between females and males at UTM with respect to Academic Self-Image.

7.3.3 Academic Self-Image and Age

Data analyses show (see correlation analysis Table 5.5.0, t-test table 5.3.23 and stepwise multiple regression Table 5.6.1) that there is **no** difference between the Junior and Senior age groups in terms of their Academic Self-Image. The results indicate that the two groups do not differ in their performance in Academic Self Image as a whole. This is confirmed with the interview conducted with the students. 63 of them concluded through the interview that Age does not have an effect on their Academic Self-Image (refer to Section 6.2.0 Issue Two). This finding is contrary to a general belief at UTM that mature students have higher Academic Self-Images. The lack of difference is probably due to the fact that

there is only one or two years age difference between the two groups. This age span is not sufficient to expect a significant difference in their Academic Self-Image.

Another possible explanation for the lack of difference in age groups is that both age groups are similar in terms of academic qualification when entering university. Therefore, despite their slight age difference, they are similar academically before entering university (refer to Sections 2.5.1 - 2.5.5). In this regard, the Academic Self-Image of these two age groups (Junior and Senior) is sufficiently stable in that they do not yield any significant difference.

This notion has also been presented in many psychological research studies. During these studies, subjects were separated according to their level of success on a set of tests. For example, work by Snow & Hoefnagel-Hohle (1979) had focused on adult second language acquisition while work by Peters (1981) focused on child second language acquisition. These studies suggest that personality factors contribute to determine who will learn successfully. However, with regard to UTM first year students, both age groups received similar exposure, and therefore their Academic Self-Image is similar.

7.3.4 Academic Self-Image and Ethnicity

The results of the correlational analysis show that academic self-image and ethnicity **are** significantly correlated (Refer to Table 5.5.0 in Chapter 5). This finding was confirmed by the multiple regression analysis (Table 5.6.1). In fact, ethnicity was found to be the first predictor selected in the regression equation for academic self-image. The one-way analysis of variance further confirmed these results, and showed that the UTM Indian and Chinese respondents displayed a higher Academic self-Image than the Malays (see Table 5.3.25).

It is, however, necessary to point out that past research evidence of the development of racial attitudes (which has been gathered over the past fifty years in countries as far-flung as the United States, Britain, South Africa and New Zealand) mentions that children from racial minorities (or majorities) accorded 'inferior status', start to learn about the relative worth attached to being white or black at a very early age. The realisation of racial awareness at an early age is accompanied, or quickly followed, by simple signs of racial preference and rejection, and the capability of commenting on the different social and economic roles is fulfilled by different racial groups at the age of eleven or twelve (Jeffcote, 1979).

In Malaysian society, there are strong pressures on minority groups (in this study the minority groups refers to ethnic Indian and Chinese and majority refers to the Malays). These groups feel that they must excel in order to pursue a better academic and professional life. Additionally, they seem to strive for excellence in order to compete with the majority since only the best will be accepted into tertiary education (refer to Sections 2.5.5 and 4.4.0). The majority, however, tend to take acceptance for granted. For example, Lebar (1993), finds that the direct result of the New Economic Policy is that more scholarships and grants are awarded to the Malays than other ethnic groups (see Sections 2.6.0 and 2.6.1). Mehmet and Hong (1983) also show that Malay students have been allocated a very much larger number of government scholarships than their Indian and Chinese counterparts. This could be a possible explanation for Indian and Chinese students having higher Academic Self-Images, on the whole, than Malays. Generally, it has been observed that Malays, who are capable of entering UTM, tend to have lower Academic Self-Images if they are put in classes with Indian and the Chinese students (see Chapter 6). This appears to suppress their competitive spirit. However, it is believed that ethnic autonomy will enhance their Academic Self-Image. As 8 of the interviewed students state, if students

lectures or tutorials comprise mainly Indian or Chinese students it will affect the test performance of the Malays (refer to Chapter 6 Issue Two).

Arof (1985) reports that studies have explored reasons for the high academic performance of certain Malaysian students, since the majority have a relatively very low academic record. His study finds that this is due to a perception of 'laziness' in the Malay community. The interviews conducted with the lecturers featured in this study seem to confirm this result (see Chapter 6). For example, 8 of the 10 lecturers interviewed state that Malay students appear much less aspirational and motivated than their Chinese and Indian counterparts. They also feel this is due to their weak concept of self (refer to Chapter 6).

Even the Malaysian Prime Minister, Dr. Mahathir has mentioned a need for academic work in a political speech. He states it is important for Malay students to not just "specialise in religious studies but also pursue other courses relevant to the needs of the nation" (NST, Wed 1 January, 1995: 1). He states that unless Malay parents and students realise that they should value education, the country will not be able to meet its manpower needs, particularly in the specialised field of science and technology. He further states that people will be left behind in terms of progress. "Universities can no longer be conservative by offering education and training in a traditional manner with the belief that one who is knowledgeable in one field can master other areas and be efficient.....if that is their attitude then they will become dinosaurs who [perish] because they [are] unable to acclimatise [to] the changing environment" (ibid.: 1). Based on the findings of this study, ethnicity can thus be seen as a contributory factor to students' Academic Self-Image.

7.3.5 Academic Self-Image and English SPM scores

The basic data show that English SPM scores **are not** significantly correlated to Academic Self-Image (see Table 5.5.0). A one way analysis of variance for global Academic Self-Image further reveals that English SPM scores do not have a significant effect on Academic Self-Image (see Table 5.3.27). This was confirmed by the stepwise multiple regression analysis, where English SPM scores are not found to be a significant predictor in determining students' Academic Self-Image (see Table 5.6.1).

This finding is contrary to the general assumption that having a good English SPM score relates to having high Academic Self-Image (see Chapter 6). The results of this study do not support the notion (refer to Section 2.6.1). One possible explanation for this negative correlation is that of the academic expectations of students at university level. For example, even though competition is high among students, many believe that they can be given the chance of doing well to improve themselves. This is often despite some students achieving poor results in English language prior to university entrance.

The negative correlation may also be attributed to most of the students having good results in other academic subjects in their respective fields when leaving school (refer to Table A in Appendix 1 for UTM entrance requirements). Therefore, English SPM scores prove no threat to students' potential performance at university, because most of their academic subjects are not conducted in English (see Section 2.7.7). 91.4 per cent of the students spoken to during the interviews confirmed this notion, stating that they felt no relationship between their Academic Self-Image and their English SPM score existed (see Chapter 6 Issue Three). They further indicated in the data that they would probably feel threatened if most of their academic subjects were conducted in English. This, they feel, would automatically make them feel inferior, insecure and unconfident.

The students' notion of their Academic Self-Image is also shared by 90 per cent of the lecturers interviewed. They believe that other subjects, for example mathematics or science subjects, may contribute to students' Academic Self-Image much more than English SPM scores (refer to Chapter 6 Issue Three). As Asmah (1987: 18) states, "ten years after Independence there were still two languages used in official communication in Peninsular Malaysia and these were Malay and English". In official situations, either of the two were used. However, despite this, English was used at higher institutions only until 1982, when Bahasa Malaysia became the medium of instruction (Lebar, 1993). Since Bahasa Malaysia is still widely used at tertiary level, perhaps most students do not feel threatened or worried about the whole issue of English SPM scores, and therefore indirectly it would not affect their Academic Self-Image because they could still get by using Bahasa Malaysia at higher levels (refer to Section 2.6.1). The finding of this study concludes that there is no relationship between Academic Self-Image and English SPM scores.

7.4.1 - Relationships between Speaking and the Independent Variables: Sex, Age, Ethnicity, English SPM scores, Self-Esteem and Academic Self-Image.

The same approaches used to determine the relationships between Self-Esteem, Academic Self-Image and the Independent variables as discussed in the previous section were adopted in this analysis. Firstly, the results were subjected to correlational analysis. Secondly, the results were subjected to a T-test and a one-way analysis of variance. Thirdly, Stepwise Multiple Regression was conducted. The following discussion will be presented:

I Speaking and Sex

II Speaking and Age

III Speaking and Ethnicity

IV Speaking and English SPM scores

V Speaking and Self-Esteem

7.4.2 Speaking and Sex

The results of the correlational analysis show that speaking and sex were not significantly correlated (see Table 5.5.0). Further T-test comparisons of the mean of speaking and sex show that there is **no** statistically significant difference between the female and male groups with respect to their speaking abilities (Table 5.3.1). This is then confirmed by a stepwise multiple regression analysis (see Table 5.6.0).

Interviews conducted during this study show that out of 10 lecturers, 6 think that female students have better speaking skills (see Chapter 6 Issue One). They believe that female students are thought to use the English language more frequently with friends and family than males. Females are also thought to love reading more than males. Furthermore, according to these lecturers, based on their general observation in classroom activities, female students volunteer and participate more in classroom discussions and presentations. This contributes to their assumption that female students are better speakers.

However, rejecting these notions, this study's findings indicate that male and female students have similar speaking abilities. A possible explanation for this finding is that the two groups have similar academic requirements when entering university. Both sexes also have similar exposure to English as a second language at primary and secondary level prior to entering university (refer to Sections 2.5.1 - 2.5.5). For this reason, the speaking ability and sex does not show any significant difference. Moreover, female students at UTM may not be typical. At a technical university they have to compete in similar ways to their male counterparts (see Table 2.5.0).

90 per cent of the students interviewed in this study feel that sex is not the prime factor in determining their speaking skill. In fact, they feel that they receive similar exposure whether they are female or male. For this reason, this factor does not alter them in their academic performance. How they perceive knowledge is more important than the gender factor (refer to Chapter 6 Issue One). Therefore, the findings in this study indicate that no statistically significant difference in Speaking skills exists between the Female and Male students in UTM.

7.4.3 Speaking and Age

All tests conducted here show that age is not significantly correlated to speaking abilities (see Tables 5.4.0 and 5.5.0). The results of the T-test comparison of mean scores of the Junior and Senior age groups in terms of their Speaking abilities reveals that age does **not** have a significant effect on speaking (see Table 5.3.3). This result indicates that, in the UTM context, age has no effect on students' speaking abilities. This is contrary to the general belief by some educators at UTM that mature students are better in their speaking performance (although this depends on the definition of 'mature', which differs between Malaysia and the United Kingdom). This could be due to the two age groups only having slightly different ages (see Table 5.1.1).

A further reason for this lack of difference is that most students, irrespective of age, have received similar exposure to English. Additionally, they are normally exposed to English one or two hours a week only, depending on their language lessons at either primary or secondary level. They are mainly only exposed to English at schools, being denied the support of using it 'naturally' (refer to Sections 2.5.1 - 2.5.5 and 2.7.12 for English lesson at UTM).

It is believed that in the area of second language acquisition young children tend to attain a target language naturally and with remarkable ease. While adult learners generally suffer and struggle to achieve moderate fluency (Macnamara, 1973a; Singleton, 1989 and see Section 3.6 in Chapter 2). As Gardner (1993) reports, there are two independent factors that are thought to predict second language success. Firstly, there are second language skills taught specifically in class, and secondly, there are those second language skills acquired through interaction with members of the target language community. In many cases, both learning and acquisition are in progress simultaneously. In his studies, Gardner (1984) gives examples of how learning can be both formal and informal with immigrant children learning English in the community as well as in the classroom. The evidence Gardner presented was that a case of a US college student of German who spends a year abroad. As Obler (1989: 141) finds, "within a group with similar opportunities to both learn and acquire an L2 [the second language], some individuals will stand out as particularly good or particularly poor learners/acquirers". Irrespective of their age, the speaking levels are basically the same as shown in this study. However, when given a different context, for example Malaysian students studying abroad or where the language is being used extensively, speaking and age may show different results. Until a further study is conducted into this phenomenon, Speaking and Age in the UTM context should still be regarded as not significantly related. Suggested researchs are provided in Section 7.8.0.

7.4.4 Speaking and Ethnicity

The results of the correlational analysis show that speaking and ethnicity **are** significantly correlated (see Table 5.5.0). This finding was confirmed by the one way analysis of variance comparison of means of the three groups (see Table 5.3.5). This showed the Indians and Chinese respondents differ in their speaking abilities as compared to Malays. This finding differed in the multiple regression analysis, however, and these results further showed that ethnicity was a poor predictor for overall speaking ability (see Table 5.6.0).

These differences are thought to be for several reasons. Firstly, the reason for differences in speaking ability is due to an emphasis given to the acquisition of verbal skills in non-Malay society. In addition, students who are non-Malays mostly speak English at home as well as their native tongue (which could be Cantonese/Mandarin or Tamil-See Section 3.3.9). It is highly probable that students who have high degrees of verbal fluency and capability used English often outside education contexts (see Chapter 6 Issue Two). The usage of English at home could explain the superiority in verbal skills among the Indians and the Chinese as compared to the Malays.

As Asmah (1987: 15-17) states, "English is used in employment, education, government, entertainment and social relationship[s]. Language choice at the unofficial level in Malaysia between the non-English educated people of various groups is English. The Malay group use Malay among themselves" (see Sections 2.2.4, 2.6.1 and 3.3.9). Asmah further confirmed that "one does find occasionally two government officials, one....Chinese and the other....Indian, speaking....the national language. However, the general trend among this group of people is still English". Further "at the intragroup level within a social context, government officials of Chinese and Indian origin choose English rather than the national language as their medium of communication. This is due to....lack of familiarity. These people may have passed proficiency tests in Malay, but familiarity that has not been inculcated from their childhood days may get the better of them" (p. 17). As Ozog further states:

> Malay faces stiff competition from English. While policy is to use the national language in all official instances, in many important domains of language..... English is still the preferred language. Such being the case, Malay cannot remain forever a language of basic communication (1990: 312).

Secondly, another way to explain differences in ethnicity is that English is used by Indian and Chinese people among friends and colleagues as they are often feel comfortable using it. Also, English is the most mutually comprehensible language of different groups of Chinese dialect speakers and of Indians who do not speak Tamil. As summarised by Asmah (1987), the pattern of language choice among the Malaysians at the unofficial level is basically Malay - within the Malay group and among the non-English educated people of all ethnic groups; English and mother tongue-among English-educated people at the intra- and inter group level; Mandarin-among Chinese-educated Chinese and Tamil-among Tamil-educated Indians and among first language speakers of Tamil (see Section 3.3.9).

The data from the interviews conducted with the students also confirm the quantitative finding. Out of 70 students, 88.6 per cent feel that there is a relationship between ethnicity and speaking skill. Of these, 20 of the Chinese students state that they only use Bahasa Malaysia when communicating with the Malay students. The Indians also feel they communicate in English with Chinese students because most of them cannot communicate in Mandarin. Surprisingly, some Indians stated that they also cannot use Tamil with the Indians. At the same time both Indians and Chinese students indicate that they are comfortable using English at home (see Chapter 6).

This finding is similar to that of Chakravathy (1993: 196), who describes that "although English has been called the second language in education, its status varies from that of being mother tongue for some, the main language of home use for some (especially the English educated and where the parents have inter-married and do not necessarily know each others' language), the third language after each of their parents' languages, the second or third language learnt in school, the language of functional efficiency for specific purposes, but most of all, a foreign language for the vast majority of rural students". Many interviewed students confirmed this and comment on the decline of English, especially

among the Malays (see Section 6.8.0 Issue Seven). It is also believed that most students can understand English but have difficulty expressing themselves when they are questioned. As the Director-General of Education, Tan Sri Abdul Rahman Arshad, noted on the drop of SPM English language paper in 1990, the main reason for the poor results was that the language was less spoken now. This is particularly so among Malays, and the chances of exposing the children to the language were not there. He further states that another reason for the students having difficulties in the spoken language was "because most of them were taught just to memorise and also to spot questions", rather than speaking the language (The Star, 6 March 1991: 1).

Thirdly, the 'prestige' of non-Malaysians speaking English contributes to ethnic differences. In Malaysia, English is the language of 'prestige'. This goes as far back in the 19th century when English was provided for royal family (refer to Section 2.2.4 in Chapter 2). As Gupta (1968) states, English in Malaysia has too many colonial associations, and the Chinese and Indian languages are considered non-indigenous, immigrant languages. For this reason, the use of English is common among these communities. As Chakravathy (1993: 204) feels about English language usage in Malaysia, "unofficially, however, it [English] has remained a part of elite life, especially in urban areas. It has remained the language of commercial and management entrepreneurship. It is also the language of communication and recreation, especially among the educated". This conception was confirmed by observations during the interviews, as many Indian and Chinese students asked to be interviewed in English, saying that they felt more comfortable using it (see Chapter 6 Section 6.3.0). In contrast, 78.9 per cent of the Malay students interviewed did not use English outside the classroom and requested their interviews to be conducted in Bahasa Malaysia.

In conclusion, as the results of this study indicate, there is a relationship between speaking and ethnicity in UTM. As Asmah says (1987: 21),"the National Language Policy established Malay as the National and sole official language, but at the same time does not deprive the other languages of their rightful places in the society. However, the communication patterns discussed.... is the result not only of the policy but also of the attitude of the users".

7.4.5 Speaking and English SPM scores.

English SPM scores **were found** to be significantly correlated to speaking abilities in the correlation analysis (see Table 5.5.0). This finding was confirmed by multiple regression analysis (see Table 5.6.0). Results from these showed English SPM scores as the first predictor selected in the regression equation for speaking. The one-way analysis of variance yielded further confirmation of these results (see Table 5.3.7).

The results from this study showed that there is a difference between students that have Good English SPM scores from the Average and Poor groups of students (see Table 5.3.7). This finding is not totally unexpected. It has always been thought that students with Good speaking ability will generally have a good English SPM score and the evidence of this study does support the belief of many educators (see Section 6.5.0). A possible reason for the superiority of verbal skills among students with good English SPM results is that the Good group normally use English as a means of communication and feel more comfortable speaking it. This is indicated in the previous section (see Section 6.3.0). Table 5.2.17 shows the cross-tabulation of Ethnic groups by English SPM scores. This indicates clearly that 29.7 per cent out of 152 Malay respondents were in the Poor group category and 26.8 per cent of them in the Average group.

It has been mentioned that English in Malaysia is the language of 'prestige', and signifies an 'elite' lifestyle (refer to Sections 2.2.4 and 3.3.9). As the Ministry of Education (1975: 3) indicates, "recreational and professional material in the work environment will remain in English, and because at present and for the immediate future many areas of work will rely on English to a significant degree, the school leaver's ability to use English will increase his value to his potential employer".

Stevenson (1975) also suggests that English is a language of prestige in Malaysia. As discussed in Chapter 2 (see Section 2.2.4), the English schools in the 19th century stressed teaching English to children of Malay royalty and "of good family", because British educators believed that only upper class Malay children could become rulers of the country (Loh, 1967). When the Cambridge Local Examination was introduced in 1891, English medium education was enhanced because a good pass in the English paper was often seen as the path to government related jobs (Wong and Ee, 1971). Therefore, Malaysia's Examination system has been modelled, to a greater extent, on the British system (refer to Section 2.5.7). Even though English still carries 'prestige' and is used by the 'elite', "it is no longer compulsory to obtain a pass in English in the public examinations, and as a result, many people see no need to learn English" (Chakravathy, 1993: 197). Another reason why English is not commonly used is that, "those with strong Islamic fundamentalist views [that] the language is associated with western values and [is] thus to be avoided. Such [a] view also provide[s]....justification to discourage other students from using English outside class (ibid.: 196)". This attitude is common amongst the Malays.

Even though a pass in English has been thought as the best way of solving its declining standard, it has been noticed that, one major problem of planners has been the difficulty of specifying goals and levels. Such goals could for example have been set by means of

making passing the English paper in the Form V examinations compulsory, but this would have meant that perhaps as much as eighty percent of the candidates would fail the examination. The fact that the majority of these students would be mainly Malays, has made this an impossible measure to implement, despite numerous calls in newspapers suggesting that this is the most likely way to effect improved standards in English (The Star, 6th April, 1987; The Star, 7th March, 1991). The weakness of some children in the language was said to be due to the children's lack of interest in English itself (The Malay Mail, Nov 7, 1973).

It can be concluded that, even though English is considered a language of communication, guaranteeing a job in the private sector in Malaysia, many students still lack good communication skills. This is especially so for those students who posses poor English SPM scores.

7.4.6 Speaking and Self-Esteem

The results of the correlation analysis (refer to Table 5.5) and t-test (see Table 5.3.9) show that Speaking and Self-Esteem are not correlated. The findings of this study indicate that there is **no** relationship between speaking and self-esteem of the students. The results show that students with good speaking ability do not necessarily have correspondingly high Self-Esteem and students with poor speaking ability do not necessarily have corresponding low Self-Esteem. There is no relationship between Speaking and Self-Esteem to draw a conclusion stating that having good Speaking skills mean possessing high Self-Esteem.

This is confirmed by opinions of lecturers and students, expressed during the interviews that students do not consider themselves having high self-esteem, even when their speaking skill is respectable (see Chapter 6 Section 6.7.0). These students state that good

communication skills do not help them in other academic subjects. For this reason, self-esteem is lower in these subjects. Some of the lecturers interviewed also support this notion by saying that even though they consider themselves as possessing good communication skills, their self-esteem differs at various times. Coopersmith (1967) discusses this concept saying that one's self-esteem may vary across diverse areas of experience according to age, sex and other role-defining conditions. It also changes depending on varying situations and tasks. Possessing good communication skills therefore does not guarantee a person a high level of self-esteem. The finding is also consistent with a study by Gardner and Lambert (1972) although they fail to find a significant relationship. In contrast Heyde (1979) found that self-esteem correlated positively with oral production.

In Malaysia, during British rule, if parents wanted their children to have a 'good' education they would send them to English schools (refer to Chapter 2). In 1960, only one Malay school was available at secondary level in each state of Malaysia. For this reason, English schools were still considered important. However, the attitude of students now differs. For these students, failing or passing English SPM papers has no effect on their entrance to university. This appears to be because most universities in Malaysia still accept students who fail English at the secondary level (English SPM score - see Section 2.6.1 in Chapter 2). As data from interviews with the students indicates, 91.4 per cent of the students (see Table 6.10.0 in Chapter 6) confirm the statistical results, stating that their Self-Esteem is not affected by their speaking skills. Jakobovits (1970: 64) suggests that students judge a second language by what they feel and know a language means. "It is not known to what extent these kinds of self-generated presumptions affect the student's maintenance of motivation in FL study but it is not unreasonable to support that they may sometimes be a source of discouragement and a cause of loss of interest".

7.4.7 Speaking and Academic Self-Image

Speaking and Academic Self-Image is **not** significantly correlated. This finding is displayed in the correlation analysis result in Table 5.5.0 and the T-test result in Table 5.3.11. These findings indicate that students who are highly good at speaking do not significantly have a high academic self-image. This runs in accordance with the beliefs of 91.4 percent of the student's interviews data (see Section 6.7.0 in Chapter 6).

One possible explanation for this finding is that speaking does not improve Academic Self-Image because most of their courses at university level do not require high levels of English (see Table A in Appendix 1 for the entrance requirements). Therefore, having good communication skills is not necessarily a criterion for high Academic Self-Image, especially among first year students at UTM. Although "at tertiary level, English language teachers wonder what the students have been learning for the 11 or more years they were at school. The answer is simple. They were learning to pass the examinations in English" (Sunday Star, 23rd March 1991: 2). As Chakravathy (1993: 295) observes, "although English is a second language, communication educators have observed that students' command of the English language is quite weak and students have difficulties in using reference materials in English". Perhaps, to these students, possessing good or bad communication skills has no direct effect on their other academic subjects because they do not need to communicate in English in any other academic subjects (see Section 2.6.1).

In the recent examination at the Penilaian Menengah Rendah (PMR-which is equivalent to LCE), an examination conducted at lower secondary level in 1994 in Malaysia, 341,233 Form III students participated. 90.2 per cent (307,783) were from government schools, 7.6 per cent (25,933) were from Private schools and 2.2 per cent (7,507) were private students). All the candidates in this examination scored 80 per cent and above in other academic subjects. However, in English they averaged 58.2 per cent. In fact, this was the

only subject with a low percentage score (Berita Harian, 29 November, 1994). The Director of Education believed that declining average was due to students not practising spoken English at home and socially with friends, and at the same time some schools not being supplied with teachers that specialised in the subject (Utusan Malaysia, 29 November 1994). However, the overall results in English for Female and Male students show an average difference of 10.1 per cent. Even though females receive better results there is no evidence that male students are linguistically weaker according to the report. Instead it rather appears that they are less academically motivated. This confirms the finding of this study that there is no relationship between speaking and students Academic Self-Image as indicated from the results that even though their English results were lower, they performed well in other subjects.

Section II

7.5.0 The nature of the Self-Esteem, Academic Self-Image and Speaking abilities of Universiti Teknologi Malaysia first year students.

No other previous studies of students at Malaysian universities are available for comparison with this study - because it looks purely at the language culture, self-esteem and academic self-image of technology students in a technological environment which UTM provides. Nevertheless, the results of this study do seem to be comparable to students of other universities with similar ages and environments in Malaysia. Besides frequency and cross-tabulation, correlation analysis and multiple regression analysis of the data were also carried out. The results of the correlation analysis showed that Self-Esteem and Academic Self-Image scores were significantly correlated with one another (See Table 5.5.0 in Chapter 5). However, while Self-Esteem and Academic Self-Image scores are inter-related, these two variables did not appear to be correlated to the Speaking test (see Tables 5.3.9 and 5.3.11). This finding suggests that the first year UTM students with high Self-Esteem and Academic Self-Image did not necessarily perform well in the speaking tests.

In this study, there was no correlation between Self-Esteem with each of the independent variables; age, sex, ethnic groups, (refer to Table 5.5.0 in Chapter 5) even though the result of the T-test analysis shows that there **is** a significant difference between the sexes (see Table 5.3.13 in Chapter 5). The T-test results indicate that a mean difference in gender characteristics in terms of the Self-Esteem between the male and female groups exists. The results appear to show that the male group has higher self-esteem than the females. However, the correlational analysis (see Table 5.5.0) does not confirm this result and neither does the stepwise multiple regression analysis (see Table 5.6.2). These two analyses revealed that there is no relationship between Self-Esteem and sex.

The one-way analysis of variance, using English SPM results as the independent variable, gives a significant result (see Table 5.3.19). The results indicate that the self-esteem of the Good and Average Groups is significantly higher than the self-esteem of the Poor Group based on their English SPM scores. This suggests that the higher the English SPM scores the higher the level of self-esteem. This is probably due to the fact that a high English SPM score is actually part of students' Self-Esteem. Following this line of reasoning, such high scores are considered an achievement as students know that English skills will help in future careers. Finally, a stepwise multiple regression analysis (see Table 5.6.2), appeared to show that the main predictor of Self-Esteem is English SPM results, while both sex and ethnicity are poor predictors.

All of these findings indicate that the Self-Esteem of UTM first year students is characterised mainly by English SPM scores. This suggests that UTM first year students who had good English SPM scores at secondary level before entering university have higher Self-Esteem than those with poor English SPM scores. This confirmed the prediction by some educators (see Chapter 1). Furthermore, students who achieved poor English SPM scores can be described as those who possess a lower level of Self-Esteem.

This may be caused by the fact that students with low English SPM scores realise that they will need to struggle to pass university English tests and, as said, English SPM scores may be part of students' Self-Esteem. In the end, such low scores appear to contribute, perhaps, to low Self-Esteem.

This research also clearly shows that sex and ethnicity play a minor role in determining one's Self-Esteem level (see Table 5.5.0). This is inspite of the fact that lecturers interviewed prior to the analysis of the results predicted that both sex and ethnicity would play a major role in determining students' Self-Esteem (see Chapter 6). Based on the evidence obtained here, it is interesting to note that both sex and ethnicity are poor predictors of global Self-Esteem (see Table 5.6.2). This finding is rather surprising when it has been assumed by many UTM lecturers and educationalists that Indians or Chinese students are generally more confident in their studies, and therefore have higher Self-Esteem. Indeed, many have thought that the Malay students are not confident in their approach to learning, assuming that they have low Self-Esteem. In addition, it is also a commonly perceived observation of these educationalists that the male students have higher self-esteem than female students. In an interview with 10 selected lecturers, 8 thought that ethnicity is the key factor in determining students' self-esteem (See Chapter 6). However, in contrast with their assumptions, the findings of this study show that ethnicity does not play an important role in determining student's self-esteem (see Section 7.2.4 in this Chapter). Out of these 10 lecturers, 4 of them consider sex as contributory to students' self-esteem (refer to Chapter 6, Table 6.5.0 and 6.6.0). Again, the research results showed that there is in fact no significant relationship between sex and self-esteem (see Section 7.2.2 in this Chapter).

In the study of Academic Self-Image, the correlation of Academic Self-Image with the independent variables of Sex and English SPM scores was found to be non-significant (see

Table 5.5.0 in Chapter 5). When a T-test was conducted, similar results were achieved with all variables except ethnicity (see Tables 5.3.21, 5.3.23 and 5.3.27 in Chapter 5). The T-test analysis indicated that a difference does exist among the three ethnic groups (see Table 5.3.25 in Chapter 5).

It was discovered from further analysis that the Indians and Chinese differ significantly from the Malays in terms of Academic Self-Image (see Section 7.3.4). The results suggest that the difference in Academic Self-Image is attributed to differences in ethnicity. For example, the results of stepwise multiple regression showed that the main predictor of Academic Self-Image is Ethnicity while both Sex and English SPM scores are poor predictors of students' Academic Self-Image (see Table 5.6.1 in Chapter 5). These results confirmed the significant correlation found between Academic Self-Image and Ethnicity but not with other independent variables (see Table 5.5.0).

These findings imply that the Academic Self-Image of UTM first year students is characterised mainly by ethnic group composition with the Indians and Chinese possessing higher Academic Self-Image than the Malays. This finding is not surprising in the Malaysian context as elaborated earlier in the discussion of the history of Malaysia (refer to Chapter 2). In the past, ethnic composition in Malaysia was divided into three different levels and these divisions before independence still appear to be felt at present. Furthermore, it has been observed by some UTM lecturers and educationalists that students from some ethnic groups have an inferiority complex (see Chapter 6). In the interviews conducted with 10 lecturers, 8 think that ethnicity plays a significant part in determining students' Academic Self-Image. They state, for example, that ethnicity may give an indirect indication of which group of students possess a high or low Academic Self-Image (refer to Chapter 6 Issue Two).

It also seems that the quota system implemented in Malaysia may indirectly contribute to a different self-image (see Sections 4.4.0 and 2.7.8 for the quota system). Malays, as the predominant race, are now given more chances of entering the university. As Lebar (1993) states, the quota system was created to guarantee Malays the opportunity to enrol in science courses at institutions of higher learning. Other ethnic groups, however, are only given limited opportunities of entering university. This notion may have encouraged other ethnic groups to study harder to get one of the limited number of places available for them in a tertiary institution. This could lead, in turn to a sense of excellence among those Chinese and Indian students who are successful in entering university as only the best will be accepted. This may explain why Indian and Chinese students have a higher Academic Self-Image compared to Malays. However, it does not explain the low Academic Self-Image among Malays who are, after all, also successful in having gained a place at university even with the quota system.

Further explanation is available for this phenomenon in the interview conducted with UTM students. In this study, 21.1 per cent of the Malay students (8) indicated that they felt threatened by the presence of the Indian and Chinese students because most of the latter were accepted purely because of their academic results which were allegedly better than those of the Malays (refer to Chapter 6 Issue Two) . However, this inferiority complex is only believed to be present in a minority. The majority of Malay students interviewed (88.6 per cent) indicated that ethnicity does not determine their Academic Self-Image (refer to Table 6.4 in Chapter 6). The Indians and Chinese having a higher Academic Self-Image than the Malay group are believed to be highly self-motivated because of the stiff competition in entering university and the strong motivation to do well after leaving university. Based on the evidence obtained from all the statistical tests (see Tables 5.3.25, 5.5.0 and 5.6.1), it is shown clearly that both Sex and English SPM scores are poor predictors of Academic Self-Image. This is contrary to the assumption of 4 of the 10

lecturers interviewed, who predicted that female students would have a lower Academic Self-Image than male students (see Table 6.4.0 in Chapter 6). However, from the findings, the results show that both Sex and English SPM scores are poor predictors (see Section 7.3.4).

The correlations of speaking ability with the independent variables, ethnic group and English SPM scores are found to be generally high and significant (Refer to Table 5.5.0 in Chapter 5). In fact, the results of the one-way analysis of variance show that a difference in variance among the racial groups exists (see Table 5.3.5 in Chapter 5). These results show that the difference in speaking ability is attributed to differences in race. It was again observed that Indian and Chinese students differ significantly from the Malay group (see Section 3.3.9). This difference between the Indian and Chinese groups could be due to English being spoken at home.

This is a reason cited by a group of Indian students interviewed in this study (see Chapter 6). They indicate that outside of the classroom environment they normally converse in English, only rarely reverting to Bahasa Malaysia to communicate with Malay students. It was also discovered that the Indian students felt more comfortable using English with Chinese students as a shared language (refer to Chapter 6 Issue Two). In contrast, as they state in the interview, Malays do not usually use English as a spoken language at home and there is no reason to use English outside of English classes, certainly not to other Malays and probably not with Chinese or Indian students. Therefore, they are more comfortable using Bahasa Malaysia as a means of communication (refer to Chapter 6).

The results of the one-way analysis of variance for the dependent variable speaking against the independent variable English SPM scores show that there is a difference in variance among the sub-groups of English SPM scores (see Table 5.3.7 in Chapter 5). The Good

and Average groups differ significantly from the Poor group. There is also a significant difference between the Good and Average group. This significant difference between the two groups in comparison to the Poor group appears to be due to first year students at UTM with Good English SPM scores having an ability to speak English. The significant difference between the Good and Average groups is also attributed to the fact that the Good group consists of respondents who would normally use English as a means of communication (see Chapter 6 Issue Two). Similar findings were also obtained from the stepwise multiple regression (see Table 5.6.0), which showed that the main predictor of speaking abilities is English SPM scores while both Sex and Ethnicity are found to be poor predictors of Speaking abilities. Other variables, including Self-Esteem and Academic Self-Image, gave non-significant relationships to Speaking (see Tables 5.3.9, 5.3.11 and 5.6.0).

These findings suggest that UTM students who speak English at tertiary study have achieved high English SPM scores. For example, Good speakers obtained Good English SPM results in the areas of A1, A2 and C3 English SPM results (A1, A2 and C3 are the criteria of the 'Good Group' in this study, allocated by the researcher as discussed in Chapter 4, Section 4.4.0). Refer to Chapter 5, Table 5.1.3 and Section 7.4.5 for the discussion.

These results have serious implications for UTM administration and educational practice. If self esteem and speech affect English SPM results at UTM, then the entrance criteria to UTM need reviewing. This review is especially important considering the effect on ethnicity of academic self-image. Further discussion on this issue will be provided in Sections 7.7.1-7.7.2 and section 7.8.1 of this chapter.

7.6.0 Limitations of the Study

This study is exploratory and limited in terms of the sample of subjects and instruments used. The sample comprises only first year Universiti Teknologi Malaysia (UTM) students, and as such, the findings cannot necessarily be generalised in terms of second or third year students. It is further limited to the UTM population, and because of UTM's technological environment and focus, findings may not be applicable to students in other universities in Malaysia.

With regard to the instruments used, attempts have been made to ensure their reliability and validity in this study. In general, the results of the reliability estimates and validation procedures are satisfactory for all of the instruments. However, the Coopersmith SEI measure (1967) and the Barker-Lunn Academic Self-Image (1970) are used for the first time at UTM, therefore, other measures of Self-Esteem and Academic Self-Image may yield different results even when applied to the same group of students used in this study. The ARELS Oral Examination is also used as a speaking test for the first time in Malaysia and although the examination has been used widely in other countries it is still in its exploratory stage in Malaysia. Therefore, there is a potential danger in over-generalising the results of speaking skills as measured by the ARELS Oral Examination. For example, it must be stressed that this exam can only yield indices of speaking skills in terms of ARELS' interpretation of the communication skills and there are other dimension of skills which have to be taken into consideration, for example writing and reading. Even though ARELS' does offer a similar examination for other skills, this study is only concerned with the speaking skill. Therefore, these findings may not be used as an indicator of problem areas in other language modes.

It has also to be emphasised that this study only used the ARELS Oral Examination at the preliminary level. Therefore, different results may be obtained at different levels, for

example, at Advanced and Certificate level. This study also concentrates on English SPM scores without looking at other tests or examination results, either at Secondary or University level. Therefore, the findings of the study may not be directly relevant to other academic disciplines and the correlation analyses of other subject areas may show different findings.

Section III

7.7.0 Implications of the study

The implications of this study will be applicable at two levels: the secondary and university levels. As this study used the English SPM scores at Secondary level, some implications are aimed at secondary level teachers, teacher trainers and students. At university level, other implications are directed towards administrators, lecturers/educators/students and syllabus planners. These will be discussed in greater detail below.

To begin with, a major finding shows that Self-Esteem is associated with Academic Self-Image. Secondly, the study also shows that there is a relationship between Speaking and Ethnicity. This is complemented by the finding that Ethnicity has a large impact on students' Academic Self-Image. Thirdly, Self-Esteem and Speaking skills of UTM first year students are mainly characterised by their English SPM scores.

7.7.1 Implications for UTM (In enhancing Self-Esteem, Academic Self-Image and Oral English skills).

In the light of these findings, first, it is proposed that research be conducted by teachers or educators acting directly to change and enhance students' Self-Esteem, Academic Self-Image and Oral skills. It is likely that teachers and educators themselves have a major impact on these aspects of students' self-perceptions and language skills. Therefore, research partnerships or strategies to evaluate the impact of teachers and significant others

on students' Self-Esteem, Academic Self-Image and Oral skills are essential. This may have importance in finding effective ways to alter their Self-Esteem, Academic Self-Image and oral skills and in changing the relationships of balance between them. A study designed along these lines can provide further information on the means for educators to change and enhance university students' Self-Esteem, Academic Self-Image and oral skills: changing one may affect the other.

Secondly, the finding that Malay students are the weakest group and have little confidence in oral English ability and Academic Self-Image indirectly hinders UTM's development. Although the findings provide only limited evidence in demonstrating conclusively the overall speaking ability and Academic Self-Image of Malaysian students, related to ethnic membership (see Sections 7.3.4 and 7.4.4), this study shows that English SPM scores and Ethnicity are significant factors in influencing the students' speaking abilities, self-esteem and academic self-image at UTM. Therefore, it is the job of teachers and educators at UTM to modify these students' Speaking abilities, Self-Esteem and Academic Self-Image in order to improve their academic performance and achievement irrespective of ethnic groups. Although educators and teachers are generally aware of the importance of positive Self-Esteem and Academic Self-Image and oral skills in learning, educational programmes or lectures are often based on the assumption that a student has the capacity to learn, change and improve his/her own Self-Esteem, Academic Self-Image and Oral skills. If, however, UTM considers the findings of this study, the authorities will see the need to devise programmes to enhance the abilities of all students of all ethnic groups rather than limit learning opportunities on the basis of an assumed level of capability of certain ethnic groups. Students should not be classified on the basis of such assumptions, for to do this carries the dangers of self-fulfilling prophecies: student may behave according to labels (from themselves or from staff). Rather, students should be grouped on the basis of the real attainment or ability of individual students.

Thirdly, it is suggested that current educational practices at UTM which rely on 'teachers talking' should be re-evaluated and provide more interactive activities between students and educators. If such interaction is based on oral enchanges of meaning in a constructivist approach to learning it is very likely to enhance both oral skills and student confidence. Developments in the training of teachers and educators at UTM are desirable to achieve these objectives in order to avoid UTM being at a disadvantage compared with other universities, in producing intellectual graduates who can not only communicate effectively but have the ability to achieve well at high levels. Therefore, programmes should be developed to organise the UTM resources to enhance the academic expectations of Self-Esteem, Academic Self-Image and communication skills of all teachers and students, irrespective of their ethnic group membership.

This would mean a change in the educational programmes usually offered to students from 'weaker' social groups. At present, however, the knowledge and resources with which to provide this enhancement are not available. A lack of knowledge and pedagogic skills concerning these interactive activities could prevent educators from becoming more effective in changing and enhancing the students Self-Esteem, Academic Self-Image and communication skills. Group discussions are one way of accelerating learning processes in the classroom. Active interaction in this teaching method emphasises communication skills bridging any gaps between social groups and simultaneously enhancing their levels of Self-Esteem and Academic Self-Image.

Fourthly, the most important implication to be derived from this study is that the status of students' English SPM scores when entering UTM should be revised. If UTM seriously considers the findings of this study which shows that English SPM scores have a major impact on students' oral skills and Self-Esteem, English SPM entrance requirement should be made compulsory for all students whoever their ethnic membership may be. This will

stream the best quality students who possess not only good academic qualifications but also effective oral communication skills who are capable of achieving well at high levels. Alternatively, a revision or additional programme which involves enhancing communication skills to complement the existing programmes at UTM, should be added (see Section 2.7.11 - 2.7.13 on UTM current communication programmes available). Further elaboration on this policy recommendation is given in Section 7.8.1.

7.7.2 Implications for the teaching and learning of English in Malaysia.

In Malaysia, as emphasised in Chapter 2 (see Sections 2.6.1 and 2.6.2), the language of instruction is Bahasa Malaysia with English as a compulsory second language in all secondary schools since 1967 and at tertiary level since 1982. Although the National Curriculum encourages English language use in order to give students equal access to employment opportunities, the lack of proficiency in oral English skills cannot be denied at tertiary level as demonstrated by this study.

Therefore, drawing on these findings, first, it is suggested that the flexibility to use Bahasa Malaysia and the English language is given to all. This is to give further exposure to English to all students, irrespective of their ethnic membership, in all subjects (other than English). This suggestion, which was approved by the government in 1995, allows the use of English in the teaching of science and technical subjects at institutes of higher learning (see Section 2.6.2). However, Bahasa Malaysia remains the official language in all other fields and the success of this latest development is too early to tell at this stage. The findings of the present research clearly support this expanded role of English.

Secondly, the language planning programmes that encourage communication skills at National level should be revised and re-designed to accommodate the country's needs in producing high quality graduates who can communicate effectively. Further consideration

for the improvement of English language is crucial to prevent the declining standard of English language communication at the earlier stages of primary and secondary levels (see Section 2.6.2 for current programmes to train English in Malaysia). On an international level, such improvement in oral English is vital if Malaysia is to maintain its present momentums for economic growth and to attain its envisaged position as a fully developed country.

Thirdly, the quality of training for English language teachers needs to be improved (see Section 2.6.2) and the opportunity for proficiency in oral skills among students be made available irrespective of the ethnic membership of the students. For this reason, the ability of teachers and teacher trainers themselves to communicate more efficiently in English is crucial to upgrade the standard of spoken English.

Lastly, programmes which relate to the enhancement of Self-Esteem and Academic Self-Image should be made available at primary and secondary level. Moreover, training in the implementation of such programmes that encourage the development of students' Self-Esteem and Academic Self-Image at these two levels should be part of the training provided for the school teachers.

To sum up, students' Self-Esteem, Academic Self-Image and communication skills cannot be ignored when assessing their academic performance. Self-Esteem, Academic Self-Image and communication skills are simultaneously acquired, if not mutually dependent. As our knowledge concerning Self-Esteem, Academic Self-Image and communication skills of students increases, responsibility for enhancing them in students (in order to support their academic performance) grows. The most important challenge faced by all teachers, teacher trainers and educators in respect of this study is the understanding and development of strategies designed to increase students' Self-Esteem, Academic Self-Image

and communication skills, irrespective of their ethnic membership. For this reason, all learning programmes should emphasise interactive learning processes so that a rich exchange of ideas and experiences is generated orally. This will create strategies that can enhance communication skills, improve interaction between ethnic groups and narrow the gap between 'weak and strong' groups, especially at tertiary level.

7.8.0 Recommendations for Further Research

This study is the first attempt to investigate the relationships between self-esteem, academic self-image and speaking skills of university students in Malaysia. Further research is necessary to achieve other relevant objectives as stated below.

This study is limited to First Year students at UTM. In view of the fact that the results obtained and the conclusions drawn in this study may not be generalisable, further studies should be conducted that include students of various age groups from the full range of universities in East and West Malaysia.

The variables investigated in this study were selected to fulfil the objectives of this study. Further multivariate research needs to be carried out using variables such as peer and teacher attitudes. This is necessary to evaluate the relative influence of friends/peers, and a study of similar design using the friends/teachers of students could be conducted. The association of self-esteem and academic self-image is perceived as significant and suggests a need for further research in the area of teacher-student relationships and interaction. Longitudinal studies of students throughout their progress at university, and subsequent careers, will also be necessary. Other variables worth exploring in more detail relate to gender, social class, and possible urban-rural differences.

The evidence arising from this study supports the suggestion that, on the whole, Indian and Chinese students are better speakers of English than Malay students. It seems relevant, therefore, that further research into the techniques of encouraging speech among all ethnic groups should also be undertaken. This would help to achieve the goal of equality in education and meet the basic language requirements of English as a second language for all ethnic groups.

This study has provided evidence to suggest that Malay students are generally lacking positive academic self-image in comparison to Indian and the Chinese students. It is recommended that further research should be conducted to ascertain whether this lack of positive academic self-image is a general phenomenon among Malay students.

Another area that deserves attention is research into methods of improving the self-esteem and the academic self-image of the students. It is recommended that research into educational programmes should be organised to facilitate the development of positive self-esteem and positive academic self-image. Since this study has also shown that there is a relationship between Academic Self-Image and Ethnic group, further research into developing the techniques of encouraging positive academic self-image of all students should also be initiated. It is possible that different strategies are more, or less, effective with different ethnic groups because of cultural factors. The development of effective methods should help close any gaps between ethnic groups, especially at tertiary level. There has been little attempt to consider and meet the particular needs of these students and it is this area that should be given more attention.

This study has also provided evidence that English SPM scores play an important role in determining students' speech level before entering university. For this reason, further research is needed to identify other factors that contribute to or impede communication

skills, and factors relating to curricular areas (other than English) that affect the self-esteem and academic self-image of university students in a wide range of disciplines. Studies using different measures for Self-Esteem and Academic Self-Image should also be initiated to measure students' abilities in a non-technical environment.

It must be pointed out that this is the first research study using the ARELS Oral Examination at Malaysian university level. For this reason, more studies using the examination replicated over samples covering a wide range of age groups and universities in Malaysia should help to establish the standard for a more accurate scoring of this test. There is also an urgent need to develop speaking tests which are more relevant to the local situation, and which can be accepted with a greater degree of confidence by researchers, educators, the Malaysian education ministry, the public and government sectors. At the present time, no such test is available.

7.8.1 Policy Recommendations.

The entrance requirement for English SPM scores should be revised at UTM. The most significant suggestion, if implemented, will be to make a pass in English in the public examinations for schools compulsory. This may well have the desired effect of providing a reason for taking English teaching seriously and increasing motivation at school level. A sounder approach, in terms of implementation, would be to construct learning or remedial programmes to help the 'weak groups' by introducing and incorporating group work techniques into the present syllabus. This approach encourages interaction, and would satisfy the basic needs of these students at the same time. Group and peer discussions should be encouraged to bridge the gap between ethnic groups.

Communication skills should be given equal emphasis with other skills in learning English as a second language. Learning strategies must be developed that are relevant to the needs

of the students, especially those which enable teachers to consider the students attitudes and reactions. Positive consideration of ways of encouraging the self-esteem and academic self-image, with the development of a framework to encourage greater involvement of all ethnic groups in the education system, should also be given considerable thought.

In Bagley and Verma's (1982: 41) opinion, "education itself, without structuring of inputs can have lasting influence on values. Indeed, it would be rather suprising if education did not have lasting effects on values." However after considering all of these recommendations, considerable thought should be given before any implementation is undertaken. Krashen states:

> methodology in second language teaching is related to second language theory, not directly to research. The theory, a set of generalizations based on research results, acts as a mediator. We cannot go directly from research results to practice. To be sure, attempts to apply research directly to the classroom have been made. I made this error several years ago when I suggested that the natural order of acquisition become the new grammatical syllabus. But research results first need to be integrated or fitted into a theory - only in this way can the relationship and potential conflicts between experimental results and hypotheses be determined (1989: 47).

Section IV

7.9.0 Conclusion

In conclusion, it is expected that this study may further enhance our understanding of the multifaceted dimensions of self-esteem, academic self-image and speaking skills, of which so little is known in Malaysia. In particular, this study hopes to inform policy makers, school or university administrators and curriculum planners and guide them in the formulation of programmes that could adequately cater for the development of self-esteem, self-image and speech for students in the universities and schools in Malaysia. This study

may also help parents as well as educators to realise that it is important to have positive self-esteem and positive academic self-image.

This study has indicated that the importance of having positive self-esteem and academic self-image has not been realised by students or teachers at UTM. However, positive Self-Esteem and Academic Self-Image are highly desirable and should be cultivated in all students, either at primary, secondary or higher level. More specifically, the study has highlighted the importance of the relationship between English SPM results and communication skills, self-esteem and academic self-image, and has implied the need for changes in the styles of learning and patterns of communication established at university level in Malaysia.

The findings in this study provide substantial support for the relationship between Self-Esteem and Academic Self-Image. There is also sufficient evidence to warrant Self-Esteem and Academic Self-Image becoming crucial concerns to educators at secondary and university levels. This is especially important if students are to achieve excellence at the highest level. For this reason, strategies to enhance Self-Esteem, Academic Self-Image and communication skills will have to be considered to raise students' confidence levels. Reviews of the country's policies on higher education in relation to this suggestion is essential if Malaysia is to be a developed nation by the year 2020

Appendix 1

Table A: Academic Requirements For Undergraduate Courses at UTM.

Table B: Specifications for Oral Proficiency Input.

Table C: Specifications for Listening Proficiency Input.

Table D: Specifications for Reading Proficiency Input.

Table E: Specifications for Writing Proficiency Input.

FACULTY/COURSES \ SUBJECT	SPM										SPMV											
	Bahasa Malaysia	Mathematics	Additional Mathematics	General Science	Physics	Chemistry	Engineering Science	Mechanical and Geometrical Drawing	Building and Geometrical Drawing	Engineering Workshop (Practical)	Automotive Technology	Electrical Technology	Electronic Technology	Electrical Installation & Control	Radio & TV Repairwork	Electrical and Geometrical Drawing	Electronic and Geometrical Drawing	Refrigeration & Air Conditioning	Machine Workshop Technology	Metal Fabrication & Geometrical Drawing	Metal Fabrication & Welding Technology	Machine Workshop Technology
CULTY OF ELECTRICAL ENGINEERING																						
ree of Eletrical Engineering	•	•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•					
oma in Electrical Engineering (Communication)	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•					
oma in Electrical Engineering (Power)	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•					
oma in Electronic	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•					
CULTY OF MECHANICAL ENGINEERING																						
ree of Mechanical Engineering	•	•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•												
ree of Mechanical Engineering (Aeronautics)	•	•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•												
ree of Mechanical Engineering (Marine Technology)	•	•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•												
oma in Mechanical Engineering	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•							•	•	•	•	•
oma in Mechanical Engineering (Aeronautics)	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•							•	•	•	•	•
oma in Mechanical Engineering (Marine Technology)	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•							•	•	•	•	•
CULTY OF CHEMICAL & NATURAL SOURCES ENGINEERING																						
gree of Chemical Engineering	•	•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•												
gree of Petroleum Engineering	•	•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•												
gree of Gas Engineering	•	•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•												
gree of Polymer Engineering	•	•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•												
gree of Bioprocess Engineering	•	•	•				•	•	•	•												
ploma in Chemical Engineering	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•												
ploma in Petroleum Engineering	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•												

FACULTY/COURSES \ SUBJECTS	Bahasa Malaysia	Mathematics	Additional Mathematics	General Science	Physics	Chemistry	Drawing	Engineering Science	Surveying	Mechanical and Geometrical Engineering	Building and Geometrical Drawing	Engineering Workshop (Practical)	Building Construction	Principle of Accounts	Commerce	Geography	History	Social & Human Biology	Agricultural Science	Biology/Carpentry & Masonary	Carpentry & Masonary	Building Construction Technology	Carpentry
'AKULTI ALAM BINA																							
Degree of Urban & Regional Planning	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•		•			
Integrated Course in Achitecture	•	•	•	•	•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•		•	•	•		•	•	•		
Integrated Course in Quantity Surveying	•	•	•	•	•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•							
Diploma in Urban & Regional Planning	•	•	•	•	•		•	•	•		•		•	•	•	•	•	•					
'ACULTY SCIENCE																							
Degree of Industrial Science	•	•	•		•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•										
Degree in Science & Computer With Education	•	•	•		•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•										
'ACULTY OF COMPUTER SCIENCE 'ND INFORMATION SYSTEM																							
Integrated Course in Computer Science	•	•	•	•	•	•		•		•	•			•						•			
'ACULTY OF MANAGEMENT AND IUMAN RESOURCES DEVELOPMENT																							
Degree of Management Technology	•	•	•	•	•	•		•		•	•	•		•	•	•	•						
FACULTY OF SURVEYING																							
Degree of Property Management	•	•	•	•					•	•	•		•	•	•	•							
Degree of Land Surveying	•	•	•	•	•			•	•	•	•					•							
Diploma in Valuation	•	•	•	•					•	•	•		•	•	•	•							
Diploma in Land Surveying	•	•	•	•	•			•	•	•	•					•							
FACULTY OF CIVIL ENGINEERING																							
Degree of Civil Engineering	•	•	•		•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•										
Diploma in Civil Engineering	•	•	•	•	•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•									•	•

SPM : Malaysian Certificate of Education
SPMV: Malaysian Certificate of Education (Vocational)

Table B ORAL PROFICIENCY

PERFORMANCE BAND/LEVEL	SKILLS/ COMPETENCE	LINGUISTIC OUTPUT CONTROL
1	Students can respond to general questions initiated by the teacher. Contributions are limited to a few simple utterances.	Limited vocabulary restricted by range of questions asked. (Single word or phrases or controlled sentences).
2	Students can respond to general questions & participate in simple discussion.	Limited vocabulary, focus on compound sentences, use of language appropriate to function.
3	Students can produce a free mixture of full sentence answers and short responses. Contribution may be short and simple.	Focus on use of language appropriate of function, compound and complex sentences. Use of specific discourse markers.
4	i. Students can describe the structure of a grid, diagram flow chart, picture, etc. or ii. They can make contributions which are short with some evidence of ability to produce some complex utterances.	Introduction to the organisation of oral report. Focus on introductory stages - statement of aim, outline of main sections. Linking and ordering. Use of language generally appropriate of function.
5	i. Students can describe a process, objects, experiments, etc. from grid, diagram, picture with added supporting utterances. or ii. They can produce/develop utterances into discourse on topics under discussion but contributions may be short. (Duration: about 4 - 5 minutes).	Focus on use of language appropriate to function. Grammatical and lexical inaccuracies do not impede communications. Focus on stress and intonation especially at major discourse boundaries. Guidance (format)given.
6	i. Students can present a short report on specific topics. Input based on lecture, video or library research. Use of diagrams and flow charts to support presentation. or ii. They can produce fairly lengthy and fairly well developed discourse on topics under discussion. (Duration: about 4 - 5 minutes).	Fairly effective verbal transition. Use of transitional words to show coherence. Effective and accurate use of language to suit occasion e.g. formal Vs internal stress and intonation especially. (Guidance is minimal).
7	i. Students can present a report on topic/projects complementary to field of study, use of audio visual aids, cue cards, etc. to highlight different points of presentation and answer questions on presentation. or ii. They can produce length, correct and developed response and contributions on topics under discussion. (Duration: about 15 - 12 minutes)	Fairly effective verbal transition. Use of transitional words to show coherence. Effective and accurate use of language to suit occasion e.g. formal Vs internal stress and intonation especially. (Guidance is minimal).

Table C LISTENING PROFICIENCY

PERFORMANCE BAND/LEVEL	SKILLS/ COMPETENCE	LINGUISTIC CONTROL
1	Can understand some points/taken from short paragraphs or simple instructions or short conversations. Can answer simple comprehension questions at the end of each. Note taking not discouraged.	"Amazing Facts" type of texts adapted to the simplest level and clearly enunciated. Very clear enunciation; questions requiring word/phrase answers only; full sentences aimed at specific structures; no repetition of text or questions.
2	Can understand important points from three short paragraphs (questions come at the end of text, note-taking recommended).	"Amazing Facts" type of texts and occasional short story; still careful enunciation. Question format as before.
3	Can understand important points from 3 - 4 minutes discourse. All questions at the end of text. Note-taking strongly recommended.	Simple, basic science, secondary school level texts aimed at commonest items in corpus, alternating with stories. Grid-filling and list format answers introduced for science texts. Maintain proportion of short/full sentence answers for story input. Moderate delivery.
4	Can understand 5 - 7 minutes presentation by teacher or video. Can complete grid handed out after lecture. Can answer freely and appropriately to questions. Can understand normal conversation and instructions in technological working situations. Note taking strongly recommended.	Text structure heavily marked. Very simplified version of English equivalents of Bahasa Malaysia faculty texts. Moderate delivery but not exaggerated. Full use of linguistic transparency. e.g. oxygen/oksigen.
5	Can understand 8 - 10 minutes presentation by teacher or video. Can complete grid handed out after lecture. Can answer freely and appropriately to questions. Can understand normal conversational and most instructions in technological working situations.	As for band/level 4 but less artificial text and delivery. Less reliance on linguistic transparency.
6	Can understand 10 - 15 minutes lecture by ESL staff or video programmes followed by global/main point comprehension. Some guidance given. Note taking required. Responses can be evaluated.	Prepared text based on corpus/ basic science in relevant field. Attention to discourse markers and textual organisation. Delivery just a little slower than normal. Subject matter is complementary rather than mainstream.
7	As for band/level 6 using longer and more difficult materials with minimum guidance.	Lecturer to speak from own notes on main points, notes to be made available to English lecturers for the preparation of questions. Normal lecture speed.

Table D READING PROFICIENCY

PERFORMANCE BAND/LEVEL	SIZE AND RANGE OF TEXTS	SKILLS/ COMPETENCE	LINGUISTIC OUTPUT CONTROL
1	Short simple science and technical texts such as upper secondary school texts. "Tell-Me Why" series, etc. amended to remove major difficulties.	Students can read and understand some main points only. They can follow some details of simple, amended texts but cannot differentiate between major and minor points.	Short answers in single words or phrases. True/False/Multiple/ Choice/Gap-Filling.
2	Adapted science & technical texts such as school science texts.	Students can extract some information and can distinguish some relationships between major and minor points.	Short answers in single words or phrases. True/False/Multiple Choice, Gap-Filling.
3	Adapted texts which are not too specialised such as public interest magazines intended for general readers.	Students can distinguish some major and minor points and can perceive some inter and intra-sentential relationships and logical conclusions. Can make fairly simple inferences and can deduce meaning of some important vocabulary in contexts.	Short answers in single words or phrases. True/False/Not Stated. Multiple Choice, Gap-Filling.
4	Adapted under-graduate texts and excerpts and from popular journals which are not too specialised. e.g.. Reader's Digest, National Geographic; also newspapers, articles.	Students can follow the significant points and can distinguish major and minor points. They can perceive some inter and intra-sentential relationships and inter logical conclusions. They can interpret and understand some data from non-linear materials and can transfer some information from linear to various non-linear formats.	Short answers in single words or phrases, plus grid filling, listing, flow charts and algorithms.
5	Fairly long texts and journals which are not too specialised but are of a general and semi-technical nature such as New Scientist, Readers' Digest, Science Today & National Geographic. Also newspaper articles encyclopaedia and other reference material.	Students can follow the significant points and can extract essential information and distinguish major and minor points. They can perceive inter and intra-sentential relationships and logical inferences.	Longer answers or phrases, grid filling, listing, drawing, flow charts and algorithms.
6	Texts and journals which are not too specialised, such as Times Science Reports, Scientific American and Science Today. Newspaper feature articles.	Students can read across, comprehend, analyse and synthesise detailed information from a number of texts.	Focus on note-taking, discourse features & inferencing.

7	A wide range of texts including faculty texts, and journals such as Times Science Reports, Scientific American New Scientist etc.	Students can comprehend, read across, analyse synthesise & process detailed information from a number of texts.	Searching & inferencing-type questions. Language control determined by input texts. Focus on different discourse features.

Table E WRITING PROFICIENCY

PERFORMANCE BAND/LEVEL	SKILLS/ COMPETENCE	LINGUISTIC OUTPUT CONTROL
1	Can produce short single-word or phrase - like response based on simple questions and easy tasks.	Basic vocabulary, one to four word answers, restricted by from of questions and tasks. Focus on useful vocabulary and phrases.
2	Can produce short simple sentences not necessarily linked. Gap-filling exercises. Ability to make brief notes.	Exercises using simple sentences with emphasis on structures. Complexity of language carefully controlled.
3	Can produce simple and compound sentences-linked quite cohesively and can be tailored to specific functions like writing simple memos and short notes.	Exercises using simple and compound sentences with emphasis on structures. Introduction of cohesive markers and mechanics of paragraphing.
4	Can take notes and construct them into paragraphs. Can complete short gapped paragraphs e.g.. in letters, memos and in simple laboratory reports.	Paragraph organisation skills in evidence. Compound/complex sentences to help draw student's attention to useful sentence patterns. Guidance necessary.
5	Can write short articles of two to three paragraphs to make suggestions, recommendations, give explanations, etc. constructed out of frame-work formulated. Can transfer non-linear materials to linear forms.	Element of paragraphing use of cohesive markers and organisational skills. Model structures given in framework.
6	Can make notes and summaries based on specific texts of longer articles on specific topics.	Effective elements of paragraphing, use of cohesive marker and relevant structures. Minimal guidance but model structures not given.
7	Can write short report/project papers.	Coherent multi-paragraph text with effective elements of paragraphing, use of cohesive markers and relevant structures. Proper formats adhered to. (Specific topics can be given based on three or more sources of reference).

Appendix 2

Table 1 - Distributions and Total Population of Universiti Teknologi Malaysia students' 1993/94

Courses		Female	Male
DKJ	241	40	201
DEE	150	69	81
DEK	159	16	143
DEP	155	66	89
DKA	267	42	225
DKP	29	4	25
DKT	51	0	51
DPB	34	11	23
DPN	68	20	48
DKK	57	17	40
DTM	31	0	31
DUT	32	0	32
ISB	87	29	58
ISK	274	124	150
IUB	97	36	61
SPT	120	39	81
SKE	172	23	149
SKA	95	16	79
SKG	10	1	9
SKJ	137	5	132
SKK	58	11	47
SKB	18	6	12
SSI	35	15	20
STM	9	0	9
SPH	44	17	27
SUT	13	0	13
SKP	30	1	29
SKR	18	5	13
SKT	26	0	26
SPB	48	13	35

SPK	83	60	23
Total	2648	686	1962

Table 2 - Distribution of respondents according to English SPM scores.

English SPM scores	Frequency	Percentage
1	31	14.6
2	10	4.7
3	31	14.6
4	30	14.2
5	18	8.5
6	28	13.2
7	30	14.2
8	16	7.5
9	18	8.5
Total	212	100.0

Table 3 - Distributions of Pre-Test (Self-Esteem 1 Scores).

Self Esteem 1 Scores	Frequency	Percentage
4	1	0.5
5	3	1.4
6	1	0.5
7	1	0.5
8	5	2.4
9	11	5.2
10	8	3.8
11	11	5.2
12	15	7.1
13	18	8.5
14	11	5.2
15	14	6.6
16	23	10.8
17	22	10.4
18	16	7.5
19	15	7.1
20	16	7.5
21	9	4.2
22	9	4.2
23	1	0.5
24	2	0.9
Total	212	100.0

Table 4 - Distributions of Post-Test (Self-Esteem 2 Scores).

Self Esteem 2 Scores	Frequency	Percentage
3	1	0.5
4	3	1.4
5	1	0.5
6	2	0.9
7	2	0.9
8	3	1.4
9	4	1.9
10	7	3.3
11	13	6.1
12	11	5.2
13	15	7.1
14	12	5.7
15	3	1.4
16	20	9.4
17	26	12.3
18	19	9.0
19	24	11.3
20	11	5.2
21	14	6.6
22	11	5.2
23	8	3.8
24	1	0.5
25	1	0.5
Total	212	100.0

Table 5 - Distributions of Pre-test (Academic Self-Image 1 scores).

Academic Self Image 1 Scores	Frequency	Percentage
1	1	0.5
2	1	0.5
3	2	0.9
4	3	1.4
5	3	1.4
6	11	5.2
7	15	7.1
8	13	6.1
9	25	11.8
10	25	11.8
11	25	11.8
12	30	14.2
13	27	12.7
14	20	9.4
15	8	3.8
16	1	0.5
17	2	0.9
Total	212	100.0

Table 6 - Distributions of Post - test (Academic Self-Image 2).

Academic Self Image 2 Scores	Frequency	Percentage
1	1	0.5
2	1	0.5
3	2	0.9
5	1	0.5
6	9	4.2
7	16	7.5
8	8	3.8
9	22	10.4
10	32	15.1
11	29	13.7
12	30	14.2
13	27	12.7
14	12	5.7
15	10	4.7
16	6	2.8
17	3	1.4
18	3	1.4
Total	212	100.0

Table 7 - Distribution of the Speaking Scores.

Speaking Scores	Frequency	Percentage
11	1	0.5
15	1	0.5
17	1	0.5
22	1	0.5
23	1	0.5
24	1	0.5
28	2	0.9
33	2	0.9
34	1	0.5
35	1	0.5
39	1	0.5
41	1	0.5
42	2	0.9
43	1	0.5
44	1	0.5
45	1	0.5
46	1	0.5
47	2	0.9
50	1	0.5
51	1	0.5
55	3	1.4
57	1	0.5
59	1	0.5
61	1	0.5
62	1	0.5
65	2	0.9
67	1	0.5
68	1	0.5
69	2	0.9
70	1	0.5
71	1	0.5
72	1	0.5
73	2	0.9
74	2	0.9
75	3	1.4
78	1	0.5
79	1	0.5
80	5	2.4
81	1	0.5
83	1	0.5
86	3	1.4
87	5	2.4
88	1	0.5
89	2	0.9
90	5	2.4
91	1	0.5
93	1	0.5
95	1	0.5
Total	75	100.0

Appendix 3: Instruments

NO:

UNIVERSITY OF LEICESTER

SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

ENGLAND

The purpose of this research is to get a clearer picture of University Teknologi Malaysia students' performance based on Self-Esteem, Academic Self-Image and Educational Background.

All information given Is CONFIDENTIAL and will only be used to gain an insight with a view to guiding teaching methods. However, to achieve this your honest and sincere answers would be appreciated. There is NO RIGHT or WRONG answer. Just write what You think.
Thank you for your time and co-operation toward making this research a success.

CONTENT OF QUESTIONNAIRES

Section 1. Self-Esteem Questions

Section 2. Academic Self-Image Questions

Section 3. Personal and Educational Background

Section 4. ARELS Oral Examination
- i: Candidate Booklet and Result Slip.
- ii: Marking Key for the Preliminary Examination in Spoken English and Comprehension.

Section I

Instructions
ARAHAN

Read the twenty five statements below carefully.
Baca kesemua dua puluh lima soalan dibawah dengan teliti.

Put a tick (/) in the 'box' marked 'LIKE ME' if the statement describes how you usually feel.
Sila tandakan (/) didalam kotak 'SAYA' jika kenyataan berikut menyerupai perasaan anda.

Put a tick (/) in the 'box' marked UNLIKE ME if the statement does not describe how you usually feel.
Sila tandakan(/) didalam kotak 'BUKAN SAYA' jika kenyataan berikut tidak menyerupai perasaan anda.

Be sure to put only one tick for each of the twenty five statements.
Pastikan hanya satu tanda diletakkan bagi setiap kenyataan.

Remember, there are NO RIGHT OR WRONG ANSWERS.
Tiada jawapan betul atau salah didalam kenyataan dibawah.

	LIKE ME SAYA	UNLIKE ME BUKAN SAYA
1. I often wish I were someone else. Saya selalu teringin untuk menjadi orang lain.	☐	☐
2. I find it very hard to talk in front of the class. Saya rasa amat sukar untuk bercakap di hapadan kelas.	☐	☐
3. There are lots of things about myself I'd change if I could. Jika boleh, banyak perkara yang ingin saya ubah mengenai diri saya.	☐	☐
4. I can make up my mind without too much trouble. Saya boleh membuat keputusan tanpa banyak masalah.	☐	☐
5. I get upset easily at home. Di rumah, saya cepat tersinggung.	☐	☐
6. I'm a lot of fun to be with. Saya seorang yang seronok untuk didampingi.	☐	☐
7. It takes me a long time to get used to anything new. Saya mengambil masa yang lama untuk menyesuaikan diri dengan sesuatu yang baru.	☐	☐
8. I'm popular with kids my own age. Saya popular dikaiangan rakan sebaya.	☐	☐

	LIKE ME SAYA	UNLIKE ME BUKAN SAYA
9. My parents usually consider my feelings. Ibubapa saya selalunya mengambilkira perasaan saya.	☐	☐
10. I give in very easily. Saya mudah mengalah.	☐	☐
11. My parents expect too much of me. Ibubapa saya menaruh harapan yang terlalu tinggi terhadap saya.	☐	☐
12. It's pretty tough to be me. Adalah sukar untuk menjadi saya.	☐	☐
13. Things are all mixed up in my life. Banyak hal berceiaru didalam hidup saya.	☐	☐
14. Others usually follow my ideas. Orang lain selalunya mengikut pendapat saya.	☐	☐
15. I have a low opinion of myself. Saya mempunyai pandangan yang rendah terhadap diri saya.	☐	☐
16. There are many times when I'd like to leave home. Telah banyak kail saya seperti mahu meninggaikan rumah.	☐	☐
17. I often feel upset in university. Di universiti saya cepat tersinggung.	☐	☐
18. I'm not as nice looking as most people. Saya tidak mempunyai paras rupa yang menarik seperti kebanyakan orang.	☐	☐
19. If I have something to say, I usually say it. Jika saya ada sesuatu untuk dicakapkan, saya akan berbuat demikian.	☐	☐
20. My parents understand me. ibubapa saya memahami saya.	☐	☐
21. Most people are better liked than I am. Orang lain lebih disenangi dari diri saya sendiri.	☐	☐
22. I usually feel as if my parents are pushing me. Saya seialu terasa seoiah-oiah didesak oleh ibubapa saya.	☐	☐
23. I often get discouraged in universiti. Di universiti, saya mudah putus asa.	☐	☐

	LIKE ME SAYA	UNLIKE ME BUKAN SAYA
24. Things usually don't bother me. Saya selalunya tidak kisah dengan apa-apa pun.	☐	☐
25. I can't be depended on. Saya tidak boleh diharap.	☐	☐

Section II

INSTRUCTIONS
ARAHAN

Put only one tick (/) in the box next to the statements below which best describe yourself.
Sila letakkan hanya SATU tanda (/) didalam kotak yand disediakan dibawah yang berkaitan dengan diri anda.

	HARDLY EVER Jarang Sekali	SOMETIMES Kadang-kala	YES,OFTEN Ya, selalu
1. I get lots of sums wrong. Saya sering melakukan kesilapan ketika membuat kiraan.	☐	☐	☐

	YES Ya	NOT SURE Kurang Pasti	NO Tidak
2. I think I'm pretty good at university work. Saya rasa saya mampu membuat kerja-kerja universiti.	☐	☐	☐

	NEVER Tidak Pernah	SOMETIMES Kadang-kala	YES, OFTEN Ya, selalu
3. I'm useless at university work. Saya tidak mampu membuat kerja-kerja universiti.	☐	☐	☐

	YES Ya	NOT SURE Kurang Pasti	NO Tidak
4. My lecturer thinks I'm clever. Pensyarah saya fikir saya pintar.	☐	☐	☐

	ALWAYS Selalu	SOMETIMES Kadang-kala	HARDLY EVER Jarang sekali
5. I'm very good at Mathematics. Saya sangat pandal dalam bidang Matematik.	☐	☐	☐

	MOST OF THE TIME Setiap masa	SOMETIMES Kadang-kala	HARDLY EVER Jarang Sekali
6. When we have exams I think I will get very good marks. Saya yakin saya akan mendapat keputusan yang baik didalam peperiksaan	☐	☐	☐

	YES, OFTEN Ya, selalu	SOMETIMES Kadang-kala	HARDLY EVER Jarang Sekali
7. I find a lot of university subjects difficult to understand. Saya dapati banyak subjek dI universiti sukar difahami.	☐	☐	☐

	YES, OFTEN Ya, selalu	NOT SURE Kurang Pasti	FALSE Tidak benar
8. I sometimes think I'm not good at anything. Kadang-kala saya rasa saya tidak pandai dalam apa-apa pun.	☐	☐	☐

	YES, TRUE Benar	NOT SURE Kurang Pasti	NO Tidak
9. I don't seem to be able to do anything really well at university level Saya seperti tidak berupaya membuat apa-apa dengan baik di peringkat universiti.	☐	☐	☐

Section III

PERSONAL/EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND

INSTRUCTIONS
This section is related to your personal and educational background. Please tick (/) or answer all questions appropriately.

1. NAME :_____

2. AGE:_____ (example: 18 and 3 months)

3. SEX :
   1. F ☐
   2. M ☐

4. RACE:
   1. Malay ☐
   2. Chinese ☐
   3. Indian ☐
   4. Other ☐ Please Specify_____

5. YOUR ACADEMIC QUALIFICATION:

   1. SRP: Grade:_____ 2. SPM: Grade:_____

   English Result:____ English Result:____

6. WHEN YOU WERE IN SECONDARY SCHOOL YOU WERE IN WHICH CLASS:

   1. Science ☐
   2. Arts ☐
   3. Technical ☐
   4. Commerce ☐
   5. Accounting ☐
   6. Other ☐ Please specify _____

7. COURSE ATTENDED AT UNIVERSITI TEKNOLOGI MALAYSIA.

   _____.

Section IV

ARELS ORAL EXAMINATiON: Specimen Copy.

i: Candidate Booklet and Result Slip.

il: Marking Key for the Preliminary Examination in Spoken English and Comprehension.

AP45

NUMBER OF CANDIDATE

THE OXFORD-ARELS EXAMINATIONS
in
ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

ARELS ORAL EXAMINATION

AT PRELIMINARY LEVEL

CANDIDATE BOOKLET
AND
RESULT SLIP

Your certificate will be prepared from the details you give below. Write your name in BLOCK CAPITALS *exactly as you wish it to appear on the certificate* and give an address where you will be in 7 weeks' time.

NAME .....

ADDRESS (in 7 weeks) .....

.....

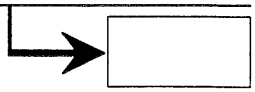
.....

RESULT

- [ ] Very Good Pass – should consider ARELS Higher Certificate
- [ ] Good Pass
- [ ] Pass
- [ ] Narrow Fail – should try again later
- [ ] Fail – needs more preparation and experience

AP45

NUMBER OF CANDIDATE



For this examination you are visiting Duxford Aeroplane Museum. It is near Cambridge and it is the biggest aeroplane museum in Europe. You are meeting two friends there, Anna and Bob.

Question 1. Meeting Anna and Bob at Duxford.

In this question you must SPEAK your answers.

Question 2. Concorde.

In this question you must SPEAK your answers.

Question 3. In the cafeteria.

In this question you must SPEAK your answers.

MENU

Tea	*70p*	*Chocolate cake*	*£1.50*
Coffee	*80p*	*Banana cake*	*£1.50*
Milkshake	*80p*	*Sandwiches (tuna, egg, cheese, chicken, beef)*	*£1.25*
Cola or lemonade	*70p*		
Cold milk	*50p*	*Pizza slices*	*£1.05*

Question 4. In the Museum Shop.

In this question you must SPEAK your answers.

Question 5. A message for Simon.

In this question you must READ ALOUD.

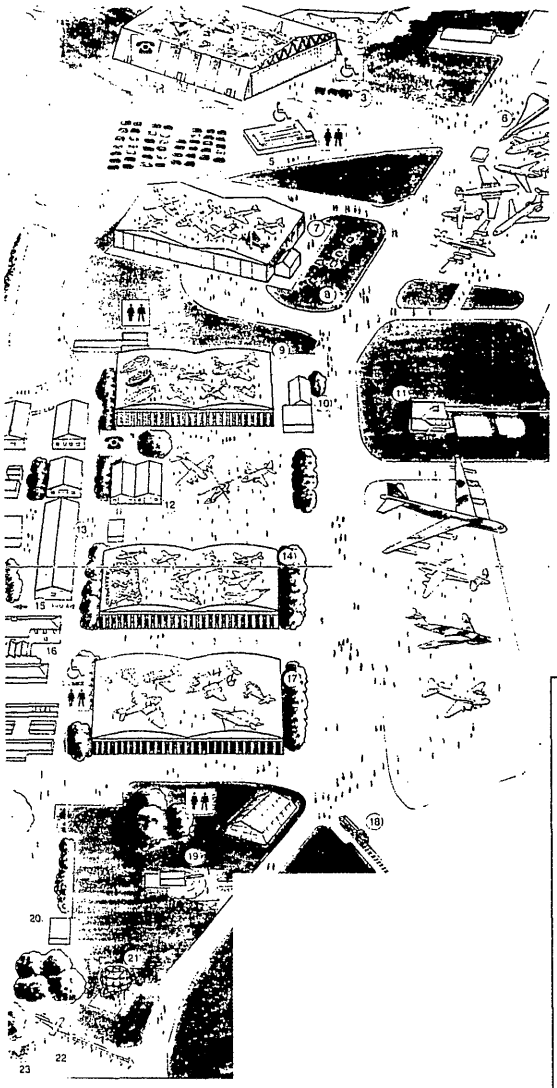
Hello Simon. I'm ringing to arrange where to meet tonight. By the way, I'm ringing from Duxford Airfield – the aeroplane museum. It's fascinating. One of the biggest in Europe. Anyway, about this evening, can we meet outside the Carousel Restaurant – that's spelt C – A – R – O – U – S – E – L. It's opposite the Town Hall. I'll be there at 7.45. Ring me after half past six if you can't make it. My number's 217607. See you this evening. 'Bye.

Question 6. Anna's last visit to Duxford.

In this question you must SPEAK your answers.

Question 7 Where are they going?

In this question you must WRITE your answers.



(1) Hangar 1 - Don't miss the hi-tech simulator and Museum Shop	(12) Special exhibition building
(2) Adventure playground	(13) Sea Hurricane workshop
(3) Free Museum transport	(14) Hangar 4
(4) Parent and baby room	(15) First Aid and Museum Security (Guardroom)
(5) Restaurant	(16) Operations Room
(6) Concorde, the airliner collection and souvenir shop	(17) Hangar 5
(7) Hangar 2	(18) Narrow gauge railway
(8) Picnic area	(19) Gibraltar 9.2" gun
(9) Hangar 3	(20) 1940's Prefab
(10) History of Duxford video	(21) Giant Wurzburg Radar
(11) Control Tower	(22) V1 Flying Bomb
	(23) Bloodhound Missile
	(24) Land Warfare Exhibition

Example 1. .....*The restaurant*.....

Number 1. ..... **Number 4.** .....

Number 2. ..... **Number 5.** .....

Number 3. ..... **Number 6.** .....

Question 8. The Duxford Spitfire.

In this question you must MARK your answers with a X.

Example: This Spitfire was used in the	**First World War.**		
	Second World War.	X	
	Cold War.		
1. How many Spitfires can still fly today?	None.		
	One.		
	A few.		
2. This plane was repaired	after the war.		
	a few years ago.		
	a short time ago.		
3. The plane was repaired by	the people at Duxford.		
	Mrs Caroline Douglas.		
	Mr George Douglas.		
4. Mr George Douglas	was an airline pilot.		
	died in the war.		
	was a Spitfire pilot.		
5. Mr Douglas had in his garden	an old Spitfire from the war.		
	this Spitfire now at Duxford.		
	a copy of a Spitfire.		
6. Mr Douglas	gave his Spitfire to Duxford.		
	did not finish building his plane.		
	gave his Spitfire to his wife.		
7. Mrs Caroline Douglas decided	to build a model Spitfire.		
	to finish the replica in her garden.		
	to learn to fly a plane.		
8. Mrs Douglas came to Duxford	to fly the Spitfire.		
	to take photos of the Spitfire.		
	to take photos of her sons.		
9. Mrs Douglas wanted	to repair the Duxford Spitfire.		
	to fly the same sort of plane as her husband did.		
	to be frightened and confused.		

Question 9. The Information Office.

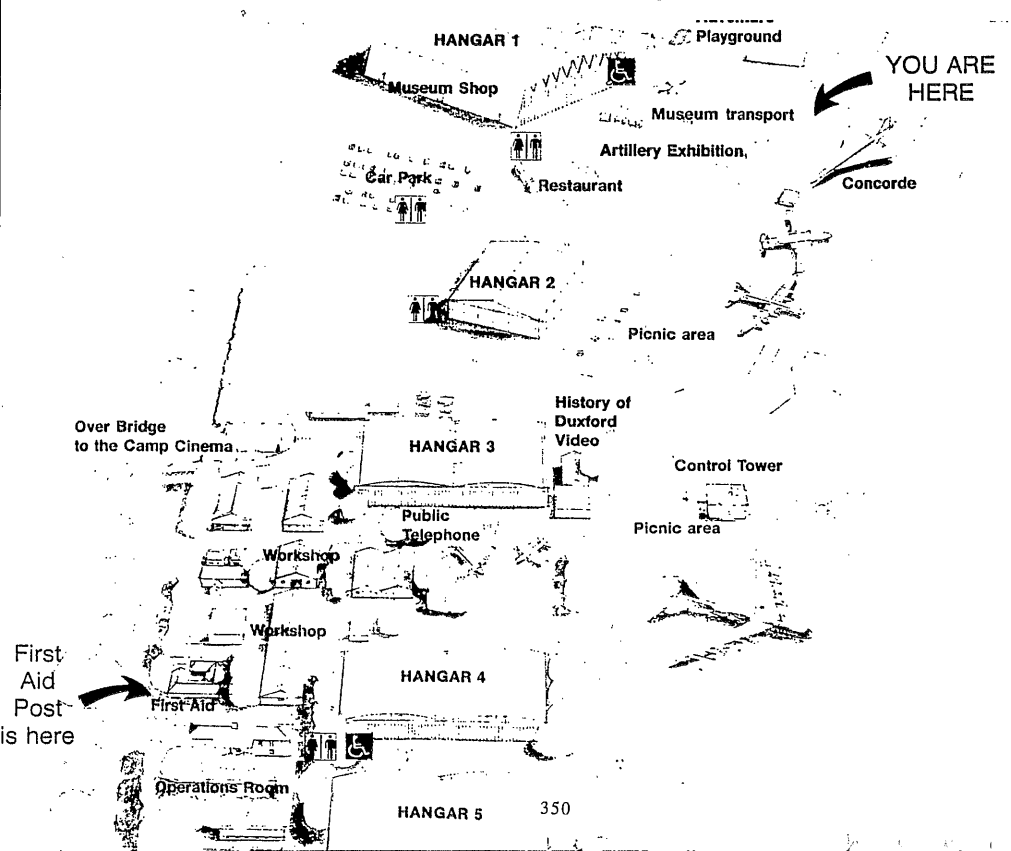
In this question you must WRITE your answers.

NOTES

1. There are over .....100..... aeroplanes at Duxford.
2. Duxford is at Junction ..... on the ..... motorway.
3. It is about ..... miles from London.
4. Normally it costs .....per person but it costs.....per person if you book in advance.
5. The museum is open from 10 till 6 from ..... to .....
6. The Classic Fighter Air Show is on ..... July this year.
7. There will be a visit then by the ....
8. The phone number at Duxford is .....

Question 10. Giving directions.

In this question you must SPEAK your answer.



Question 11. Telling Simon about Duxford.

In this question you must SPEAK your answer.

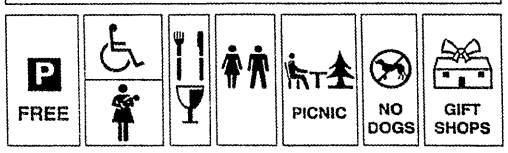
Everything you need to know

Admission (from 1 April 1992)

Adults	£5.50	Party Rates for groups of 20 or more	
Senior Citizens	£3.80	Adults	£4.50
Child/Student/UB40/Disabled	£2.75	Senior Citizens	£3.30
Children under five	Free	Child/Student/UB40/Disabled	£2.25
Family Ticket (2 Adults/3 Children)	£15.00	Pre-booked school party rate	£1.75

NB: These admission charges do not apply on some special event dates listed separately overleaf.
No dogs please.

Opening Times
Open every day except 1 January and 24-26 December.
Summer (mid March to mid October) 10am to 6pm.
Winter 10am to 4pm.



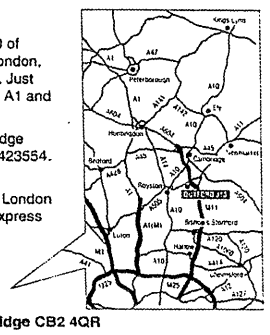
Travel Information

Duxford is next to junction 10 of the M11 motorway, 48 miles from London, less than half an hour from the M25. Just down the dual carriageway from the A1 and the North.

Regular service from Cambridge via BR station. Tel: Cambus (0223) 423554. Tel: BR Cambridge (0223) 311999.

Daily express service from London throughout the year. Tel: National Express (071) 730 0202.

Or you could fly in - for permission Tel: (0223) 833376/835000.



Duxford Airfield, Duxford, Cambridge CB2 4QR
☎ Cambridge (0223) 835000
(with information hotline)

Question 12. A day out.

In this question you must SPEAK your answer.

This KEY is primarily for the use of examiners when marking candidate tapes. A printed text of the examination, the master tape, and the candidate booklet may be obtained from the ARELS Examinations Trust.

NOTES FOR MARKERS

1. The model answers offered in each section are not definitive. Markers should use their own judgement in scoring each item, bearing in mind the response the setter expected.

2. A foreign accent is not to be penalised unless it interferes with comprehension.

3. Non-British English is acceptable.

4. Any relevant comments on the candidate's performance will be read with care and gratitude.

5. The following marks are used in grading candidates:

40% and below:		Fail - needs much more experience.
41% - 54%	:	Narrow fail - should try again later.
55% - 69%	:	Pass
70% - 79%	:	Good pass
80% and above:		Very good pass - should consider ARELS HIGHER CERTIFICATE

In addition all successful candidates must obtain 50% in each of the three sub-skills.

All candidates in the range 50% - 59%, or who score over 59% in the exam as a whole but fail to score 50% in one of the sections, will be marked twice. If they feel it is necessary, markers may call for a second marking even when one is not required by these criteria. In the same way, markers may recommend adjustments in the poor fail/good pass awards.

Fill in the back page with great care.

PLEASE CHECK YOUR ARITHMETIC.

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Acknowledgements: The Trust is grateful to Duxford Aeroplane Museum for permission to reproduce material from its Visitor's Guides.

MARKING GUIDE

SECTION ONE - SOCIAL ENGLISH Questions 1 - 5

Questions 1, 2 and 3. Marking Criteria.

0: No answer; a misleading or incomprehensible answer.

1: An answer that an ordinary native speaker would understand as conveying an appropriate social signal, with the bare minimum of comprehensible communication: a simple Yes or No, for example, as appropriate.

2: (when allocated) An appropriate and comprehensible answer, offering more than the bare minimum response.

Model answers throughout this KEY are only illustrative and are often in greater detail than is expected from the average candidate.

1.	(c)	*Yes, it is.*	0 1 2
	(d)	*Thank you. (I) It's new/ I bought it in London last week.(I)*	0 1 2
	(e)	*Pleased to meet you./Hello./ How do you do. (I'm/ my name's ...)*	0 1
	(f)	*Recognisable country or place of origin.*	0 1
	(g)	*Recognisable place or name of airport.*	0 1
	(h)	*Not a lot. I fly a couple of times a year.*	0 1 2
	(i)	*I speak French and some Italian.*	0 1 2
	(j)	*OK. Sorry. Let's go.*	no marks

Total	/11

Question 2. Marking criteria as for Question 1.

2.	(c)	*Yes, let's./ OK. Good idea.*	0 1
	(d)	*Not really./ Yes, I've always wanted to work for an airline.*	0 1 2
	(e)	*Recognisable occupation.*	0 1 2
	(f)	*Recognisable hobbies and interests.*	0 1 2
	(g)	*I was never very keen on it, actually./ Yes, I like it too.*	0 1 2
	(h)	*Good idea.*	0 1

Total	/10

Question 3. Marking criteria as for Question 1:

3.	(c)	*Yes, of course. (Here you are.)*	0 1 2
	(d)	*I'd like a ... [drink shown on the menu].*	0 1 2
	(e)	*I think I'll have a ... [filling from the menu] sandwich/ a slice of pizza, please.*	0 1 2
	(f)	*Oh really? Congratulations! Happy birthday.*	0 1
	(g)	*Recognisable celebration of previous birthday, e.g. I went out for a meal with some friends./ I had a party at home./ I really can't remember.*	0 1 2

Total	/9

Question 4 - Marking criteria

0: No answer; a misleading or incomprehensible answer.

1: Any answer that an ordinary native speaker would understand as conveying an appropriate social signal with the bare minimum of comprehensibility.

2: A fairly appropriate answer, which may be inaccurate in structure or pronunciation, but faults in production do not affect comprehensibility.

3: An appropriate remark produced without problems of comprehensibility or accuracy.

4.	(c)	*Do you have/ Have you got (any/some) (picture) postcards of the planes?*	0 1 2 3
	(d)	*How much are the guide books?*	0 1 2 3
	(e)	*Which (of them) is best for a foreign visitor/ foreigner?*	0 1 2 3
	(f)	*Where can I see the museum video?*	0 1 2 3
	(g)	*Who flies the planes in the museum?*	0 1 2 3
	(h)	*Is there a public telephone near here/ the shop?*	0 1 2 3

Total	/18

Question 5. Marking criteria:

Accuracy of expression - discrete points:

Deduct one mark for each error

5.	1. *arrange*	pronunciation	0 1
	2. *fascinating*	pronunciation	0 1
	3. *Europe*	pronunciation	0 1
	4. *C A R O U S E L*	spelling out	0 1 2
	5. *opposite*	pronunciation	0 1
	6. *7.45*	pronunciation	0 1
	7. *half past six*	pronunciation	0 1
	8. *217607*	pronunciation	0 1
	Ease of comprehension and fluency		0 1 2 3

0: Very difficult to listen to; sometimes incomprehensible.

1: Sometimes difficult to listen to, but almost always comprehensible.

2: Often halting and with poor phrasing or intonation, but always comprehensible.

3: Easy to listen to; fairly clear and fluent reading.

Total	/12

TOTAL	/ 60	Divide by three	TOTAL	/ 20

Ignore $^1/_3$rds: raise $^2/_3$rds

SECTION TWO - COMPREHENSION Questions 6 - 9

Question 6. Marking criteria.

0: Obviously has not understood.

1: Shows understanding but may have missed some details.

2: (Where allocated) Has understood quite well.

6.	(a)	*Her grandparents/ her grandfather and grandmother. (both needed)*	0 1
	(b)	*Because he used to be a pilot (in WWII).*	0 1 2
	(c)	*Going on the simulator/ the machine that is like flying a plane.*	0 1 2
	(d)	*Some money and her keys.*	0 1 2
	(e)	*It was crowded./ There was a big queue.*	0 1 2
	(f)	*Some chocolate and some drinks (from a machine).*	0 1 2
	(g)	*The grandparents.*	0 1
	(h)	*She had a headache.*	0 1
	(i)	*To see all the things she couldn't see that day, because it was so crowded.*	0 1 2

Total	/15

Question 7. Marking criteria.

For completing the notes, as indicated, 2 marks each. Ignore spelling as far as possible.

Number 1. *Concorde. (6)*	0 2
Number 2. *Sea Hurricane workshop (13)*	0 2
Number 3. *Control Tower (11)*	0 2
Number 4. *VI Flying Bomb (22)*	0 2
Number 5. *A telephone.*	0 2
Number 6. *Adventure playground (2)*	0 2

Total	/12

Question 8.

For each choice correctly indicated - 1 mark.

8.	1.	*How many Spitfires can still fly today? A few.*	0 1
	2.	*This plane was repaired a short time ago.*	0 1
	3.	*The plane was repaired by the people at Duxford.*	0 1
	4.	*Mr George Douglas was a Spitfire pilot.*	0 1
	5.	*Mr Douglas had in his garden a copy of a Spitfire.*	0 1
	6.	*Mr Douglas did not finish building his plane.*	0 1
	7.	*Mrs Caroline Douglas decided to learn to fly a plane.*	0 1
	8.	*Mrs Douglas came to Duxford to fly the Spitfire.*	0 1
	9.	*Mrs Douglas wanted to fly the same sort of plane as her husband did.*	0 1

Total	/9

Question 9.

Deduct one mark for each error for each item. Ignore handwriting and spelling (except for words spelt out) as far as possible.

NOTES

9.	1.	*There are over 100 aeroplanes at Duxford.*	Example
	2.	*Duxford is at Junction 10*	0 1
		on the M11 motorway.	0 1 2
	3.	*It is about 48 miles from London.*	0 1
	4.	*Normally it costs £2.25 per person,*	0 1
		but it costs £1.75 per person if you book in advance.	0 1
	5.	*The museum is open from 10 till 6 from MARCH to*	0 1
		OCTOBER.	0 1
	6.	*The Classic Fighter Air Show is on 2nd and 3rd July this year. (1 mark for 2 and 3)*	0 1 2
	7.	*There will be a visit then by the RED ARROWS.*	0 1 2
	8.	*The phone number at Duxford is 835000*	0 1 2

Total	/14

Total	/50

SECTION THREE - EXTENDED SPEAKING Questions 10, 11, and 12,

MARKING CRITERIA

Appropriacy	0:	Incomprehensible
	1:	A well-intentioned native could just about work out what the candidate is talking about.
	2:	Some idea of what the candidate wants to say comes across, but a listener would need to question and clarify.
	3:	The appropriate points are made, but comprehension requires some imagination on the part of the listener.
	4:	Occasionally points are unclear, but the required information is essentially conveyed.
	5:	Conveys an appropriate message with ease.
Production (stress, rhythm, intonation, pronunciation)	0:	Incomprehensible.
	1:	Very difficult to listen to: considerable goodwill necessary to keep listening.
	2:	Quite difficult to listen to, with production distinctly faulty, but not irritating.
	3:	Production reasonably adequate; fairly frequent faults, but these do not make listening difficult.
	4:	Production adequate; faults still occur but are usually incidental to the candidate's self expression.
	5:	Easy to listen to; production may not be completely authentic, but faults in no way impair candidate's self expression.
Continuity	0:	Virtually silent.
	1:	Very hesitant indeed.
	2:	Very hesitant. Often has to search for quite simple words.
	3:	Quite often hesitant, but generally manages to keep going.
	4:	Fairly fluent: sometimes stumbles, but keeps flow going.
	5:	Fluent; manages to cope well with the situation.
Structural accuracy	0:	Incomprehensible
	1:	Very faulty indeed; scarcely comprehensible
	2:	Often faulty, but nearly always comprehensible.
	3:	Quite often faulty, but always comprehensible.
	4:	Errors, although fairly widespread, are usually minor.
	5:	Very few grammatical errors.

10. Appropriacy 0 1 2 3 4 5
Production 0 1 2 3 4 5
Continuity 0 1 2 3 4 5
Structural accuracy 0 1 2 3 4 5

Go left along the road past the planes and the picnic area towards the Video Building. Turn left and go across past some aeroplanes to the back of Hangar 4. You'll see the Workshops there. The First Aid post is behind the workshops, opposite the Operations Room.

11. Appropriacy 0 1 2 3 4 5
Production 0 1 2 3 4 5
Continuity 0 1 2 3 4 5
Structural accuracy 0 1 2 3 4 5

For full marks candidates must tell Simon the price of admission £5.50 for each adult and £2.75 for each child. They must also say there is a bus service from Cambridge (via the BR station). Then they may add other details of what can be done and seen there.

12. Appropriacy 0 1 2 3 4 5
Production 0 1 2 3 4 5
Continuity 0 1 2 3 4 5
Structural accuracy 0 1 2 3 4 5

Candidates should describe: EITHER a visit to a museum, including where it was, when they went there, and what they saw there OR their idea of an interesting day out.

TOTAL / 60	Divide by two	TOTAL / 30

Raise $^1/_2$5

AP45

Candidate's Number	Circle here if you recommend a local second marking:→	SECOND MARKING
	Include: 1. Tapes in range 50%–59% 2. All tapes over 59% with a section failure 3. Any you are uncertain about explain under "Comments" below.	

Examiner's opinion→ Number ↓	If you feel the grade boundaries should be modified for this candidate, circle below:					
	GIVE FAIL	WITHHOLD FAIL	GIVE GOOD PASS	WITHHOLD GOOD PASS	GIVE VG PASS	WITHHOLD VG PASS

Section	Questions	Max Marks	Marks Given	Pass or Fail	Comments
1	1 to 5	20			
2	6 to 9	50			
3	10, 11 and 12	30			
TOTAL		100			

Examining Team Leader's Assessment	

AP45

Candidate's Number	Circle here if you recommend a local second marking:→	SECOND MARKING
	Include: 1. Tapes in range 50%–59% 2. All tapes over 59% with a section failure 3. Any you are uncertain about explain under "Comments" below.	

Examiner's opinion→ Number ↓	If you feel the grade boundaries should be modified for this candidate, circle below:					
	GIVE FAIL	WITHHOLD FAIL	GIVE GOOD PASS	WITHHOLD GOOD PASS	GIVE VG PASS	WITHHOLD VG PASS

Section	Questions	Max Marks	Marks Given	Pass or Fail	Comments
1	1 to 5	20			
2	6 to 9	50			
3	10, 11 and 12	30			
TOTAL		100			

Examining Team Leader's Assessment	

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