ISSN 1918-7211 (print) ISSN 1918-722X (online)

International Journal of Psychological Studies

Vol. 1, No. 1 June 2009



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Vol. 1, No. 1

June 2009

Contents

Self-Concepts and Parental Reports on Children's Social Skills at Home	2
Haibin Li & Laurel Bornholt	
nvestigation and Analysis on the Achievement Motivations of 278 Senior High School Students	10
Qizhen Liu & Xiaojuan Zhu	
Organizational Citizenship Behavior Factor Structure among Employees in Hotel Industry	16
Shaiful Annuar Khalid, Hassan Ali, Mohammad Ismail, Norshimah Abdul Rahman, Kamsol Mohamed	
Kassim & Rozihana Shekh Zain	
The Memory Promoting Effect of Smiling Face in Face Cognition	26
Vingxia Wang	
The Practice of Affective Teaching: A View from Brain Science	35
Venhai Zhang & Jiamei Lu	
ourney from the Heart of Darkness to the Heart of Sadness: Fiction v/s Reality	42
Yousof A. Qasaimeh & Monika Joshi	
A Research on the Subject Well-being of Regional College Students	51
Vanbin Ren	

Vol. 1, No. 1 June 2009

Self-Concepts and Parental Reports on Children's Social Skills at Home

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Abstract

Social behaviours are critical to children's developmental outcomes, yet the evidence may be difficult to interpret from either child self-report or reports by other people. We propose that any distinctions and commonalities among parent and child reports depend on content and context. The materials were reliable indicators of self-concepts and parent reports on children's social behaviour at home from the Rowe Behaviour Rating Inventory. Participants were four-to thirteen-year-old girls and boys, and the parents or primary care-givers, in a selected location close to the Australian national average in socio-economic indicators. Results show that child self-reports and parent reports were generally not associated. The findings support the contextual hypothesis of distinct perspectives by parents and children. Findings also contribute to knowledge of children's social self concepts that has practical considerations for health and education programmes. We conclude that it would be worthwhile to extend this work on dimensions of children's social behaviour at home to cover other behaviours and the perspectives by other key people across diverse socio-economic locations.

Keywords: Motivation and self-concept, Parent-child responsiveness, Social behaviour

1. Introduction

Investigations across disciplines in social sciences provide strong yet diverse foundations for the study of self. Increasingly, these so called 'self-concepts' are considered as cognitive self-evaluations in relation to particular characteristics, events and activities (e.g., Merrell, Cedeno, & Johnson, 1993; Zentner & Renaud, 2007). The classic work of William James from 1890 related the self-concept to behaviour - as an interpretation of experiences, where self concepts in turn support expectations of events. For instance, Bornholt and Piccolo (2005) suggest spiralling links between children's self-concepts and behaviours that motivate participation in learning and social activities. This paper takes up the implications for professionals who work with children on social behaviours: we need to consider the children's self-concepts about social behaviours as an addition to their actual behaviour and experiences.

It is clear that people's skills and abilities are best assessed by appropriate tests and observations (see Gresham, 1986). In addition, indicators of self-concepts require responses by the person about the particular events, characteristics and activities (see Bornholt, 2005). Ongoing research emphasises that it is particularly important to consider assessment situations when working with children, and many available inventories are unreliable, particularly for young children (see Davis-Kean & Sandler, 2001). Some researchers argue that children may lack the necessary cognitive capacity to respond in a valid way to self-concept inventories (e.g., Cook & Douglas, 1998) although others disagree (see Russell, Bornholt, & Ouvrier, 2002). Recent research confirms that with well-designed inventories, children as young as four or five years old can distinguish among aspects of self-concepts (see Bornholt, 2005; Brown, Mangelsdorf, Agathen, & Ho, 2008; Marsh et al., 2005; Moretti, Fine, Haley, & Marriage, 1985).

A long-standing debate rests on whether self-concepts about behaviour may or may not be substituted by observations by other people – where content and context are critical dimensions (see Achenbach et al., 1987). For instance, early reports by Herjanic, Herjanic, Brown and Wheatt (1975) indicated strong agreement (on average 80%) between parent

ratings and child self-reports on factual information (e.g., age, address, reason for coming, and source of referral) as well as psychiatric symptoms such as phobias, obsessions, somatic complaints and symptoms. Other studies of educational content (e.g., reading, mathematics, appearance and peer relations), suggest that some self-concepts reported by significant others (including parents and teachers) seemed to agree reasonably well with child self-concepts (Marsh & Craven, 1991). Yet the balance of evidence suggests that child self concepts and observations by others are not mistaken in any lack of agreement, but instead highlight the particular perspectives by each person; that are not necessarily systematically related (also see Shrauger & Schoeneman, 1979 for a review). This contextual approach was highlighted by Achenbach and colleagues (1987). The meta-analysis of 119 studies to focus on broadly defined behaviour problems included ratings by many informants (e.g., parents, teachers, mental health workers, observers, peers and the children) with weak links between child-other informant ratings (r = .22). Yet many practitioners continue to use parent reports to stand in for home observations or child self reports. On this point, a recent study by Brown et al. (2008) also showed limited associations between reports on the child's personality by mothers and children.

It would seem that content and context are important considerations here. The other problem is a sustained focus on particular problem behaviours; too few studies consider full dimensions of children's social skills at home. Our study therefore used parental reports in a reliable inventory, the Rowe Behaviour Rating Inventory (RBRI, Rowe & Rowe, 1997) and adapted the ASK-KIDS inventory (Bornholt, 2005) to provide matching self report to indicate children's social behaviour at home. It is important to reject the common practice of using the parent reports to stand in for child self reports. We designed the study to account for two plausible explanations for possible discordant views in the literature. The first explanation is that some areas of self-concepts (without reference to particular events) may resemble aspects of personality – this content may be inherently more difficult for other people to know. The second explanation is more practical. Perhaps apparent agreement between parent and child is necessarily altered where non-parallel dimensions were used in self-concepts and observation.

There can be no doubt that acceptable social behaviours are one of the foundations for children's interactions with others and later development. Therefore, many practical programs aim to build children's social skills. Indeed, Harter (1988) suggests positive self-concepts about behaviours are associated with many intra- and inter-personal developmental outcomes.

We focused our attention on children's social behaviour at home because children's behaviour may be quite distinct at home and at school. On this point, Linder (1993) suggests that at home children may be more likely to demonstrate a full range of behaviours from their behavioural repertoires. The location of this study in the home therefore complements the wealth of research with children in schools (e.g., Hoy et al., 1992; Merrell et al., 1993). Although social behaviour at home also influences children's opportunities for learning and development, few studies of social behaviour include direct observation of children's behaviours at home (see Bornholt & Rhodes, 2006; Prior, Smart, Sanson, Pedlow, & Oberkaid, 2001; Stormont, 2001).

The study was designed to test two main hypotheses about self-concepts and observation, that children and parents express generally positive ideas about aspects of social behaviour, and that child self-reports and parental reports are distinct rather than agree as perspectives-in-common.

2. Method

2.1 Design

The study was in a selected location to control broad factors of socio-economic indicators. The correlational design was used to examine the evaluations by parents and the children themselves regarding three related continua of children's social behaviour at home (unsociable-sociable, inattentive-attentive, restless-settled behaviour). These behaviours were selected because they influence children's opportunities for development (Cremeens, Eiser, & Blades, 2006).

2.2 Participants

The sample included children from pre-school, kindergarten, Year 1 to Year 6 at school in a suburban area close to the national average in socio-economic indicators (Socio-Economic Index For Areas, SEIFA = 1005, where 1000 is the national average, see Australian Bureau of Statistics ABS., 2006). The participants (N= 80) in this study included 40 children (25 boys, 15 girls) between the ages of 4 and 13, as well as the available parents or primary care-givers for each child (N = 40, men 6, women 34).

2.3 Instruments

Child self-reports based on ASK-KIDS (Bornholt, 1997; 2005) and Rowe Behaviour Rating Inventory (RBRI, 1995, 1997) were adapted for this study with the permission of the authors (Bornholt and Rowe, respectively).

Parent reports of child's social behaviour. The Rowe Behaviour Rating Inventory, RBRI (Rowe & Rowe, 1995, 1997) includes parent and teacher evaluations about children's social behaviour at home and school. The RBRI includes three related social behaviours along continuous dimensions (unsociable-sociable 5 items, inattentive-attentive 4 items,

restless-settled 3 items). Each item is anchored by a negative and a positive behavioural statement, and allows one of five dot responses. Parent responses formed reliable scale with unweighted items (Cronbach alpha coefficients > 0.7 for each scale). Scores for parental reports on children's behaviour at home range from (1) unsociable (e.g., disputes, fights over sharing) to (5) sociable behaviour at home (e.g., co-operative; shares with others).

Children's self-concepts about social behaviour. Presentation of the RBRI parent-form was adapted for children's self-report about social behaviour at home. The form was based on sound practice in eliciting self concepts in the ASK-KIDS Self Concept Inventory for Children (Bornholt, 1997, 2005). The same 12 statements from the RBRI parent-form about the child's behaviour at home were adapted for use in the child's self concepts about sociable-unsociable, attentive-inattentive and settled-restless behaviour at home.

To administer the inventory, the researcher sat next to the child with the form reading each item aloud, pointing to each of the response options. The child responded by marking one option on the dot-point rating scale (low = one dot to high = five dots). The responses formed reliable scales (with Cronbach alpha coefficients >.70), although there was one exception (therefore the one weak item was unscored). Scores for children's self-concepts about social behaviour at home (with unweighted items) were summed for each aspect, with range (1) unsociable to (5) sociable.

2.4 Procedure

The research was approved the University Ethics Committee and State Government Department of Education and Training. Participants were recruited from a suburban school with informed consent of their parents/guardians. Parents were also fully informed about the study and instructed that they would be able to withdraw from the process at any stage.

Trained researchers administered forms to adults at home. To limit discussions among family members, each child was interviewed in a quiet room at school by a trained researcher. The forms were administered using standard procedures, and sessions were brief (less than 20 minutes).

2.5 Data Analysis

SPSS for Windows was used for descriptive statistics (i.e., mean, standard deviation, range) and inferential statistics (reliability, correlations, analysis of variance). Conventional standards were used for statistical significance (p<.05), and effect sizes were calculated by hand (difference between means divided by the pooled standard deviation). An effect size of 0.4 of sd (or more), and correlations r > .30 were considered meaningful (Bornholt, 1997, 2005; Bornholt & Ingram, 2001; Bornholt & Piccolo, 2005).

3. Results

The results are presented in two parts. Part one describes the diversity of responses and average responses for children's self-concepts and parent reports about children's social behaviour at home. The second part of the results examines any associations between self-concepts and parent ratings of the children's unsociable-sociable, inattentive-attentive and restless-settled behaviour at home.

3.1 Profiles of child self-concepts and parental reports

Table 1 describes the reliability of the responses by parents and children. Table 1 also shows the mean, standard deviations and range for self-reports and parent reports of children's social behaviour at home (unsociable-sociable, inattentive-attentive, and restless-settled behaviour). It is important to note that observations cover the full range of social behaviours (e.g., from 1 unsociable to 5 sociable).

INSERT TABLE 1 ABOUT HERE

On average, parental observations of children's social behaviours are moderate to positive. In particular, parental responses about unsociable-sociable, inattentive-attentive, and restless-settled behaviour are at or above the mid-point of the five-point scale. Table 1 also shows that, on average, children express positive self-concepts about their unsociable-sociable, inattentive-attentive and restless- settled behaviour at home. Self-concepts about social behaviour at home are also above the mid-point of the five-point scales.

It can be seen from the profiles of means in Table 1 that, on average, the group of children tend to be more positive than the group of parents about children's unsociable-sociable behaviour (effect size 0.4 sd), inattentive-attentive behaviour (effect size 0.5 sd), and restless-settled behaviour at home (effect size 0.9 sd).

Table 2 shows the limited influence of age and gender on children's self-concepts and parental reports on children's social behaviour at home. In particular, children's self-concepts and parental reports on children's social behaviour did not vary with the children's age (non-significant correlations r range from .02 to .14). The one exception was a tendency for parents of older children to report somewhat more settled behaviour (weak correlation, r = .34, p < .05). Table 2 also shows the similarities for girls and boys. Children's self-concepts and parental reports on children's social behaviour at home were not associated with gender (non-significant correlations r ranged from -.18 to .03, using codes

of 0 boys, 1 girls). Subsequent analyses of child self-report and parental reports of children's social behaviour therefore combined the responses about younger and older girls and boys.

INSERT TABLE 2 ABOUT HERE

3.2 Distinct or common perspectives on social behaviour?

Results show few links between child self-concepts and parent reports on social behaviour at home. For parents and children, the three content areas, unsociable-sociable, inattentive-attentive, and restless-settled behaviours at home were associated with each other (r = .6 to .8). Yet Table 3 highlights the discrete perspectives by children and parents on unsociable-sociable behaviour (r = .06 ns), with statistically significant yet weak links for inattentive-attentive behaviour (r = .23 p<.05) and discrete perspectives on restless-settled behaviour at home (r = .18 ns). In addition, there was an interesting weak link in an off-diagonal cell of Table 3 between child self-concepts of sociable behaviour with parent reports of attentive behaviour (r = .32 p<.05).

INSERT TABLE 3 ABOUT HERE

4. Discussion

It appears that, on average, groups of parents consider that children behave moderately well at home. On average, groups of children are also quite positive about their social behaviour at home. It is clear that the profiles cover the full range of children's unsociable to sociable, inattentive to attentive and restless to settled behaviour. The evidence provided a sound basis to examine any links among pairs of children and their parents.

The findings provide sufficient support for the hypotheses. The major finding is that these reliable reports provide useful evidence that the views of parents and their children are not necessarily linked. In other words, pairs of children with their parents have distinct perspectives about the child's social behaviour at home. We can conclude that when considering children's social behaviour in the context of the home, the findings do not support common understandings about children's social behaviour.

4.1 Contribution to the literature on self-concepts and parental reports

From the study, we found that using the parallel dimensions scale did not increase the agreement between the pairs of parent reports and self-concepts on children's social behaviour at home. This study provides persuasive evidence on the perspectives of parent and children about the children's social behaviour. These findings are consistent with previous studies by Gresham & Elliott (1990) with several substantial samples of children using the Social Skills Rating System. The works of Gresham & Elliott (1990), Achenbach, McConaughy, & Howell (1987), Herjanic & Reich (1982) and the present findings, lead us to conclude that parents and their children may agree about easily observable behaviours such as factual events (e.g., whether the child was hospitalized) and some specific behaviours (e.g., an incident of fighting or a temper tantrum), yet child and parental reports have distinct perspectives across dimensions of social behaviour (such as the behaviours covered here by RBRI dimensions of unsociable-sociable, inattentive-attentive, restless-settled behaviour) (see also Gresham & Elliott, 1990).

The results of the present study provide rather interesting information concerning the distinct rather than common perspectives between parental reports and child self concepts about social behaviours at home that are specifically salient to children's learning and development. According to Achenbach and Edelbrock et al. (Achenbach et al., 1987; Edelbrock, Costello, Dulcan, Conover, & Kala, 1986), distinct parent and child reports, in itself, does not indicate that one is wrong and the other is right. Instead, this represents a consequence of their particular experiences. Some researchers emphasise that children have independent views about themselves, as well as of how they function in specific roles or under certain constraints (Edelbrock et al., 1986). The limited associations between child self concepts and parental reports on children's unsociable-sociable, inattentive-attentive, and restless-settled behaviour at home suggest that each informant contributes understanding of the situation that is not accounted for by the other person.

We conclude that children's self-concepts and reports by parents are not substitutes for each other. The findings add to the work on context and position-taking by Bornholt (e.g., Bornholt & Rhodes, 2006) that children's self-concepts, parent, teacher and clinical reports are important additions to and not substitutes for systematic observations of children's social behaviour at home and at school.

The findings have the potential to make a broader contribution to self-concept construction theory, in particular on the construct validity of self-concept responses. The results add to evidence on the fundamental nature of self-concepts, in support of self- and categorization theories (see classic works of Tajfel and others, e.g., Maras, Lewis, & Simonds, 1999; Tajfel, 1978). The valid distinctions rather than common perspectives by children and parents need to be considered with other work on the nature of self-concepts. What children think about themselves – as self-concepts - is in addition to rather than in place of actual performance, characteristics and behaviours, along with recent work that adds views of a clinician and trained observers (see Bornholt, 2005; Bornholt & Rhodes, 2006; Wigfield & Eccles, 2000), we can challenge conventional views that development of self-concepts comes from direct reflection on behaviour or reflected

appraisals of other people, especially significant others. In so called 'mirror theory' the self-concept should be positively related to the views of important other people. Instead, findings from the present study suggest parental reports about the child have limited direct impact on children's developing conception of self (see also reports on pathways through child self-disclosure and parental expectations of the child, Bornholt & Goodnow, 1999; Seginer & Vermulst, 2002).

4.2 Strengths and limitations of the design of the study

Interpretations of findings need to account for the strengths and any limitations in the design. The first comment is that limited sample size has distinct advantages. We used a small sample and checked that commonly reported influences by age and gender were limited. Defining the location also allowed us to control broader socio-economic factors. For example, socio-economic factors may differentially influence reported behaviours (Hattie, 1992; Kline, 2000; Theunissen et al., 1998). In any study of social behaviours, where the contexts matter, we do not consider that we are not free to apply these findings from one place to another. The findings show that it would be worthwhile to extending our work – to other places using the same materials and procedures.

The outcomes raise an important feature of this study – the need to use matched instruments. One of the strengths of this design is that parent and child reports used the same content items from the Rowe Behaviour Rating Inventory (Rowe & Rowe, 1995; 1997), with repeated items and child-appropriate techniques drawn from the ASK-KIDS Inventory (Bornholt, 2005). The outcomes mean that we may need to re-consider the findings from previous research that used different materials for child and parent.

The third comment is that our content covered a spectrum of social behaviours - unsociable-sociable, inattentive-attentive, restless-settled behaviour. In prevention as well as intervention programmes it is important to extend our observations beyond the target problem behaviours (see Achenbach et al., 1987; Rowe & Rowe, 1999). This raises the idea that content and context shift the domain of the particular questions put to parents and children to such an extent that findings from diverse studies about children's social behaviour are no longer comparable.

Finally, the carefully drawn sample is sufficient for the analyses (see Kline, 2000 on r > .3 as minimal meaningful links) given the care of a trial for inventories with two independent observers and video checks in training fieldworkers (see Achenbach, McConaughy, & Howell, 1987). Hoyle (1999) also argues for reliance on estimates of the strength of the parameters (such as effect size). Statistical significance is an important yet preliminary observation that relies largely on sample size. It is also important to note that observations of three social behaviours as within-person variability strengthens the design. In addition, participants were sampled age and gender, to increase representation for this location. It is important to note that long-standing research shows substantial similarities for ratings by mothers and fathers (Achenbach et al., 1987), and the age and gender of the children do not systematically alter parent-child concordance for child behaviours either alone or in conjunction with one another (e.g., Achenbach et al., 1987; Bornholt, 2005; Hoyle, 1999).

4.3 Further research and applications to practice

The findings yield useful information that contributes to theoretical knowledge on social skills assessments and also is applicable to working with children in early or preventive intervention programs. Both positive self-concept and social behaviour may be potentially beneficial in promoting positive child outcomes (Bornholt, 2005; Merrell et al., 1993). The weak links between ratings by different informants pose a challenge for clinical categorizing of social-unsocial behaviours of children presented in a home setting. Failure to account for how children think about their own social behaviours at home may lead to inappropriate or at best inefficient training programs. Educators and clinicians can make good use of this information to tailor education and counselling services to the needs of individuals who have problems in either social behaviours or low self-concepts about appropriate social behaviours. Furthermore, it may be worthwhile following up apparent weak links between parental reports on child's attentiveness and other aspects of children's social behaviour. What are supposed pathways from attentiveness to other social behaviours?

This study suggests several directions for future research. The two sources used in this study (parent behaviour-ratings and child self-reports from RBRI and ASK-KIDS inventories) provide a strong basis for substantial multi-method, multi-source and multi-setting observations of children's social behaviours. To counter the common practice of using parent and teacher reports to stand in for children's behaviour or self report, there is a pressing need for self- and parental reports along with direct behavioural observation and behaviour ratings from children and others (teacher, clinician, peer and parent) across different settings including school, home, play and clinic. Together, the evidence would highlight how significant others and the children themselves play such vital roles in the children's learning and development.

We conclude that parental reports of their children's social skills do not set a so-called 'gold standard'. Such reports may not be used to 'stand in for' children's actual social behaviours (see Achenbach et al., 1987; Bornholt & Rhodes, 2006). On the contrary, parental reports and child self-reports are key elements that inform our critical orientations with

respect for the voices and perspectives of children, which are in addition to the views of their parents or primary care-givers.

Acknowledgements

To the children, parents and teachers, for their insights and co-operation; with our thanks for fieldwork assistance to Nicki Brake, Tracy Rhodes, Madeline Parnell, Bree Hulme, Anna Piccolo, Carly Murphy, Carolyn Storrier, Kathryn Timmis, Nicole Martin, Anna Varejlian, particularly to Therese Levins, Lesley Russell and Pam Maras for their professional advice, and for comments on earlier versions of the paper by Ray Debus and Andrew Martin. The project was funded by a University grant to Laurel Bornholt, and an earlier report was presented by Haibin Li at the 2007 Australian Association for Research in Education conference.

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Table 1. Profiles of child self-concepts and parental reports about children's unsociable-sociable, inattentive-attentive, restless-settled behaviour at home

context	social behaviour	mean ^a	sd	range	alpha
children	unsociable-sociable	3.8	0.9	1.0 - 5.0	0.7
	inattentive-attentive	3.6	1.1	1.0 - 5.0	0.7
	restless-settled ^a	3.8	1.0	1.0 - 5.0	0.7
parents	unsociable-sociable	3.4	1.1	1.0 - 5.0	0.9
	inattentive-attentive	3.1	1.1	1.0 - 5.0	0.8
	restless-settled	2.9	1.0	1.0 - 5.0	0.8

Notes

- a. Inventories of parental reports and child self-reports range from 1 (low) to 5 (high)
- b. Item 4 was not a satisfactory indicator of children's self concepts of restless-settled behaviour at home, and was excluded from analysis.

Table 2. Influence of age and gender on children's self-concepts and parental reports of children's social behaviours at home

correlations ^a	social behaviour at home	age	gender ^b
	unsociable-sociable	.05	06
children	inattentive-attentive	.02	18
	restless-settled	.04	.07
	unsociable-sociable	.14	.03
parents	inattentive-attentive	.06	01
	restless-settled ^a	.34	.02

Notes

- a. Meaningful associations are $r \ge .3$ (see Kline, 2000)
- b. For the correlational analysis, gender is coded 0 boys and 1 girls

Table 3. Associations a (r) between children's self concepts and parental report on children's social behaviour at home

		Parental reports	
Context	Unsociable-	Inattentive-	Restless-
	Sociable	Attentive	Settled
Child self-concepts			
Unsociable-Sociable	0.06		0.32*
Inattentive-Attentive		0.03	
Restless-Settled	0.09		0.23
		0.05	
	0.18		0.28*
		0.18	

Notes

- a. Meaningful associations are $r \ge .3$ (see Kline, 2000).
- b. Asterisks indicate the statistical significance of correlations, * p<.05

Vol. 1, No. 1 June 2009

Investigation and Analysis on the Achievement Motivations of 278 Senior High School Students

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Abstract

This paper, applying Achievement Motivation Scale, conducts investigation to 278 grade 2 senior high school students on their achievement motivation. The research results show that there is no significant difference between the achievement motivations of students from common senior high school and those from key senior high school; the achievement motivations of senior high school students do have significant difference in genders and male students have higher achievement motivations than female students; the achievement motivations of students studying science and students studying arts have difference closely to significant difference; motivation to pursue success has negative correlation with motivation to avoid failure. Schools, gender and science type do not have cross functions on achievement motivations.

Keywords: Senior high school students, Achievement motivation, Motivation to pursue success, Motivation to avoid failure

1. Preface

Achievement motivation refers to that a person is willing to do things that he or she considers important or valuable and endeavors to achieve perfect results. A person with achievement motivation will lay high requirement on him or herself and endeavor for success. The level of achievement motivations has significant meanings to individual development as well as to social progress. For an individual, achievement motivation is an important psychological system that inspires self-achievement and promotes individual development. At the same time, it is one of the key elements that will determine the success of an individual. For a society, the achievement motivations of its people, together with national economy growth, accumulation of social treasures and the improvement of technology, is considered as important index of social prosperity and progress. According to the views of psychologists, the main motivations for students studying are reflected on achievement motivation and researches show that achievement motivation is the key element that influences students' self-monitoring capacity and study efficiency (Liu & Guo, 1993).

The US famous psychologist J. W. Atkison believes that achievement motivation has two factors, respectively, the motivation to pursue achievement and the motivation to avoid failure. What is more, the two motivations might be different in their force. Atkison found that if an individual's motivation to pursue success is stronger than the motivation to avoid failure, the individual will have higher subjective probability estimation on success; similarly, if an individual's motivation to avoid failure is stronger than the motivation to pursue success, the individual will higher subjective probability estimation on failure. Chinese scholars have conducted many researches on students' achievement motivation and obtained some outcomes. However, only a few Chinese scholars compare the achievement motivations of students from key senior high schools and common senior high schools and hardly have scholars who compare and analyze the achievement motivations of students studying social science, science and art.

2. Research design

2.1 Research objects

285 senior high schools students of the second grade randomly selected from three classes, namely social science class, science class, and art class, respectively from a common senior high school and a key senior high school from Wuhan.7

pieces of questionnaires are invalid (accounting for 2.45% of total questionnaires) and altogether got 278 pieces of valid questionnaires. Of the 278 pieces, 53 are from students of the social science class of the common senior high school, 48 from students of science class of the common senior high school, 48 from students of art class of the common senior high school, 50 are from students of social science class of the key senior high school, 48 from students of science class of the key senior high school; 106 are male students and 172 are female.

2.2 Research tool

This paper applies the Achievement Motivation Scale revised by Renmin Ye with Gjesme and Nygard. There are 30 questions of two sections. Each section has 15 questions, which respectively measures motivation to pursue success (MS) and motivation to avoid failure (MF). The scale is 4 points system. If it complies totally with a person, the person scores 4. If it complies basically, scores 3. If complies somewhat, scores 2. If does not comply at all, scores 1. The higher an individual scores in MS, the stronger motivation to pursue success he or she has. The higher an individual scores in MF, the more he is afraid of failure. According to the theories of Atkison, the accumulated motivation score Ma = MS - MF. The reliability of this scale is 0.74 (p<0.01) and validity is 0.58 (p<0.01).

2.3 Research methodology

This research was in the form of group questionnaire investigation. In the test of achievement motivation, teachers were required to conduct the test strictly following the guide and the questionnaire test procedures and examinees were required to score themselves according to their true conditions. The questionnaires were handed out on site and collected on site too.

2.4 Date processing

SPSS11.0 was used to conduct statistically processing on the data collected.

3. Research results

3.1 Comparison of achievement motivations of students from different schools

To test whether there is difference between achievement motivations of students from key senior high school and from common high school, we took the motivation to pursue success, the motivation to avoid failure and the accumulated achievement motivation as the dependent variables and school type as the independent variable to conduct the t-test to the two independent samples. The test result is shown in table 1.

It could be concluded from table 1 that the achievement motivations of senior high schools from different schools do not have significant difference no matter in the motivation to pursue success, the motivation to avoid failure or the accumulated achievement motivation, which means that the achievement motivations of the sample groups, students from common senior high school and from key senior high school, do not have significant difference.

3.2 Comparison on the achievement motivations of senior high school students studying social science, science and art

In order to test differences of achievement motivations in difference science type, namely, social science, science and art, we took the motivation to pursue success, the motivation to avoid failure and the accumulated achievement motivation as dependant variables and science type as independent variable and conducted t-test to two independent sample groups of social science, science and art. The results show that the significance levels of MS, MF, MS-MF of t-test on social science students and science students are respectively p=0.351, 0.940, and 0.618, which are all of no significant difference; the significance levels of MS, MF, MS-MF of t-test on social science students and art students are respectively p=0.382, 0.556, and 0.318, which are all of no significant difference; the significance level of MS the t-test on science students and art students is p=0.062, which is closed to significance, while MF, MS-MF of t-test on science students and art students are respectively p=0.642 and 0.126, which are all of no significant difference.

Please refer to table 2 for the means and standard deviation of the achievement motivations of social science, science and art senior high school students.

It could be seen from table 2 that

3.3 The gender difference of the achievement motivation of senior high school students

To test the gender difference of the achievement motivation of senior high school students, we took the motivation to pursue success, the motivation to avoid failure and the accumulated achievement motivation as the dependant variables and gender as independent variables to conduct t-test to the two sample groups. The results are shown in table 3.

It could be known from table 3 that the motivation to pursue success of senior high school students of different genders has significant difference p<0.05. Male students have higher motivation to pursue success than that of female students; the motivation to avoid failure of senior high school students of different genders does not have significant difference; the accumulated achievement motivation of male and female senior high school students have significant difference

p<0.05. The achievement motivation of male students is higher than that of female students.

3.4 Comparison of the different achievement motivation of senior high school students

Please refer to table 4 for the means and standard deviation of the motivation to purse success, the motivation to avoid failure and the accumulated achievement motivation of senior high school students.

It could be found from the table that the scale of senior high school students' motivation to pursue success has significant negative correlation with their motivation to avoid failure, r = -0.167, p<0.001. The mean of the motivation to pursue success is 38.37, which is higher than the mean of the motivation to avoid failure, 31.38. It shows that commonly, among senior high school students, the motivation to pursue success is stronger than the motivation to avoid failure.

3.5 Analysis of Multi-factor variance on achievement motivation

We took school type, gender, science type as variables and respectively conducted multi-factor variance analysis on the motivation to pursue success, the motivation to avoid failure and accumulated achievement motivation. The analysis results show that the main effects of school type, gender and science type on MS, MF and Ma=MS-MF are the same to the afore mentioned results. The school type, gender and science type do not generate significant cross functions on MS, MF, Ma=MS-MF respectively.

The adjusted R^2 =0.033, R^2 =-0.020, R^2 =0.010 show that this model has not have ideal effect on the fitting degree of the date., which, from another angle, indicates that the motivation to pursue success, the motivation to avoid failure and the accumulated achievement motivation are influenced by other elements too besides school type, gender and science type.

4. Analysis and discussion

4.1 The differences of the achievement motivation of different senior high school students and analysis

In this sample group, the achievement motivation of senior high school students from different schools, key senior high school and common senior high school, does not have significant difference, which is not consistent with the research conclusions of Chinese scholar Jun Chen and Jijia Zhang. They believe that the achievement motivation of students form key senior high schools is higher than that of students from common high schools (Chen & Zhang, 2003). The reason may be related to the sample groups of this research.

4.2 The differences of the achievement motivation of social science, science, and art senior high school students and analysis

The t-tests on the two independent sample groups among social science students, science students, and art students show that social science students and science students, social science students and art students do not have significant difference in the motivation to pursue success, the motivation to avoid failure and the accumulated achievement motivation. Science students and art students have big difference in the motivation to pursue success and the accumulated achievement motivation. The significance level of t-tests are respectively p=0.062 and p=0.126. The significance level of t-test on the motivation to pursue success is p=0.062 closed to the significance p=0.05, which shows that the motivation to pursue success of science students is stronger than that of art students.

Social science and science students are quite different from art students. Social science and science students have to face the pressure from university entrance examination, while art students has less pressure from that examination and their examinations do not have the same pressure on them as social science and science students. The reason that science students and art students have big difference in MS and MS-MF may be related to China's university entrance examination system, course arrangement and social expectations.

4.3 The gender difference of the achievement motivation of senior high school students

The difference the achievement motivation between male and female has always been a topic that psychologists are interested in. Mcclelad found that in achievement orientation context, males' achievement intention raise significantly while females do not. Some researches show that the achievement motivation of female students in preliminary school is higher than that of male students in preliminary school. From junior high school, male students' achievement motivation is higher than that of female students and the difference grows larger and larger with time passing on. During college stage, the difference of achievement motivation between college male students and female students reaches significance level (Jing, 1995). The conclusion of this research is basically the same as most researches, that is, the achievement motivation of male students is higher than that of female students.

There is difference between male and female senior high school students in the motivation to avoid failure and male students' motivation to avoid failure is lower that female students' and there is no significant difference, which however, is no consistent with the conclusion of Chinese scholar Aibao Zhou. The reason may be different self-difference of the research objects, one being senior high school students and the other being junior high school students.

4.4 The characters of the senior high school students' motivation to pursue success and the motivation to avoid failure and analysis

This research shows that the motivation to pursue success and the motivation to avoid failure has the same nature. Senior high school students' motivation to pursue success has significant negative correlation with their motivation to avoid failure.

The mean of senior high school students' motivation to pursue success is 38.37, which is higher than that of the motivation to avoid failure, 31.38. This shows that senior high school students' tendency to pursue success is higher than their tendency to avoid failure. Senior high school students have pretty high expectation on pursuing success and have relatively less worries on failure. Their passive achievement motivation is rather weak.

4.5 Multi-factor variance analysis on achievement motivation

The main effect results of multi factor variance analysis of school type, gender and science type respectively on the motivation to pursue success, the motivation to avoid failure and accumulated achievement motivation are the same as those of t-tests. However, school type, gender and science type do not have cross functions on the motivation to pursue success, the motivation to avoid failure and the accumulated achievement motivation. The adjusted R^2 =0.033, R^2 =0.020, R^2 =0.010 show that this model does no have ideal effect on the fitting degree of the date, which from another angle, indicates that the motivation to pursue success, the motivation to avoid failure and the accumulated achievement motivation are also influenced by other elements besides school type, gender and science type.

Actually, achievement motivation is indeed under the influence of many other elements, such as the grade, emotion, self-cognition, and self-evaluation of senior high school students as well as social culture.

For the element of grade, Jie Pan and Ningjian Liang's research indicates that the achievement motivation of high school students has significant difference in grade (Pan & Liang, 2003). For the element f emotion, the more the senior high school students have worries, the lower their achievement motivation is and the higher their worries on examination are. For the element of self-cognition and self-evaluation, the higher the senior high school students' study self-cognition and self-evaluation is, the stronger their achievement motivation is. The higher the senior high school students' general self-cognition and self-evaluation is, the weaker their achievement motivation is. For the element of social culture, the higher the senior high school students' evaluation on their class environment is, the stronger their achievement motivation is (Wo, 2001).

5. Conclusion

From the results and analysis, we could get the following conclusions: the achievement motivation of students from common senior high school and key senior high school of the sample group does not have significant difference; the achievement motivation of senior high school students of different gender has significant different. The motivation of male students to pursue success is higher than that of female students; the motivation to pursue success of science senior high school students and of art senior high school students has difference closed to significance difference; the achievement motivation of science senior high school students and of social science senior high school students do not have significant difference and the same is to social science students and art students; the motivation to pursue success of senior high school students has significantly negative correlation with their motivation to avoid failure, which shows that commonly among senior high school students, the motivation to pursue success is stronger than the motivation to avoid failure.

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Table 1. Comparison of achievement motivation of students from different senior high schools

School	Quantity -	MS	S	M	F	MS	-MF
School	Quantity -	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Common	149	38.72	6.872	31.65	7.872	7.07	10.547
Key	129	37.95	7.606	31.08	7.908	6.88	12.633
T value			0.888		0.604		0.140
Sig.			0.375		0.546		0.888

Table 2. The means and standard deviation of the achievement motivation of social science, science and art senior high school students

Caianaa tama		MS		MF		MS-l	MF
Science type	quantity	M	SD	M S	SD	M	SD
Social science	103	38.31	5.895	31.17	7.225	7.15	9.803
Science	96	39.22	7.735	31.25	8.453	7.97	13.275
Art	79	37.41	8.058	31.84	8.058	5.57	11.377

Table 3. Comparison of the achievement motivation of senior high school students of different genders

4		MS	S	M	F	MS-	MF
type	quantity	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Male	106	40.45	7.611	30.86	8.371	9.59	12.035
Female	172	37.08	6.671	31.71	7.569	5.37	10.953
T value		3.877	***	-0.8	74	3.0	05**
Sig.		0.00	00	0.38	33	0.0	003

Note: *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001

Table 4. Comparison of the MS, MF, MS-MF of senior high school students

	M	SD	
Motivation to pursue success: MS	38.37	7.219	
Motivation to avoid failure: MF	31.38	7.880	
Accumulated motivation: Ma=MS-MF	6.98	11.541	

Vol. 1, No. 1 June 2009

Organizational Citizenship Behavior Factor Structure among Employees in Hotel Industry

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Abstract

Most of the literature on organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) was developed in the West, mainly North America. Not much is known about the meaningfulness and categories of OCB in other cultural environment such as Malaysia. This study investigates the dimensionality of OCB using a sample of hotel employees. Factors analysis of OCB items as rated by superiors revealed 5 dimensions, labeled as helping behavior, sportsmanship, conscientiousness, patience and civic virtue. Factor analysis of OCB items based on self- ratings (non manager employees) resulted in six dimensions, named as altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, effort expended and civic virtue. These results show that the forms of OCB seem to hold relatively well in another international context, although there are some differences.

Keywords: Organizational citizenship behavior, Factor analysis, Hotel industry

1. Introduction

According to Organ (1988), organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) refers to a universal set of behaviors exhibited by employees that are supportive, discretionary, and go beyond normal job requirements. The word discretionary, according to Organ (1988) means that the behavior is not a requirement of formal job description. OCB is a matter of individual choice and failure to exhibit such behavior is not generally considered as cause for penalty. What is important is that these examples describe behaviors which are helpful to the organization, yet they are not behaviors considered part of the core elements of the job. Over the years, the topic of organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) has generated a substantial amount of scholarly attention (for a review, see Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine & Bachrach, 2000) because these behaviors contribute to effective functioning of the organization (Podsakoff, Ahearne & MacKenzie, 1997; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994). It has been studied in a diversity of disciplines such as marketing, human resources management, health care and economics (Lievens & Anseel, 2004). Several measures and OCB domains have been developed such as altruism, conscientiousness, loyalty, civic virtue, voice, functional participation, sportsmanship, courtesy and advocacy participation (see, for example, Bateman & Organ, 1983; William & Anderson, 1991; VanDyne, Graham & Dienesch, 1994). However, there are five categories of OCB that are frequently recognized in research (LePine, Erev & Johnson, 2002) which are altruism (e.g. helps others who have heavy work loads), conscientiousness (e.g. is always punctual at work), sportsmanship (e.g. tends to make a "mountain out of molehills"), courtesy (e.g. informs you before taking any important actions), and civic virtue (e.g. attends functions that are not required, but help the organization image).

In term of OCB ratings, the majority of OCB research have utilized superior-ratings with justification that self-ratings of OCB are exposed to self serving bias, that is individuals tend to present themselves in a way that makes them emerge positive (Schnake, 1991). However, the use of self-ratings is not rare in OCB research. A growing number of research have utilized self-ratings of OCB such as Carmeli and Freund (2002) and Kuehn and Al-Busaidi (2002). Even though the use of superior-ratings alone mitigates concern regarding the problem of common method variance, a great deal of citizenship behavior may escape the attention of the superior (Organ & Konovsky, 1989). This suggests that measuring employee citizenship behavior from more than one source may supply a richer perspective on employee OCB. This is also consistent with suggestions by Allen, Barnard, Rush and Russell (2000) that the overall level of OCB is likely best captured by rating from multiple sources. In line with this suggestion, we used two different sources of rating (the self-ratings and superior-ratings of OCB).

Since most OCB studies have been conducted in the North America (Farh, Early & Lin, 1997), OCB measurement has received comparatively limited attention in other contexts (Paille, 2009). Research on OCB measurement in other cultural context is important since Podsakoff et al., (2000) argue that "cultural context may affect the forms of citizenship behavior observed in organization (e.g., the factor structure) (p. 556). Therefore the present study aims to contribute to the growing number of studies on OCB by investigating the content domain or dimensions of OCB in a sample of hotel employees. Employees in the hotel industry were selected as the study context because offering a high level of quality services and increasing operational efficiency involves extra-role behaviors such as OCB (Getty & Getty, 2003).

2. Method

2.1 Procedure

Data collection began by sending a cover letter that explained the study and invitation for participation to all 76 star-ratings hotels in the northern region of Peninsular Malaysia. Of the 76 star-ratings hotels contacted, 68 hotels responded and agreed to take part. Two sets of questionnaires were used to tap the level of employees OCB, which are superior questionnaire (for superior-ratings) and subordinate questionnaire (for self-ratings). There were 834 pairs of subordinate and superior questionnaires distributed to 68 star-ratings hotels. In each hotel, employees were selected using systematic sampling. Questionnaires were distributed to superiors (managers or heads of department) and subordinates through hotels human resources managers. Each superior was given two sets of questionnaires. The first set asked them to evaluate their subordinates levels of OCB (the number of questionnaires depend on the number of subordinates to be evaluated). The superiors were also asked to distribute questionnaires to their subordinates for self-ratings of OCB. Participants were told that anonymity and confidentiality were assured.

2.2 Research Instruments

A 20 items scale developed by Podsakoff and Mackenzie(as cited in Niehoff & Moorman, 1993), together with 22 newly developed items were used to measure the five OCB domains that are altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, conscientiousness, and civic virtue. Respondents were asked to indicate the extent of OCB demonstration using a 5-point Likert scale format from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree. Study by Moorman (1991) supported the psychometric properties of this scale. Regarding the newly developed items, initially 26 new items were generated

based on Organ (1988) conceptualization of OCB and presented to several hotel human resource officers as well as hotel superiors to make sure that the items capture those behaviors that are not part of employee's formal job description but are considered important for hotels organizational functioning. After discussions, 4 items are deleted because from the view points of hotel superiors and human resource superiors, those items are not applicable across job levels and not considered as extra role. Minor modification is made to the questionnaire to suit the study sample. The word "organization" was replaced by the word "hotels". For the self-ratings of OCB, the word "I" was added to each item. For the superior's questionnaire, every statement started with the words "This employee...."

3. Results and discussions

In total, 557 employees working in some 63 hotels from the northern region of Peninsular Malaysia provided self-ratings of OCB. The sample covered a broad range of hotel non manager occupations. Superior-ratings of OCB for the 557 subordinates were obtained from 287 superiors or head of departments. In the present study, superiors rated between one to five employees each but the majority rated only two employees. This ratio is better than some of the previous studies whereby a superior rated up to 10 employees (e.g., Cappelli & Rogovsky, 1998) or 45 employees (e.g., Niehoff & Moorman, 1993). According to Van Scooter and Motowidlo (1996), bias can be eliminated by reducing the number of subordinates to be rated by superiors. Fifty-five percent of the respondents indicated that they were male and 45% identified themselves as female. In term of ethnicity, 77% indicated they were Malay, 13% Chinese, 8% Indian and 2% others. Respondents ranged in age from 18 to 56 years with a mean of 29 years. The averaged employees had been with the hotels for 4 years. In term of marital status, 50% of the respondents were married, 48% were single, 2% were widowed and the remaining 1% was others.

Two separate principal component analysis (each for superior-ratings and self-ratings), with a varimax rotation, were performed on the items indicating the extent to which employees displayed the 42 citizenship behaviors and to test for structural similarity between the two ratings. There is a widespread use of principal component analysis which is suitable if the number of variables exceeds 30. Furthermore, varimax rotation seems to give a clearer separation of factors (Hair, Anderson, Tatham & Black, 1998). Research investigating the OCB factor structure based on existing and established scales has also adopted an exploratory factor analysis, using principal component method (e.g., Turnipseed & Murkison, 2000; Organ & Lingl, 1995; Morrison, 1994; Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2000; Latham & Skarlicki, 1995). Our analysis was based on a subject: item ratio of 13:1 which is higher than recommended (Hair et al., 1998). In both factor analyses, items loadings greater than .50 were used to determine the factor structure. This value is consistent with proper statistical practice in which factor loadings greater than .50 are considered very significant (Hair et al., 1998). Initially, factor loading of less than .50 (e.g., .30 and .40) were attempted, but the factors derived were not clearly defined and uninterpretable. An item was assigned to a factor only if a differential of .20 or more existed between two highest values among the components.

For superior rating of OCB, a series of factor analysis were conducted on the initial 42 items to determine which items grouped to form dimensions. Twelve items were deleted because of low communalities that are below .50. These analyses resulted in a five-factor solution with 3 to 14 items loading on each factor. The scree plot and differences among eigenvalues supported a five factor solution for superior-ratings of OCB. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was .952, which indicated that the data were suitable for factor analysis. The result of this analysis is outlined in Table 1. The OCB scales by Podsakoff and MacKenzie (as cited in Niehoff & Moorman, 1993), has been suggested to consist of 5 factors measuring altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, civic virtue and conscientiousness. The present study found general support for this five factor model except the lack of courtesy and altruism factors. As illustrated in Table 1, 14 items loaded in the first factor (7 altruism items, 6 courtesy items and 1 civic virtue item). It is worth noting that, previous research has indicated that superiors may not be able to recognize some of the finer distinctions between altruism and courtesy and tending to lump these into one broad helping construct (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994). Accordingly, in the present study, the first factor was labelled helping behavior. Nine items loaded on factor 2 and factor 4 and the majority of these items were the sportsmanship items. Of the 6 items loaded on factor 2, 4 of these items were sportsmanship items together with 1 courtesy item and 1 conscientiousness item. The four sportsmanship items loaded on factor 2 were those items adapted from Podsakoff and Mackenzie (as cited in Niehoff & Moorman, 1993). For reason of consistency with the previous research, the label of sportsmanship is used for factor 2. The 3 self-developed items initially tended to measure sportsmanship loaded on factor 4. It was felt that these 3 items reflect the employees' ability to persevere with something inconvenience or hardship at the work place. This factor was labelled patience. Four conscientiousness items loaded on factor 3 and three civic virtue items loaded on factor 5. The five factors explained 63.14% of the variance in the data with extracted factors eigenvalue of more than 1.

A summary of the factor statistics in shown in Table 2. The Cronbach alpha for the superior-ratings of OCB dimensions are: .94 (Helping behavior), .88 (Sportsmanship), .82 (conscientiousness), .76 (patience) and .81 (civic virtue). Helping behavior, conscientiousness, sportsmanship and civic virtue are considered as common dimensions as they resemble those OCB dimensions found in the West. Patience is considered as an extended dimension whose content domain

differs from existing Western OCB dimension. Whilst the results have important implications for the validity of the superior-ratings of OCB construct, the sample used in this study is different from the OCB samples investigated by previous studies. As such, it would be unwise to assume that exactly the same results of factors would occur in a sample of hotel employees. Moreover, in this study, half of the OCB construct contained new items. It is worth noting that, Payne (1970), indicated that different sample of respondents may result in different factor loading.

<<INSERT TABLE 1>>

<<INSERT TABLE 2>>

As illustrated in Table 3, for self-ratings of OCB, slightly different results were obtained, whereby the factor analysis revealed six factors. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was .904, which indicated that the data were suitable for factor analysis. The first factor consisted of 7 items (5 courtesy items, 1 conscientiousness item and 1 civic virtue item). This factor was labelled courtesy. Four altruism items loaded were on factor 2. Seven conscientiousness items were loaded separately on two factors, which is 4 items on factor 3 and 3 items on factor 4. The 4 self-developed items initially tended to measure conscientiousness were loaded on factor 3. Since these 4 items focused on the employees willingness and ability to expend effort by being present at the work place and also actively contributing to organization through ideas and efforts, factor 3 was labelled as effort expended. The three conscientiousness items loaded on factor 4, were those adapted items, and were labelled conscientiousness. Three civic virtue items were loaded on factor 5 and 3 sportsmanship items were loaded on factor 6. The Cronbach-alpha for the self-ratings of OCB dimensions are: .87 (courtesy), .80 (altruism), .67 (effort expended), .78 (conscientiousness), .70 (civic virtue) and .71 (sportsmanship). The six factors explained 61.87% of the variance in the data. A summary of the factor statistics is shown in Table 4.

<<INSERT TABLE 3>>

<<INSERT TABLE 4>>

The emergence of two new facets of OCB especially patience is probably unique in the Malaysian context as it was never measured in the Western literature. Since examination of OCB outside of the context of the US is limited (see, for example, Farh et al., 1997; Turnipseed & Murkison, 2000), this study provides initial empirical support for the existence of both universal and extended aspects of OCB in a non Western context. From the theoretical perspective, the extended dimension of patience seems to be one of the elements among Asian cultures (Markus, 2002). Liu and Fellows (2008) and Felfe, Yan and Six (2008) state that collectivistic was found to be related to OCB and individualistic persons are less likely to exhibit OCB. Additionally, on the basis of equity theory, it could be possible that patience and effort expended were exhibited by hotel employees in return for a fair pay and benefits from the management (Moorman, 1991).

4. Conclusion

The initial objective of this study was to develop OCB factor structure for the non managers of hotel employees in Malaysia. Additionally, consistent with the suggestion by Lievens and Anseel (2004), this study also examined the equivalence of OCB scales across superior and self-ratings of the same target person. Generally our results corroborate previous studies in the US and in other international context. The general picture is that the forms of citizenship behavior observed in organizations hold relatively well across international contexts. Paille (2009) for example found support for a 4-factor model (altruism, civic virtue, sportsmanship, helping others) in the French-language context. However, some differences should also be noted. The results revealed that superiors and self-ratings yielded slightly different factors. While superior-ratings of OCB yielded a new dimension of patience, self-ratings of OCB provided a new dimension of effort expended. Interestingly, these new dimensions were formed based on newly developed items. It is common that different ratings will give slightly different results. Morrison (1994) for example, stated that behavior such as OCB will be seen differently by employees and their superiors. Additionally, Nunnally (1967) indicated that the heterogeneity of the subjects in term of age, gender and culture may affect the factors generated. However, it is interesting to note, that using a different ratings will give a richer perspective of employee OCB. This study found that several facets of the OCB construct which had been measured in the Western literature were also evident in the Malaysian context. Employees were selected from several departments, positions and more than 60 hotels. Such as sample increases the external generalizability of the results. In term of practical implication, since some studies demonstrated that employees' citizenship behaviors contribute to organizational effectiveness, hotel managers should take necessary steps to encourage OCB among employees. For example, managers may exhibit citizenship behavior study limitations, our findings are limited to the items used to measure OCBs in this particular study. The use of other OCB measures may provide different factors. In terms of future research, it will be useful to investigate OCB factor structure among diverse samples of workers and industry. In this respect, Farh et al., (1997) have suggested the use of an iterative procedure of item generation and testing to develop an indigenous scale of OCB that yielded

context-specific dimensions.

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Table 1. Summary of factor analysis for superior ratings OCB items

		Co	ompone	nt	
Organizational Citizenship Behavior Items	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5
1. Consults you or other individuals who might be affected by his/her actions or decisions.	<u>.72</u>	.05	.20	.01	.18
2. Helps others who have heavy work loads	<u>.69</u>	.17	.09	.33	.06
3. Willingly gives his/her time to help others who have work-related problems.	<u>.68</u>	.18	.07	.30	.13
4. Informs you before taking any important actions.	<u>.68</u>	.16	.35	02	.06
5. Takes steps to prevent problems with other workers.	<u>.67</u>	.32	.24	.14	.16
6. Helps others who have been absent.	<u>.66</u>	.14	.11	.33	.08
7. Is always willing to cooperate with others to get a job done.	<u>.65</u>	.41	.19	.21	.12
8. Is willing to share his/her knowledge and expertise to help others improve their work performance.	<u>.64</u>	.35	.14	.21	.15
9. Helps new people to get accustomed to work environment.	<u>.63</u>	.24	.16	.31	.25
10. Help others with demanding work assignment.	<u>.61</u>	.20	.16	.24	.26
11. Does not abuse the rights of others.	<u>.61</u>	.28	.27	03	.13
12. Helps train new people even though it is not required.	<u>.61</u>	.22	.17	.30	.24
13. Pay attention to hotel memos or announcements.	<u>.57</u>	.23	.32	.05	.30
14. Concerned with the effects of his/her actions or decision on others.	<u>.55</u>	.23	.17	.19	.14
15. Tends to make a "mountain out of molehills"(R)	.12	<u>.81</u>	.12	.20	.14
16. Always finds faults with what the hotel is doing(R).	.19	<u>.76</u>	.15	.17	.13
17. Always focuses on what's wrong with his/her situation, rather than with the positive	.33	<u>.71</u>	.22	01	.09
side of it (R)					
18. Consumes a lot of time complaining about trivial matters.(R)	.33	<u>.67</u>	.21	.14	.05
19. Is always neglectful in coordinating his/her work with others. (R)	.35	<u>.66</u>	.07	.10	.07
20. Puts in less effort than other members of his/her work group. (R)	.11	<u>.65</u>	.09	.33	.20
21. Never takes long lunches.	.17	.15	<u>.84</u>	.19	.12
22. Does not take extra breaks.	.18	.18	<u>.84</u>	.18	.07
23. Is always punctual at work.	.38	.16	<u>.59</u>	.04	.06
24. Always maintain a tidy work area.	.39	.17	<u>.55</u>	.09	.09
25. Is the kind of person who can tolerate occasional inconvenience at work.	.29	.22	.09	<u>.73</u>	.13
26. Does not feel disappointed if others disapprove of his/her ideas or suggestions.	.17	.17	.22	<u>.65</u>	.11
27. Is the kind of person who is willing to face any difficulty with the organization.	.33	.27	.11	<u>.64</u>	.26
28. Attend and participates in formal and informal hotel meetings.	.21	.23	.10	.14	<u>.82</u>
29. Attends functions that are not required, but help the hotel's image.	.26	.07	.10	.17	<u>.82</u>
30. 'Keep up' with developments in the hotel.	.43	.30	.14	.24	<u>.53</u>

F1 = Helping behavior; F2 = Sportsmanship; F3 = Conscientiousness; F4 = Patience and F5 = Civic virtue.

Table 2. Summary of factor statistics for superior ratings of OCB

Factor	Eigenvalues	Percentage of Variance Explained
1	13.19	43.98
2	1.85	6.16
3	1.61	5.35
4	1.27	4.22
5	1.03	3.43

Table 3. Summary of factor analysis for self-ratings of OCB items

F1	F2 .12 .20 .17	F3 .10 .06 .05	.20 .01	F5 .05 .12	.08
77 75	.20	.06			.08
<u>75</u>	.17		.01	.12	
		05			.24
<u>65</u>		.03	.17	.13	.15
	.19	.18	.22	.04	.02
<u>62</u>	.07	.20	.07	.25	04
<u>57</u>	.13	.26	.34	.20	.18
<u>56</u>	.31	.19	.19	.22	.12
03	<u>.82</u>	.06	.12	.05	03
20	<u>.77</u>	.07	.10	.19	.09
30	<u>.75</u>	.10	.08	01	.09
30	<u>.63</u>	03	.05	.25	.05
23	.01	<u>.71</u>	.19	06	.10
16	.10	<u>.71</u>	.11	.06	.15
.03	.13	<u>.63</u>	07	.21	.17
19	03	<u>.62</u>	.06	00	.17
20	.12	.05	<u>.85</u>	.17	.10
25	.07	.10	<u>.83</u>	.15	.10
31	.25	.21	<u>.52</u>	.07	.17
15	.07	.04	.11	.82	.06
12	.23	.11	.07	<u>.70</u>	.04
33	.09	.02	.23	<u>.62</u>	.16
15	.09	.13	.14	.06	<u>.78</u>
21	.09	.24	.04	01	<u>.77</u>
03	02	.23	.10	.19	<u>.66</u>
$\frac{1}{2}$	52 57 56 03 20 30 30 23 16 03 19 20 25 31 15 12 33 15 21	52 .07 57 .13 56 .31 03 .82 20 .77 30 .63 23 .01 16 .10 03 .13 29 .12 25 .07 31 .25 15 .07 12 .23 33 .09 15 .09 21 .09	62 .07 .20 57 .13 .26 56 .31 .19 03 .82 .06 20 .77 .07 30 .63 03 23 .01 .71 16 .10 .71 03 .13 .63 19 03 .62 20 .12 .05 25 .07 .10 31 .25 .21 15 .07 .04 12 .23 .11 33 .09 .02 15 .09 .13 21 .09 .24	62 .07 .20 .07 67 .13 .26 .34 66 .31 .19 .19 03 .82 .06 .12 20 .77 .07 .10 30 .63 03 .05 23 .01 .71 .19 16 .10 .71 .11 03 .13 .63 07 19 03 .62 .06 20 .12 .05 .85 25 .07 .10 .83 31 .25 .21 .52 15 .07 .04 .11 12 .23 .11 .07 33 .09 .02 .23 15 .09 .13 .14 21 .09 .24 .04	62 .07 .20 .07 .25 67 .13 .26 .34 .20 66 .31 .19 .19 .22 03 .82 .06 .12 .05 20 .77 .07 .10 .19 30 .63 03 .05 .25 23 .01 .71 .19 06 16 .10 .71 .11 .06 19 03 .62 .06 00 20 .12 .05 .85 .17 25 .07 .10 .83 .15 31 .25 .21 .52 .07 15 .07 .04 .11 .82 12 .23 .11 .07 .70 33 .09 .02 .23 .62 15 .09 .13 .14 .06 21 .09 .24 .04 01

F1 = Courtesy; F2 = Altruism; F3 = Effort expended; F4 = Conscientiousness; F5 = Civic virtue and F6 = Sportsmanship

Table 4. Summary of factor statistics for self-ratings of OCB

Factor	Eigenvalues	Percentage of Variance Explained		
1	7.59 31.63			
2	2.11	8.77		
3	1.54	6.43		
4	1.38	5.73		
5	1.17	4.89		
6	1.06	4.42		

Vol. 1, No. 1 June 2009

The Memory Promoting Effect of Smiling Face in Face Cognition

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Abstract

This paper takes into consideration the universality of smiling face cognition and adapts holistic recognition strategy to study smiling face recognition within intercrossing culture. Research results showed that when the faces are upright, compared with quiet face, the response time of smiling face is quicker and the recognition time of smiling is improved. Moreover, holistic recognition strategy had its advantage under the upright condition; however it was uneasy to exert its function under the upside-down condition. Smiling face cognition was greatly influenced by the upside-down effect and smiling face recognition relied more on the holistic recognition strategy. What is more, holistic recognition strategy could overcome difficulties of recognizing various particular facial expressions of people from different cultures, and the smiling face could be commonly shared between the different cultures.

Keywords: Facial recognition, Upside-down effect, Smiling face, Holistic recognition strategy

1. Introduction

For the recognition of facial expressions, researchers have raised many recognition methods. Currently, the recognition methods of human beings' facial expressions could be divided into two types, namely, the one based on partial features and the one based on holistic features. The facial expression recognition based on partial features makes feature extraction according to the differences of the locations, sizes and mutual location differences of individual facial features (eyebrows, eyes, nose, mouth and face outline, etc.) to achieve facial expression recognition. The recognition based on the holistic features of faces applies the holistic face picture to extract the features that reflect face's holistic features so as to realize facial expression recognition (Maja, 2000)

The upside-down effect of Yin (1969) shows that when the examination series and recognition items are all upright pictures, the least the errors on facial stimulation recognition occur. However, when the examination series are upright pictures and the recognition items are upside-down pictures, the most the errors on facial stimulation recognition occur. Yin analyzed the oral reports of the examinees and found that the examinees applied holistic impression strategy to recognize upright faces while applied partial feature strategy to recognize upside-down faces. Combined with the right hemisphere of brain advantages phenomenon (Yin, 1970), Yin alleged that facial recognition system has specialty.

Carey and Diamond (1977) pointed out that the differences between upright and upside-down recognitions are qualitative differences. Under the condition of upside-down, the configurable information of face is destroyed, which results in poor recognition effect.

Valentine (1988) pointed out in the review of the upside-down effect of face that besides the factor that the examinees turned from holistic strategy to partial strategy in the process of face recognition, the factors that cause faces to be hard to recognize may also include facial expression, prototypes of faces, the familiarity of facial stimulation and the expertise of the examinees. These factors are concluded from some relevant researches. However, it is unknown what the relationships of these factors are and how they work.

Eastwood, Smilek and Merikele (2001) used sight search operation study to detect positive and negative emotional faces in quiet faces and found that when the faces are upright, the detection rate of positive emotional faces are higher than that of negative emotional faces while when the faces of upside-down, there is no difference.

It could be found from the above-mentioned researches that the direction of faces exerts great influences over face recognition. When upright, it could quickly obtain holistic information while when upside-down, the information could not be acquired.

2. Purposes

The previous researches indicate that smile face is the expression that is not easy to be mixed up with other expressions (Kirita T and Endo WI1993). When upside-down, the recognition of smiling faces is more greatly influenced. What is more, compared with other expression, in the recognition process of smiling face, the examinees rely more on the facial holistic recognition strategy (Kirita T and Endo WI (1993).). This paper would further discuss this conclusion. Psychologists and humanists all admit that facial expressions have universality and they are, to some extent, cross-cultural and cross-national. Wherever, smiling faces are to express happiness. We need to explore whether human beings more adopt holistic recognition strategy even within cross-cultural context by taking into consideration of the universality of smiling face cognition and applying the stimulation conditions of upside-down faces to present pictures

Based on the researches on Chinese and Japanese examinees, this paper did researches on the smiling face memory cognition on foreigners' pictures and native people's pictures. The research subjects include, firstly, whether smiling face memory cognition are more greatly influenced by upside-down effect; whether smiling face cognition more rely on holistic configurable information; under the condition of upside-down, whether partial feature recognition strategy is more advantaged; secondly, whether holistic recognition strategy could overcome difficulties of recognizing various particular facial expressions of people from different cultures and whether the smiling face could be commonly shared among the different cultures; thirdly, under the condition of upright, compared with quiet face, whether the response time of smiling face is shorter and the recognition degree of smiling face is higher.

Hence, the following assumptions are made: firstly, due to the advantages of smiling face cognition, when the examination series pictures are upright, for native examinees, no matter it is native people's pictures or foreigners' pictures, the response time of smiling face should be shorter than that of quiet face and the recognition degree of smiling face should be higher than that of quiet face. On the contrary, when the examination series pictures of upside-down, the response time of smiling face should be longer than that of quiet face and the recognition degree of smiling face should be lower than that of quiet face; secondly, the upside-down effect should be proved.

3. Objects and methodology

3.1 Examinees

The examinees are twenty-four undergraduates and postgraduates (12 Chinese and 12 Japanese; 12 males and 12 females).

3.2 Methodology

3.2.1 Preparation experiment

The preparation experiment adopted expression pictures of real face stimulation.

3.2.1.1 Evaluators

The evaluators are ten undergraduates and postgraduates (5 males and 5 females).

3.2.1.2 Preparation experiment procedures

We took pictures for 198 Chinese and Japanese undergraduates (97 males and 101 females) with 2 expressions for each student (smiling face and quiet face). The Evaluators evaluated every face pictures. They used six items (happy, angry, sad, surprised, confused and quiet and adopted Likert self-evaluation seven points measurement table to make score (1. completely did not express at all; 2. comparatively did not express; 3. did not express to some extent; 4. not sure; 5; expressed somewhat; 6: comparatively expressed; 7: fully expressed) so as to evaluate each facial picture. They evaluated the expression degree of each picture. For each expression, we use the average value of the dimension values of each evaluator as the final evaluation result. Then, we compared the average values of each expression picture and the higher ones are considered as the expression of pictures.

We adopted pictures of 32 students who well expressed their smiling face and quiet face as the target pictures of this experiment. In the left students' pictures, we selected from the two expressions the one that fully expresses their expressions as the interruption pictures. (32 students).

3.2.2 Experiment location

The experiment location is Advanced Psychology Laboratory of the Education Department of Kagoshima University.

3.2.3 Experiment materials

The smiling face and quiet face pictures of 64 people (32 males and 32 females). The examination series pictures are of eight types of combination, (smiling face, quiet face)×(Chinese, Japanese)×(upright, upside-down). The total number is 32. They were inputted into the computer and are made into stimulation pictures. When conducting recognition memory test experiment, the conditions for expression changes are that half of the target expressions are different from the examination series pictures and the other half are the same with examination series pictures. What is more, in the

recognition test, all pictures are upright. We selected 8 pictures for each expression from the Chinese and Japanese interrupting pictures (32 pictures). The total number of target pictures and interrupting pictures are 64. They are input into computer and are made into pictures for recognition memory test experiment.

3.2.4 Experiment procedures

Examination series pictures include the (target people's) expressions, the stimulation pictures' direction and nationality 32 stimulation pictures on computer screen. The distance between the examinee and the screen is 28.7cm. The size of the pictures is sight angle vertical direction 23.5°× horizontal 21°.

Each examinee is instructed as follows:

Welcome to attend face recognition experiment. We will show you some male and female's smiling face and quiet face pictures, either upright or upside-down. The show time of each picture is 4 seconds. Please carefully view each picture and memorize them. After the first facial picture stimulation recognition experiment, we will give each of you a piece of paper and please randomly draw a tree within 5 minutes. After that, we will begin to conduct the recognition memory test experiment. The screen will again show facial pictures and among those pictures, some are people that you remember and some are people you have not seen in the first experiment. What is more, the all pictures in the second recognition memory test experiment are all upright pictures. Please notice that the pictures have nothing to do with their expression and please just decide whether they are the same person. When the picture shown in the second time is the same person as the first time, please press E as soon as possible. If not, please press I as soon as possible. After pressed, the recognition memory test experiment is over. Your response is better if quicker. When the experiment starts, please put your right hand and left hand middle figure right on the button E and I.

We conducted the experiment according to the following orders (table 1). When doing recognition memory test experiment, after the screen shows pictures, after the examinees pressed the button the picture disappearance and the response button and time are recorded. If no response within 3 seconds, the picture will disappear and this test is considered as non-effective response (Rhodes, 1989).

4. Results

We calculated 24 examinees' average recognition response time and average recognition correctness's d' values in the recognition memory test experiment (the calculation of the d' value of recognition correctness applies signal measurement theory), compared the examination series pictures expression (Quiet, Smiling face) \times Nationality (Chinese picture and Japanese picture) \times direction (upright, upside-down) and used $2\times2\times2$ to do variance analysis.

- 4.1 The average recognition response time of recognition memory test experiment
- 4.1.1 In the recognition response time, in Japanese examinees group, the main effect of the cross-function between expression and directions of the examination series pictures are remarkable (F(1,35)=3.616, p<0.05).

After doing simple main effect analysis, it is found that the examination series pictures' expressions and upright directions have remarkable difference, p<0.05. What is more, the direction and quiet facial expression have remarkable difference, p<0.05. Please refer to picture 1 and picture 2 for the experimental results.

For recognition response, in Japanese examinees group, no matter it is Japanese pictures or Chinese pictures, the analysis results for cross-function between the examination series pictures' expression and direction show that when the stimulation pictures are upright, compared with quiet face, the response time of smiling face is shorter. On the contrary, when the stimulation pictures are upside-down, compared with quiet face, the response time of smiling face is longer.

- 4.1.2 In Chinese examinees group, the main effect of the cross-function between examination series pictures' expression and direction is remarkable (F (1, 35) =4.383, p<0.05). The simple main effect analysis results are the same as the Japanese examinees group. What is more, in recognition response time, in the Chinese examinees group, no matter they are Japanese pictures or Chinese pictures, the analysis results of the cross-function between the examination series pictures' expression and directions are the same as that of the Japanese examinees group. Please refer to picture 3 and picture 4 for the experiment results.
- 4.2 The d' value of the average recognition correctness in recognition memory test experiment
- 4.2.1 In the d' value of the recognition correctness, in the Japanese examinees group, the main effect of the cross-function between examination series pictures' expression and direction is remarkable (F(1,3)=11.626, p<0.05). After doing simple main effect analysis, it is found that the examination series pictures' expressions and upright directions have remarkable difference, p<0.05. What is more, the direction and quiet facial expression have remarkable difference, p<0.05; the direction and smiling face have remarkable difference, p<0.05. In addition, the main effect of the direction is remarkable (F(1,3)=58.80, p<0.005). Please refer to picture 5 and picture 6 for the experimental results.

For d' value of the recognition correctness, in Japanese examinees group, no matter they are Japanese pictures or Chinese pictures, the analysis results for cross-function between the examination series pictures' expression and

direction show that when the stimulation pictures are upright, compared with quiet face, the recognition correctness of smiling face is higher. On the contrary, when the stimulation pictures are upside-down, compared with quiet face, the recognition correctness of smiling face is lower. All in all, when the stimulation pictures are upright, it promotes the recognition correctness of smiling face picture recognition to rise. Therefore, the advantages of smiling face are determined. When the stimulation pictures are upside-down, the recognition correctness of quiet faces rises and turned into the result of the advantages of quest face.

4.2.2 In Chinese examinees group, the main effect of the cross-function between examination series pictures' expression and direction is remarkable (F(1, 35) = 12.945, p < 0.05). The simple main effect analysis results are the same as that of the Japanese examinees group. What is more, in d' value of the recognition correctness, in the Chinese examinees group, no matter they are Japanese pictures or Chinese pictures, the analysis results of the cross-function between the examination series pictures' expression and directions are the same as that of the Japanese examinees group. Please refer to picture 7 and picture 8 for the experiment results.

5. Discussion

It could be seen from the experimental results that in the recognition response time, the Japanese examinees group and Chinese examinees group got the same conclusion; in the d' value of the recognition correctness, he Japanese examinees group and Chinese examinees group also got the same conclusion.

When the simulation pictures are upright, the recognition of smiling face pictures promotes the recognition response time. Therefore, the advantage of the smiling face is determined. When the stimulating pictures are upside-down, the recognition response time of quiet face becomes shorter and it came the result of the advantage of quiet face. Therefore, the upside-down effect is proved. What is more, from the above resulted, it could be drawn that the recognition response time for native pictures is shorter than that of foreigners' pictures. To put it in other way, the native facial pictures are more remarkable than that of foreigners' facial pictures.

When the simulation pictures are upright, the recognition of smiling face pictures promotes the recognition correctness. Therefore, the advantage of the smiling face is determined. When the stimulating pictures are upside-down, the recognition correctness of quiet face rises and it came the result of the advantage of quiet face. Therefore, the upside-down effect is proved. What is more, from the above resulted, it could be drawn that the recognition correctness for native pictures is higher than that of foreigners' pictures. To put it in other way, the native facial pictures are more remarkable than that of foreigners' facial pictures.

The two assumptions of this research are proved.

Through the experimental results, we cold conclude that:

Firstly, for smiling face effect, when the examination series pictures are upright, compared with quiet face, the response time of smiling face is shorter and the recognition correctness of smiling is higher.

Secondly, it is hard for the holistic recognition strategy to exert its influence when upside-down.

Thirdly, for upside-down effect, the experimental results show that phenomenon the recognition of upside-down faces is harder than that of upright face complies with the face upside-down effect raised by Yin (1969).

The fourth is the difference between native and foreigners' face. For native face memory cognition, the smiling face effect is obvious (Chinese examinees show Chinese face pictures; Japanese examinees use Japanese face pictures). For foreigners' face memory cognition, the smiling face effect is week (Chinese examinees use Japanese face pictures; Japanese examinees use Chinese face pictures).

All in all, the cognition of smiling face is more influenced by upside-down effect. Hence, it shows that the recognition of smiling face more relies on holistic recognition strategy. It could further be believed that for upright faces, the holistic recognition strategy has advantages while for upside-down faces, partial feature recognition strategy has advantages. What is more, holistic recognition strategy could overcome difficulties of recognizing various particular facial expressions of people from different cultures, and the smiling face could be commonly shared between the different cultures.

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Table 1. Simulation appearances order table

Examination series pictures	Recognition memory test pictures	Pieces	Interrupting pictures
Japanese Picture (Upright, Quiet)	Japanese Picture (Upright, Quiet)	2	
	Japanese Picture (Upright, Smiling face)	2	
Japanese Picture (Upside-down, Quiet)	Japanese Picture (Upright, Quiet)	2	
	Japanese, Picture (Upright, Smiling face)	2	
Chinese Picture (Upright, Quiet)	Chinese Picture (Upright, Quiet)	2	Japanese Picture (Upright, Quiet)Eight pictures
	Chinese Picture (Upright, Smiling face)	2	
Chinese Picture (Upside-down, ·Quiet)	Chinese Picture (Upright, Quiet)	2	Japanese Picture (Upright, Smiling face) Eight pictures
	Chinese Picture (Upright, ·Smiling face)	2	
Japanese Picture (Upright, Smiling face)	Japanese Picture (Upright·, Smiling face)	2	Chinese Picture (Upright, Quiet) Eight pictures
	Japanese Picture (Upright, Quiet)	2	
Japanese Picture (Upside-down, Smiling face)	Japanese Picture (Upright, ·Smiling face)	2	Chinese Picture (Upright, Smiling face) Eight pictures
	Japanese Picture (Upright·, Quiet)	2	
Chinese Picture (Upright, ·Smiling face)	Chinese Picture (Upright, ·Smiling face)	2	
	Chinese Picture (Upright, ·Quiet)	2	
Chinese Picture (Upside-down, Smiling face)	Chinese Picture (Upright, Smiling face)	2	
	Chinese Picture Upright·, Quiet)	2	

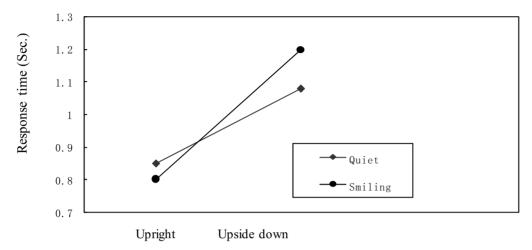
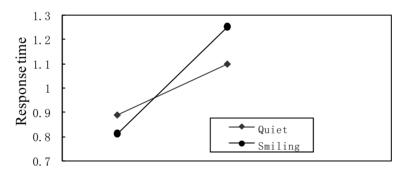


Figure 1. Comparison of the response time of Japanese Pictures (Examinees: Japanese)



Upright Upside down
Figure 2. Comparison of the response time of Chinese Pictures
(Examinees: Japanese)

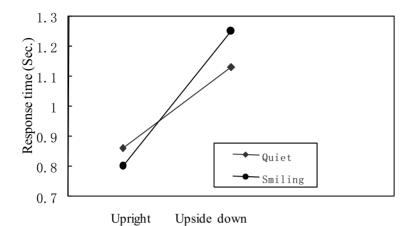


Figure 3. Comparison of the response time of Chinese Pictures (Examinees: Chinese)

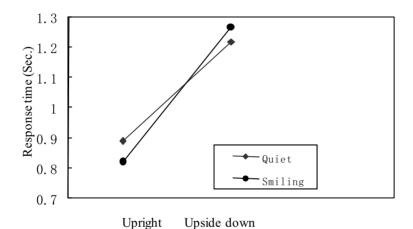


Figure 4. Comparison of apanese Pictures (Examinees: Chinese)

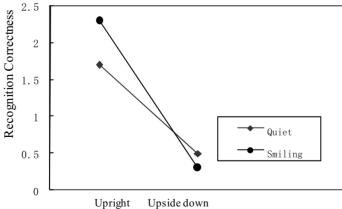


Figure 5. Comparison of the d'value of Japanese Pictures (Examinees: Japanese)

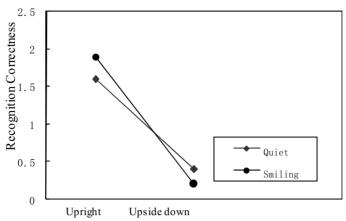


Figure 6. Comparison of the d'value of Chinese Pictures (Examinees: Japanese)

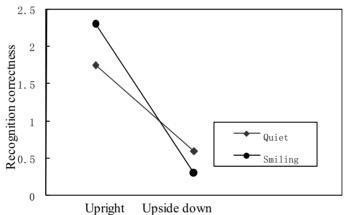


Figure 7. Comparison of the d'value of Chinese Pictures (Examinees: Chinese)

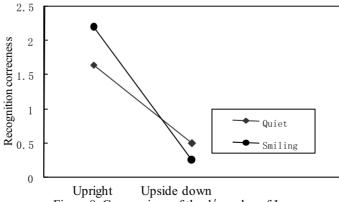


Figure 8. Comparison of the d'value of Japanese Pictures (Examinees: Chinese)

Vol. 1, No. 1 June 2009

The Practice of Affective Teaching: A View from Brain Science

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Abstract

In the educational field, the cognitive side of learning usually gets a great deal of attention, but affective factors are always ignored. Recently neuroscience researches have accumulated much knowledge about the relationship between cognition and emotion, which attract educators' concern. This article aims to glean brain science knowledge about emotions, further recognize the functions of emotions, and relate these to affective teaching to effectively improve students' learning. The author argues that cognition and emotion deeply interact for overlapping cognitive and emotional brain areas which is quite malleable and influenced by maturation and experience, and that emotions possess motivational, informative, regulative, protective functions, and that learning relies on emotions state, which determines what we pay attention to and what we learn. In conclusion, teachers first eradicate threats, and then involve emotions into students' learning through affective teaching including modeling emotion exhibition about the learning and the subject, affective processing material, making affective instruction. The future educationists need to strengthen contact with other scientists such as neuroscientists, psychologists, socialists, biologists, to work hard together to shrink the gap between education and neuroscience.

Keywords: Brain, Education, Neuroscience, Emotion

Since Plato (360 B.C.), a tradition in western thought contrasts the animal, reflective body with the uniquely human, relational mind or soul. This philosophical dualism has had a profound impact on meta-psychological theories of emotion and the mind. Emotions is either ignored by psychologists and neuroscientists or treated merely as an unwelcome source of noise or bias in relationship to "normal" cognitive function. In the same way, in the educational field, the cognitive side of learning usually gets a great deal of attention, but the domain of emotions, the so-called affective side of learning has long been neglected. In fact, the affective aspect of learning is the key interaction between how students feel, act, and think. There is no separation of mind and emotions; emotions, thinking, and learning are closely linked together. When we ignore the emotional components of any subject we teach, we actually deprive students of meaningfulness (Caine & Caine, 1991).

Luckily, neuroscience has begun to uncover the biological basis of learning and emotions with many non-invasive technologies such as fMRI, ERP, MEG during the past decades. Using the newly-built knowledge about the brain from the neuroscience, educationists can reconsider the relationship between emotions and cognition, gain a further insight into learning process, reconstitute the role of emotions in teaching and learning so that teachers take full use of affective factors in instructional process to maximize students' learning. This article is divided into three parts: (1) to depict the emotional brain; (2) to recognize the functions of emotions; (3) to take the practice of affective teaching.

Before proceeding, it is worth considering some definitions. The term "affect" is very broad, and has been used to cover a wide variety of experiences such as emotions, moods, and preferences. In contrast, the term "emotion" tends to be used to refer to fairly brief but intense experiences, although it is also used in a broader sense. Finally, "mood" or "state" is term describing low-intensity but more prolonged experiences.

1. Emotions and Brain

1.1 The brain structure involving emotions

The limbic system. Inspired by Papez's analysis, Mclean (1993) proposed that the human fore brain includes three distinct system, each of which developed in a distinct phase of vertebrate evolution. Apart from the hypothalamus, the earliest and most basic part of forebrain is called the striated region. The area became enlarged with the evolution of

reptiles. By contrast to reptiles, every mammal is born in close association with another, and broadly speaking mammal are social creatures. As mammals diverged from reptiles in the course of evolution, the limbic system developed to enable mammals' increasing sociality. The third part is the neocortex, which is the highest and most recently evolved level.

The amygdale: appraisal of fear or negative emotions. Joseph LeDoux (2000) has argued that the limbic system theory of emotion offered by Maclean (1993) is a vague and flawed and inadequate theory of the evolutional brain. He argued that the amygdala is the central emotional computer for the brain: it is the **appraisal** mechanism for emotions. The amygdala is a heterogeneous structure that, in primates, consists of at least 13 anatomically and functionally distinct subnuclei (Amaral *et al*, 1992; LeDoux, 2000). Besides the complex internal structure, the amygdala has extensive external anantomical connections, which allow the amygdala to integrate sensory input from all modalities and to affect autonomic and motor output systems.

As well as inputs from the visual and auditory cortex, the amygdala receives visual and auditory inputs directly by way of the thalamus before these reach the associative cortex (LeDoux, 1996). The direct thalamic pathway to the amygdala is shorter and thus faster. However, the thalami-cortico-amygdala pathway, is longer and slower. The thalamic pathway is sufficient for the rapid triggering of emotion by simple stimulus features, whereas the cortical pathway appears to be needed for emotional reactions coupled to perceptually complex stimulus objects (LeDoux, 1995).

The nucleus accumbens: central to positive emotions. The nucleus accumbens processes afferent input from many of the cognitive and limbic areas of the brain, including the prefrontal cortex (PFC), hippocampus (HC), amygdala, and thalamus. The output neurons of the nucleus accumbens send axon projections to the ventral analog of the globus pallidus, which, in turn, projects to the mediodorsal (MD) nucleus of the dorsal thalamus, which projects to the prefrontal cortex. Other efferents from the nucleus accumbens include connections with the substantia nigra and pontine reticular formation.

In the 1950s, Olds and Milner implanted electrodes into the septal area of the rat and found that the rat chose to press a lever which stimulated it. It continued to prefer this even over stopping to eat or drink, which suggests that the area is the "pleasure center" of the brain.

The insula: disgust recognition. The insular cortex is a multimodal sensory region with visceral, gustatory, somatosensory, visual, and auditory afferents and reciprocal connections to amygdala, hypothalamus, cingulate gyrus, and OFC. In addition to its role in interoceptive representation and autonomic control, the insula has also been implicated in the acquisition of inhibitory avoidance behavior.

Although the insula may exhibit functional specialization for disgust, its role in emotional processing is not restricted to one particular emotion. Critchley *et al.* (2002) have suggested that insula may play a crucial role in mediating the influence of peripheral autonomic arousal on consciously experienced emotional states, a suggestion that would accord with a role for this region in subjective aspects of emotion(*i.e.*, "feeling" states)(Frackowiak *et al.*, 2004).

The anterior cingulated cortex: emotional monitor. The anterior cingulate cortex (ACC) can be divided anatomically based on attributed functions into executive (anterior), evaluative (posterior), cognitive (dorsal), and emotional (ventral) components. An affective ventral subdivision of ACC (comprised of Brodmann's area 25, 32, 33) has connections to amygdala, nucleus accumbens, orbitofrontal cortex, anterior insula, and autonomic brain stem regions. A dorsal cognitive subdivision (Brodmann's caudal area 24 and 32 and cingulate motor area) has anatomical connections with parietal cortex, posterior cingulate, supplementary motor area, and dosallateral prefrontal cotex.

The ACC is connected with the prefrontal cortex and parietal cortex as well as the motor system and the frontal eye fields (Posner & DiGirolamo, 1998) making it a central station for processing top-down and bottom-up stimuli and assigning appropriate control to other areas in the brain. The ACC seems to be especially involved when effort is needed to carry out a task such as in early learning and problem solving. Many studies attribute functions such as error detection, anticipation of tasks, motivation, and modulation of emotional responses to the ACC. Relatively, one of ventral anterior cingulate may be to monitor and evaluate external stimuli (especially when aversive or painful) and select appropriate responses with respect to ongoing emotional priorities and goals (Davidson et al., 2002).

The prefrontal cortex: emotional regulation. The prefrontal cortex (PFC) can be divided in several ways, one of which is into three basic areas: The (OFC) and ventromedial areas (vm-PFC); the dorsolateral prefrontal cortex (dl-PFC); the anterior and ventral cingulate cortex. Other areas that can be distinguished are the ventrolateral cortex (vl-PFC), the medial prefrontal cortex (m-PFC), and the rostral prefrontal cortex (r-PFC).

Although the PFC is usually deemed to be the site of higher cognitive control, it has also been linked to affective processing and regarded as centers of regulation or executive control (Gazzaniga *et al.*, 2002) because regions of prefrontal cortex have close connections with the limbic system, including dense reciprocal connections to the amygdala and the nucleus accumbens. This means the PFC play an important role in the regulation of emotion. Emotion regulation involves many neural structures, that include several regions of the PFC, the amygdala, hippocampus,

hypothalamus, ACC, insular cortex, ventral striatum, both top-down and bottom-up processes.

Plasticity

Contemporary researches agree that human development involves a dynamic interplay of nature and nurture (OECD, 2007). Nature and nurture work hand in hand. The brain is malleable, not only being influenced by inheritable genes but also by the physical, social, and cultural environments, which set a basis for education.

Synaptic plasticity in the amygdale. Learning is done through the alternation of synaptic efficacy at the cellular level. Long term potentiation (LTP) has tentatively accepted as essential to the actual physical process of learning. The classic form of LTP is dependent upon glutamatergic transmission, and specifically upon NMDA receptor function, and has been widely discussed as a possible element in the physiology of learning and memory. Studies in a number of systems have implicated excitory glutamatergic transmission and NMDA receptor function in memory formation. NMDA receptor function is a mechanistic link between LTP and the plasticity underlying fear conditioning. In thalamo-amygdala pathway, glutamate is present in presynaptic neurons and in the post synaptic terminal region (LeDoux, 1995). LTP has been produced in pathways to the amygdala originating in the auditory thalamus, neocortex and hippocampus.

Development. Neuroscience has shown the surprising extent to which the brain is still development during childhood and adolescence and even throughout adult life in white matter (WM) volumes (Giedd et al., 1999), which reflects an increase in associative cognitive activity as distributed brain modules become more and more integrated by synaptic pruning (in which infrequently used connections are eliminated) and myelination. Unlike WM increases during childhood and adolescence, the gray matter (GM) trajectories follow an inverted U-shaped path. Age of peak size for GM volumes differs, varies by region, and is generally earlier in females than in males. The age of peak GM density is earliest in primary sensorimotor areas and latest in higher order association areas that integrate those primary functions such as the dorsolateral prefrontal cortex, inferior parietal, and superior temporal gyrus. Part of the GM changes may be related to synaptic proliferation and pruning (Huttenlocher, 1994).

There is a changing balance between competing neuronal networks as different cognitive and emotional systems mature at different rates. FMRI consistently shows an increasing proportion of frontal versus striatal or limbic activity from childhood to adulthood for a variety of cognitive tasks (Rubia et al., 2006). Some changes in limbic reward and motivational systems seem to be associated with the onset puberty, whereas other changes occur earlier or well after the advent of puberty. For example, in an fMRI study of 37 subjects aged 7–29 years that assessed response to rewards, adolescent nucleus accumbens response was equivalent to that in adults, but adolescent orbitofrontal activity was similar to that in children

All these overt changes in the brain connectivity help make childhood and adolescence a good time to learn in cognitive, affective, social fields.

Experience. The physical structure of the brain changes in part as the result of experience. The brain is made up of networks of interconnecting nerve cells. Experience gradually modifies the connections between neurons following a "use it or lose it" rule (Hinton, Miyamoto, & Della-Chiesa, 2008). Researches indicate that hippocampus continues plasticity in adult. This means that the hippocampus is designed for lifelong learning and adaptation to new situations and experience, and adaptation can even bring about changes in its structure. Researches relating rich environment indicate that the adult rat brains form new synapses in response to new experience (Greenough, West, & DeVoogd, 1978). Joffe (1997) found that primates who live in complex social systems tend to have a relatively log childhood and a relatively large neocortex. One of the primary functions of childhood is provided the experiences needed to adapt the relatively open or plastic brain systems that support social competencies to the local social ecology.

When the brain has been rewired by experience, lives are changed. Education is about shaping the brain's functional organization. Learning to read, to use calculus, or to dance all draws upon diverse neurological capacities, and instruction reshapes not only behavior on these tasks but also functional organization of the utilized portions of our brains.

2. The Functions of Emotions

Evolutionarily, although emotions are shared by human beings and animals, emotions have completely different meanings for mankind not only because in complex social environments but also human beings have higher cognitive capabilities than other primates. Advocating the bio-psycho-social positions, we hold that emotions own the following functions for learning and life.

2.1 Motivational

Emotion and motivation are closely linked. Emotions can elicit motivation, which moves people to behave, think, and feel the way they do, and prepare us for action and thought. For example, in an emergency when we see an angry dog charging toward us, the Sympathetic Nervous System immediately causes an increase in blood pressure, a faster heart

rate, more rapid breathing for greater oxygen intake, and more efficient blood flow to the brain and major muscle groups. All of these changes prepare us for action. By contrast, the parasympathetic nervous system (PNS) calms the body. When the PNS is activated, heart rate and blood pressure drop, stomach activity and food digestion increase, and breathing slow down. Emotional motivation tends to take place on a widespread and unconscious level, but can also happen consciously. For instance, in situations where students seem ambivalent or conflicted, take a look at the possibility that there are neural representations of both positive and negative outcomes. If they can identify the negative outcome that is feared, they can apply a corrective that frees the individual to move forward toward the positive.

2.2 Informative

Emotions are a crucial source of information for learning and daily decision-making. Although extremes of emotion are generally harmful to our best thinking, a middle degree and appropriate emotions speed up decision-making enormously. Schwarz and Clore (1983) proposed the perspective of the feelings as information. When making evaluative judgments, individuals often do not use presumably effortful analytic judgment strategies such as recalling the various positive and negative attributes of the object and then forming a summary judgment but rely on a simplifying judgment method called the "feeling heuristic".

From the classic case of Phineas Gage, we can see how damage to his OFC altered his emotions and ability to live a moral life. Modern neuro-psychological studies of patients with OFC lesions suggest a psychological disorder of emotional disinhibition. During an emotional event, the OFC would normally signal to the organism information about the consequences (pleasant/unpleasant) of one's actions.

Without emotions students would be impossible to make a proper moral judgment and to live a normal social life. They need emotions to provide information to understand their own body-mind states, guide and maintain their own attention in learning process, regulate their goals to enhance learning and communicative abilities, and redirect their behaviors.

2.3 Regulative

Emotions deeply interact with cognitive processes. Modern functional neuroimaging studies have indicated that the anatomical basis of emotions and cognitive processing have considerable overlap. For example, Sad mood, in both healthy participants and those with clinical depression, has been shown to influence the activity of a common set of prefrontal and limbic brain regions like the amygdale (Davidson et al., 2002; Mayberg et al., 1999). Many of these are also implicated in cognitive functions. The overlap between the brain areas modulated by sad mood and cognition is consistent with a shared, interactive neural architecture for cognition and mood.

Emotions can regulate cognitive activity and guide cognitive processes like perception, attention, memory, and so on. Bower (1981) and Gilligan and Bower (1984) put forward a semantic network theory, which proposed that emotions are units or nodes in a semantic network, with numerous connections to related ideas, to physiological systems, to events, and to muscular and expressive patterns. **Mood congruity** can affect perception, retrieval as well as learning, which depends on mood state. Current feelings tend to bias our recall of past emotions. Consistent with the thesis of emotion-congruence, when in a happy mood, participants were quicker at identifying happy than sad words. When sad, they were quicker at identifying sad than happy words. Both real life and in the laboratory, emotionally salient material is remembered better than neutral material.

The abilities of emotional regulation in childhood and adolescence are co-influenced by biological maturation and experiences. Because their PFC matures later than other emotional structures, many students are subjective to emotional bewilderments. But their brains are comparatively malleable, teacher can help them learn many strategies to deal with emotional problems, accumulate experiences about emotional regulation and take advantage of emotions to improve learning.

2.4 Protective

Generally speaking, from a long-term view positive emotions can improve health; In contrast, negative emotions can harm health. Differences in underlying neurological activation for trait positive affect (FA) and negative affect (NA) suggest that there are fundamental differences in how the brain represents these traits. These differences may similarly imply differences in the direction and manner that they influence health. For example, PA-associated activations occur primarily in the left frontal cortex, whereas NA occurs in the right frontal cortex (Davidson, Jackson, & Kalin, 2000). Incidentally, left prefrontal cortex (PA-like) activation is also associated with improved immune function (Davidson et al., 2003; Kang et al., 1991). Neurotransmitters may also respond differently to PA than to NA. For example, trait PA was associated with increased serotonergic function after controlling for NA (Flory et al., 2004).

Fredrickson (1998) has proposed a new model of the function of positive emotions. According to the broaden-and-build model, positive emotions **broaden** people's "momentary thought–action repertoires" and **build** their physical, social, and intellectual resources. Positive emotions produce more creative and flexible thought, help students in forming important associations and exploring the environment, and also aid them building interpersonal resources by motivating

them to approach others, to cooperate, to express affection, and to build bonds.

The above four functions interplay in many conditions and are difficult to be clearly differentiated. What's important, teachers can involve emotions into students' learning and make full use of these emotional functions to establish preponderant environments and design instruction process to change the weakness in traditional teaching process where emotions are neglected and excluded from. In succession, we mainly discuss the practice of affective teaching about how to apply emotions and affection into classroom and instruction.

3. The Practice of Affective Teaching

From an evolutionary perspective, human being brain is biologically designed to allow the individual to survive reproduce in the social, biological, and physical environments. As a basic function of the brain, Emotions are a form of learning. We have learned what to love, when and how to care, whom to trust, the loss of esteem, the joy of discovery, and the fear of failure. So, affective teaching firstly aims to develop students' affective quality. Secondly, the brain areas involving emotion and cognition highly overlap. This means more than that they just influence each other. None of the ingredients that we deal with in education, such as "concept" and "emotions" and "behaviors," is separate. They influence and shape each other (Caine & Caine, 1991). Affective teaching ought to play a key role of emotions to optimize cognition and enhance students' integrative quality.

3.1 Eradication of threats

We must first eradicate a variety of threats from the environment and build a secure learning environment to maximize learning achievement before we involve emotions into students' learning. Threats activate defense mechanisms and behaviors that are good for survival but bad for learning because survival always overtops complex problem solving. For example, when faced fear and danger, the brain jumps into high gear. The amygdala can intercept information from the sensory channels through shortcut circuit—the thalamo-amygdala pathway. This immediately generates unconscious processing, interrupting the ongoing learning activity, occupying limited brain processing resources. These usually lead learning to fail. Students are unable to create connections, make meaning and to gain higher levels of knowledge structure.

In stressful environments, the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal axis activates and releases a peptide called cortisol. It elicits a serial physical reactions including inhibition of the immune system, increasing blood pressure, straining the large muscles. These can temporarily help individual cope with stress. But chronically high cortisol level leads to the death brain cells in the hippocampus (Vincent, 1990), a relay site involving information storage and retrieval. Chronic stress also impairs a student's ability to sort out what's important and what's not. A stressful physical environment is linked to student failure. Learners with lower stress can put together relationship, understand broad underlying theories, and integrate a wider range of material. Crowed conditions, poor peer relationships, disgust student-teacher relationships can matter.

Fortunately, there are many approaches to reduce stress for students. One is to encourage students to participate gregarious activities in respective ways. Drama, peer support, games, exercise, discussions, and celebrations can help students release stresses. Through kind humor and good natured classroom interactions that honor students and opportunities to see "failure" as feedback for progress and growth, teacher can go a long way toward aiding children to replace the pattern of fear with confidence and eager anticipation. Anyway, never tolerate students bullying one another in classroom. Another is to fulfill intrapersonal needs. Advocate students to keep daily writing, make creative writing. These provide students chances to reflect personal experience and reorganize self. Other strategies include: to avoid finger-pointing, scolding, and detention; ensure learners to have enough rest time; direct students learn to be responsible for one's own behaviors; teach students stress management, and the like.

To sum up, for most learning conditions, low to moderate levels of stress are best. High stressor threat has no place in schools. Stress, threat, and learned helplessness must be removed from learning environments.

3.2 Involvement of emotions in teaching and learning

With the increasing understanding of the relationship between emotion and cognition, people realize that emotions in many contexts are rational in that they help individuals respond adaptively to the environment. Now we must throw away the wrong idea of regarding emotions as always irrational or having nothing to do with the ways we think. Emotions prioritize to be processed and set up mental states which provide the context for learning activities and guide cognitive processes in rational, adaptive fashion. In addition, we remember that which is most emotional laden. Learning relies on emotions state, which determines what we pay attention to and what we learn. So learning cannot be separated from emotions. Emotions are essential to learning. Consequently, teachers cannot ignore emotion as a vital influence in the learning process. As educators, we must involve emotions into instruction to maximize students' learning. Teachers who help their students feel good about learning through classroom success, friendships, and celebrations are doing the very things the student brains carve.

From static analysis, there are three basic affective resources in instruction: teacher, text, and students. The three factors interact and make up instructional affective field, which provide possibility for affective instruction.

Modeling. As a basic affective source, teacher not only possesses rich affective experiences, but also receives outside stimulus and exerts the influence on students. At the same time, as instructional organizers and directors, teachers' leading status determines them more impact. No doubt, teachers have more experiences and more mature in the affective field than students. They have enough capacities to use many functions of emotions to optimize instruction. First, teachers can and must model excellent emotion exhibition. They ought to demonstrate the love learning, and show sincere enthusiasm about the subject they teach inside and outside classroom. They must regulate their own emotion state, shape good mood, and bring positive emotions into classroom. Second, teachers should grasp students' individual desires, dreams, expectation to lead to personal goal setting, care for them, respect their personal strength, and help them discover a passion for learning and diminish their weakness.

Affective processing of material. Text includes a great deal of affective factors. Generally, we classify text into three categories: salient, connotative, and inexistent. Teachers can take different strategies for different texts. Salient text means that affective factors in text can be felt directly, including song, dance, picture, sculpture, and video, and the like. Teachers can "demonstrate" affects directly through multimedia or many field activities. Connotative text mainly reflects objective facts and has not very obvious affective factors, but reader can unconsciously feel some affects in these facts. Teachers can "dig" these affective factors in the text with affection transferring. Although affective cues seem not to exist in some texts like mathematics, teachers can "color" the text by relating the text with students' affective experiences.

Affective instructional process. Affective instructional process includes four basic stages: elicitation, edification, inspiration, and regulation. At the first stage, teachers ought to elicit students' interests, and mobilize students to participate learning. Teachers need to grasp students' needs and match these needs with teaching contents so that instructional materials become Students' learning Inducement. Thus, teachers help students change study attitude from negative to positive. Next, teachers take advantage of affective field that is built at the first stage to edify students. Teachers and students immerse their brains into texts. Now students may experience, express, recognize, regulate their and others' affects safely and comfortably, so they enhance their affective abilities (or emotion intelligence). With the increasing of task difficulty, students gradually lose part drive. Teachers must inspire students by encouraging evaluation to help them get a sense of success. Students can get more positive emotions from success. These positive experiences help students make meaning by relating current learning to the past and the future. As classroom managers, teachers regulate students' mental state to ensure students' leading mood to be happy and interesting all the while. Obviously, teachers can flexibly regulate instructional processes but not fix sequent stage as above.

4. Conclusion

In all, affective teaching can make full use of emotional functions gained from neuroscience knowledge and improve students' classroom learning. Although there is still a gap between affective education and brain science, researches about their relationship will gradually attract the attention of many scientists and teachers and become the mainstream. Because researches concerning emotions relate to many subjects, the future educationists need to strengthen contact with other scientists such as neuroscientists, psychologists, socialists, biologists, to work hard together to deeply understand the relationship among brain, cognition, emotion, and to commit themselves to apply the knowledge about the brain researches into instructional practice to form co-prosperity of cognition and affection.

Acknowledgement

This research is supported by The Philosophy and Social Science Project Fund of Colleges and Universities in Jiangsu Province of China in 2008, and the number is 08SJD7100068.

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Vol. 1, No. 1 June 2009

Journey from the Heart of Darkness to the Heart of Sadness: Fiction v/s Reality

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to perceive the give – and – take between art and real life conditions. It presents information on the writing of the novel Heart of Darkness by Joseph Conrad whose continental experience and familiarity with the imperial milieu in the east and Africa rendered him capable of bringing much greater knowledge of real politic into literary work more than any one else.

It seems fruitful to see how the authors deal with the gap between how things could or should be in a given society, and how they really are. International politics is devoid of moral values as can be seen in the case of Congo in Heart of Darkness (a fictional situation) and in the present Iraqi situation (a real- life situation).

In Heart of Darkness there is a suggestion that the exploited will some day, sooner or later, rise in revolt against the exploitation of the foreign rule. Can oppressed nations like Congo and Iraq hope to conclude this tiresome journey in the near future and set out a fresh on new journey, perhaps one into the Heart of Happiness? The answer to this question remains unknown at the present time. In spite of this, people of these nations should be optimize, keeping in mind that it is always darkest before the dawn, and that Stars shine out the most brilliantly through dark clouds.

Keywords: Thinking styles, Literature

1. Introduction

It is a privilege for the researchers to co-author a paper on Joseph Conrad's novel Heart of Darkness, as it illuminates the "heart of sadness" in their own lives. Their experience in Asia leads them to respond to such literary settings – to the give-and-take between art and real-life conditions – differently than would a Western observer. Asian and African countries share many similarities, including their subjection to British imperialism. Generally speaking, the novel is a genre which concentrates on social life, in particular on the lives of individuals within a complex society. Here, again, it seems fruitful to see how the authors deal with the gap between how things could or should be in a given society, and how they really are.

International politics is devoid of moral values, as can be seen in the case of Congo in Heart of Darkness (a fictional situation) and in the present situation in Iraq (a real-life situation). The same weaknesses that paralyze Iraq arguably are present in Congo. Resource-rich countries often fall prey to the lusts of more powerful nations. For instance, Congo (in Heart of Darkness) is exploited for its ivory, and Iraq (in real life) is exploited for oil and other natural resources. The powerful, exploitive countries are motivated by a self-righteous idealism and treat the natives inhumanely; in the process, they themselves become dehumanized. They judge developing or long-established cultures according to their own norms of measurement which, unfortunately, they believe to be absolute. These nations do so for their commercial gains and individual wealth. When financially and politically sound countries strive to subjugate weaker nations to their version of "order", instead of order, chaos sets in. These exploiters fail to perceive that such selfish actions do not lead towards a progressive social order but rather give rise to bloodshed and contempt.

Like the authors of this present research, Joseph Conrad was fortunate enough to have a range of experience usually available only second-hand to most other novelists, as he was exposed to an adventurous life, first as the orphaned child of a Polish revolutionary, then as a British seaman. He strongly believed that it was not the experience which made a difference, but the experience as comprehended by the mind, then made valuable by art. It must be realized that an existence like Conrad's captured the attention, generally at the expense of the novels themselves, of people belonging to an era still inspired by the imperial adventure. His Continental experience and familiarity with the imperial milieu in the

East and in Africa rendered him capable of bringing a much greater knowledge of realpolitik into literary works more than anyone else.

2. Body

Heart of Darkness portrays the fateful Congo expedition of 1890 and is a continuation of The Nigger of the Narcissus. As a character, Marlow appears in many of Conrad's works, but in all of them he is not, as Virginia Woolf states, "a subtle, refined, and fastidious analyst" (Woolf, 1966). In Heart of Darkness, he is unique in his faculties of observation, not in his attempts at analysis. Conrad is dealing with imperial realities which he found both seriously disturbing and enlightening at the same time.

As Marlow's companions muse about the waterway "leading to the uttermost ends of the earth", they see analogous characteristics in England's imperial past (Conrad, 1996). Marlow's first response to this grandiose prospect is seriously puzzling: "Light came out of this river since – you say knights? . . . But darkness was here yesterday" (Conrad, 1996). For the vision of a heroic England carrying the "sacred fire" into strange lands, he replaces another and earlier picture – England, herself a strange land, gaining the attentions of a Roman invader. In this context, English civilization seems like the "flicker" of "a running blaze on a plain, like a flash of lightning", according to him, and imperialism, which is the extension of this civilization, starts appearing not so attractive (Conrad, 1996). Encompassing all, "the conquest of the earth which mostly means the taking away from those who have a different complexion or slightly flatter noses than us is not a pretty thing when you look into it much" (Conrad,1996). But what justification can be offered? Marlow suggests that "... what redeems it is the idea only ... An idea at the back of it; not a sentimental pretence, but an idea – something you can set up, and bow down before, and offer a sacrifice to" (Conrad,1996).

Jacques Berthoud (Berthoud, 1993) comments: "The darkness into which Marlow ventures has a heart which can be found within his own breast." 2 Yet there is definitely a basic difference between Marlow, who has cleared the test of the sea (and hence can differentiate between practice and preach, professions and performances) and the agents of the exploitative company he comes across in the Congo. But this Marlow, the captain of the river-steamer, has still not witnessed the trial of the jungle – and in having yet to do so, he is as aloof as everyone else.

The novel makes an effort to perceive how strong the hold of civilization is on its members. One of the main characteristics of Marlow's narrative is his stress upon the "unreality" of his experience. The first significant thing that his voyage shows him is that what was meaningful in Europe is not meaningful in Africa any more. For example, he sees that a railway is apparently being constructed, but it does not make much sense to him. Most baffling of all, death itself becomes a common place triviality.

The first piece of information about Africa imparted by Marlow is related to the fate of his predecessor who loses his life over a misunderstanding about two black hens. The insignificance of the cause is in accordance to only the casualness of the event itself: "Some man ... made a tentative jab with a spear at the white man – and of course it went quite easily between the shoulder blades" (Conrad, 1996). This horrifying disorientation becomes a well-known aspect of his African experience. Definitely it is significant, as it shows that the sense of reality is not completely founded but rather the product of a long process of cultural collection.

One of the basic differences between Marlow and his European companions in Africa is that he can see the unreality of the concepts that have been arbitrarily brought into the country, whereas they either cannot or will not. He can recognize the humanity of the people of a "primitive" culture due to his firm understanding of the standards and conventions of his own society. Realizing his own identity, he can correctly measure the gap that separates the Europeans is their steamer from the black men in their vessel. He does not show that the latter are anything but unfamiliar to him: for instance, their faces appear to him to be "grotesque masks". Yet this very recognition of dissimilarity is an acknowledgement of otherness and hence affirms a common humanity. Aware of the fact of cultural relativity, he can perceive the liveliness of the black men with the flabbiness of the invaders. The blacks are real and they do not need an excuse for being there. They and their environment are in accordance with each other.

The failure on the part of the European colonizers to comprehend the values which they are supposed to represent bends them towards considering foreign manners as lawless, a break away from their own. Berthoud (Berthoud, 1993) believes that "...the society that sustains them is not merely different from, but also stronger than, the tribal communities they encounter." This, therefore, "...abolishes every external check and makes it possible for them to treat the populations they deal with as if they were exploitable raw material, though of considerably less intrinsic value than the ivory they seek" (Berthoud,1993). Likewise, Marlow believes that the whites have abdicated control and become possessed by a devil of a merciless folly. As Berthoud (Berthoud,1993) explains: "Thus considered, the trial of the jungle is like the trial of the sea, distinguishing Marlow from his demoralized colleagues very much as service at sea is distinguished from self-seeking on land."3

According to V.S. Naipaul (Goonetilleke, 1991), Conrad is himself a contradiction comprised of both the real and the imagined: "to understand Conrad... it [is] necessary to lose one's preconceptions of what the novel should do.... When art copies life, and life in its turn mimics art, a writer's originality can often be obscured."4

Selfish economic objectives constitute the number one factor in imperialism, whereas selfish political considerations are the number two factor: For instance, Britain gained considerable revenue from cotton and jute in India and copper in the Congo (Goonetilleke, 1991). As Goonetilleke (Goonetilleke, 1991) explains:

India was the 'brightest jewel in the imperial crown' and the core of British global strategic thinking precisely because of her very real importance to the British economy. This was never greater than at this time (1875 – 1914), when... up to 60 per cent of British cotton exports went to India and the Far East... and when the international balance of payments of Britain hinged on the payments surplus which India provided.

Even after the colonies gained independence, Britain profited substantially from her investment. Development tended to be restricted to the sectors which met the requirements of the imperialists.

If Conrad was motivated by the East, he was taken aback by Africa. He said to Edward Garnett: "Before the Congo I was only a simple animal" (Aubry, 1926).6 Congo had a great influence on his imagination, which can be seen in Heart of Darkness, and has become "the dominant image of Africa in the Western imagination" (Clark, 1986). 7 The Africa in Heart of Darkness is the continent as seen through European eyes. We have to view it, not from the standpoint of Africa today, but as the continent it was a century ago. David Carroll (Carroll, 1980) states: "Conrad's Africa is "the dark continent" of the European imagination, an extreme stereotype. Conrad exploits the stereotype to the full. He uses Africa as a symbol, a black cloth onto which his characters can project their inner doubts and their sense of alienation."8

The jungle is symbolic of dark urges. Marlow senses that "instead of going to the centre of a continent, I were about to set off for the centre of the earth" (Conrad, 1996). In Heart of Darkness, Marlow recounts his personal experiences. On one level, the novel is a serious commentary on imperialism, what Conrad termed as "the vilest scramble for loot that ever disfigured the history of human conscience and geographical exploration" (Conrad, 1928).9 As Marlow ruminates on his experiences at the Central Station in the Congo he comments:

You know I hate, detest, and can't bear a lie, not because I am straighter than the rest of us, but simply because it appalls me. There is a taint of death, a flavor of mortality in lies – which is exactly what I hate and detest in the world – what I want to forget. It makes me miserable and sick, like biting something rotten would do. (Conrad, 1996)

Marlow's acceptance of his uprightness and his justification for it rings true; his tone always sounds honest. At the same time, in spite of having strong feelings of shock or of disapproval concerning a lie, as he says, it is a fact that Marlow sometimes lies. He intimidates the brick-maker by letting him fantasize that he is powerful enough to harm his career through influence in Europe and thereby gains the rivets he required to repair his steamboat in order to get to Kurtz. Marlow appeases Kurtz's follower though he is not in accordance with his opinions concerning Kurtz and hence the follower re-enters the wilderness without harming his warm temperament. He lies to Kurtz, who is on his deathbed, that his "success in Europe is assured" to motivate him to go back to the steamer. On Marlow's return to Europe, he lies to Kurtz's Intended in order not to distort her view of Kurtz. In all these cases, Marlow is forced to compromise truth for a valuable purpose. The readers feel that this imperfection of his character is an acceptable trade-off in an imperfect world.

Temperament is that part of one's character that affects one's moods and the way one behave. Informally, the term "temperamental" describes a machine that sometimes works and sometimes does not. Marlow can be considered temperamental, as his mood tends to change very suddenly. The word "temper" means to make something less strong or extreme, as seen in the case of the local people who suffer extremely at the hands of white men and as a result become less strong. "Temper" also means to heat and then cool a metal in order to make it hard, as in "tempered" steel. The blacks also become hard or tough and can adapt themselves, even in the worst situations.

Conrad states: "As for the story itself, it is true enough in its essentials. The sustained invention of a really telling a lie demands a talent which I do not possess" (Conrad,1923).10 When Albert J. Guerard (Conrad,1958) introduced the story to one of Roger Casement's consular successors in the Congo in 1957, he commented at once that Conrad definitely had "a feel for the country." 11 Meanwhile, Benita Parry (Parry, 1983) suggests that the "landscape is mythic, the scenery surreal, the circumstances grotesque."

In telling his tale, Marlow remembers his impressions while in the waiting-room of the Belgian imperial Company, prior to his journey:

On one end, a large shining map, marked with all the colors of a rainbow. There was a vast amount of red – good to see at any time, because one knows that some real work is done in there, a deuce of a lot of blue, a little green, smears of orange, and, on the East Coast, a purple patch, to show where the jolly pioneers of progress drink, the jolly lager-beer. However, I wasn't going into any of these. I was going into the yellow. (Conrad, 1996)

Here, Marlow is viewing all the colonial countries on the map. Different colors represent different countries. The red represents the British. Marlow responds in a cordial and sunny way just to the Empire of his own nation and he states a particular reason for it. But is he an imperial-minded Englishman in a conventional way? Earlier, he had meditated upon imperialism in general:

I was thinking of very old times, when the Romans first came here, nineteen hundred years ago.... They were no colonists; their administration was merely a squeeze.... They were conquerors, and for that you want only brute force – nothing to boast of, when you have it, since your strength is just an accident arising from the weakness of others. They grabbed what they could get for the sake of what was to be got. It was just robbery with violence, aggravated murder on a great scale.... The conquest of the earth, which mostly means the taking it away from those who have a different complexion or slightly flatter noses than ourselves, is not a pretty thing when you look into it too much. What redeems it is the idea only. An idea at the back of it; not a sentimental pretence but an idea; and an unselfish belief in the idea – something you can set up, and bow down before, and offer a sacrifice to.... (Conrad, 1996)

Marlow places the imperialism of the British in line with that of the Romans. Though condemning "the conquest of the earth", he justifies British imperialism for its "idea". Marlow's language has implications of which he is not conscious. Words like "saves" and "redeems" suggest a discomforting awareness in him of unsatisfactory characteristics even in British imperialism and an unconscious hypocrisy in the efforts to vindicate them. This is one of the national characteristics which is so deeply ingrained that it stays in spite of his otherwise rich Congo experience. There is a kind of inner contradiction in Marlow's personality. At the same time, he is both in favor of and against imperial policies. The outcome of this split personality is that, at times, there is an imbalance between what he practices and what he preaches. In real life, the same contradiction can be found in speeches delivered by American politicians, and leads to similar imbalances in practice and experience.

With deep insight, the author, through the ritual implications of Marlow's concluding speech, indicates that glorification of imperialism is an effort to justify an element of inhumanity which is shared by both civilized and primitive societies. As Marlow probes deeper into the Congo, he observes more aspects of imperial entanglements. The external realities are more significant than Marlow's inner condition. He is an extrovert middle-class Englishman who explores the self. He encounters the disorder and horror. His frankness and humaneness are the qualities which make him an apt narrator. He could perceive clearly the imperial involvements of a foreign nation whose empire was comparatively new and whose excesses were not amended. All the imperial powers are guilty of committing atrocities. America has the same attitude from a practical point of view. Other than for destruction, nothing deserves to be mentioned in the case of Iraq. Maybe mass killing is a glorious achievement in the eyes of the exploiters and they desire the world community to perceive it as such, but as a poet once said, "Beauty is in the eyes of the beholder".

Conrad, ironically, indicates that white men have made Africa a Dark Continent, in contrast to their general image of representatives of light. They are white, but their deeds are black. Apart from fiction, this reality can be perceived in the present day situation in Iraq. In Heart of Darkness, symbols of light and darkness represent the same thing — evil. Marlow is able to differentiate between the exaggerated conception of his job and its actual triviality, between the emotional idealism rotating around imperialism and its economic basis. The entire city looks like "a whited sepulcher" to Marlow. Its deathlike attributes relate to the inhumanity in the Empire. In biblical terms, a "whited sepulcher" is employed as a figure for some person or some place whose external righteousness and charm cover an internal corruption; hence, it implies aspects of the character of the colonial nations, and this is absolutely true in practice. Conrad does not probe into the lives of the Congolese and, from the external viewpoint of a visitor, portrays them as victims of imperialism who remain anonymous to him.

Ivory, both as a color and a valued commodity, becomes a leitmotif in the narrative. Ivory is to the Congo what silver is to Costaguana in Nostromo. It is actual raw wealth like petrol and other gifts bestowed upon by Nature, as seen in the case of Iraq in a real-life situation, and as such becomes the target of individuals and colonial companies. Glossy and white on the outside, it is actually dead matter and thereby stands as the paradox at the core of Western civilization.

Marlow's reference to a decaying corpse is both literal and figurative: elephants and native Africans both die as a result of the white man's pursuit of ivory, and the entire enterprise is rotten at the core. Power, particularly power over other human beings, inevitably corrupts. The words "ivory" and "oil" have taken on a life of their own for the exploiters in both art and situation. To them, they are far more than the tusk of an elephant or a simple fluid. They represent economic freedom and social advancement. The words have lost all connection to any physical reality and have themselves become objects of worship.

As mentioned previously, the novel is a genre which concentrates on the social life of individuals in a society. According to Goonetilleke (Goonetilleke, 1991), "Heart of Darkness is more symbolic than realistic, whereas in Emily Bronte's Wuthering Heights, the real and the symbolic are equally important." 13 As Marlow's journey in the Congo is along a river, he does not probe into less-accessible regions. But V.S. Naipaul (Naipaul, 1975) thinks that "the river remains not merely the great highway of the country, but at the heart of its culture." 14 It is a local proverb that: "It is

only the river which works in Zaire" (Wood, 1984). 15 It should be remembered here that great civilizations flourished along the Tigris-Euphrates once upon a time, in the same places as present-day Iraq. Countries may be built and demolished, but civilizations die hard.

Marlow is not a hero like Fielding in E. M. Forster's A Passage to India . He acts chiefly as an instrument through which the author conveys the entanglements of Western civilization and primitive culture. Conrad meditates upon the imperial entanglements of Belgium and the Congo in a global light. Kurtz stands for European civilization as a whole as his mother was half-English and his father was half-French. Towards the novel's climax, the symbolic level of the journey into the Congo becomes a journey into the depths of man's unconscious, exposed in all its darkness.

Kurtz came to the Congo "equipped with moral ideas" and because of this, rather than for his outmatched success in accumulating ivory (which is what is of significance to the other colonial employees), Marlow is curious about him even before he encounters him. Marlow senses this very intensely by contrast with the common Europeans to whom applies his statement on the Eldorado Exploring Expedition: "To tear treasure out of the bowels of the land was their desire, with no more moral purpose at the back of it than there is in burglars breaking into a safe" (Conrad,1996). This comment is applicable to Iraq's situation in the present time, as America is not able to provide any moral justification regarding its intention behind the Iraqi invasion. It is no nobler than violence and thievery.

Marlow thinks that Kurtz's problems are "solitude" and "silence". He concludes: "The wilderness echoed loudly within him because he was hollow at the core" (Conrad, 1996). The hollowness applies to both Kurtz and his ideals. He cannot keep in check his lust not only for authority and greed but also for women. Marlow talks of "gratified and monstrous passions". Kurtz's high ideals are just theoretical, as even are Marlow's to some extent. He makes use of African villagers to fight their own people simply for his own profit, so that he can collect as much ivory as possible. This is in accordance to the British policy of Divide and Rule, which led to the formation of Pakistan and the division of some Arab countries. It is also in accordance with the present day American policy in Iraq, as a result of which everyday there are communal riots. Post-colonial literature stresses the idea of a mythic search for a new order that is distinctive and different from that of imperial British colonizers.

In Marlow's eyes, Kurtz is a genuine devil who can inspire horror. On the other hand, the Manager "was obeyed, yet he inspired neither love nor fear, nor even respect. He inspired uneasiness" (Conrad, 1996). Kurtz selected evil, but at least he made a selection and abided by it. It is to this human trait and honesty in Kurtz that Marlow turns "for relief". That is why the nightmare of Kurtz is given an upper hand by Marlow over the nightmare of other colonial employees. Here the author's view is in accordance with T.S. Eliot's (Eliot, 1951):

So far as we are human, what we do must be either evil or good; so far as we do evil or good, we are human; and it is better, in a paradoxical way, to do evil than to do nothing: at least, we exist. It is true to say that the glory of man is his capacity for salvation; it is also true to say that his glory is his capacity for damnation. 16

It is true that Kurtz was damned but he could encounter the darkness in contrast to the other colonial workers who could neither be damned nor saved. It is Kurtz's soul that becomes insane, whereas the others were deprived of souls and could not become insane in this manner. According to Marlow: "You may be too much of a fool to go wrong and too dull even to know you are being assaulted by the powers of darkness. I take it, no fool ever made a bargain for his soul with the devil" (Conrad,1996). Kurtz's ultimate cry: "The horror! The horror!" is perceived by Marlow as "complete knowledge" and "a moral victory", on one level, a rejection of "going native". Hence, Kurtz's ultimate illumination exposes the darkest depths of a human soul. The heart of darkness is the centre of Africa, the undiscovered, the unexposed self and, on top of that, the evil in man in Conrad's fiction. Similarly, the heart of sadness is the center of Iraq.

Conrad portrays Marlow as a complex personality. Soon after his coming to the Central Station, he remarks: "I went to work the next day, turning so to speak, my back on that station. In that way only it seems to me I could keep my hold on the redeeming facts of life" (Conrad, 1996). This type of action and attitude are his salient features. He cannot help but be vexed and affected by what he observes. After the Congo journey, he states: "It was not my strength that wanted nursing; it was my imagination that wanted soothing" (Conrad, 1996). He is sensitive towards what Kurtz was as well as what became of him. Marlow does not experience what Kurtz experiences: "He had made that last stride, he had stepped over the edge, while I had been permitted to draw back my hesitating foot" (Conrad,1996). Marlow is able to maintain sanity and control in spite of imperial realities and the wilderness due to his "sense of immediate duty". Illumination can come to Marlow, as he is able to perceive moral matters.

Marlow is surprised by the control demonstrated by his African crew. On the contrary, the white crew was absolutely prepared to make "a glorious slaughter" of the Africans in the bush. Marlow's humanity surpasses racial considerations: "I can't forget him (Kurtz), though I am not prepared to affirm the fellow was exactly worth the life we lost (the African helmsman) in getting to him" (Conrad, 1996). Goonetilleke (Goonetilleke, 1991) contends that, with regard to Kurtz,

"Marlow does not quite understand him, but Conrad does and the reader is meant to. Marlow's experiences themselves have to be satisfactorily defined for us or suggested to us by Conrad."17

Marlow's African journey comes around a full circle at the very place from where he set out – the headquarters of the Congo Empire, Brussels. He comments:

I found myself back in the sepulchral city resenting the sight of people hurrying through the streets to filch a little money from each other, to devour their infamous cookery, to gulp their unwholesome beer, to dream their insignificant and silly dreams. They trespassed upon my thoughts. They were intruders whose knowledge of life was to me an irritating pretence, because I felt so sure they could not possibly know the things I knew. Their bearing, which was simply the bearing of common-place individuals going about their business in the assurance of perfect safety, was offensive to me like the outrageous flaunting of folly in the face of a danger it is unable to comprehend. (Conrad, 1996)

Marlow thought that the Kurtz episode, the most vexing experience, was "the culminating point" of his experience. But in Goonetilleke opinion, Marlow's "culminating point" is different from Marlow's own view of the matter; it occurs not during the Kurtz phase, which was the climax of Conrad's entire tale, but in this final scene with Kurtz's Intended. During the Congo journey, Marlow becomes more aware of things but he now sees that illusions are necessary for survival. Of course, the last words Kurtz pronounced, contrary to what Marlow tells the Intended, were not her name but "The horror! The horror!" Presently, "[t]he horror! The horror!" is echoing everywhere in Iraq, and it seems that illusions are necessary for survival of the invaders there as well.

Similar to the hero of ancient epics, Marlow explores the internal world, and, in doing so, "probes the depths of his own and his nation's conscience." 19 He has to clear his way through the bloodshed and cruelty in the wilderness of the Congo to achieve enlightenment. The same notion which controls and explains attitude and behavior is being implemented in the modern day Iraq invasion. Marlow is not a common sailor: He is a spy of the human soul. His encounter with the Dark Continent has a symbolic meaning. It is an encounter with the forces of darkness as embodied in the primitive people of Congo. This darkness is associated with "Marlow's earlier sense of a descent into nightmare, the infancy of the individual psyche with its buried strata." 20

Later, Marlow experiences yet another facet of darkness. When he turns to the wilderness, he states: "I felt an intolerable weight oppressing my breast, the smell of the damp earth, the unseen presence of victorious corruption, the darkness of an impenetrable night" (Conrad, 1996). Marlow makes use of imagery of hell to give a detailed account of the Congo: "I could see every rib, the joints of their limbs were like knots in a rope; each had an iron collar on his neck, and all were connected together with a chain..." (Conrad, 1996). The blacks are in a painful and miserable situation. In Marlow's opinion, they are nothing "but black shadows of disease and starvation, lying confusedly in the greenish gloom" (Conrad, 1996). Is it not similar to the situation we witness daily in Abu-Ghareeb prison in reality in Iraq?

Marlow is horrified to see these people moving slowly towards their end. He feels miserable to know how the well-attired agents of the Belgian Company inflict inhuman cruelty upon the local people whom they employ on the time-contract basis. The simple innocent natives are termed as "criminals" and "enemies". The irony is that it is not only the black people but the whites as well who can be the victims of this inhuman savagery.

In the novel, the word "ivory" (like the word "oil" nowadays in Iraq), "rang in the air, was whispered, was sighed. You would think they were praying to it. A taint of imbecile rapacity blew through it all, like a whiff from some corpse" (Conrad, 1996). That is how the Manager and his gang appear to Marlow's sensitive intelligence. He will arrive at self-knowledge only when he is forced to confront evil both in the person of the Manager (and his like) and Kurtz. Marlow does give the natives their due and is not as biased as he seems to be. The cannibal crew exemplifies the innate control that Marlow regards as the only effective safeguard of civilized behavior. In this, he experiences human mystery that surpasses black and white categorizations. From the time, his journey seems fated. He is destined, as Lillian Feder (Feder, 1955) points out, "by the needs of his own spirit." 21

Actually, it is through his fated meeting with Kurtz that he goes down into the heart of darkness and encounters evil in its human embodiment. He realizes that each of us carries his potential hell within him. Marlow's responses and reactions are conditioned by his racial and national heritage to a large extent. It raises the question whether it is possible to call an individual wrong when he is a unit of a system that is so thoroughly corrupted and corrupting. At its most abstract level, Heart of Darkness can be perceived as a tale about the complexity of comprehending the world beyond the self, about the competence of an individual to judge another.

David M. Martin (Martin, 1974) points out that "without doubt, Marlow is reliving his journey to Kurtz during his visit to Kurtz's Intended."22 Marlow's narrative, as Ian Watt describes it, is essentially:

A self-examining meditation. Heart of Darkness is not... the act of a raconteur; it is the act, rather, of a man who stumbled into the underworld many years ago, and lived to tell its secrets.... Then mysteriously, the right occasion presented itself: a time and a place that supply both the evocative atmosphere, and the stimulus of an audience with whom Marlow has enough identity of language and experience to encourage him to try to come to terms at last with

some of his most urgent and unappeased moral perplexities through the act of sharing them. (Watt, 1979)23. The researchers too consider Marlow's narrative as essentially a self – examine meditation. At the same hour they feel that its high time for Iraqis too to make a self-examination to step out of the deep pitch in which they stumbled years ago.

Throughout the novel, Marlow displays a dual personality. In his observation of the conflict between the manager of the ivory company and Kurtz, the ivory merchant, Marlow is disgusted at the company's brutality and Kurtz's degeneration, though he claims that any thinking man would be tempted into similar behavior. He believes the mind of man is capable of anything. According to George Cheatham (Cheatham,1986), "an important point in Heart of Darkness is not just what Marlow sees at Kurtz's death – evil – but also what he does not see during his interview with the Intended – God, or at least some real and transcendent good to counterbalance the evil."24

The orthodox view is that the plot of Heart of Darkness is "a journey, a death, and a return, with Marlow sharing Kurtz's climacteric vision and returning to civilization with the knowledge gained from the experience" (Watt,1979). 25 To George Cheatham (Cheatham, 1986), however, the orthodox view seems wrong in at least two respects:

First, Marlow makes more than one journey, and, second, the knowledge he gains in the jungle is not final.... On the first journey, in the Congo, Marlow, along with Kurtz, descends into an abyss and sees the evil at the heart of darkness. On the second journey, in the sepulchered city, Marlow again recognizes evil – this time – though, it is the evil at the heart of light.26

The researchers recognize the same evil in the name of inner and outer formation in Iraq, not in fiction, but in fact.

From the way Marlow tells his story, it is obvious that he is extremely critical of imperialism, but his reasons clearly have less to do with what imperialism does to colonized people than with what it does to Europeans. He suggests that the mission of "civilizing" and "enlightening" native people is misguided, not because he believes that they have a viable civilization and culture already, but because they are so savage that the project is overwhelming and hopeless. Marlow expresses horror when he witnesses the violent maltreatment of the natives, and he argues that a kinship exists between black Africans and Europeans, but in the same breath he states that this kinship is extremely distant. Nevertheless, it is not easy to evaluate whether Marlow's attitudes are conservative or progressive, racist or "enlightened."

Curiosity that leads to exploration can also lead, tragically, to a loss of self. Herein lies a socio-political message, a caution against trying to control something that is not originally a part of you, lest it controls you. Expressing oneself in a new environment can mean the loss of one's earlier self. In Cheatham's (Cheatham, 1986) opinion,

[f]aith, belief, love, moral ideas, civilization, even God – all of those things traditionally symbolized by light and upward movement – Marlow finds to be merely illusions, like the 'great and saving illusion' of the Intended's faith. Such illusions are, of course, beautiful. They do veil the darkness. But, like Kurtz, they are hollow; they are lies. And each lie Marlow strips away renders him more conscious of the horror at the heart of human existence – the terrible hollowness which somehow must be filled.27

3. Conclusion

In Heart of Darkness there is a suggestion that the exploited will some day, sooner or later, rise in revolt against the exploitation of the foreign rule.

Long-suffering Iraqis and Congolese are waiting to start a new chapter of stability and peace that will permit the development of their nation's abundant resources. The war is driven by greed, not ideology. The exploitative nations justify their grab for a nation's natural resources by giving their own reasons, which are not convincing. For people who are sensitive towards human rights, Congo and Iraq present a new type of challenge. If an end to the war is not put into effect, these countries will have a terrifying heritage of violence and plunder. Peace will not be their cultural heritage. Still, there are ways the outside world can assist. Karen O' Toole (O'Toole, 2006) believes that "if only the Iraqis would allow themselves to be liberated, then the U.S. and British troops could get on with the urgent (and profitable) task of 'rebuilding' the country."28 Further, she states, "[w]hilst the eyes of the world's press have been fixed on the latest imperial excursion into the Middle East, Africa remains the forgotten continent" (O'Toole,2006).29 Catsam and Ruscino (Catsam and Ruscino,2006) contend "no-one's looking, because no one's inclined to look in such an unlikely place. But it turns out that there's much to learn about how to handle the Iraqi quagmire by looking to Africa – and, of all places, to the Democratic Republic of the Congo."30 Further, they state:

Unlike the Congolese, who lived under a system that had already seen liberation go away, the people of Iraq have an opportunity to develop a society with liberal institutions, where the rule of law governs, and where with democracy will come responsibility for the political classes and masses alike The people of Iraq and the Congo both face a historic opportunity, and one that the rest of the world should welcome. People who have their own property have a vested interest in their economy. People who have political rights have a vested interest in their political system. Having such interests means people have the motivation to maintain the institutions that protect that property and the freedom to run

that economy. Success in Iraq and Congo will come when the new leaders of those countries understand that their service in government is not simply an opportunity to enrich and entrench themselves. Success will come when instead of simply expecting some sort of government assistance; the people develop their own power and their own rights protected by leaders who respect the rule of law. The Congolese have been waiting for nearly half a century; the Iraqis are just beginning. They need patience. So do we. (Catsam and Ruscino, 2006, 31)

War is expensive, both in terms of suffering and of dollars. There is no benefit to ordinary people in prolonging it. The problem is, the longer the war drags on, the deeper both parties entrench themselves, and the harder it will be to terminate the exchange. Even if the Iraq war (or let us assume any war) ends, the defense industry will arrange for substitute wars to take over the task of fleecing the tax-payer, like the many-headed Hydra of the mythology. In the name of pride, invaders refuse to acknowledge that war, in general, is an idiotic concept and they are happy to throw more corpses on the fire to procrastinate acknowledging those who died before, died in vain.

Can oppressed nations like Congo and Iraq hope to conclude this tiresome journey in the near future and set out afresh on a new journey, perhaps one into the Heart of Happiness? The answer to this question remains unknown at the present time. In spite of this, the people of these nations should demand solutions from their leaders and be optimistic, keeping in mind that it is always darkest before the dawn, and that the stars shine out the most brilliantly through dark clouds.

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Vol. 1, No. 1 June 2009

A Research on the Subject Well-being of Regional College Students

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Abstract

In order to explore the subject well-being of regional college students, we have conducted a survey on college students from 5 regional colleges with Index of Subject Well-Being. It is shown that there are obvious differences lying in regional college students' subject well-being at the dimensions of source (urban or rural areas) and gender while there is no obvious difference in major (arts or science).

Keywords: Subject well-being, Life satisfaction, Index of Subject Well-Being, College students, Regional colleges

1. Introduction

In psychology, subject well-being (SWB) mainly refers to one's overall evaluation of his life quality based on his own standard, which serves as an important comprehensive psychological index to measure the basic life quality.

SWB has the following basic features: a. subjectivity--- based on the evaluator's internal standard instead of any standard set by others; b. stability--- mainly measuring long-term emotional reaction and life satisfaction; c. integrity--- a comprehensive evaluation including an evaluation as well as cognitive judgment on emotional reaction.

It is generally accepted that SWB is composed of three parts: life satisfaction, active emotions and passive emotions. Active and passive emotions are separate from each other and are influenced by different factors. That is to say, one's score in active emotions will not necessarily reveal that in passive emotions and vice versa. It is in 1950s that some national researches were conducted abroad about active emotions such as happiness and well-being. In the recent years, the researches on well-being in the west have reached an advanced level and achieved considerable goals. In China, however, it has not been attached importance to yet. Actually, this issue has been of increasing importance in the recent years with the improvement of Chinese people's living standards. Although more attention began to be paid to the researches on happiness and well-being in China in the middle 1980s, it mainly involves old people, leaving others untouched. As one dispensable part of active psychology, SWB deserves particular attention, especially for college students who are in an important period of their development. These young men are energetic, curious but have experienced insufficient hardships. Therefore, college students' psychological health and life quality are attracting more attention. It is of particular theoretical and practical significance to learn about their SWB, to analyze, predict, shape and correct their cognition and behavior as well as to coordinate their psychological problems.

Many factors influence SWB, some of which have mutual influences with SWB. There is no definite conclusion what is the cause or the effect. In spite of the great number of researches in China, most of them are theoretical ones instead of empirical ones, leaving regional college students' subject well-being as a blank field. We conducted such a relevant research in order to reveal SWB of Shandong college students and further analyze the factors influencing their SWB.

2. Object of Study

We randomly chose 1200 college students from 5 regional colleges of Shandong Province and received 926 valid questionnaires. Among those, 497 ones are from male students while 429 are from female ones; 486 are from arts students and 440 are from science students. 517 are from the countryside while 409 from urban areas.

3. Instrument

In my research, Index of Well-Being is employed to measure the degree of the examinees' happiness. This index scale is composed of two parts: an overall emotional index, including 8 items describing the connotation of emotions from different aspects, and a questionnaire of life satisfaction, which includes only one item. Every item is scored with 7 grades. The total score is gained by adding the average of the overall emotional index and that of the life satisfaction questionnaire (weight 1.1).

It turned out that the total ranged from 2.1 (least happy) to 14.7 (most happy) and had favorable validity with its retest reliability of 0.56 (Wang, 1993).

4. Manipulation and Data Processing

The examiner, some teachers majoring in psychology and I, conducted a collective examination in classroom. After some necessary explanations, we distributed and withdrew questionnaires on the spot. All the data was processed with SPSS 11.0.

5. Results

Insert Table 1 here

It is shown in Table 1 that regional college students from different sources display obvious differences in their subject well-being. To be more specific, urban students have slightly higher well-being than rural ones. In addition, obvious differences are also revealed in Item 2 and Item 4. However, both get relatively low scores in Item 5 and 7.

Insert Table 2 here

It is shown that regional college students display obvious differences in their subject well-being at the dimension of gender, with that of female students higher than that of male. In addition, differences also exist in Item 1 and 3. It calls for our attention that both get relatively low scores in Item 5 and 8.

Insert Table 3 here

It is shown in Table 3 that no obvious difference can be found at the dimension of major but in Item 4 and 5 there are still obvious differences. Both get relatively low scores in Item 7 and 8.

5. Discussion

5.1 SWB Differences between Urban and Rural Areas

It can be revealed in our survey that the well-being index of urban college students is obviously higher than that of rural students. Urban students have stronger abilities than rural students in social communication as well as adaptive capability to environment because of, in our opinion, the differences in politics, economy and culture between urban and rural areas. In spite of the rapid development in its economy and culture in the recent years, China's rural areas still lag behind urban areas. Therefore, compared with urban students, who have stayed in a cultural environment quite similar to that of universities, rural students are faced with a totally contrastive environment when they come to university, hence suffering from greater pressure in self-coordination and adaptation.

5.2 SWB Differences in Gender

There are differences in SWB caused by different genders, with that of female students higher than that of male ones. This finding is in conflict with that of Biaobin Yan and Xuezhen Zheng in students from key universities, according to which the gender factor doesn't exert any obvious influence on college students' well-being (Yan, 2003). This may be attributed to higher expectations of the society for male students, which results in a wide gap between their ideal and the reality and, therefore, lower life satisfaction. In Item 1 and 3, female students' scores are obviously greater than that of male students perhaps because of its prematurity. Treating study as their first priority, they will effectively remind themselves of the importance of learning and benefit from it accordingly, including being in the lead, cultivating efficacy and stimulating achievement motivation (Xiao, 2003). A lot of evidences show that a majority of female students concentrate on their study with great enthusiasm, strong life consciousness and solid basic knowledge, hence enjoying greater life satisfaction.

5.3 SWB Differences in Major

There is no obvious difference in college students' SWB caused by different majors. The low scores in Item 7 reveal that some students from all majors have to be buried in their study although they are reluctant to do so. Arts students' lower scores in Item 5 are partly due to a traditional idea that science majors are more practical than arts ones and they require stronger ability of logic, stronger creativity in solving problems and stronger achievement motivation (Zhang, 2002), as well as unscientific teaching and management in which a lot of defects exist in the current examination system. However, in Item 4, arts students are far better than science students perhaps because of more social activities (drama clubs, poem clubs) held in them.

According to this research, regional college students are basically satisfied with their life quality and condition. Some low scores in some individual items, such as in Item 5, reveal their greater attention to the internal value of their life, including accomplishing their goals, improving their learning abilities and improving their morality. Teachers are expected to give students access to the characteristics of their major, their prospect, and their future social value as well as to conduct research teaching. In addition, universities should also create conditions for students' practice relevant to their major in order to help students to combine their value of life with their major learning, hence improving their life quality in university.

6. Conclusion

- (1) Obvious differences are found in regional college students' SWB caused by their different sources, with that of urban college students obviously higher than that of rural students.
- (2) There are obvious differences in SWB caused by different genders, with that of female students higher than that of male ones.
- (3) There is no obvious difference in college students' SWB caused by different majors.
- (4) Regional college students are basically satisfied with their life quality and condition, with low scores in some individual items, such as in the item of "empty-full".

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Table 1. Differences in college students' well-being from different sources (x±s)

Item	Urban areas(n=409)	Rural areas (n=517)	t
1 bored-interested	5.02±1.46	5.38±1.21	1.445
2 painful-happy	4.97±1.16	5.64±1.39	1.973*
3 useless-useful	5.96 ± 0.91	5.49±1.25	0.894
4 lonely -enjoying friends	hip 5.55±1.57	4.62±1.44	2.425*
5 empty-full	4.83 ± 1.36	4.81 ± 1.38	0.836
6 hopeless-hopeful	5.65 ± 1.07	5.53±1.73	0.797
7 depressed-rewarding	4.98±1.19	4.89±1.15	0.798
8 pessimistic-optimisitc	5.18±1.17	5.45±1.17	1.19
Overall emotional index(weight 1) 5.27±1.31		5.21±1.15	1.73
Overall satisfaction(weight 1.1) 5.66±1.20		5.21±1.25	1.88
Well-being index	10.93±1.25	10.42±1.78	2.55**

^{*}P<0 05, **P<0 01, (similarly hereinafter)

Table 2. Gender differences in college students' well-being (x±s)

Item	Male(n=497)	Female (n=429)	t
1 bored-interested	5.02±1.17	5.79±1.61	2.033*
2 painful-happy	5.17±1.25	4.98 ± 1.36	0.896
3 useless-useful	4.96 ± 0.95	5.47 ± 1.05	2.279*
4 lonely -enjoying friendship	5.15±1.55	4.99±1 44	1.255
5 empty-full	4.69±1.69	4.81 ± 1.38	0.837
6 hopeless-hopeful	5.65 ± 1.02	5.59±1.13	0.698
7 depressed-rewarding	5.63±1.18	5.72±1.14	0.748
8 pessimistic-optimistic	4.78 ± 1.14	4.65±1.17	1.49
Overall emotional index(weigh	nt 1) 5.13±1.31	5.25±1.55	1.73
Overall satisfaction(weight 1.1) 5.36±1.20	5.66±1.25	1.88
Well-being index	10.49±1.72	10.91 ± 1.38	2.026*

Table 3. Major differences in college students' well-being (x±s)

Item	Arts(n=486)	Science (n=440)	t	
1 bored-interested	5.25±1.56	5.19±1.41	0.832	
2 painful-happy	5.47 ± 1.26	5.24±1.35	1.377	
3 useless-useful	5.76 ± 0.95	5.65±1.05	0.844	
4 lonely -enjoying friendship	4.57 ± 1.51	5.82±1.41	2.225*	
5 empty-full	5.33±1.39	4.61 ± 1.38	2.496 *	
6 hopeless-hopeful	5.33 ± 1.02	5.23±1.13	0.797	
7 depressed-rewarding	4.88 ± 1.13	4.96±1.15	0.948	
8 pessimistic-optimistic	4.98 ± 1.17	4.85±1.17	1.67	
Overall emotional index(weight 1) 5.22±1.44		5.19 ± 0.97	1.73	
Overall satisfaction(weight 1.1)	5.66±1.21	5.46±1.25	1.88	
Well-being index	10.88±1.76	10.65±1.28	1.45	

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A peer-reviewed journal in psychological studies

International Journal of Psychological Studies

Semiannual

Publisher Canadian Center of Science and Education

Address 4915 Bathurst St. Unit #209-309, Toronto, ON. M2R 1X9

Telephone 1-416-208-4027

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E-mail ijps@ccsenet.org

Website www.ccsenet.org

Printer William Printing Inc.

Price CAD.\$ 20.00

